In this issue:

On the way of Lenin
V. Molotov, M. Kalinin, V. Kuibyshev

on the fourth and final year of the Five Year Plan

Peoples and republics of the USSR

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ON THE WAY OF LENIN

When the Soviet Government first came into power in Russia some people considered the problems put forward by the October Revolution «impracticable», «insoluble», «premature» for such a backward, uncultured country as Russia was. In reply to such critics Lenin wrote:

«If for the creation of socialism a definite level of culture is required (though nobody can tell where this level lies) then why not begin by winning over the revolutionary premises, necessary for this level and then only, on the basis of the workers' and peasants' government start to overtake the other countries. Our adversaries have told us more than once that it was a foolhardy business to try to introduce socialism in a country, which was not cultured enough for that. But they were mistaken in so far as we began not from the point from which, according to the theory of all pedants, we should have, and that the political and social upheaval in this country had preceded the cultural upheaval, that very cultural revolution with which we are now face to face».

By making a scientific analysis of reality, taking into account clearly and soberly all the present forces — both internal and international — Lenin showed that the only possible progress for Russia lay along the path of socialism.

And Lenin proved to be right.

Lenin's foresight, Lenin's general plan of socialist construction in the Land of Soviets was based upon the reality. Lenin's theory threw light on the future path of development of the Soviet State.

The fact that the Five Year Plan is being carried out in four years is proof of the practicability and truth of Lenin's conceptions.

Ten years ago Lenin wrote: «Look at the map of the RSFSR. To the north of Vologda, to the south-east of Rostov-on-Don and Saratov, to the south of Orenburg and Omsk, to the north of Omsk, lie immense areas, where scores of civilised states could be built up. And yet these areas remain patriarchal, half-savage, or even in some places entirely savage».

«Is it possible to pass from this patriarchal regime, this pre-capitalistic order, to socialism?» — asked Lenin. His own answer was:

«Yes, it is possible, but only under one condition, only if electrification is brought in, only if the heavy industries are restored and developed, for these form the basis of socialism».

The Five Year Plan is the fulfilment of Lenin's great prophecies.

Thanks to the achievements of industrialisation and collectivisation, this country, as Lenin has put it, is «leaving the lean peasant horse and mounting the steed of large scale industry».

The Soviet Union has made tremendous progress in the field of electrification for which the general plan was drawn up according to Lenin's directions.
The total capacity of all the power stations in the USSR, by January 1st, 1932, reached 4,050,000 kwts. On January 1st, 1931, it was 2,900,000 kwts. This means that during the year 1931 the total capacity of Soviet power stations has increased by more than 1,000,000 kwts. The plan for 1932 provides for a further increase of 1,500,000 kwts.

Stalin's slogan is that the USSR must become a country of metal. The toilers of the Soviet Union are carrying out the will of Lenin concerning the «development of heavy industry, which is the basis of socialism». During 1931 this country completed the laying of the foundation of the socialist economic system.

The pre-war level of industrial development has been left far behind. Old manufacturing centres have expanded and got stronger; scores of new ones have been and are being created. During the first three years of the Five Year Plan a great number of new factories has been built. To the ever growing network of power stations, stations at Shterev, at Zuevo in the Donbas, at Cheliabinsk and Kiselev etc. have been added.

Millions of small peasant farms have been collectivised. The individual farmer, that symbol of mediaeval backwardness, of patriarchism, and the exhausting, servile agricultural labour, has sunk into the background. This is a victory of worldwide historic importance. It shows the transformation of the Soviet Union into a country with the largest output of agricultural produce in the world. Collectivisation and the elimination of the «kulak» as a class, open up before millions of toiling peasants the way to a new life. Poverty, misery, the eternal fear of starvation — all these have become things of the past.

«It is necessary, — said Lenin in 1922,— that the mass of the peasants should see the link between their hard, utterly miserable, utterly wretched present conditions and the work that is being carried out for the sake of the socialist ideal of the future.

Eight years have passed since Lenin's death. The toilers of the Soviet Union have made this link a concrete one. Socialist ideals are becoming material facts.

The workers, the members of the collective farms, the intelligentsia of the Soviet Union can now say to the world:

«Look at the map of the USSR. The immense territory of the former «prison of peoples» — the Russian Empire — glows with the lights of new industrial constructions. North of Vologda, in Khibin, under the shroud of Polar night, appetites are drawn from the bowels of the earth to enrich the soil of the collective farms. East of Moscow, near Nizhni-Novgorod, rise the buildings of the gigantic new motor-works, and farther to the east, on the ridges of the Urals, the first blast furnaces of Magnitogorsk shine out like beacons of the new metallurgical base of the country. South of Saratov, at the Stalingrad works, 140 tractors leave the conveyer daily, 140 tractors, which, together with the products of the Rostov, Kharkov and Putilov works, help to mechanize the country that was formerly known as «straw Russia».

South of Orenburg and Omsk rises the new industrial Kazakstan—yesterday a backword country of nomads, today the builder of the Turkestan-Siberian Railway, of Karaganda, and other bases of socialist construction. Over 1,000 machine and tractor stations, hundreds of mechanised state farms, new industrial centres, electrification, radio, and aviation — these are the means by which the wilderness that was Russia has been fought and destroyed. This is our new country»
In 1932, the last year of the Five Year Plan, the toiling masses of the USSR have full right to be proud of their country. They may also add, that this country is the only one in the world which ignores unemployment; that following the instructions of Lenin, illiteracy will soon be completely eliminated here; that the importance of the cultural workers is ever on the increase in the USSR. Lenin said that in the Land of Soviets the teachers must be raised to a height, that they could never attain in any other country. His words have come true.

These are the achievements, with which we are entering on the fourth year of the Five Year Plan. But the first Five Year Plan is only the first stage in the carrying out of the great historical task set by Lenin: to overtake and to outstrip those capitalist countries, that were more advanced technically and economically. Lenin foresaw that socialist construction would, even in its first stage, increase tremendously the rate of our development. The USSR has said in the words of Stalin: «From 50 to 100 years divide us from the more advanced countries; we have to cover this distance in 10 years».

The will and energy of the toilers of the USSR has helped them to overthrow the reign of exploitation, violence and fraud. Their will and energy has helped them to complete the laying of the foundation for socialist economics. They will build up a socialist society, thus accomplishing the realization of Lenin’s ideas. Productive force, science, culture will reach in this society heights that no culture of the past could ever aspire to. And from these heights a transformed world will shine for the great family of peoples of the Soviet Union.
From the third, decisive—to the fourth and final

The second session of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR was held in Moscow at the end of December, 1931. The session was mainly devoted to the summing up of the achievements of the first three years of the Five Year Plan and drawing up the controlling figures for the fourth and last year. The opening of this Session was preceded by the sessions of Central Executive Committees of the RSFSR, the Ukrainian, the White-Russian and other republics of the Union.

The session lasted seven days. The following reports were delivered and discussed:

V. N. Molotov, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissaries, and V. V. Kuibyshev, Chairman of the State Planning Commission—on the controlling figures for the national economy of the USSR for 1932.

G. F. Grinko, People's Commissar for Finance of the USSR—on the unified financial plan and State Budget of the USSR for 1932.

S. E. Chutskoyev—report on the same subject on behalf of the Budget Commission attached to the CEC.

K. S. Atabaev—report of the Government of the Turkmenistan Republic. Below will be found material on the principal work of the session.

THE LAND OF ENTHUSIASM

Extract from a speech made by M. I. KALININ at the session of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee.

Besides the quantitatively tremendous scale of socialist construction as witnessed by the controlling figures for 1932, certain social and political, that is to say, qualitative points stand out.

The development of industry in pre-war days went on in a chaotic way, governed as it was by the demands of capitalist economy. Now it has to proceed in an organised fashion, according to plan, and in 1932 even at a greater rate than the last year.

Millions of tons of coal are demanded from Karaganda and the Kuznetzk coalfields, where formerly there was nothing at all. In the Urals, where industries were conducted in the most primitive way, where the immense sources of raw materials were exploited to a negligible extent, blast-furnaces of a size rarely seen have been built. The mass-production of motor cars and tractors is under way in the USSR. Formerly we only repaired tractors and cars, but never made them.

To put the matter in a nutshell, a real revolution is taking place here in the field of industry. The backward, primitive, barbarous methods of production are being replaced by the most up-to-date, based on the latest scientific achievements.

As a result of the immense quantity of labour, energy and enthusiasm put into industrial construction, newer and ever more complicated problems are solved from day to day.

| Total sum of capital investments in national economy | 1931 16,000 mln rbls | 1932 21,000 mln rbls |
In summing up the results of the past year, it is with great satisfaction that we can note that the Soviet Union has made tremendous progress. Not one capitalist country has ever been able to know an annual increase of production of from 20 to 21%.

Many people abroad are surprised and are actually unable to understand where the forces, that are developing production at such a rate in our Union, are drawn from. We know well, however, the nature of those resources of our state. They are really inexhaustible. This can be said without the slightest exaggeration. The will, energy, and enthusiasm of millions and tens of millions of people, who formerly never took part in creative work, are directed on the goal that stands before us. For the first time in history these millions have been given the chance to join in creative work. As a matter of course, they give their energy, their heart and soul, themselves to it.

That is the inexhaustible source of power that is pushing ahead the construction of the Soviet Union, that is what makes up for the individual mistakes, that is what gives us full assurance that the plan for 1932 will be fulfilled and the Five Year Plan completed. That is what the toiling masses want, because they know that the fulfilment of the Five Year Plan means the decisive victory for socialism in our country.

THE FIVE YEAR PLAN TO BE FINISHED IN FOUR YEARS

Extract from a speech made by V. MOLOTOV, chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR at the Session of the Central Executive Committee.

The Five Year Plan for the economic development of the USSR was finally approved in the spring of 1929. That year was also the first year of the carrying out of the Plan.

The working class succeeded in fulfilling the tasks of that first year. This aroused fresh enthusiasm among the masses. This created confidence and we realised that we would be able to complete the Plan not in five, but in four years.

The past year was the third year. It witnessed tremendous new achievements in economic construction.

1. The Five Year Plan in Industry

Already in 1931, the Five Year Plan was completed in some branches of industry. Among the largest branches that fulfilled the Plan in 2½ and 3 years are the oil, electro-technical, tractor and general engineering industries.

It is now possible to sum up the results of that part of the Five Year Plan that has been carried out in three years.

If we take the programme of industrial production for each year, it appears that (according to incomplete figures) during the first year (1929) 105% of the annual programme were completed; in the second year (1930) — 107%; in the third year (1931) — 113%.

It is clear then, even from these incomplete figures, that the industrial production programmes were not only fulfilled, but even exceeded during each of the first three years. This excess rose from year to year (6%, 7%, 13%).

According to the Plan, industrial production in the fifth year of the Plan should have totalled Rbls. 30,155,000,000.
In order to achieve this, it was necessary to secure the growth of production over the previous year, by Rbls. 8,296,000,000, that is to achieve an increase of 34.7% in industrial production. The present plan of industrial production for 1932 provides for an increase of Rbls. 8,503,000,000, that is, 36% over the previous year. This means not only the completion of the tasks of the fifth year of the Five Year Plan (34.7% over 1931), but also an actual excess of the original programme (36%). It also means that the pre-war output of industry will have been quadrupled.

But we are moving even faster in the field of capital construction of industry. If we take the whole sum of capital investments for the first three years (16 billion roubles), and add to it the whole sum of capital investments for 1932 (10.7 billion roubles) — the combined investments in industry for four years will total 26.7 billion roubles. This means that in the matter of capital investments the Five Year Plan is being doubled in four years. In this lies the guarantee of our final victory, of the great future for socialism.

For the sake of contrast one might point to the fact that in 1913 the fixed capital of all the industry of tsarist Russia amounted to only 4,160 million roubles.

A comparison in roubles is, of course, conditional, but even then it must be admitted that the rate of the present capital construction is in no way to be compared with the growth of capital investment in pre-war times.

In the socialised sector of public economy the capital investments for the whole of the five years have been fixed at 47 billion roubles. In connection with the plan for 1932 these investements for four years will exceed 54 billion roubles. Thus we should, according to the scale of capital investments, exceed the Five Year Plan by 16%.

The plan for 1932, in accordance with the main tasks of the Five Year Plan, concentrates its attention on the most important branches of industry — on the iron and steel industry, fuel (especially coal), engineering (first of all, machinery for railway transport).

Industry holds the leading position in public economy. All branches of the later depend for their development on industry, on the production of iron, steel and fuel, on the production of machinery, lathes, looms, and tools.

The mastery of technical methods has a tremendous importance for the fulfilment of the Five Year Plan. Until lately we were greatly dependent in this respect on foreign countries. But during the last few years the situation has begun to change noticeably. Now we have entirely freed ourselves in many important branches of industry of our technical dependence on the capitalist countries. The construction of tractors and «bloomings» has shown what progress we have made in the mastery of technical methods.

2. The Five Year Plan in Agriculture

In the course of the three years of the Five Year Plan we have accomplished a revolution in the production of agricultural machinery. This has advanced tremendously since the stage of production of the old machines destined for the small separate farms. The construction of agricultural ma-

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Capital investments in industry (the socialist sector)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1931 8,200 mln rbls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932 10,700 mln rbls</td>
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</table>
chinery has been placed on a higher average level than that prevailing in capitalist countries. In 1932 agriculture should get more than a million horse-power from the new tractors that are all being turned out of our own tractor works - «Krassny Putilovets», Stalingrad, Kharkov. In addition agricultural machinery to the value of Rbls. 900,000,000 is to be produced. It will consist chiefly of harvesters for grain crops, cotton, beetroot, flax, potatoes and so on. These are badly needed in agriculture.

A prominent place in the reconstruction of agriculture is occupied by the machine-and-tractor stations. In the course of the last three years these stations — known as MTS — have become more and more popular and indispensable to the collective farms.

At the end of the third year we have already 1,400 MTS, and in 1932 it is expected to organise another 1,700. Thus, by the end of the fourth year we shall have 3,100 MTS.

The example of the MTS is being followed in new branches, for instance, last year about 200 hay-mowing machine stations were founded.

Very good results were obtained on collective market-dairy farms created with government assistance.

How is the slogan of «Let’s Finish the Five Year Plan in Four Years» being carried out in agriculture itself? It is, of course, well-known, that as regards collectivisation we have long ago exceeded the tasks of the last year of the Plan. According to the latter, 20% of the peasant farms should have been collectivised by the fifth year. Now at the end of the third year we have more than 60% of collectivised farms. The programme of the Five Year Plan in this field has been completed and trebled in the third year. In the most important grain districts collectivisation is practically complete. There is no doubt that 1932 will see the completion of collectivisation throughout the USSR.

The Soviet farms have also exceeded the Five Year Plan. The grain and stock farms, and also the Soviet farms where industrial crops are being raised, have grown with extraordinary rapidity. The Soviet farms have played an important part in the field of collectivisation as the first organisers of large-scale socialist agriculture.

The grain problem, thanks to the progress made in collective-farm organisation, has been practically solved in the USSR. On the other hand the plan respecting the area given over to industrial crops will be exceeded in the fourth year (133%). This means that in the creation of a raw materials’ base for our industries we shall have made much greater progress by the fourth year than was demanded by the whole Five Year Plan.

From the foregoing it is clear that in agriculture, as in industry the USSR is not only fulfilling, but actually exceeding the tasks set by the Five Year Plan, and that the economic plan for 1932 is evidence of the fulfilment of the Five Year Plan, not in five, but in four years.

3. The Five Year Plan for the improvement of working and living conditions

The general condition of the working masses of the USSR has attained in these four years a much higher level than that provided for by the Five Year Plan.

According to the Plan we expected to have by the fifth year 15,800,000 workers. At the end of last year, however, we had 3,000,000 more workers and employees, their number being 18,700,000. The controlling figures for 1932 allow for a further
Annual appropriation for wages for the workers and employees of all branches of national economy, and cultural construction work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Appropriation (mln rbls)</th>
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<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>21,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932</td>
<td>26,800</td>
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growth in the number of workers and employees — to 21,000,000. This will mean that the Plan will be completed and exceeded (133%) in four years.

It was calculated that there would be 4,000,000 workers in industry by the last year of the Plan. By the end of the third year we had 5,400,000. By the fourth year this figure will mount to 6,200,000. It follows then that in the matter of training industrial workers we shall be exceeding the plan by 52%.

This will mean that the most important social foundation of the Soviet Union — the working-class — is growing rapidly. Every year the part played by the working-class is growing throughout the country. In order to describe the condition of the workers and employees in the USSR and the improvement in their standard of living I shall emphasize three points: wages, social insurance and the working day. In all these fields we can note a considerable excess over the Five Year Plan.

The total appropriation for wages for the last year of the Plan was calculated at 15.7 billion roubles. Already last year this appropriation was increased to 21.1 billion. According to the plan for 1932 it will rise to 26.8 billion. Consequently, the Five Year Plan in respect to wages is being fulfilled in four years with an excess of 71%. These figures speak for themselves.

The budget for social insurance was fixed at Rbls. 1,950,000,000 for the last year of the Plan. Last year it rose to Rbls. 2,500,000,000 — that is to say, we have already in the third year exceeded the Plan for social insurance. Next year the budget for social insurance will be increased to Rbls. 3,490,000,000, that is, the budget for the fifth year will be almost doubled in the fourth year.

The Plan allowed for the introduction of the 7-hour working day in the fifth year. Actually, we have moved on much more rapidly and already in the fourth year we are going to complete the introduction of the 7-hour day throughout all industries.

At last we come to house-building and public utilities.

A big advance was made in this field last year in the Red Capital — Moscow. As is well-known, a great deal of work in the construction of houses and public utilities is being begun not only in Moscow, but in Leningrad and other industrial districts this year.

There is no doubt that this big move in municipal economy and house-building will bring about a great improvement in the living conditions of the toilers.

There is no need to prove here that in the village the material welfare of the working peasants is improving at an unheard-of rate. Collectivisation and the wiping out of kulaks as a class has opened new possibilities for the mass of poor and middle peasants. Thanks to this the great masses of toiling peasants have been raised, for the first time in history, from poverty and ignorance. The very contradictions between the town and the village are being done away with.

Total outlay on the cultural and social requirements of the population (education, training of specialists, science, health service, social provision, labor protection, social insurance relief)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Outlay (mln rbls)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>6,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932</td>
<td>9,200</td>
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NEW SOVIET SPECIALISTS

Extract from a speech made by V. KUIBYSHEV, Chairman of the State Planning Committee, at the session of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR

By the end of 1931, 226,000 engineers and technicians with special qualifications and education were taking part in construction work in the USSR. If we include practical engineers and technicians without university degrees, the total rises to 600,000 as compared with 300,000 in 1929. This includes only those who are members of special engineers and technicians trade union organisations. It follows that in two years the number of engineers and practical technicians has been doubled.

In 1932, the training of future engineers etc. will be increased. For instance, in 1932 257,600 (139% of the 1931 figures) will be admitted to the universities, 591,000 (155%) to the technical schools; 358,000 (196%) to the workers' universities, and 1,036,000 (144%) to the factory and works' schools.

The technical schools will turn out 175,000 technicians, more than twice as many as in 1931. The workers' universities turn out 121,000, 80% more than last year. From the factory and works' schools 364,000 young skilled workers will graduate, that is, four times more than in 1931.

By the end of 1932, there will be about 4,000,000 students altogether in the universities, technical schools, workers' universities and factory schools as compared with 2,700,000 in 1931.

An extraordinary phenomenon can now be observed in the Soviet Union. Industrial, transport and agricultural workers while carrying out their ordinary, immediate work, study the scientific, technical and theoretical side of the production processes. A new type of worker is being evolved. He possesses not only practical skill, but is to a certain extent a technician and even an engineer.

Capitalism divorced science from the worker. According to Marx, this was one of the laws of capitalist production.

Socialism is creating a new type of humanity. This is one of the signs of the times, of the development of our country.

THE INTERNATIONAL SITUATION AND OUR STRUGGLE FOR PEACE

Extract from a speech made by V. M. MOLOTOV at the session of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR

The relations between the USSR and the capitalist countries have undergone no change during the period under review.

In the case of those countries with which the Soviet Union had formerly normal or friendly relations, these have been fully maintained up to now. The Soviet Government endeavours to strengthen still further these relations founded on firmly established principles of Soviet policy. In the case of countries with which our relations seemed to us unsatisfactory, the So-
The acute economic crisis makes the contradictions between the imperialist countries all the sharper, and, on account of the sharpening of the class struggle, makes their internal situation still worse. The economic struggle has turned, in connection with the introduction of all forms of protectionism and super-protectionism, into a real economic war between individual capitalist states. Another step, and the struggle for the markets becomes an imperialist war. The danger of new imperialist military "adventures" is growing.

The USSR in particular must take into account the danger of a new imperialist attack. We are fully aware that at the present time the question of an armed attack on our Union is the subject of most lively discussion in certain diplomatic cabinets. It must not be forgotten that many of the organisers of the former "intervention" in the USSR are still alive, and working hand in hand with the new representatives of imperialism in the preparation of an attack on the Workers' Republic.

In connection with events in Manchuria more than one attempt to draw the USSR into an armed conflict has been unmasked both in ours and the foreign press, including bourgeois newspapers. The instigators of a new war, who belong to the imperialist camp, have more than once tried to draw the USSR into a war, and have been busy organising an armed attack on our state. We must be ready to resist this provocation.

Our reply to this is a consistent policy of peace, an increased watchfulness, the growth of socialist construction and, above all, the resolution to complete the Five Year Plan in 1932.

In our country creative work is going full steam ahead, a tremendous scheme of construction is being carried out, socialism is being built up. In this we see the strengthening of our position both at home and abroad. The successful carrying out of the economic plan, the completion of the Five Year Plan in four years, the developing of the struggle for socialism is our best reply to the class enemy. Our task is to support and strengthen the cause of general peace, and international socialism, to secure the victory of the working class.

The views of social insurance of the workers and employees

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>MLN Rbls</th>
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<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932</td>
<td>3,490</td>
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Annual budget of social insurance of the workers and employees
THE CULTURAL CONSTRUCTION OF THE RSFSR IN 1932

Extract from the report made by D. SULIMOV, chairman of the Council of People's Commissars, at the Session of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee

D. Sulimov delivers his report at the Session.

1. The Abolition of Illiteracy

In this sphere the programme marked out by the Five Year Plan has been exceeded long since. In 1929, 1,500,000 received instruction, in 1930 — 5,500,000 and in 1931 — 10,500,000. 1931 was, in fact, the decisive year in the campaign against illiteracy. In 1932 the controlling figures foresee the wiping-out of illiteracy among 3,800,000 people. These are the last illiterates in the RSFSR.

A new task has arisen in this connection: the raising of the standard of literacy. In 1932 the number of those trying to improve their scanty education will increase 1 1/2 times, from 6,700,000 in 1931 to 10,300,000 in 1932.

2. The Introduction of a Seven-Year Course of Compulsory Education

Another victory in the educational field is the introduction of general compulsory elementary education. In 1931 all children from 8 to 11 years of age were admitted into schools.

In 1931 the economic growth of the country allowed of the realisation of the most important part of the communist education of the young — the introduction of the polytechnic system in schools.

The introduction of seven-year courses of compulsory education in 1932 marks a significant step towards the raising of the standard of education in this country. 2,969,000 pupils, as compared with 1,879,000 last year, will be admitted to the new schools.

It should be noted that the compulsory seven-year course has already in 1931 been introduced in a number of towns and industrial districts.

3. Technical Schools and Colleges

In 1931 the number of pupils in the schools of factory and works apprenticeship was 152,000; in 1932 it will rise to 293,000. In 1931 there were 76,000 students in the workers' universities and in
1932 there will be 155,000. 323,000 students were admitted to the technical schools in 1931, and in 1932—473,000 will be admitted. These figures refer only to the schools which are directly under the authority of the RSFSR. If we take all the other technical schools in the RSFSR, including those established by the government of the USSR, the number of students rises to 491,000. In 1932, 700,000 will be admitted. There were 83,000 students in the colleges of the RSFSR in 1931 and in 1932 there will be 136,000. If again we take all the colleges situated on the territory of the RSFSR (including the central colleges of the Soviet Union) the number of students in 1931 was 246,000 and in 1932 it is expected to increase to 365,000. The number of university students in the Soviet Union in 1932 will be 365,000 or 32 to every 10,000 of the population. This means that the Soviet Union will be ahead of Germany, which has 14 to every 10,000, England which has 18 to every 10,000 and France with 8.6 to every 10,000.

About 75% of the students in the Soviet colleges in 1932 will consist of workers and peasants. All the students are supported by the state. Hundreds of millions of roubles are expended on this annually.

The expenditure on education will be increased enormously in 1932. In the RSFSR alone this will be 2.5 billions of roubles.

The increase in the scale of teachers’ salaries for 1932 varies from 25% to 30%.

SEVEN YEARS OF SOVIET TURKMENISTAN

By N. Aitakov

The course followed by the Turkmenistan Republic during the seven years of its existence bears witness to the fruitfulness of the national policy of the Soviet Government. The achievements of socialist construction in this republic show that in the Soviet Union a backward people, who missed or almost missed the capitalist stage of development, can pass straight on to the construction of socialism with the help of the more advanced nations and republics of the USSR.

What are the achievements in economic, national, and cultural construction in Soviet Turkmenistan?

Soon after the formation of the republic a reform of land and irrigation laws was carried out. This had a tremendous influence on the further development of Turkmenistan. It brought about radical changes in social and agricultural relations. This is of primary importance in conditions like those of Turkmenistan.

Extraordinary successes have been achieved here in reconstruction of the technical side of agriculture. The Turkmen peasant — the dekkan — knew nothing about modern agricultural implements before the Revolution and used the primitive sokh or wooden plough. At present the tractor, modern plough, cultivator, etc., are widely used in the fields of Turkmenistan. In 1931, 17 machine-tracto-tractor stations, and tractor columns, comprising 711 trac- tors, were operating in these fields. The year (1932), the number of tractors will be almost doubled.

The reforms in land and irrigation laws and technical achievements have aided in the socialist reconstruction and raising of the level of the backward agriculture of Turkmenistan. At the present moment 62% of the poor and «srednyak» (middle peasants, who are neither poverty-stricken nor «kulaks») farms are united in collective farms.

What are the victories to show in the front for the independence of the USSR in cotton? During the seven years of its existence Soviet Turkmenistan has attained the stage when cotton-growing has become the main branch of agriculture in the Republic. Between 1925 and 1931, the area under cotton increased from 62,860 to 187,560 hectares — that is, has been trebled.

This growth is accounted for by the development of the new irrigation works and the crowding out of the less profitable crops, such as grain.

Another large branch of Turkmen agriculture is sericulture. Silk is extremely important as an article of export and as raw material for the textile industry. Sericulture is now five times more developed than it was before the war.

The climate of Turkmenistan is very favourable for the development, along
with cotton, of a number of other industrial crops: oil and rubber-bearing plants, plants yielding volatile oils, plants used in the dyeing and tanning industries, etc. Experiments in the cultivation of the Mexican guayule have borne excellent results.

Before the October Revolution Turkmenistan had no industries or skilled workers of its own. The Soviet Government had to create industries there. On the base of local raw materials, great silk-filatures and textile mills, equipped with the latest machinery, were set up in Ashabad and Chardjui.

Turkmenistan possesses huge deposits of useful minerals and chemicals, and has, therefore, excellent prospects of developing these industries. Certain branches, such as the sulphur, sulphate, oil, ozokerite, viterite etc., will take an important place in the economics of the USSR.

In the course of seven years the gross output of the Turkmenistan industry has increased to 500%. The number of skilled workers has increased just as rapidly. 35,300 workers are engaged in the industries and transport of Turkmenistan; out of these 30.3% are of the Turkmen nationality.

Great progress has been made in cultural construction. As a result of a correct national policy the people of Turkmenistan, once illiterate, have now been enabled to create their own culture, which is national in form and socialist in content. There is now an extensive system of schools, high technical schools, colleges, etc. in Turkmenistan. The republic has its own State publishing-house, its own theatres and cinemas. In 1931, the percentage of the population able to read and write rose to 35%. There are 4 central, and 9 district newspapers and 5 magazines published in the native language.

In the auli or village—doctors, cli-

Azgul Razbayeva, delegate of the Turkmen collective farmers at the Session of the C. E. C. of the USSR
tion, in so far as the existing line is insufficient to satisfy the growing econo-
mic and cultural demands of the Republic.

The most important problem for national and cultural construction in Turkme-
nistan is the further introduction of native officials and skilled workers into the government and industries. The national minori-
ties, such as the Baluchis, Gunshids, Berbers, Kurds, and other immigrants from borde-
ring countries are to be proportionately represented. During the coming year the system of compulsory education will be extended throughout the country. Illiteracy among the adult population will be abolished this year. In all schools and courses the teaching will be conducted in the native language.

Such are the results and the prospects for the construction of socialism in the Soviet Republic of Turkmenistan.

THE FIVE YEAR PLAN IN THE SOVIET UKRAINE

The Ukraine has immense achievements to show in every field of socialist con-
struction to-day, on the threshold of the fourth year of the Five Year Plan.

Among the new giants of socialist indus-
try that came into line in 1931, one of the foremost places is held by Kharkov tractor works, which will produce 50,000 tractors a year. The production of other large agricultural machinery which is to revolutionise agriculture is going on apace.

The first «Blooming» produced in the USSR has been set up in the Makeyev works. The Zuyev power-station, which has a capacity of 306,000 kilowatts, has been put in operation, and the Shterovka power-station has begun to work at full speed.

The total output of the Ukrainian indus-
tries has increased by 20.8% in 1931. This growth includes not only the heavy industries, but also some of the light industries.

Along with the progress of socialist industry, big improvements in the field of agriculture and rural economy must be noted. The collectivisation of the most important districts of the Ukraine can be regarded as practically complete.

Collective farms embrace 72.4% of the total cultivated area, 69.3% of the total number of farms and 61% of the working cattle.

At the same time the Soviet farms have grown and become much stronger. They now cover up to 3,200,000 hectares. The number of machine-and-tractor stations has reached 330.

The cultural development of the country does not lag behind its economic growth. More than 3,000,000 children are receiving an elementary education this year. The number of pupils in the factory and works schools has risen from 118,000 in 1930 to 241,000 in 1931. In the colleges, technical schools and workers' universi-
ties of the Ukraine 352,000 Soviet special-
ists are being trained.

There are three main problems the so-
lution of which is provided in the economic plan for 1932. The first is the problem of iron and steel. Three large iron and steel works must be put into operation in the coming year: «Asovstal», «Dniepropstal», and the Krivoy Rog works. The problem of the coal industry is no less important. According to the plan for 1932, 6 gigantic pits with a total output of 6,100,000 tons of coal must be put into operation; in addition, 10 old pits must undergo complete reconstruction, and their output will then rise to 4,500,000 tons. In 1932, 421 kilo-
meters of new railways will be built, and more than 400 kilometres of the existing railways will be electrified. Sea transport is being developed to a considerable extent.

In 1932 the Dniepr power station will start work. Capital investments in the Dnie-
provsk Industrial Combine will amount to about Rbls. 300,000,000 in 1932.

The plan for agriculture provides for the completion of the collectivisation. 215 new machine-and-tractor stations will begin to operate. The total cultivated area of the Ukraine will be increased to 30,200,000 hectares.

Special attention will be paid to prob-
lems of collectivisation and cattle-
breeding. The plan provides for a 50% increase in swine.

The question of improving the living conditions of Ukrainian toilers, occupies no small place in the plan of 1932. A num-
ber of measures will be taken with regard to the building of houses, water supply, transport etc. Investments of capital into the industries belonging to the system of the People's Commissariat for Supplies, will be considerably increased.
BIG ADVANCE IN THE SOVIET FAR EAST

Extract from the report made at the Session of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee by A. I. Butsenko, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Soviet Far-Eastern Region

Formerly the Far Eastern Provinces were chiefly notable as places to which exiles and those committed to hard labour were sent, where cruel exploitation and oppression of national minorities was the rule. During the foreign intervention a great deal of destruction was wrought here and the country got into a bad state.

Only after it became Soviet was it possible to begin economic and cultural reconstruction.

Its natural resources make the Soviet Far East one of the most important regions of the USSR. The deposits of coal there are estimated at 2,100,000,000 tons. Its forests cover an area of 78,900,000 hectares. Its oil deposits total 280,000,000 tons; the deposits of iron are amount to no less than 525,000,000 tons. Zinc, copper, gold and other valuable metals can be found there.

There are only two million people in the Soviet Far East. The problem of population in this region is a very urgent one. As things are at present, it is populated by more than 100 different nationalities.

The majority of the farms favour collectivisation. 90 per cent of the farms belonging to the Koreans and Chinese have been collectivised.

80 per cent of the land under crops is being cultivated by the collective farmers.

The area of cultivated land is increasing from year to year. In 1931, 968,000 hectares were sown, and in 1932 it is expected to increase this area to 1,200,000 hectares.

In 1931, 20 machine-and-tractor stations were at work in the fields of the Far East. 25 additional stations will be organised in 1932. Combines and other complex agricultural machinery are already being used in those parts.

The output of timber increased from 675,000 cubic metres in 1923 to 5,000,000 c. m. in 1931.

The fishing industry has been reconstructed on new lines, and more than 20 canning factories have been built.

The coal industry has virtually been recreated, after the destruction that was wrought during the intervention period. At present more than 1,800,000 tons of coal are produced annually.

87 big factories have been built. In the Far North more than 30 factories have been built, including 3 very large ones equipped with the latest machinery.

Cultural and social construction is developing at a tremendous rate. By 1931 the number of people able to read and write had risen to 76 per cent. Educational work is being carried out first of all among the national minorities.

95 per cent of the children of school age have been admitted to the schools already. 44 technical schools have been opened, 9 higher technical schools, 2 universities, 11 scientific research institutes, and 26 scientific stations. The Soviet Government has built 24 schools for the national minorities.

3 national territories, over 29 national districts (Korean, Ukrainian and native), and 234 native village soviets have been founded there. The Chinese and Korean scripts are now being latinised. The national minorities are being trained in special technical schools, of which there are eight, including Chinese, Korean, Ukrainian and Jewish. In 1932 it is intended to open a higher technical school for the native population.

32,000 Koreans and 18,000 Chinese are learning to read and write their own language.

In the Far North 4 education-bases, 4 culture-yurts and hundreds of other cultural and social institutions (schools, hospitals and clubs) have been opened.
In 1928, Europe, without the Soviet Union, had a population of 372,000,000, with an annual increase of 3,200,000, while the Soviet Union alone, with a population of 152,000,000, had a natural increase of 3,600,000.

It appears, then, that the Soviet Union has a greater annual increase than the rest of Europe, although the latter has twice as great a population as the USSR.

The population of the USSR increased between Jan. 1st 1924 to Jan. 1st 1931, from 137,000,000 to 161,000,000. The rate of growth of population therefore greatly exceeds that of pre-revolutionary Russia (10.9 to 1.000 in 1911—1913 and 22 in 1927—1929).

This tremendous increase is explained by the considerable drop in mortality, especially infant. This in itself is ample proof of the effectiveness of the economic and cultural construction in the USSR.

In no other country is such a sudden drop in mortality to be observed as in this country. In 1927—1929, in comparison with 1911—1913, the drop in mortality was as follows: USSR — 30.8%, Germany — 19.3%, Italy — 13.5%, England — 9.4%, France — 6.8%, etc.

The tremendous growth in the urban population of the USSR should next be noted.

Migration from the villages to the towns was as follows: from 1897 until 1914, 300,000 persons a year on an average; from 1923 to 1926—1,100,000 persons and from 1926 to 1931—1,500,000. In 1930—1931 migration from the villages to the towns reached an extent unprecedented in the history of any Western European country or of the United States. This migration averaged 25,000,000 persons a year.

What is the reason for this tremendous development of the towns?

There is, first of all, the industrialisation of the country, chiefly through the growth of the heavy industries on the lines laid down by the Five Year Plan for so-

cialist construction. Hundreds and thousands of gigantic new works and factories are drawing millions of men and women from the country to the towns.

Along with the considerable increase in the number of those engaged in useful work, the figures for unproductive population show a marked decline. They fluctuate from 1.6 percent of the total active population in partially industrial and non-industrial towns to 0.2 percent of the population of Moscow.

The number and proportion of workers is increasing, while the number of home craftsmen is decreasing.

The increase is particularly noticeable in the heavy industries and the building trade. Though the total number of employees is increasing, the proportion is decreasing; both the proportion and number of domestic servants are also falling.

The number of those attending schools and colleges and receiving a government stipend has lately increased ninefold.

The absolute number of those receiving pensions has also increased, but not the proportion.

Along with the absence of unemployment and the rapid growth of the industrial proletariat we observe an almost complete disappearance of the idle element.

The above figures reflect what is extremely characteristic of socialist economics—the mass training of skilled workers and the care of those who are prevented either by old age or sickness from carrying on their work.

In the country similar processes go on at a still greater rate.

The Soviet Union, formerly a wilderness of poverty-stricken peasant farms, is being turned into a modern country of farming on a large scale according to up-to-date methods.

The collectivisation of agriculture together with industrialisation was the only satisfactory way of settling the problem of overpopulation. The producing capacity of the collective farms has been raised greatly since the introduction of machinery and rationalised methods and this has naturally increased the supply of labour.
for industries. Under the socialist system it is possible to substitute the uncontrolled influx of peasants to the towns by a regular supply of labour.

These few facts will be sufficient to give an idea of the great social advance made in the Soviet Union. This social progress is determined by the success of socialist

SYSTEM OF WAGES IN THE USSR

By A. Kuznetsov

The new system of pay-rates in the Soviet Union is based on the following principles: 1) at the present stage of socialist construction wages form one of the most important factors determining the material welfare of the working class; 2) in Soviet conditions wages form the most important factor in the organisation of labour in industry, in so far as it stimulates the raising of labour efficiency, the quality of production and also the raising of the level of skill amongst the workers.

It was, therefore, regarded as necessary to build up a new schedule of wage-rates which would take into consideration the difference between skilled and non-skilled labour, between heavy and light work (J. Stalin).

The schedule had to be such as would exclude all possibility of equality in wages. The difference between skilled and unskilled labour had to be sufficiently well-marked as to provide an incentive for the workers to raise their standard of work, so that the unskilled worker might have an interest in obtaining a place in the ranks of the skilled. The new wage-rates give every worker a chance of being rewarded according to the results of his labour.

A schedule of rates is set up in the factories for regulating the workers’ wages. The scale of the new rates, established in each branch of industry, is such that the number of grades is reduced to a possible minimum, while the differences between the rates are very marked. In the iron and steel industries, for instance, the rates are graded in eight categories, and the extreme ratios are 1 : 3.7 instead of, as formerly, 1 : 2.8.

The division of trades according to the categories of these rates guarantees high-

er wages to a highly-skilled worker following some particular trade, and also to workers engaged in heavy or exhausting work, or those working in conditions dangerous to health. Wages are fixed according to the rates applied in the USSR and the list of trades.

Conditions of work are taken into consideration when fixing the rate of wages. Workers with equal qualifications, working under different conditions are paid accordingly, since the amount of labour or effort required varies. The new system was worked out by the Trade Unions together with the economic organisations. The workers, engineers and technical staff took an active part in fixing the rates and the standards of skill.

The main systems used in the USSR are the piece-rate system and time-work. According to the latter, the worker is paid by the hours he works. Piece-work is divided into direct and progressive, which is connected with bonuses. Let us pause for a moment to consider this system.

Under Soviet conditions piece-work gives, on scientific and technical grounds, results that could never be obtained under the capitalist system. While the working day is reduced to 7 and even 6 hours, experience has shown that piece-work leads to the regular improvement of the welfare of the working-class. This system increases efficiency, increases the rate at which socialist construction is going on, and in this way ensures the further improvement of the living conditions of all toilers in the USSR.

The piece-rate system expresses the relation between the working class constituted into a government, and individual workers or groups of workers and at the same time it expresses the real socialist principle of pay according to work.
«With the exception of the amount of labour that goes into the social pool, every worker receives from society as much as he gave it...» — «An equal share of product for an equal amount of work». — Thus Lenin described the relations between society and individual workers under socialist conditions.

The introduction of the piece-rate system is preceded by a tremendous amount of work in technical standardization, which is the principal level in the rational organization of labour, the correct order and employment of labour and the thorough study of technological processes. At the present time the question of technical standardization is attracting a great deal of attention in the USSR.

The wage-rate for piece-work is established on the basis of technical standardization. In this way, the piece-rate system is introduced into all phases of work, where exact regulation and calculation can be used. The worker's wages depend, therefore, entirely on the skill and quality of his work. He receives just as much as he can make in the course of the fixed working day, that is, he is paid on the results of his labour. Thus equality of wages disappears.

Workers who are not high-skilled and who being put on to piece-work, prove unable to earn the wage-rate fixed, by the labour laws, receive pay according to the work they do, but not less than \( \frac{2}{3} \) of the rate.

In «direct» piece-work the coefficient is calculated in each case by dividing the wage-rate by the fixed amount of work required, and wages are determined by multiplying the coefficient by the actual work done.

Let us suppose that the monthly wage-rate of a given worker equals 100 units and the monthly amount of work required equals 50 units of production. If we divide 100 by 50 we have the pay-rate for one unit of production, in this case—2; by multiplying the figure 2 by the figure indicating the actual amount of production, we get the wages.

In work requiring a great deal of labour, and also in mass production, where the worker can develop a maximum technical productivity of labour, and take full advantage of mechanical equipment, the «progressive» piece-rate system is being introduced.

Progressive wages are based on the idea that the worker who produces more articles than the fixed amount, should be paid higher wages. Higher wages are paid either for all the work done, or for that part of the production only, which is over and above the minimum.

This naturally serves as a stimulus for raising efficiency of labour.

In the case of the progressive system, the worker is interested in producing as much as possible in a given unit of time. By making this system widespread among all the workers on basic operations, the industry is able to increase its output per shift, per month, and so on, without altering the equipment and other technical conditions.

In this case the self-costs to the factory on units of ready-made production can be reduced, and this reduction is in proportion to the output. This represents a saving, part of which is given the worker in the form of a progressive bonus.

As experience has shown, with the increase in production over and above the plan, the worker's wage rises sharply and with the attainment of the maximum output, wages are increased by 50%.

Thus, piece-work, both direct and progressive, proves to be the most effective and stimulating system of payment, an incentive to increased productivity, to the raising of the worker's skill and of his wages.

In Soviet industries the piece-rate system is the main one. Time-work, that is, payment for the period of time spent on the work, regardless of the results, is only applied in cases of work that cannot be calculated, and of particularly responsible tasks, or where great accuracy is required or extreme attentiveness on the part of the worker is demanded.

Under this system bonuses are awarded on the following principles:

1) Time-saving.
2) Reduction of time when machinery is idle.
3) Reduction of waste-production.
4) High quality of work and its completion within the given time.
5) The fulfilment of the production plan, etc.

Workers paid on the time-system, are awarded bonuses for definite achievements along the lines laid down above. These bonuses are paid out of the savings effected by these achievements.

The Supreme Council of National economy (VSNH) and the All-Union Central Council of Trade-Unions (VZS'PS) issued.
in the autumn of 1930, a special order, based on the above principles — the fixing of wages on the results of work, the placing of workers of the leading trades in special categories, and the application of a «stimulating» system of wages. This order concerned the leading branches of industry, — iron, steel and coal.

According to this order, all the workers in the iron and steel works and all workers in the principal branches of coal-mining are being put on a progressive piece-work basis. Not less than 70% of the workers in the auxiliary iron and steel workshops, 90% of all underground workers and 53% of surface workers in the coal industry are being transferred to «direct» piece-work.

For individual workers in these branches of industry who are not put on piece-work, the time-and-bonus system has been introduced, and a bonus fund established.

From October 1st, 1931, the rate of wages for piece-work in the iron and steel industries and for workers engaged in loading and unloading, has been raised in case of the 100% fulfilment of the plan.

In the southern iron and steel works and the main industries of the Urals the increase ranges from 25% to 100%.

A corresponding rise in wages has been introduced in other branches of the iron and steel industries.

In the case of the complete fulfilment of the monthly plan, underground workers are to get an addition to their wages, a bonus of 10—25%.

The engineers and technical staff of the principal iron and steel departments will receive a bonus of 60% of their salary, in case of the 100% fulfilment of the plan.

In the coal industry the engineers and technical staff will receive a bonus equal to 50% of the quarterly salary for the fulfilment of the quarterly plan, and up to 100% of the quarterly salary for excess of the plan.

Similar measures are being put into force in other branches of industry and trade.

This is a general outline of the new system of payment of industrial workers and of the policy of the Soviet Government with regard to wages.

A shock brigade of young carpenters working according to business methods.
The food industries, which are closely connected with agriculture, were in an extremely backward condition in pre-revolutionary Russia. The structure and technical equipment of the meat, fish, canning and vegetable industries was extremely primitive.

It is natural that even now the working up of meat, fish and vegetable products should be based to a considerable extent on small and technically imperfect industries remaining to the Soviet system from tsarist days. Now the rapid economic development of the country is bringing in its train the creation of powerful food industries, chiefly those of meat and canning.

«Up to now we have been economising in every direction, including light industries, in order to set the heavy industries on their feet. But this has already been accomplished. It is now only necessary to develop them further. The important fact is that we are now in a position to develop both light and heavy industries at a greater rate» (Stalin). The development of the light industries, and in particular, the radical reconstruction of the food industries is demanded by the new conditions of socialistic construction. The rapid increase of the population of the towns, the uninterrupted improvement of the material and cultural condition of the toilers, particularly with regard to food,—all this makes the reconstruction of the food industries imperative.

The supply of raw material for the meat industry of the USSR is already organised. The problem of stock-raising has been solved in a socialistic manner. The «Sko-tovod» («Cattle-rearings») Trust has under its control 220 state farms with a herd of 1,850,000 heads of large horned cattle. The «Svinovod» («Pig-breeding») Trust has 482 farms with a herd of 750,000 pigs (370,000 of these are sows). The «Ovtse-vod» («Sheep-rearings» Trust) has 131 farms with a herd of 4,215,000 sheep.

The share of large horned cattle on Soviet farms has been doubled since last year. The collectivisation of the herds, the trade collective farms and the activities of the cooperatives are all steps in the same direction.

Therefore, the most urgent task of the newly created People's Commissariat of Supplies is to reconstruct the meat industry.

This Commissariat is engaged in the extension and improvement of the industries in operation, in raising the level of sanitation, building separate departments for the utilisation of by-products, etc.

Next comes the construction of new meat enterprises on the most modern American lines.

The chief feature of the new construction work is the special bacon-curing factories, equipped on Danish lines. Before the Revolution there were only four small, ill-equipped bacon factories on the territory now occupied by the USSR. They were, in fact, curing-houses rather than factories. Two of them have now undergone radical repairs, two others that were falling into ruin, have been entirely rebuilt.

In the course of the last five years thirteen new bacon-curing factories have been built. Rbls. 23,000,000 were spent on them. Besides these, five more factories are nearing completion. The annual capacity of all the factories now operating is 2,182,000 pigs.

The «Soyus-Myaso» (Meat Trust) is developing the construction of new industrial meat combines and striving to utilise American experience on Soviet soil.

The People's Commissariat of Supplies has worked out a plan of construction to be carried out during 1931, 1932, and 1933. 57 new combines with a capacity of 1,500,000 tons in one shift are to be built. The supply of raw material, the scale of consumption in each district, and geographical conditions, that is to say, opportunities for breeding and feeding one or another species of cattle—will all be taken into consideration.

The task of creating the canning industry in the USSR was only begun within the last few years. Before the Revolution this branch of industry was very poorly developed, canning was carried out mostly by small workshops of a primitive type. Before the war only about 8,000,000 tons of food of all kinds were produced annually.

1 See the article on «Significant changes».
The Soviet canning industry reached that figure in 1928/29, and in the year 1930, after the People's Commissariat of Supplies had taken over the control of the canning industry, 303,000,000 tins were produced. In 1931, according to preliminary estimates, 650,000,000 tins will have been produced.

The development of the canning industry is extremely important for the USSR. It now becomes possible to utilise the wealth of raw products afforded by many districts, and to satisfy the demands of industrial districts, where the supply of fresh food is attended by extreme difficulties—for instance, where peat, timber or special ores are produced.

THE IMPROVEMENT IN THE STANDARD OF LIVING OF THE SOVIET TOILERS

The material and cultural condition of the working-class of the USSR is improving steadily along with the rapid growth of socialist industry.

During the last three years—that is, from October, 1928, to October 1st, 1931—the average monthly wage of industrial workers rose by 23.9 percent. Beginning from October, 1931, a new increase in wages has been introduced in the leading branches of industry. In the iron and steel industries this amounts to 23.5 per cent and in the coal industries to 12 per cent.

In the past three years wages have been raised in other branches as well: in the engineering industry—by 17.1 per cent, in the wood-working industries—27 per cent, in glass—32.4, in cement—20, in the chemical industry—20.1, in paper—22.5, in the cotton textile industry—13, in wool industries—13.3, in the linen textile industry—25, in food industries—13.5, in printing—11.9 and in the match industry—20.6.

The improvement in material and other conditions is not, however, confined to the general rise in wages. A number of measures have been taken to raise the worker's general standard of living.

In 1928 the budget for social insurance amounted to Rbls. 980,000,000. In 1930 it rose to Rbls. 1,400,000,000 and in 1931 it already reached Rbls. 2,500,000,000. The expenditure on building dwelling-houses rose to Rbls. 1,156,000,000 in 1931 as against Rbls. 682,000,000 in 1930.

The growth of expenditure to benefit the workers in such important industrial districts as the Don Coalfields can be shown in the following figures. The expenditure on safety devices in this district was Rbls. 6,100,000 in 1929, Rbls. 10,500,000 in 1930, and reached Rbls. 20,500,000 in 1931.

In 1931 150 out of every thousand of the Donbas colliers had their expenses paid in rest-homes. 10 out of every thousand were sent free to watering places, health resorts and sanatoria. Throughout all colliery districts the dwellings built in 1913 amounted to 549,000 cubic metres, in 1926—to 716,000 cub. m., in 1927—1,696,000 cub. m., in 1928—1,601,000 cub. m., in 1929—1,600,000 cub. m., in 1930—1,700,000 cub. m., and in 1931—2,379,000 cub. m.

More than 1,000,000 industrial workers in the USSR have been put on to the seven-hour working-day. In the current year, the final year of the Five-Year Plan, the working day of new millions of workers will be reduced to seven hours.

Millions of new workers have been drawn into industry. In 1931 alone the number of workwomen increased by a million. In connection with this the welfare of the workers' family has also increased.

«All this creates such conditions of work and living for the working class that made it possible for us to bring up a new generation of workers—healthy, happy and fit to raise this mighty Soviet land to its rightful level» (Stalin).
In the technical library of the Petrovsky Works at Dniepropetrovsk lies a book called "A Description of the Ekaterinслав South Russian Briansk Company." If you open its leather covers, you will read on the first page—"The building of the works was started in 1886." 

During the forty years of its existence the Works has seen tremendous things. 

Before the Revolution Briansk Works (as it was called) was regarded as the biggest iron and steel works. But the figures showing the annual output of pig iron in these times seem absurd in comparison with the yearly programme of the last few years. In 1913—one of the best production years for the works—the output was 436,684 tons of iron, 202,597 tons of Marten steel, 125,043 tons of Bessemer steel and 251,290 tons of rolled products. At present the yearly output is fixed at 852,146 tons of pig iron, 455,418 tons of Marten steel, 193,639 tons of Bessemer steel and 821,125 tons of rolled products. 

How did the works arrive at such an output? Under the former owners the equipment of the works was extremely poor. The majority of the production processes, beginning from the supply of raw materials and fuel and ending with the loading of the finished products into the cars, were carried out almost exclusively by hand. Even elementary mechanisation was lacking. Power, mostly steam, was used, but not for the tightening and rationalisation of labour. Safety measures were unheard of. 

The works came out of the turmoil of the civil war practically broken down. For three years—1919, 1920, and 1921—the works stood idle. Blast and open-hearth furnaces and rolling-mills did not produce a single ton of either iron or steel. The machinery rusted, the cranes stood still, the works were littered with scrap, trolleys and every kind of rubbish. 

But in 1921 an order came out to set the works going, and new life throbbed once more in its veins. Scaffolding sprang up around the furnaces and ovens. Machinery was repaired. The process of restoration went on slowly, many great difficulties had to be overcome—lack of materials, the sabotage of the hostile section of the specialists, the inexperience of those workers who were fresh from the villages. 

In 1922 the marten-shop produced the first 3,791 tons of steel. A little later came pig iron. In 1922/23 the furnaces produced 16,557 tons. The reconstruction process went on at a great pace. Inventions were worked out, production conferences were held, masses of workers joined circles for the study of rationalisation, the works outgrew the stage of technical conservatism and backwardness. In 1926/27 the pre-war level was exceeded: in this year the works produced 491,544 tons of pig iron (112.6% as compared with 1913), 238,557 tons of Marten steel (117.7%), 175,735 tons (100.6%) of Bessemer steel, and lastly 316,837 tons (125.9%) of rolled products. 

Just at present the works is confronted with new tasks—a complete technical reconstruction, the building of new and extension of old workshops, the substitution of old-fashioned equipment by the most up-to-date, and the organisation of new branches of production. The works is now one of the biggest in the country. It is responsible for 18% of the pig iron produced in the USSR.
Much has already been done in the field of reconstruction. The small bridge-shop has become an independent works for the production of girders, bridges and iron structures. Alongside the works, on the steppe, a huge factory arose for producing coke and various chemicals. A new Marten shop was built. Two of its ovens turn out the same quantity of steel as was formerly produced by five furnaces. Two powerful turbogenerators have been installed. A thorough reconstruction of the Bessemer shop is now going on. The «gasification» of the works is finished.

Capital investments increase from year to year. Between 1923/24 and until 1929/30 approximately Rbls. 90,000,000 were spent. In 1931 Rbls. 28,000,000 were allotted.

Reconstruction had an immediate effect on production. In 1930 the works produced 697,406 tons of pig iron, 295,847 tons of Marten steel, 183,760 tons of Bessemer steel and 427,607 tons of rolled products.

That is the way that people made over the works. But the works, in its turn, makes over people, breaks up the old, warped life, trains people, and educates them. On the site where the old, dirty, smoky barracks stood, a new, socialist settlement has sprung up. During the last few years huge blocks of dwellings have been built. There is a Palace of Culture, a Palace of Health, a factory-kitchen, a crèche, a kindergarten, chemical and metallurgical technical schools. A permanent metallurgical exhibition has been organised.

The Petrovsky Works has produced thousands of shock-brigade workers struggling heroically for pig iron and for steel. It is no longer a rare occurrence for blast furnaces to produce 110% or 120% of the plan. And the Marten shops and rolling-mills do not lag behind. The working masses are acquiring technical knowledge and the number of conscious, educated builders of socialism is increasing daily in the works.
THE SESSION OF THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES

The Academy of Sciences is at present passing through a period of complete reconstruction of its work. Abstract scientific activities are giving place to practical research work on problems directly connected with the economic development of the USSR. The highest scientific institution in this country, where the greatest scientific forces are concentrated, is studying questions of socialist construction.

The reorganisation of the Academy has led to an alteration in the nature of its sessions. The Moscow session that took place in June of this year represented the first step towards a closer contact with the workers, towards organic fusing with the business of the socialist reconstruction of the country. During the session members of the Academy went about to the factories and workshops and made speeches and reports there. The workers of these factories, in their turn, made many valuable suggestions which were duly taken into consideration in the compilation of the Academy’s plan of work for 1932.

The extraordinary session that was held in Leningrad at the end of 1931 was devoted entirely to concrete economic problems. Almost the whole of the programme of the session consisted of reports on one main theme—the question of natural resources and the prospects of the Leningrad Region.

All the reports read may be conveniently divided into four main groups: a) power-s fhra, b) the chemical and metallurgical industries, c) mineral raw materials and d) agriculture and afforestation. The report read by Gleb M. Krijianovsky, M. Ac. Sc. on «The Power Resources of the Leningrad Region and the Plan for their Utilisation»—belonged to the first group, while E. N. Bach’s, M. Ac. Sc., report on «The Chemicalisation of Industry—new form of the development of the world’s productive forces» formed the basis of the second. Professor Fersman’s, M. Ac. Sc., report was devoted to the question of mineral resources—«The mineral raw materials of the Leningrad Region» (third group). Professor Keller, M. Ac. Sc., spoke on «The Control of Land», N. I. Vavilov, M. Ac. Sc., on «Problems of Soviet Agriculture» and these, together with several other members of the Academy, composed the fourth group. In addition, a lecture was given by an American scientist, Prof. Bridges, who happened to be in Leningrad at that time, on the genetic conception of life.

At the beginning of the session the Academy of Sciences wrote to the Leningrad Soviet a letter in which, speaking of the work of the session, it requested the Soviet to give it the opportunity of bringing its work as fully and closely as possible to the notice of the workers of the town of Lenin, so as to be able to take into consideration their criticism and suggestions when drawing up the plan for the future work of the Academy of Sciences.

The principal and general papers were read at the plenary meetings of the session: reports devoted to special questions were reserved for the meetings of the corresponding sections. Finally a number of the reports were delivered in the factories and local educational institutions as had been done during the Moscow June session. Groups of members of the Academy visited the biggest factories and works in Leningrad and examined the workshops and the laboratories.

G. M. Krijianovsky, J. N. Samoilovitch and other members of the Academy visited the «Krasny Putilovetz Works»; another brigade headed by professor Kistyanovsky, M. Ac. Sc., visited the «Stalin Works», and professor Orlov, M. Ac. Sc., together with four other scientific workers, went to the «Printing Yard»—the biggest printing-works in the USSR. The workers engaged in these industries put forward a number of practical problems for the Academy to solve. For instance, the «Krasny Putilovetz» workers brought forward the question of the reconstruction of the system of electric power supply in the works and of the construction of a new heat and power station. The workers from the «Stalin Works» made a number of suggestions with regard to the organisation of the production of heat turbines. The «Printing Yard» workers suggested the establishing in Le-
THE CONFERENCE OF RESEARCH INSTITUTES OF CENTRAL ASIA

The above conference took place in Tashkent. More than one hundred research institutes, including thirty in Moscow and Leningrad, were represented at the conference. Among the delegates were 30 professors, about 100 agronomists, 90 engineers, 110 economists, etc.

All the attention of the conference was concentrated around the question of the prospects of development of the Central Asia republics during the second Five Year Plan. The conference occupied itself with the scientific study of these prospects.

Central Asia is completing the third year of the Five Year Plan with a series of victories in the fight for Soviet cotton and the industrialisation of the distant parts of the USSR. The area under cotton in Central Asia is now 1,333,000 hectares. This is more than twice as much as the pre-war area. 53% of the cotton farms have been drawn into collective farms. The network of cotton collective farms is growing rapidly. The construction of the first part of the Tashkent agricultural machinery works has been completed. The giant Kuvassai Cement Works has been put into operation. The biggest silk filature in the world has been built at Khodjent, and the first regional power station in Central Asia at Kadiryin.

The natural resources of Central Asia render it one of the richest regions of the Soviet Union. The power resources of its rivers are about 40,000,000 h. p. The coal deposits are estimated at 3 billion tons, the oil in the Ferghana and Western Turkestan districts alone at 90,000,000 tons.

The work of the conference with respect to problems of non-ferrous metals, was extremely interesting. Geological prospecting carried out during the last few years has shown that Central Asia is one of the richest regions in the USSR in non-ferrous metals.

There are deposits of rare metals such as mercury, antimony, radium, and tungsten. The deposits are exceptionally rich and favorably situated.

The deposits of raw chemical materials in the Bay of Kara-Bugass are the richest in the world. The sulphur, potash and phosphorite fertilisers found here form a basis for the development of the chemical industry that is an indispensable part of cotton-growing in Central Asia.

The conference emphasized the fact that cotton-growing in this country has extremely favourable conditions for development. According to recent information no less than 12,000,000 hectares of Central Asian territory are suitable for cotton-growing. But the question is not only of quantity. There are full possibilities for raising cotton of the highest quality on a large scale in Central Asia.

The problem of increasing the yield and improving the quality was paid particular attention to by the conference. It presented a number of interesting problems to scientists.

An important place was occupied by research work in the field of transport.

The work of the conference in the fields of education, science and labour reflected the tremendous growth of national and cultural construction in Uzbekistan, Turkestan, Tadjikistan, Kirghizia, and Kara-Kalpakia.

Scores of shock-brigade workers and members of collective farms took part in the work of the conference and put forward numerous suggestions in connection with the second Five Year Plan.
The Latinisation conference was held in Vladivostok from September 26th to the 29th, 1931. It was organised and attended by the Chinese workers living in the USSR, and discussed the question of the substitution of Roman letters for Chinese characters. This reform is undertaken with a view to facilitating educational work among the Chinese living in the USSR. The conference was preceded by three years of work on the determination and propaganda of the principles of reform of the Chinese system of writing and by the examination of plans of a new alphabet, worked out by Chinese. In 1929, 1930 and 1931, a number of well-attended meetings of Chinese workers, teachers and students were held in Moscow, Leningrad, Chita, Blagoveshchensk, Khabarovsk and Vladivostok. The question of replacing the tens of thousands of Chinese written signs by Latin letters in the living dialects of China was fully discussed. The plan was worked out by Chinese scholars after much careful research work undertaken together with Chinese students. This was unanimously approved. It was published in Moscow as a separate pamphlet in 1930. This pamphlet denies, on the basis of the latest scientific facts, the necessity for denoting tones. It is, therefore, extremely simple and straightforward and can be easily understood by the masses. In this respect it differs greatly from other projects for the «Latinisation» of Chinese that have been published in China, or by Sinologists in other countries (see article by C. C. Wang in «Asia» for June 1930, also the alphabet published in Shanghai by Li-Yingsi, etc.).

The above-mentioned pamphlet, containing the new alphabet, rules for writing in Northern Chinese, a dictionary and short pieces for reading, was eagerly bought up by Chinese living in the USSR, and became the subject of lively exchange of opinions. The Chinese toilers of Vladivostok have organised groups for the study of the Chinese Romanised alphabet. Scientific reports and discussions on the new alphabet were held in Moscow and Leningrad. As a result, the Latinisation Committee, attached to the Central Executive Committee of the USSR, approved the new alphabet with these corrections that had been made during the discussions by Soviet sinologists and Chinese people here. The conference called in Vladivostok by the Latinisation Committee approved unanimously the proposed «Northern alphabet as well as the accompanying rules. It emphasized the necessity for the Latinisation of literature, etc. in the living dialects spoken by the Chinese toiling masses. Since these dialects fall into five main groups, the development of literature in no less than five Chinese languages might be expected. The conference rejected the theory that Latinisation on the basis of the living Chinese languages would disunite the Chinese people. This theory would not bear criticism. It had been refuted in practice by the overwhelming success of various national civilisations in the USSR.

The conference passed a number of practical resolutions with regard to educational work among the Chinese toilers here and elected a Far Eastern Regional Committee for the Latinisation of the Chinese alphabet. Eighty-seven delegates took part in the conference. They represented all the Chinese schools in Vladivostok and Khabarovsk, all the Chinese newspapers published in the Soviet Far East and all the larger industries of that region employing Chinese workers. Chinese collective farms, Soviet-farms, the most important Chinese clubs and the larger Chinese settlements in the Soviet Far East and Eastern Siberia were represented. There were also delegates from the China Research Institute attached to the Communist Academy (Moscow) and the Institute of Oriental studies, attached to the Academy of Sciences (Leningrad).

The conference went off with great enthusiasm. The meetings were attended by great numbers of Chinese workers. More than 2,000 people came to the opening and closing meetings. A delegation of workers and students of Vladivostok, actors from the Chinese theatre, Chinese «Pioneers» and school-children greeted the work of the conference warmly. It was held in the Chinese theatre and club, situated in the centre of the Chinese quarter.

The rendering of Chinese characters into Roman letters or phonetic signs is a problem that under present conditions it is impossible to solve in China. In the USSR the best conditions exist for its solution. In the preparatory work for the conference and the discussion of the plan Soviet scientists took an active part.
SOVIET ACTORS MEET SHOCK-BRIGADE WORKERS

A meeting of the best shock-brigade workers and the most prominent actors and actresses was arranged in the Moscow Theatre Club. The meeting was a very warm and friendly one, such as might be arranged between comrades. The «stars» of the Soviet stage told the workers of their lives and work and the shock-brigade workers in return told of their struggle for the fulfilment of the industrial and financial plan, for the new achievements of socialist industry.

The actresses — O. D. Knipper-Chekhova, M.M. Blumenthal-Tamarina, the actors — V. S. Kachalov, I. M. Moskvin — and others alternated their stories with short recitations and sketches. In reply, one of the workers from the «Stalin Motor-Car Factory» read an appeal composed by the workers, dealing with the tasks of socialist construction, and the necessity for all representatives of art to take an active part in it, and to draw the material for their creative work from actual life.

At this meeting it was resolved to organise a special commission for the preparation of a repertoire suitable for the Fifteenth Anniversary of the October Revolution and to announce a number of competitions in all the arts.

In the first row: on the left — Boyarski, president of the Central Committee of the Union of Workers in Art; next to him the honorary artists of the Republic — S. Hyacintova, M. Blumenthal-Tamarina, E. Geltser; on the right — the hon. art. of the Republic — I. Moskvin.

The concerts of the young Soviet pianists, organised by VOKS in December 1931, were exceptionally well attended. Twenty-two young musicians from various cities of the USSR took part in these concerts. Local musical schools had selected the best of those aspiring to appear on the platform of the Moscow Higher Musical School (formerly the Conservatory). Moscow was represented by 13 pianists, Leningrad — by 4, the Ukraine (Kharkov and Kiev) — by 4 and Armenia (Erivan) — by 1.

The most prominent musicians and pedagogues were invited to appraise the performance of the young pianists. They included professors from the Moscow Higher Musical School: K. N. Igumnov, A. B. Goldenweiser, H. G. Neuhaus, S. E. Feinberg, professor L. Nikolayev of the Leningrad Conservatory, professor G. N. Beklemishev of the Kiev conservatory, professor P. Lutsenko of the Kharkov conservatory.

The concerts showed the high level of technique attained by young Soviet musicians and at the same time bore witness to the growth of musical culture in different cities of the Soviet Union.

As to the interpretation of the music itself (the programme consisted exclusively of Chopin) it must be observed that the young pianists have introduced a number of entirely new features. The usual intimate, purely aesthetic «Salon» interpretation of Chopin has been replaced by healthy, vigorous performance, often astonishing in its depth and force of expression.

The following may be mentioned as the most outstanding of the young pianists: I. Aptekarev (Moscow), E. Grossman (Moscow), A. Dyakov (Moscow), T. Gutman (Moscow), A. Yokheles (Moscow), N. Perelman (Leningrad), V. Rusanovskaya (Leningrad), P. Serebriakov (Leningrad), A. Loofer (Kiev), L. Sagalov (Kharkov).

The talented performance of the seventeen-year-old Armenian pianist R. Andriasian (Erivan) attracted a great deal of attention.

The general opinion now is that such concerts are a great stimulus to the creative work of young musicians. Moreover, they promote the exchange of pedagogical and artistic experience between different centres of culture.

A further development of this idea is to organize a Beethoven Contest for young Soviet musicians (solists and ensembles) in time for the celebration of the XV anniversary of the October Revolution.

AN AMERICAN PLAYWRIGHT ON SOVIET THEATRES

The following is taken from an article by Mr. Mc Evoy, an American playwright and critic, who came to the USSR to study the Soviet theatre.

In the productions of the Soviet theatres we can see the creative work of the writers of the plays, of the actors and of the audience.

The «Young Workers Theatre» (TRAM) and the Children's Theatre made the greatest impression on me. We have nothing like these in America. There are, it is true, children's theatres, but they do not resemble the Soviet ones in the least. Here the theatre puts certain problems before the Soviet youngsters and helps to solve them. The children are enthusiastic, they understand perfectly all that is going on around them. Soviet children are the creators of their own theatre. Here the whole theatre plays. The actors are at once on the stage and among the audience, which is composed of children. All this makes an unforgettable impression on one.

The same might be said of the «Young Workers» Theatre, where I saw «Alarm».

It is interesting to note that this theatre employs very few theatrical and scenic effects (such as lighting, costumes, etc.). It does not need to resort to the usual theatrical properties. On the contrary, the theatre is very simple and true to life and this holds the attention of the most experienced no less than of the usual theatregoer.

I shall not pause to describe in detail the excellence of the production and acting in all those theatres that I visited — a great deal has been written and said about them all over the world. I shall only say that many of the rank and file Soviet actors are as good with respect to technique, as the «star players» in our theatres.
THE ART OLYMPIAD OF CAUCASIAN MOUNTAINEERS

During the last few years a great number of talented writers, artists and musicians have come to the fore among the peoples of the Caucasian mountain districts. They have helped to raise the art of the respective small nationalities to a high level. National theatres have been founded in Daghestan and Ossetia, where plays written by the mountaineers themselves are produced. Ha-
ced works of great artistic value. Among these writers are Kerashev (Adigeya), Katakotov (Karachai), Shohentsukov (Kabardia), Farinev, Bessayev, Epkhiev (Ossetia), Adtsev (Chechnia), Hamsat Tsadsky, Fatakhon, and Said Habiev (Daghestan).

It is now eleven years since Soviet government was established in the Northern Caucasus and Daghestan. To celebrate the event

![Circassians at a performance in their national theatre.](image)

dji Hadjibekov and Tsomak Hadiev are two of the dramatists whose plays are produced there. Tavassiev, Khokhov, Djama-
lov are proletarian artists and sculptors who have produced many works of art on modern Soviet subjects.

An important achievement is the recording of the mountain melodies which form the basis of the development of national music. The most talented of the composers are: Galayev (Ossetia) and Hassanov (Daghestan).

In the field of literature there are a num-

ber of proletarian writers who have produ-

the Regional National Soviet organised an art contest for the mountain peoples. It was held in Rostov-on-the Don. Fifteen nationalities were represented. Those who took part in the Regional Contest were mostly victors at the local competitions held during the celebrations of the October Revolution. At the contest national songs and orchestral music were heard, and five nationalities sent their own companies of actors. The painters, in addition to organising an exhibition of their works, took part in decorating the hall in which the contest took place.
THE CINEMA AND THE RED ARMY

The cinema-expedition of the «talkie» «Four People from the Communist Party of the USSR» has returned to Moscow from the Ukraine. The picture was filmed by the Mejrabpom-film Association. The director was Borodko, the producer Hendelstein, the operator Chelenko. Tsessarskaya, Batalov, and Chistyakov were among the film artists. The expedition was housed in the camp of one of the Red Army divisions.

A great deal of social work was done by the members of the expedition in the course of the three weeks spent in the camp. Concerts, group-conversations on questions of the cinema were held and lessons in photography given. Photographs and short films of the life of Red Army division were taken. The division, in its turn, helped the expedition both in social and production work.

The expedition concluded a «social treaty» with the Red Army soldiers. This will strengthen the tie between the cinemaworkers and the Red Army.

In this treaty the cinema party promised to let the Red Army folk know about the progress of the film and to send it to this division for criticism when completed. The Red Army soldiers promised to give advice on the military scenes in the film, to maintain a regular connection with this group of film-artists and workers, and to give their opinions on the film «Four People from the Communist Party of the USSR» before it should be released.

This will be a real tie between film-folk and the Red Army which has a great social significance.

«MOUNTAINS OF GOLD»

A new talkie «Mountains of Gold» is now being shown at all the central cinemas. It was produced by Soyus-Kino (The Cinema Trust) under the direction of S. Yutkevitch. This picture is regarded here as a great success for Soviet cinematography. Its greatness lies in its profound and earnest social thematics. The chief character is a peasant, Peter, who has left his native village to work in a factory with the idea of «earning a horse for himself».

The action takes place in the beginning of 1914. The factory, the years of the war and the revolution helped to change Peter's psychology until he eventually became a class-conscious, wide-awake revolutionary worker.

The music accompanying the picture has been composed by a young Leningrad musician, Dmitri Shostakovich. The composer has made full use of the popular material at hand—folk-songs, church singing (in the scene where a religious service is being held) and so on.

The Association of workers of the revolutionary cinema arranged a debate on the subject of «Mountains of Gold». Those who took part in the debate remarked on the great artistic and ideological value of the film.

«THE HORIZON»

The shock-brigade of the talkie—«The Horizon» led by the producer, L. Kuleshov, has returned from Odessa, where sea-life and the town itself was filmed. The film is being made by «Mejrabpom-film» and is in two languages, Russian and German.

THE «INTERNATIONAL WORKERS' RELIEF» EXCURSION FILMED

The «Mejrabpom-film» has made a record of the excursion of the foreign delegates of the «International Workers' Relief Association» (Mejrabpom). The first trip made by the delegates was to Elista (the capital of the Kalmuck Republic). There they visited the new town and the buddhist temple. From there the excursion went to Kislovodsk, where the new sanatoria and rest homes were visited. The next stage was Rostov, where the delegates were taken over the Selmarshstroy (Agricultural Machinery works), the boot and shoe factory, the tobacco factory, the Artem coal mine, which they descended to a depth of 511 metres in the electric mine-lift, and lastly they visited the Dnieprostroy.

All this will be shown in a big international sound-film. American, German, and Mongolian members of the IWRA delegation took part in the excursion.
Question. What is «Socialist Competition» and how is it carried on?

Answer. The idea of Socialist Competition was put forward by Lenin. It became widespread only about two years ago. It came to the fore on the initiative of the workers and employees of the Leningrad «Karl Marx factory», who appealed to all the toilers of the Soviet Union to join in this form of competition.

In course of its development it took the most varied forms. The example of the factories was followed by many scientific institutions, schools, colleges etc. Socialist competition became one of the socialist methods of organising labour in every field of economic and cultural construction.

In the beginning the principal form of competition was between individual workers, with the idea of raising the output of each worker. As the movement took on a mass character and the idea of socialist competition began to attract the wide masses, the brigade system arose. Now, it was not merely individual workers who competed with each other, but whole brigades, called «shock-brigades».

As a rule, these shock-brigades are composed of groups of workers more or less directly connected with each other in the process of production. By the conclusion of an agreement with one or several brigades, a given shock-brigade took upon itself definite obligations with regard to labour discipline, output and the raising of the level of technical education of those taking part in the agreement, etc. These obligations are expressed in figures. Thus it is possible to compare the work of the various brigades from the results of the competition.

Originally the task of the shock-brigade system was to enforce discipline in work. The worker took upon himself an obligation not to shirk work, and to observe the rules of the factory. Later on socialist competition rose to a much higher level.

The tasks of the shock-brigade workers were: in the first place, to strain every effort for the fulfilment of the industrial-and-financial plan, in the second place to master technical methods, and to participate in the work of rationalisation and planning.

The task undertaken by the brigade could be fulfilled through the mutual, comradely assistance of the workers and the labour-solidarity observed in every brigade. In this way the best social organisation of workers and employees is obtained, cooperation in labour is developed, and as a result its productivity is increased.

Lately, several new forms of shock-brigades have arisen. There is the «continuous» shock-brigade, so-called because it usually includes several workshops connected with each other by processes of production. Under this system an entire process, from beginning to end, is included in shock-brigade work. The continuous shock-brigades in their development often overflow the limits of one factory and extend to others that supply it with raw materials or half-finished products. That is how socialist competition arose between separate factories and then between districts etc.

The development of socialist competition and shock-brigade work creates new and particularly effective forms for the participation of the wide masses of toilers in the work of rationalisation and planning.

In the rationalisation brigades the workers analyse and study production methods with a view to using past experience and in particular all suggestions and inventions made by workers for the improvement of production.

One of the highest forms of socialist competition in which the share of the masses in the work of planning is carried into effect, is the counter industrial and financial plan, that is, a counter-plan brought forward by the workers. It is an improved and amplified edition of the plan received by the factory from the controlling economic organisations. The counter-plan is formed by the workers on the basis of careful study of the production possibilities and resources of the factory, its equipment, stock and so on.

Exchange of experience and comradely assistance given by the more advanced factories to others has taken the form of «social towing-along». This movement also arose out of socialist competition. The best shock-brigade workers and engineers visit industries that they have taken «in tow» and tell them of their experiences.
and achievements. The «social towing-along» is characteristic of socialist competition and sharply distinguishes it from other forms of competition. The principle of capitalist competition is the defeat and death of some, the victory and supremacy of others. The principle of socialist competition is comradely assistance to those who cannot catch up with the most advanced, in order to attain the raising of the common level (J. Stalin).

The importance of socialist competition for Lenin lay in the fact that it afforded a possibility of «drawing the majority of the toilers into a sphere of work where they might express themselves, show their abilities and their talents, of which there is such an inexhaustible store among the people, and which capitalism has repressed and choked down in thousands and millions».

Q u e s t i o n. How is the work of a doctor organised in the Soviet Union?

A n s w e r. A doctor's work is socialised in this country in the following way.

The usual doctor's working day is limited to 6½ hours, but some have shorter hours, as for instance, in the following cases:

1) Doctors working in hospitals, polyclinics, dispensaries and children's consultation centres have a 5½ hour day, if their duties include treating patients.

2) Doctors employed in anatomical institutes, in radium and Rentgen-ray institutes and laboratories work 4 hours a day.

In accordance with the general rule every doctor employed in some institution or other has the right to two weeks' holiday a year. Some groups of doctors get one or even one-and-a-half month's holiday with full pay. These groups include specialists in infectious diseases, rentgenology, radiology, and psychiatry.

Doctors working in distant places receive three month's holiday after each three years of work, including their annual fortnight's holiday.

The salary of doctors differs.

Doctors in villages, in prisons, and psychiatric and sanitation doctors have the right to a rise of 20% after every two years of service. In distant regions and districts the salary of doctors is raised by 10% annually. Those working in villages and workers' settlements pay nothing for rent, fuel and lighting. After 25 years of uninterrupted employment in villages or workers' settlements a doctor is entitled to a pension, amounting to 50% of his salary. The years of service before the revolution are included.

Social insurance for doctors follows the same lines as that for all toilers.

Doctors working in villages and workers' settlements and also in distant places have the right after three years of service to a period of leave of from 3 to 6 months with full pay for the purposes of research work or attending higher medical courses.

Doctors in the Soviet Union have the right to work in more than one place simultaneously. Private practice is not forbidden.

The transference of doctors from one place to another cannot be effected without the consent of the doctor, except in case of natural calamity.

In addition to the foregoing, the Soviet Government has passed a number of measures for the improvement of the material and legal status of doctors working in various branches of their profession.

The attitude to patients now differs considerably from former times. The necessity for studying disease in connection with living conditions and the work that the patient happens to be engaged in are emphasized. This method of study makes it possible to carry out prophylactic measures more scientifically. The rapid rate at which industrialisation is being carried on, the wide development of collective and soviet farming has confronted the USSR with the necessity of rapid training of medical workers. This is the reason for the alterations in the system of teaching in the universities and medical faculties, where, at present, greater attention is being paid to practical work in hospitals, etc. Large groups of doctors in these institutions are being drawn into the work of teaching students, and thanks to this, medical education and the qualifications of medical workers are being raised to a much higher level.
New Soviet Publications


Every year it becomes clearer that science and technical knowledge take a leading part in the Soviet Union, which is reconstructing its life on socialist principles. At the present time it is particularly important to furnish information of the progress of Soviet science and to study the latest achievements of Western European and American technical thought. One of the channels, through which Soviet scientists and engineers can examine Soviet and foreign technical attainments and conditions, is the large new magazine «Socialist Reconstruction and Science», edited by N. I. Bukharin, M. Ac. Sc.

The most prominent scientists of the Soviet Union take part in this magazine and scholars and engineers from Europe and the U.S.A. have been invited to join them.

The journal covers a wide field. Every number should have an opening article, the purpose of which is to link up the scientific and technical work with the tasks of socialist reconstruction. The articles fall into two large groups: those on theoretical questions and those devoted to technical problems. A special place has been accorded to articles on the organisation of science and research work.

The journal will publish reviews of foreign books on natural science and technical subjects. The achievements of Soviet science are noted under the heading of «The work of the research institutes of the USSR». In this section hitherto unpublished work of Soviet scientists may be included.

A great deal of attention is paid to books and magazines, chiefly foreign, now being published. In the course of the year the journal proposes to review all the most important scientific and technical publications appearing in England, Germany, France, Italy and the USA. Lists of new Soviet and foreign books on natural science and general technical questions will be published.

In addition to the above-mentioned sections, an account will also be given of what is going on in the scientific institutions, societies and industrial organisations of the USSR and abroad.

Articles written by Soviet scientists just returned from abroad and recounting their impressions of scientific and technical life in the West and in the USA will be found under the same head.

The first number of this magazine is an extremely rich one. All the main sections are represented in full. In the first section there is a particularly interesting article by Nikolai Bukharin, M. Acad. Sc., on «Theory and Practice from the point of view of dialectic materialism», a lecture read before the Second International Congress on the History of Science and Technics, held in London. This article, which is witty and full of interesting material, deals with the problem of the relations between theory and practice, from both a sociological and gnosiological standpoint. The concluding part of the article treats of theory and practice in the USSR and empirical verification of historical materialism.

The as yet unfinished article by V. Vikin is devoted to the capitalist crisis and the crisis in bourgeois theories of crises. There is an excellent article by N. I. Vavilov, M. Ac. Sc., on «The problem of the origin of agriculture in the light of modern research» — a summary of many years of research by the above-mentioned scientist on the principal agricultural centres of the world. Among other material in the main section there are interesting articles. Prof. A. M. Frumkin writes on «Problems of research in physical chemistry», Prof. A. A. Chernyshev on the «Principal technical problems of electrification», Prof. A. I. Oparin — on «Technical biochemistry and its part in industry», and M. N. Sorokin on «Industrial and technical problems of the reconstruction of engineering», etc.

The section «Reviews» contains abundant information on research work in the USSR and abroad. Extremely interesting facts about researches on pent are published in «The work of Research Institutes» which also contains an account of the activities of the State Building Institute, and many other things. The bibliographical section contains, among others, N. Bukharin's witty and critical analysis of a new book by Oswald Spengler — «Der Mensch und die
International relations during the imperialistic epoch.


The publication of authentic documents and first hand information on Russia during the epoch of Imperialism has been undertaken by a Commission attached to the Central Executive Committee of the USSR. The material is being edited by M. N. Pokrovsky, member of the Academy of Sciences, and Acting Commissar of Education in the RSFSR. The documents are extremely interesting and important. During the first few days of its existence, that is, immediately after the October Revolution, the Soviet Government made a solemn promise to unmask the secret diplomacy that led up to the catastrophe of 1914. Towards the close of 1917 secret treaties, hidden in the ministries of tsarist Russia, began to be published. Their publication aroused immense interest all over the world. They were the first documents of their kind to be published. This first casual collection was followed by systematically selected documents, that threw light on several problems and incidents of the World War period. There were, for instance, the well-known publications of the People's Commissariat of Foreign Affairs — «The Division of Turkey in Asia», «Constantinople and the Straits», «The European Powers and Greece during the World War», a number of publications of the Central Records Office, valuable documents printed in «Krassny Archive» and so on.

A number of other states that took part in the World War followed the example of the USSR and collections of documents began to appear everywhere. Literature on the history of international relations has been considerably enriched during the last few years.

But in the great majority of cases the principal questions were those of the origins of the World War and «those responsible» for it. The activities of diplomats during the war still remain obscure, but a great deal has been done in this field in the Soviet Union.

At present the publication in the USSR of documents relating both to the «origin of the war» and to the diplomacy of that time is carried on systematically. This new scientific work is being done on a big scale calculated to extend over several volumes. Suffice it to say that the first five huge volumes of Series 3 cover the period from January 14th to August 4th, 1914, that is, not quite seven months. A foreign edition is being published in the German language in Germany.

The first volume that appeared recently covers the period from January 14th to March 13th, 1914, and includes more than 650 pages and 444 documents. From the material in this book the gradual approach of the war becomes clear. M. N. Pokrovsky says in his introductory article — «The war was decided on, not in July 1914, but much earlier. The exact moment when it was decided upon cannot, of course, be established, for the simple reason that there was no such exact moment. None of the parties involved could say, when exactly it was decided upon to fight (this was probably settled long before 1914), and that it was decided to declare war in the summer of that year. The moment when the bomb was to explode was uncertain even for the person who laid it. But the general situation, which could only result in a European war in the near future, came to a head in the winter of 1913—1914» (pp. VIII—IX).

The documents included in this volume concern various aspects and incidents in the activities of the tsarist diplomats. «The Russian documents, — as M. N. Pokrovsky aptly remarked, — naturally afford the richest material for the unmasking of the predatory policy of Russian imperialism, that was military and feudalistic in essence, but already becoming capitalistic (p. X). And we do actually see how Tsarism began to stretch out its feelers towards the Near East — Persia, Turkey, and to the Far East as well. It is true that after the unsuccessful Russo-Japanese war the ardour for adventure in the Far East cooled down considerably. In the winter
of 1914, however, a species of expansion policy in Mongolia and North Manchuria was clearly noticeable. No small number of documents in volume I bear witness to the attempts to get «a firm footing» in the Far East.

The information about the tsarist policy in Persia is extremely curious. Here, in spite of the agreement, Russia came to loggerheads with its future ally — Great Britain. The frankly annexationist policy of the tsarist government in Persia, the despotic conduct of the consuls, the obvious attempts to secure Persian Azerbeijan, and finally, the prolonged and sharp dispute respecting the Trans-Persian railway led more than once to strained relations between Russia and Great Britain. It is curious to follow in the published documents all the intricacies of these relations and the attempts to regulate them.

The results of the Balkan and Italo-Turkish wars were sharply felt. The relations with Turkey and the Balkan countries are given a good deal of space in these pages.

Many pages are occupied by the dispute about the well-known German military mission of Liman von-Sanders. A lively exchange of opinions on this question took place between Russia, France and England. Was it to be expected the problem of straits which had been debated in the previous years arose once more. In this connection the minutes of the special conferences (February, 1st—8th, 1914) are very interesting. These conferences were presided over by the Minister for Foreign Affairs, Sazonov, and attended by the Chief of the Navy Staff, the Ambassador to Constantinople and a number of other high officials from the Army, Navy and Foreign Office (see document No. 295, pp. 373—391). The questions of landing troops, of action on land and sea, of means of transportation etc., were all discussed seriously.

Long before the Sarajevo murder and the Austrian ultimatum, Serbia appealed to Russia to supply the Serbian army with munitions. Evidence of this is contained in the letter of the President of the Serbian Council of Ministers, Pashich, who was also Minister for Foreign Affairs (No. 161, pp. 192—193). The question of subsidizing Montenegro was also brought up.

Russian diplomats tried to find out the economic situation in Rumania and Bulgaria. There are the reports of Savinsky, the ambassador to Bulgaria, of his conversations with king Ferdinand of Bulgaria, in the course of which the latter indulged in all sorts of ambiguities and adopted an attitude of false friendliness (No. 157, pp. 185—190).

It is natural, of course, that an important place in the documents should be occupied by the detailed reports of the Russian ambassadors to London and Paris. Here is no small quantity on material on the political situation on that time, on the role played by Sir Edward Grey, on Dounergue and others. Isvolsky frequently expressed his fears that the French Cabinet of Dounergue and Caillaux was too radical, and that new elections might put in a government of a still more «left» tendency. The Russian ambassador placed all his hopes in Poincaré. Isvolsky praised the president of the French Republic, and called him «a powerful political force». Along with him Brian, Milleraud, and Barthou are marked out as «people who had made great efforts to arrest the decay of government life in France, and to return to a more prudent policy at home and abroad» (No. 433, pp. 568—572). Stephane Lauzanne, then starting his journalistic career, is also mentioned. In a secret letter sent by the military agent in France to the quartermaster-general, dated January 22nd, 1914, we see — «Articles by Stephane Lauzanne were printed in «Le Matin», under the heading «La plus grande Russie». These articles, which sang the praises of Russia, were unfortunately not written in a sufficiently serious vein and were somewhat fantastic» (No. 77, pp. 85).

It is impossible in the space of a short review to exhaust all the wealth of material in the first volume of documents. It may be said, indeed, that it is obvious that this is a mine of information about the World War. Europe is waiting for this publication: Poincaré has already attempted to vitilify it in one of his articles in defence of war.

The Soviet publication of the documents of the World War should prove of great assistance to all research workers and the widest circles of the public interested in the unmasking of the war and in the fight for peace.
FOREIGN WORKERS AND SPECIALISTS TAKE PART IN THE WORK OF THE FACTORY AND WORKS’ COMMITTEES

Many of the foreign workers and specialists now engaged in Soviet industries take an active part in the life of their factory or workshop, speak at the production conferences, and make valuable suggestions for rationalisation.

An election campaign for the trade union organisations was recently carried on throughout the whole of the Soviet Union. Foreign workers assisted in the examination of the work of the trade union organisations.

A number of factories have taken as their slogan «Let’s elect the best foreign workers to the factory and work-shop committees».

The works’ committee of <Dynamo> — one of the biggest of the Moscow works—includes now as member a German engineer.

The share taken by the foreign workers and specialists in the work of the trade union organisations should do much towards making them all feel more at home in surroundings that are as yet new to them, and help them to take part in socialist construction.

A GREAT VICTORY OF SOVIET WORKER-INVENTORS IN TRANSPORT

The People’s Commissariat for Transport has organised groups of worker-inventors who carry on collective work according to plan and fulfill the tasks set by the Commissariat.

The application of this new method has already produced important results in connection with Soviet automatic coupling. The new automatic coupling was tested with a train that ran about 5,000 km.

During the run shunting was carried out, hill-climbing etc., especially along the North Caucasian, Southern and Kursk lines. The train weighed 4,020 tons, and had 364 axles.

The trial train was equipped with both Soviet and foreign automatic coupling devices. The best results were given by the Soviet automatic devices of the Young Communist workers, Miroshnichenko and the technician Bogdanov. Miroshnichenko’s device actually gave better results than had been attained anywhere in the world.

The question of Soviet automatic couplings can, therefore, be regarded as completely solved. The new Soviet system will satisfy the demands of socialist reconstruction of railroad transportation.

TABLES OF HONOUR FOR ENGINEERS AND TECHNICIANS

The Secretariat of the USSR Central Trade Union Council has resolved to found tables of honour for the engineers and technicians of the Soviet Union. The names of all those who distinguished themselves in the struggle to carry out the programme for the third, decisive year of the Five Year Plan, who have been rewarded either with the Lenin Order or the Order of the Red Banner, will be recorded on these tables.

A VICTORY FOR THE SOVIET CLOTH INDUSTRY

The first cloth-printing mill in the USSR has begun to work in Moscow. This opens up new possibilities for the development of the Soviet wool textile industry.

The factory has been able to introduce a great number of new methods, in particular the application of substitutes which not only do not render the quality of the goods inferior, but even improve it. In addition, the factory is employing an entirely new process of dyeing half-woollen goods. This method adds considerably to the wearing-quality of the materials and ensures the fastness of their colours.

Persistent and careful study of printing methods now permits the factory to fully guarantee the quality of the dyes in these materials.

NEW DEPOSITS OF COAL IN THE KUZNETSK BASIN

The above were discovered in the southeastern part of the Kuznetsk coalfields, near the Sieberg-Uluss. The coal-bearing coefficient of these new deposits is 25%. This is exceptional even for the Kuzbass.

The importance of the Sieberg coal-beds is increased by the fact that powerful deposits of iron ore have been discovered in the neighbourhood of Sieberg.
DEPOSITS OF COAL IN SAKHALIN

The geological expedition in the Soviet Far East, headed by Prof. Koslov, has finished its researches in the Vladimirovsky district of Sakhalin.

Prof. Koslov has given a preliminary account of the results of the work. As far as can be ascertained at present there are more than 100,000,000 tons of coal in the district. The more valuable seams are from 5 to 7 metres thick and have particularly great calorific capacity. They were discovered near the mouth of the river Vladimirovka, 40 km from Alexandrovsk and 9 km from the gulf of Tartary.

CHROMITE DEPOSITS IN BASHKIRIA

An expedition sent out by the Bashkirian Geological Trust has, as a result of prospecting done during the current year, discovered new rich deposits of chromite near the Kagiinsky works in Bashkiria.

The preliminary reports show that these deposits are very large—up to several hundred thousands tons.

The expedition is continuing its work. Boring has been begun.

A SCHOOL FOR THE CHILDREN OF ENGLISH SPEAKING SPECIALISTS AND WORKERS

Many of the foreign workers and specialists residing in the USSR have brought their families with them. In this connection the question arose of opening special schools, where foreign children might continue their education without waiting until they had mastered the Russian language. The first school of this type (the school for English-speaking children) has now been opened in Moscow. There are two workshops, a mechanical and a wood-working, attached to the school. There are also chemistry and physics laboratories, a music-room, a well-equipped gymnasium, and a dining-room. In the near future a kindergarten division will be opened for children under 7 years of age.

In one of the Russian schools in Leningrad departments have been opened for children of English workers and specialists.

Instruction is carried on in both these schools by experienced foreign teachers and young graduates of the English departments of Soviet Normal Schools.

A NEWSPAPER IN THE PAMIRS

The Badakshan Autonomous Region is situated in the Pamirs, at a height of 4,000 metres above sea-level.

During the Tsarist regime no attention at all was paid to the civilising of this place. More than 99% of the population was illiterate. It can easily be understood, therefore, that the cultural revolution carried by the toilers of the USSR to the most distant corners of the country, was in this case fraught with great difficulties. And Badakshan did overcome all obstacles and has won victory after victory in the construction of socialism and the creation of a new civilisation.

Here is an instance of the progress made in the Soviet Pamirs. A regional newspaper— «Badakshan-i-Surkh» (*Red Badakshan*) is now being published in the Russian and Tadjik languages, in Khoroga, the chief town.

The appearance of a native newspaper in the Pamirs is a sure sign of a new and important victory for the national policy of the Soviet government.

THE PROGRESS OF COMPULSORY ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN THE TARTAR REPUBLIC

In the Tartar Republic more than 31,800 children, that is 91% of all the children of school age, are now receiving an elementary education. 100% of those who have finished the elementary school have been admitted into the seven-year school.

All the schools in the Tartar Republic are connected with some particular industry, soviet farm, machine and tractor station, or collective farm. Workshops and work-rooms have been equipped in a number of schools. The village soviets took an active part in the setting up of the workshops, etc., and helped the schools with materials and with the gifts of equipment. They also assisted in the creation of the school funds and with supplies of provisions.

A great deal of work in training teachers is carried out in the Tartar Republic. Short courses are being organised, 650 members of the Young Communist League have gone into the teaching profession.

Special attention is being paid to the construction of school-buildings. 96 new schools are being built. The Tartar State Publishing House is making every effort to guarantee the schools with textbooks in the native tongue.
THE TENTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE KABARDA-BALKARIAN AUTONOMOUS REGION

Last year the Kabarda-Balkarian Autonomous Region was celebrating its tenth anniversary. In 1931 the Region has made considerable progress in cultural and economic construction. From the backward country that it was during the tsarist regime it has become one of the most advanced districts of the North Caucasus.

One of the biggest achievements is the completion in 1931 of collectivisation (more than 90%) and the resulting extension of the area under crops to much more than double that of pre-revolutionary times.

Industries for the working up of agricultural products have greatly developed here, and the study of the natural resources of the district guarantees the further development of industry.

The introduction of compulsory elementary education is one of the biggest advances made. The number of schools has increased from 33 in 1913 to 250 in 1931. Now the majority of grown-up people in the Region are literate, while before there were only 3% of literate people altogether.

The young people flock to the colleges. The national script and press is developing. The network of medical institutions and centres is also growing.

The government of the USSR intends to carry out in future a series of measures that will ensure the still more rapid economic and cultural growth of the Kabarda-Balkarian Region. Roads are to be built through the far-away mountain gorges. The construction of the Baksan power-station is being pushed on, and specifications for new water-power stations, etc., are being worked out.

New Gramophone Records

The latest set of gramophone records released by the Moscow Gramophone works shows a wide enough choice to suit any music-lover (all records mentioned in this review are «Grand» size).

Some of the records of national music are extremely interesting.

There is an old historic song from the days when Russia was under the Tartar yoke (Rimsky-Korsakov). It is sung by Andreiev (baritone) accompanied by a quartette of national stringed instruments. This is number 672.

«Testament» by the Ukrainian poet, Tarass Shevchenko,— a duet sung by Drovyanyikov and Belugin.

Two Russian songs (lyric and comic) sung by Anna Zagorskaya, accompanied by an orchestra of national instruments (1409, 1410).

The songs of the well-known peasant singer, Olga Kovaleva,— couplets (793), shepherd's song (with pipes) (794), lyric (1217).

Old gipsy songs sung by Merkholenko (contralto) (453, 253, 1547, 1548), and by Christophorova (454, 1519).

The very popular Piatnitsky peasant chorus renders old and new, comic and lyric dance songs (211, 216, 217, 247, 251).

Another peasant chorus, conducted by Yarkov (723, 724, 1501, 1506).

An orchestra of national stringed instruments (played with the hand) conducted by Alexeiev, gives various interpretations of Russian songs «The Garden» (1396), «The Sun went down behind the hill» (1396), «Near the Town of Saratov» with dancing (1111, 1112), and a fantasy of Glasunov's on the theme of Russian songs (1630, 1631).

The Andreiev orchestra of national stringed instruments gives similar folk songs, etc. (139, 1413).

Among the numbers rendered by the quartette of national instrument directed by Lubimov, the following should be noted: Russian songs (817, 818), Uzbek and Kirghiz songs (819, 820).

Among those by the 1st ethnographical quartette—Tartar and Mari Songs together with the English horn (rendered by Nazarov) (1349, 1350).

Lastly, we must note the records of the excellent trio of accordion players from the Meyerhold theatre: the sailors' horn-pipe from «The Red Poppy» ballet, by Glier, the fantasy on the theme of Russian songs (1288, 1683), the Ukrainian dances (1286, 1290), and Russian songs and dances (1287, 1289).
Mate in two moves.

White: K h 2; Q a 6; R h 4; B g 1, h 1; S f 5, f 6, P a 3, b 6, c 4, f 2, g 3 (12).

Black: K c 5; R b 2, g 7; B d 7, f 8, P a 7 (6).

Those who send the correct solution will receive the next issue of our Review.

RESULT OF USSR CHESS TOURNAMENT

Winner — M. M. Botvinnik

The finals of the USSR Chess Tournament closed at the end of 1931. In our previous number we gave a list of the participants. The winner was one of the most talented representatives of young Soviet chess-players, a Young Communist student of 21 years of age M. M. Botvinnik. His success did not come as a surprise to us. When he was only 17 he had already won for himself the title of maestro and in the course of the last 3 or 4 years was unfailingly the victor in all the important contests in Leningrad. His record was 13 1/2 points (out of 17) and he beat his nearest opponent by 2 points. The second place was taken by a young Moscow player, N. N. Rumin. For a long time he kept at the head of the tournament, but after losing the decisive game to Botvinnik, dropped to the second place (11 1/4 points).

The matches between Botvinnik and Rumin, fixed for the near future, should be extremely interesting.

The 3rd, 4th, 5th and 6th places were won, at 10 points each, by Bogatirchuk, Verlinsky, Yudovitch and Alatorvsev. The two last-named players obtained more than 50% of the points and received the title of Soviet maestros. This title was also won by Mazell, Kirillov and Lisitsin. As «Izvestia» pointed out, the combined ages of the five new maestros is only 106.

The maestro Ilyin-Jenevsky was unsuccessful in the tournament (8 1/4 points). This was due, no doubt, to the fact that he was out of practice. It is interesting to note that he won his game from the winner of the tournament, M. Botvinnik, which testified to the high quality of Ilyin-Jenevsky’s play.

The toiling masses of the Soviet Union took a great interest in the tournament. In Moscow more than 500—700 persons, chiefly young workers, watched the tournament with intense interest.

CHESS IN THE USSR

The presidium of the Central Trade Union Council approved the estimated expenditure on chess (in connection with the trade-unions) of Rbls. 1,400,000, in 1932. This generous grant guarantees the further progress of the game among the widest circles of tailors of the USSR.

At the USSR Women’s Tournament the first prize was won by a Moscow woman, O. N. Rubtsova, who did not lose one game in the tournament and had only one draw. Rubtsova has won the first place in the USSR for the third time.

To celebrate the USSR Chess Congress a contest of problems and études, with a total prize fund of Rbls. 600, was announced by the Central Committee of Problemists. All the best Soviet problemists will take part in this contest. The results will be announced shortly.
SOVIET CULTURE REVIEW

AN ILLUSTRATED MONTHLY PUBLISHED BY THE SOVIET UNION SOCIETY FOR CULTURAL RELATIONS WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES (VOKS)

Second Year of Publication

The "Soviet Culture Bulletin" is being reorganised in 1932 into a monthly "Soviet Culture Review", published in three languages, English, French and German.

The "Soviet Culture Review" contains articles, notes, essays, reports and chronicle covering the whole field of socialist construction in the USSR as well as facts, figures and documents characterising the economic and cultural development of the Soviet Union on the base of the realisation of the first and the drawing up of the second Five Year Plan.

The "Soviet Culture Review" provides its readers with full information of the activities carried on by the social, scientific, and artistic institutions in the USSR, publishes theatre and cinema notes, book reviews, and miscellaneous items. A prominent place is reserved to the problems of Soviet culture and to the cultural relations with foreign countries.

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The size of each number is considerably increased and comprises not less than 40 pages with many illustrations.

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A specimen copy is posted on demand.

Subscriptions should be forwarded to the editorial and publishing office: Moscow, 69, Trubnikovskiy pereulok 17, Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries (VOKS), per cheque, or Konto No. 244 at the State Bank of the USSR.
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Vol. 6. Results of the first and prospects of the second Five-Year Plan.

Moreover, each volume contains the following sections:
1. Science and technics,
2. Literature and art,
3. Economics,
on which subjects informative articles will be contributed by eminent Soviet specialists.

In 1931 a number of articles by the following authors was published in the "V.O.K.S." magazine:

**POLITICS AND NATIONAL ECONOMY**
J. Stalin, A. Enukidze, A. Tadjieff, G. Lomov, N. Miliutin, K. Radek, etc.

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The Mayday of 1932 in the USSR

On May 1st the nations of the Soviet Union celebrate the Spring day of the solidarity of all workers.

Originally the Maydays were celebrated secretly and the tsarist regime retaliated by cossack whips and fusillades. A long way has been traversed since, a way of struggle and victories, and now we are celebrating the First of May of the last year of the Five-Year Plan, in the fifteenth year of the new social regime which prevails over a sixth part of the world.

3 years ago for the first time the banners of the May demonstrations, in Moscow, Kharkov, Tiflis, Vladivostock, bore the slogans of the Five-Year Plan. The sceptics of both hemispheres and downright enemies of the Soviet Union treated these slogans as some "spring fantasy". They refused to believe and to grasp that for the first time in the history of mankind a social regime could gain a victory on the basis of a plan created by means of scientific calculation and the enthusiasm of the masses.

It took three years, three Maydays to persuade not only the friends of the Soviet Union, but even its enemies that the Five-Year Plan is by no means a "romance of engineering" as it was called at one time, but a genuine, real heroic epopee of labour and revolutionary will.

The Mayday of the present year, the last of the first Five-Year Plan, is marked in the USSR by new victories of world importance.

An enormous dam has been erected in the Soviet Ukraine — 704 thousand cubic metres of concrete, by means of which the power of Dnieper will feed the gigantic combine of electrical power, aluminium, steel and coal iron.

On the 1st of May the Dnieper power stations will be set into operation, — half a year ahead of the scheduled time.

The construction of three big power stations on the middle Volga will follow Dnieprostroy and will be completed in 1935.

Far away from the Dnieper steppes, on the boundary of Europe and Asia the Soviet metallurgical industry has broken the world record.

The daily output of the Magnitogorsk "Unique Blast-furnace", as Stalin called it, reached 1,037 tons of pig-iron on the 58th day after starting operations. This is one of the greatest victories of labour, which bears witness to the fact that the USSR is mastering the heights of world technique.

And, finally, in Moscow, in the very heart of the Soviet Union, an enormous mass of glass and concrete, a vast building occupying an area of 135,000 square metres, has been erected on a vacant site in the Simonovo Suburb.

This new plant of Soviet ball-bearings will give 100,000 bearings per day (24 millions annually), while all the European plants put together produce about 120,000 bearings daily.

Such are the first victories of the final year of the Five-Year Plan. The foundations, on which the edifice of socialism in the USSR will be completed during the second Five-Year period, have thus been enormously widened and consolidated.

Wherein lies the "secret" of these successes?

In that the toilers of the Soviet Union are building up their own economy and fighting their own battle. The material and cultural values could only be created on such scale and at such rapid rate by class-conscious and free labour, able to overcome all the obstacles.

The enthusiasm of the builders of socialism found its expression in the new methods of labour, which evolved in the USSR, namely — socialist competition and shock work.

Lenin in 1920 wrote, that labour leads "from the destruction of an agelong order to the creation of a new one. To create a new discipline of labour, to build up new forms of social ties between men... is a thankful and noble work".

The Five-Year Plan is precisely the embodiment of this thankful and noble work. This plan trains the heroes of labour, the shock brigaders, the prototype of new men. Our famous friend, Romain Rolland, has excellently expressed this feature of socialist construction, when he wrote, that in the USSR "not only gigantic factories and powerful machines are being created but also millions of new people, a whole generation of fearless, strong, healthy, disinterested people, inspired by a burning faith in the new world".

The second Five-Year Plan which proposes the abolition of classes in the USSR will be a period of radical reconstruction.
in the consciousness of men, their consistent emancipation from the remains and prejudices of the old regime.

The calculations of the second Five-Year Plan allow us to gain a glimpse of what the life of the toilers will be like in the USSR already within the next few years. Magnitogorsk and Angara are new centres of industrial life, which quite recently presented nothing but wild steppes and deserts.

The number of Soviet farms and collective farms is ever on the increase. The boundaries which marked the barbarian individual system of farming have been finally swept away. Endless fields, with the aid of machine and tractor stations, are cultivated with the latest tools and machines produced at the Soviet works of agricultural machinery.

The cultural aspect of the country is altering so radically as its economic structure.

Labour palaces, factory-kitchens, stadiums, rest homes, communes. Such are the distinguishing traits of the picture which will be presented by the country in the nearest future.

During the second Five-Year Plan the Soviet country is bound to witness the Art Magnitostroy — works of art worthy of the epoch of great socialism.

The construction on such a big scale, full of striking ideas, can naturally only be realised in an irreconcilable struggle against all the remains of capitalist elements in the country, in the domains of economics, ideas and the living conditions. The toilers of the USSR are conducting this struggle and will continue it, basing themselves on the fact that the victory of socialism in the USSR is already guaranteed, that the question put by Lenin: “Who will beat whom?” — has already been settled in favour of socialism.

Does it mean that the masses of the Soviet Union need now feel no anxiety about the fate of the Soviet State? Can the workers, the collective farmers, the toiling intelligentsia say that the country of peaceful labour lives now in an environment which is similarly peaceful?

No, they cannot.

On the contrary, everything goes to prove that the threat to the Soviet Union from without, a threat which was ever present throughout the whole period the Soviet government has been in existence, is becoming more and more real and perceptible as time goes on.

The Soviet Union, a State which did away with unemployment, which is undeniably progressing in all spheres of cultural and economic life, has to live in the environment of a world in chaos, of an unprecedented crisis, of cultural reaction and of the pauperisation of masses. It is this world, shaken by sharpest antagonisms, which is an ever present storm centre of war. War danger is constantly coming up and is accentuated owing to the capitalist system itself.

For many years a dispute has been going on with the Soviet Union about its assertion that war is inevitable under the present conditions. Our opponents by way of refutation referred to such factors as the League of Nations, etc. Now even those must regard this dispute as settled who hitherto failed to grasp that war in effect has not ceased for a minute in one form or another, in one part of the globe or another. The formula put forward by Litvinov: “The possibility of war is proved by the fact that this war is already taking place” — is irrefutable.

War has not been declared but it is already in progress, it is raging over a huge territory of the Far East.

Yet at the Geneva Conference the USSR proved to be the only country which declared of its willingness fully to disarm, which called all the other States to do so. This appeal fell on deaf ears.

Stubbornly and persistently fighting for peace, giving proof of its will to maintain peace in spite of all the most unfavourable circumstances (e. g. at the Geneva Conference) the USSR is equally stubborn and persistent in its decision to uphold by armed force the conquests of peaceful labour.

One of the proofs of that determination is that enormous love and care bestowed in the USSR on the Red Army — the armed vanguard of the toilers.

The toilers of the USSR, represented by the Red Army, are fighting in defence of their own interests, just as they work for their own benefit.

The moral strength of the Red Army is rooted in this organic connection between the Red Army and the entire mass of the toilers. This moral strength is undoubtedly the most important military and political factor.

As regards the technical equipment of the Red Army it is being perfected along with the economic development of the USSR and along with the transformation
of the Soviet Union into "a country of metal, a country of motors and tractors".

When referring to the moral strength of the Soviet Union it is necessary to point out to the sympathies it draws to itself from the broad masses of the toilers in every part of the world, a sympathy which was strikingly manifested already at the time of the civil war and the imperialist intervention in the young Soviet Republic.

There is no doubt that the greater is the danger of new attacks on the Soviet Union, the greater will be the wave of these sympathies.

This largely applies to the broad circles of foreign scientists, technicians and artists.

V. Molotov in a speech, which we partly reproduce in the present issue, was able to refer to most important foreign authors and scholars, who are openly expressing their sympathy for the Soviet Union.

At the present time, when the USSR and the whole world are under an immediate threat of war, the role played by the friends of the Soviet Union is becoming far more important.

Their task will be to make public concrete facts proving the preparation of war and to destroy illusions to the effect that "all is right with the world" and that there is no need to talk of any immediate danger. Such illusions are spread precisely by those who are preparing war.

War in the East is of international importance. The events which are taking place out there are with thousands of threads connected with the various interests of the big powers of the West and of the East, and especially with the preparation of war against the USSR.

It is in times of danger that friendship is tested. Now, when the war danger is so acute, every manifestation of friendship for the Soviet Union is of special value.

It is now a question of a friendly attitude towards a country, which is establishing new social forms of life, which is opening a new chapter in the history of civilisation, which is fighting for the realisation of ideas, such as have agitated the best minds of mankind. The well known Soviet writer, Leonid Leonov, declared recently the following in his appeal to foreign friends of the USSR in view of the preparation of an anti-Soviet war: "The USSR is not only the first proletarian State. The USSR is the real symbol of that true humanity, for which each of you has been striving."

The last cubic metre of concrete has been poured on the dam of Dnieprostroy
The Soviet Union Fights for Peace

THE USSR DEMANDS COMPLETE DISARMAMENT AS GUARANTEE AGAINST WAR

(From M. Litvinov's speech at the Disarmament Conference)

THE POLICY OF THE USSR IS A POLICY OF PEACE

The Soviet Government is not taking part in this conference on account of formal obligations, and not under any stimulus from outside. From the very first days of its existence it condemned war as an instrument of national policy, by deeds as well as by words, declared against all contributions and territorial annexations, and the oppression of any nation by any other, and proclaimed the principle of national self-determination. Ever since it has in its own policy pursued with strict consistency the line of peaceful and loyal co-operation with other States. Once war is excluded as an instrument of national policy, the Soviet Government sees no need for maintaining armies and other armed forces and, on its first appearance at an international conference — at Genoa ten years ago — it proposed total general disarmament as the only way of putting an end to war. It renewed this proposal as soon as it was invited to take part in the work of the Preparatory Commission for Disarmament. In making this proposal my government took into consideration the demands and claims of the peoples throughout the world as well as the spirit of its own people.

The Soviet Delegation urged at the Preparatory Commission the speediest possible realisation of its proposal. At the same time we pointed out the imminent danger of new wars and that the only means of averting this danger, under the economic system existing in most countries, would be total disarmament, and that no treaties, pacts, protocols or international organisations could create real security for all countries. Our point of view was disputed in the Commission. Our warnings as to the imminent possibility of new wars were ridiculed. We were accused of pessimism and of exaggerating the danger. We were told that it was self-defence that was required and that this security could be achieved by a system of treaties, protocols and other international undertakings, suggested by the League of Nations, and that there was no hurry about disarmament.

WHO STANDS FOR PEACE AND WHO IS AGAINST IT

It would, however, be wrong to infer from what I have said that the Soviet Delegation denies the importance and efficacy of all other ways of consolidating peace short of total disarmament. The Soviet Government has shown its readiness for international co-operation by taking part in a series of international congresses and organisations and by the proposals which it brought before them. Nor do we underrate the importance of international treaties and undertakings for peace. My government adhered to the 1925 Paris Treaty at the time and even put it into force with neighbouring States earlier than it was done by the Treaty's own initiators. My government itself makes a practice of concluding mutual non-aggression pacts which it considers infinitely more significant than multi-lateral or general treaties. It has always proposed non-aggression pacts to all States. These pacts are a kind of acid test for making other States display their spirit, whether peaceful or the reverse. When a pact proposed by us to a State is immediately accepted and put into force, a certain stability in the relations between the two States may be affirmed. When such a proposal is not immediately accepted but considered for years, and even after the first letter of the signature has been appended to it, a period of meditation ensues, and the completion of the signature is postponed, there is naturally less feeling of confidence. But still more serious doubts of a peaceful spirit arise with regard to States which categorically reject proposals for the conclusion of a pact of non-aggression, either on some excuse or other, or without giving any excuse. It is then obviously impossible to deny the importance of international pacts as a means of discovering the peaceful or hostile attitude of
another State. In addition it must be admitted that the conclusion of a non-aggression pact increases the guilt of the aggressor in cases of disturbance of the peace. Such pacts cannot, however, be considered an actual guarantee against war. Total and general disarmament is the only effective guarantee against war and its devastating effects.

The Soviet Delegation submitted to the Preparatory Conference for the Disarmament Conference a draft convention for total disarmament, to be realised in the course of four years. This was four years ago, and it will hardly be denied that if our proposal had been accepted at the time, the events in the Far East would not have occurred, there would have been no threats of a new world war, and the economic crisis, now being almost universally experienced, would undoubtedly have been less acute.

SECURITY OF THE SOVIET UNION MENACED

The country I represent is in a less favourable position as regards security than other countries. Only 14 years ago, it was the object of armed attack on all its frontiers, of blockade and of political and economic boycott. For 14 years it has been the object of indescribable slander and hostile campaigns. Even now many States, including one of the strongest naval powers, do not conceal their hostility to it, even to the extent of refusing to establish normal peaceful relations, and many States maintaining normal relations with it have refused to conclude or confirm pacts of non-aggression. The present events in the Far East, which have evoked universal alarm, cannot but cause special anxiety in the Soviet Union, owing to its geographical nearness to the theatre of these events, where huge armies are operating, and where anti-Soviet Russian émigrés are mobilising their forces. Despite all this I am empowered to declare here the readiness of the Soviet Union to disarm to the same extent and at the same rate to which the other powers, first and foremost those actually at its borders, may agree.

TO ORGANISE PEACE BY CREATING SECURITY AGAINST WAR

But before taking up the question of partial disarmament, the Soviet Delegation wishes to appeal to the conference as follows.

The political and economic differences existing between various States have become considerably intensified since the Great War and, owing to the crisis, are inevitably and rapidly leading to a new armed conflict between nations. This conflict, owing to modern improvements in the weapons of destruction, threatens humanity with incredible disasters, unprecedented devastation. The impending menace of war is causing universal alarm and arising universal suspicion. This alarm and suspicion, together with the burden of taxation imposed upon the people for the maintenance by States of huge armed forces are nourishing and intensifying the present economic crisis, which is felt in all its weight first and foremost by the working classes. In these circumstances the task of the hour is not the repetition of any attempt to achieve the reduction of armaments or war budgets, the realisation of which is bound to come up against tremendous obstacles, but the actual prevention of war, through the creation of effective security against war. This task can only be carried out by means of total and general disarmament.

The Soviet Delegation will move a resolution to this effect, convinced as it is that there would be no external obstacle to the carrying out of general disarmament if the governments here represented show their readiness for it.

THE TASKS OF THE USSR ARE PEACEFUL TASKS

The sole aim of the Soviet Government is the building up of socialism on the territory of the Soviet Union, and in the face of the successful accomplishment of the first Five-Year Plan, of colossal achievements in every sphere of economic life, it seems to the Soviet Delegation that what has been obvious from the beginning must by now be as clear as daylight to all and sundry—namely that the Soviet Union requires, neither the increase of territory, nor interference in the affairs of other nations, to achieve its aim, and could therefore do without army, navy, military aviation and all other forms of armed forces. It does, however, require the assurance that there will be no attempts against Soviet territory either and that other States will not interfere in its internal affairs and that its peaceful economic construction will not be tampered with from without. It will only feel this assur-
Now, when the whole world is going through an unprecedented economic crisis, which is shaking the edifice of the capitalist system to its foundations, the masses of the people suffering from unemployment to an extent hitherto unknown, from universal wage reductions, threatened by still further economic upheavals, the full burden of which the ruling classes readily shift on to their shoulders, must be relieved as far as possible from the threat of the catastrophe of war, which the course of the economic crisis is making more and more imminent. Security against war must be created. This security can never be achieved by roundabout ways, but only by the direct way of total general disarmament. This is no communist slogan.

THE TRiumPH OF SOCIALISM IS THE SUPREME GUARANTEE OF PEACE

The Soviet Delegation knows that the triumph of socialist principles, removing the causes giving rise to armed conflicts, is the only absolute guarantee of peace. So long, however, as these principles prevail only in one sixth of the world, there is only one means of organising security against war, and that is total and general disarmament. One proof of its practicability is the fact that it is proposed by a State with a population of over 160 million.

We hope that the responsible representatives of States here present will treat the idea expressed by the Soviet Delegation with the seriousness which the problem of assuring to all nations real security against war, real peace, deserves.

THE SOVIET UNION AND JAPAN

It is now over five months since the Japanese troops have occupied Mukden, the capital of Manchuria, and that an armed conflict began in the Far East, which is now assuming ever wider proportions. Since that period, not a day passed which did not bring with it a new intensification of the situation in the Far East, not a single wire was sent from that quarter which did not bear out the extraordinarily great importance of the events that are taking place. It is quite natural that the public opinion of the Soviet Union watches with particular attention the events, some of which are developing close to the very frontiers of the USSR.

The USSR, since the very first days of the Far-Eastern conflict, took up the position of strict neutrality. The sympathies of the toilers of the Soviet Union for the Chinese people, suffering from the oppression of imperialist exploiters, are, of course, an undisputed fact. But this sympathy for the struggle of liberation on the part of Chinese workers and peasants in no way infringes that undeviating line of strict non-interference, which naturally flows from the general policy of peace pursued by the Soviet Union. Owing to this consistent attitude of the Soviet Government towards the events in Manchuria, the provocative slanderous anti-Soviet attacks crumbled down one after another. Suffice it to recall the fate of the extensive campaign of slander about the alleged assistance lent by the Soviet Union to General Ma, a campaign now completely exposed before the entire world. The Soviet policy of non-interference and of preserving peace has obtained a universal recognition even on the part of the enemies of the Soviet country. This policy followed by the USSR was at last recognised by the Japanese Minister for Foreign Affairs, Iosizawa, who confirmed in the Japanese Parliament that the Japanese government recognises the fact of absolute neutrality and non-interference being observed on the part of the Soviet Union.

None the less, we are now witnessing a further revival of anti-Soviet intrigues in Manchuria. We are witnessing a whole system of provocative measures, whose significance may in no wise be underestimated. An abnormal situation is being created on our Far-Eastern frontiers, one that demands serious attention on our part. This unholy atmosphere may be illustrated by the information concerning a statement made by a representative of the Japanese Ministry for Foreign Affairs. The latter based his statement on the information supplied by the Japanese

1 Translated from «Izvestia» of March 4th, 1932.
Consul General in Vladivostok, who in his turn being apparently unable to find other sources of information, referred to a "trustworthy foreigner". The nature of this information based on unscrupulous inventions and combining obvious falsehoods, is flagrantly proclaiming its specific purpose. For this reason alone there would be no necessity of refuting the provocative inventions about a Japanese-Soviet clash, which was alleged to be imminent for in the opinion of this "foreigner", the "bolshheviks hate the Japanese", nor is there any necessity of refuting the falseness of the information concerning the concentration of a Soviet army of one hundred thousand men in the vicinity of Vladivostok.

However, at this moment it is not only in this circumstance that we are interested. What interests us most is the fact that Japanese politicians, in order to appraise the present situation in the Far East, are drawing their material from poisoned wells, instead of treating facts with due attention. These facts go to prove on the one hand the consistent peaceful position of the Soviet Union, and on the other hand, such development of events, which makes ponder every genuine supporter of peace. And this appraisal, a conscientious analysis of the environment show that the least the Soviet Union must do at this moment, is to take all the necessary and possible measures for the protection of the inviolability of its frontiers from attacks from without.

And, indeed, do not the facts bear this out? Did we not observe during the last months, weeks and even days a most serious increase in anti-Soviet provocative plots, which are constantly arising? It is impossible to ignore the fact that very responsible representatives of the Japanese military circles, and not only military circles, are openly raising the question of an attack on the USSR and of wresting from it the Maritime (Primorye) and the Trans-Baikal regions. We are in possession of documents emanating from the representatives of the highest military circles of Japan, which contain plans of an attack on the USSR and plans of capturing its territory.

One of these documents contains the following passage: "As regards the question, whether Japan should start war against the Soviet Union, my opinion is that it is necessary for Japan to strike the path of a firm policy in regard to the Soviet Union, and to be ready for war at any moment. The cardinal aim of this war consists not so much in safeguarding Japan from communism, as in obtaining possession of the Soviet Far East and Eastern Siberia."

Another document states as follows: "A Japan-Soviet war, taking into account the state of the armed forces of the USSR and the conditions in foreign States, must be waged as soon as possible. We must realise that as time goes on the situation grows more and more favourable for them. I regard it as necessary that the Imperial government should follow a policy calculated to bring about war with the USSR within the shortest possible period."

The same document states: "It is quite possible, in spite of our strategy of crushing and the tendency to bring matters speedily to a head, that owing to various conditions we shall be unable to carry on the war in strict accordance with the proposed plan of action. There arises an extremely important question of the final moment in our military operations. Naturally, we shall have to effect an advance up to the Lake Baikal. As regards the further advance to the West, this must be decided upon in accordance with the general situation, which will arise by that time, and this will depend especially on the conditions of those States, which will advance from the West. In case we stop on the Trans-Baikal railway line, Japan will have to incorporate fully the occupied Far-Eastern Region into the possessions of the Empire. On this territory our troops must be stationed as military settlements, i.e. for a long time to come. We must be prepared, after we have effected that occupation, to bide our time awaiting the subsequent course of events. Since it will be difficult for Japan to deal a mortal blow at the Soviet Union by means of war in the Soviet Far East, one of the most important aspects of our war must be strategic propaganda, by means of which we shall have to involve the Western neighbours and other States into war with the USSR and to cause a disintegration within the USSR by making use of the white groups within and outside the Union, of other nationalities within the USSR, and of all anti-Soviet elements. The present position of the USSR is very favourable for carrying out these combinations."

Finally, one more extract of a similar kind: "Considering the general condition of the country, it is possible to arrive at the conclusion that at the present time the USSR is unable to wage war. The present moment is exceptionally favourable
for our Empire to embark on the solution of the
Far-Eastern problem. The Western States bordering on the USSR (Poland, Rumania) are able now to act in concert with us, but this possibility will gradually decrease with every year.”

May be, the contents of these documents could be regarded as the exposition of the personal opinion of their authors. But these authors of aggressive plans are men holding such responsible positions that even their personal opinions could not fail to have a serious political weight and forces us to treat with necessary vigilance and attention everything that is taking place at our Far-Eastern borders.

No impartial politician can ignore the symptomatic significance of the fact that for two months the Japanese government did not deem it necessary to return an answer to the Soviet proposal concerning the conclusion of a non-aggression pact.

An extremely characteristic trait is also the anti-Soviet intrigues in Japan in connection with questions bound up with the fisheries. A campaign conducted by very influential Japanese circles is in reality connected with the convention on fisheries only in so far as it obviously has for its purpose to break up that convention, the strict observance of which the Soviet Government has always regarded and continues to regard as absolutely necessary. This campaign has nothing to do with the question of fisheries and is the expression of the aggressive plans of those Japanese circles, who would like to have an absolutely free hand in the Far-Eastern waters and to realise still “wider plans of conquest”.

It is equally clear that the inspirers of the Japanese policy in Manchuria cannot divest themselves of the responsibility for the anti-Soviet work of the White Guardists, who are now in high spirits. The Japanese governing circles in spite of the fact that they always emphasise their “ignorance” of the work of the White émigrés in Manchuria, will not be able, we believe, to deny the fact that the activity of the White Guardists has revived precisely after the occupation of Manchuria by the Japanese troops and is increasing in proportion to the strengthening of the Japanese influence in Manchuria. We could quote endless indications bearing out the fact that the aggressive activity of the White Guardists in Manchuria is immediately connected with the Japanese occupation. We need hardly mention that the White émigrés themselves write about this activity with absolute frankness. In absolutely all the organisations of émigrés in Paris reports are read on the role of Japan as the protectress of the anti-Soviet work of the White Guardists. As early as January last, “Vozrozhdienie” wrote: “Japanese public men have repeatedly emphasised that they place exceptional hopes in Russians, who are hostile to the USSR.”

“Foreign observers also repeatedly emphasised the connection between the Japanese plans and the anti-Soviet plots of the White Guardists. Thus, e. g. the “New York Herald Tribune” wrote at the end of January as follows: “The fact that the White Guardists welcomed enthusiastically the arrival of the Japanese in Kharbin suggests that Japan gave secret promises to these ever hopeful people.” The Paris correspondent of the German newspaper “Berliner Borsenzeitung” informed on February 28th: “The White Guardists have achieved a great deal; a new dangerous storm centre has been created on the Soviet frontier.”

We can also quote the report of the officially inspired Dairen Japanese newspaper “Mansyu-Nippo”, which stressed the circumstance that “since the formation of the new government in Manchuria the White-Guardist movement has revived to an extraordinary extent.”

Such are the facts, a sober estimation of which shows a strengthening of aggressive tendencies, directed against the USSR, in Manchuria, occupied by Japan. Such are the facts, which require vigilance and necessary measures for the protection of the territory of the USSR against attempts to invade it from without.

The peaceful policy of the USSR is not a policy of ignoring facts. We have repeatedly shown that the Soviet Union will not be ensnared by provocative plots and that at the same time the USSR knows how to expose and smash provocative plots, engineered against the USSR. The Soviet Government followed, follows and will follow a firm policy of peace and a policy of non-interference in the events which are now taking place in China. However, this by no means signifies that the Soviet Union will allow to anyone to infringe on the inviolability of Soviet frontiers, to invade its territory and to seize even the smallest part of Soviet land.

“We do not want a single foot of foreign land, but we shall not yield to anyone a single inch of our own.”
THE PRINCIPAL TASKS

Resolution carried by the XVIIth Conference of the Communist Party of the USSR in connection with the reports of V. M o l o t o v and V. K u i b y s h e v

The successes of the first Five-Year Plan have prepared the ground for the continued and even more powerful growth of socialism in the USSR.

The XVIIth Conference of the Party holds that the vast natural wealth of the country, the bolchevist rate of socialist construction, the growing activity of the masses of workers and collective farmers, and the correct line of the Party fully guarantee such development of the productive forces of socialist economy in the second Five-Year Plan, on the basis of which the capitalist elements in the USSR will be completely wiped out.

The conference holds that the chief political task of the second Five-Year Plan is completely to do away with the capitalist elements and with classes in general; fully to destroy the causes giving rise to class distinction and exploitation; to abolish the survivals of capitalism in economy and in the consciousness of people; to transform the whole working population of the country into conscious and active builders of a classless socialist society.

The welfare of the masses of workers and peasants must improve at a much greater rate than hitherto as a result of the elimination of parasitic class elements and the general growth of national income which is all for the benefit of the workers.

A decided improvement must take place in house-building and municipal construction. The conference holds that by the end of the period of the second Five-Year Plan the population must be provided with the main articles of consumption, including food products, at least to the extent of two to three times as much as at the end of the period of the first Five-Year Plan.

1. These tasks can be achieved only on the basis of a thorough technical reconstruction of the whole national economy — industry, transport and agriculture.

The USSR, when entering the period of the first Five-Year Plan, emerged from the period of restoration. In the concluding years of that period, it entered on the path of reconstruction of several basic branches of national economy, particularly the metal industry, machine building, coal mining, not to mention the reconstruction of the oil industry which had been accomplished even prior to that.

Particularly outstanding is the extensive reconstruction of agriculture which is being rapidly readjusted on a new technical base.

The successes achieved in this sphere during the period of the first Five-Year Plan mark, however, only the beginning of the technical reconstruction of national economy. Yet the bolchevist rate of socialist construction essential to the accomplishment of the main tasks of the second Five-Year Plan cannot be assured by the existing equipment of industry and transport, let alone agriculture, which is inadequate, antiquated and worn out, unless a technical reconstruction is effected in all branches of national economy, unless these branches are provided with modern machinery.

The XVIIth Conference of the Party holds, therefore, that the chief and decisive economic task of the second Five-Year Plan is to complete the reconstruction of the whole of national economy, to provide a new technical base for all its branches.

Of leading importance in the technical reconstruction of national economy will be the part to be played by the Soviet machine-building. The conference deems it necessary to enlarge the production by the end of the second Five-Year Plan at least three to three and a half times as compared with 1932, so that all the requirements of reconstruction in industry, transport, communication, agriculture, trade,
etc., would be met by the production of most modern machinery at home.

A most important item in the technical reconstruction of national economy is the creation of a new energetic base, founded on extensive electrification of industry and transport, and the gradual application of electricity in agriculture, using for this purpose the vast resources of water power, the anthracite deposits of the national and local coal-fields, the local types of fuel (peat and slate). The conference deems it absolutely necessary to generate in 1937 at least 100 milliard kilowatt-hours of electricity as compared with 17 milliard in 1932, to mine at least 250 million tons of coal, as compared with 90 million in 1932, and to increase the output of oil from two and a half to three times.

The XVIIth Conference of the Party holds that the following tasks must be put before the most important branches of national economy in the second Five-Year Plan:

A. The objective of the iron and steel industry is to be at least 22 million tons of pig-iron in 1937 and to provide the necessary grades of steel for the machine-building. To accomplish this, the metal industry must be completely reconstructed, new plants must be built and equipped with modern powerful machinery and provided with thoroughly prepared raw material, employing electricity in production and utilising all by-products.

B. The objective of non-ferrous metalurgy is to be the production of copper, lead, zinc, aluminum, and precious metals sufficient to meet the needs of the country in the second Five-Year Plan period. For this purpose, the method of selective flotation, of smelting pulverised ore, new types of raw material, etc., must be used.

C. The slow rate of development of the chemical industry, as compared with the rate in the whole of national economy, must be fully liquidated. Special attention is to be paid to the development of the basic chemical industry and particularly to the production of fertilisers, for which purpose the re-equipment of plants and extensive new construction is to be assured.

D. On the railways, a complete reconstruction is to be effected accompanied by the building of about 25,000 to 30,000 kilometres of new lines; the construction of many new bridges across the main rivers, the introduction of powerful engines and big freight cars, electrification of several railways, extensive application of automatic couplers and thermic engines. The railways must be so developed as to assure the hasty economic development of districts and national republics, the requirements of which in the past have been far from met.

As to navigation, there must be a reconstruction of the river and sea fleet; the existing water routes must be improved and new ones acquired, accompanied by the building of equipped river and sea ports.

In regard to the building of roads and highways and the production of automobiles, development must proceed at a faster rate than in the other types of transportation.

Communication by air is to be developed along all main lines, as one of the most important means of communication with distant areas and important industrial centres.

There must be extensive development of all forms of communication, especially radio.

E. As to the light and food industries, production in the most important branches must greatly develop on the basis of large-scale machinery and considerable extension of the agricultural supply of raw material, guaranteeing a trebled per capita consumption, having also in view the need of intensive augmentation of the light and food industries in new areas, namely in the districts where the raw material is produced.

The lumber industry which is of extraordinary importance in construction in general should be assured a deserving rate of development and mechanisation.

F. As to the small trades industry, co-operation should enlarge the output of goods of wide consumption and to promote such manufactures and trades, which supply the socialised industry and agriculture, on the basis of complete inclusion of small trades into the co-operation.

G. In agriculture, socialist construction must be completed so that all collective farms will be cultivated by machine and tractor stations and farming in the main mechanised. The task of organisational and economic consolidation of the collective farms and socialist training of the masses of collective farmers will still be the centre of attention in the second Five-Year Plan.

The State farms must extend production all along the line, including the cultivation of commercial crops and live stock.
They must play a greater part as models of socialist organisation of farming, application of modern machinery and all achievements of contemporary agronomy and zootechnics.

The development of live stock and its products in the second Five-Year Plan must in the main solve the live stock problem of the USSR just as the grain problem has been solved by the Party in the first Five-Year Plan.

The cultivation of cotton and flax must at least double and that of sugar beets treble. All these measures in agriculture necessitate a still further and more rapid development of grain cultivation so that by the end of the period of the second Five-Year Plan at least 1,300,000,000 hundredweights of grain will be produced. The main task of the second Five-Year Plan therefore is greatly to increase the yield of collective and State fields and to cope with drought in a bolshevist fashion.

2. The complete technical reconstruction of national economy is inseparably linked up with the task of mastering technics by the industrial cadres, the development of large numbers of new technicians coming from the workers and peasants, and the raising of the cultural level of the entire mass of workers. The fact that the technical forces in the Soviet Union will numerically increase should by no means obscure the importance of their education, the importance of their knowledge of all the achievements of world science and technics. The solution of the problem of technical forces is a most essential element of bolshevist realisation of the tasks of the cultural revolution in this country and the successful building of socialism.

The most speedy introduction of general literacy in the masses; immediate raising of the whole work of technical education and increased material support from the Government in developing science in USSR — these are the immediate tasks, representing a fraction of the general programme in building socialism in our country.

3. In order to assure a bolshevist tempo of development of the whole of national economy and better catering to the needs of the broad masses of town and country in the matter of articles of mass consumption, the development of commodity circulation is of prime importance. The development of the circulation of commodities, particularly in retail, and the use of business methods in all economic activity will best stimulate the mobilisation of the vast internal resources available in Soviet economy which are yet far from being exhausted. This will accelerate socialist accumulation and thereby strengthen the material basis of socialist construction. At the same time, the supply of manufactured goods and food products for the workers and rural toilers can rapidly improve only on the basis of extensive development of the circulation of commodities. For this purpose, the number of stores and stands as well as other forms of trade must increase to the utmost and be provided with the necessary technical equipment. Only by so doing, will the ground be prepared for abolishing the rationing system and for doing away with centralised distribution, which is to be replaced by extensive Soviet trade.

The conference also stresses the anti-bolshevist character of the 'left' phrases about introducing direct 'exchange of products' and about the 'withering away of money' in the present stage of socialist construction. The conference emphasises, on the other hand, that the bourgeois distortion of the principle of business methods expressed in the squandering away of State resources, resulting in the disruption of economic plans, is absolutely incompatible with the policy of the Party and the interests of the working class.

The new successes of socialism will be secured by the working class only in a struggle against the relics of capitalism by pitilessly crushing the resistance of the doomed capitalist elements, by overcoming the bourgeois and petty bourgeois prejudices to be found among the toilers, and by persistent work in the field of socialist education.

This means that even in the future we shall not be able to avoid intensified class struggle at certain moments, and particularly in certain isolate districts and separate parts of socialist construction which at the same time underlines the inevitability of preservation, and in some cases of increasing of bourgeois influences in separate strata and groups of working masses; the inevitability for a considerable period of class influences, hostile to the proletariat, penetrating into the midst of workers and even into the
Party. Considering which the Party is bound to face the problem of fortifying the dictatorship of the proletariat and further struggle with opportunism, particularly with the right wing deviation — the chief danger at the present stage.

The full collectivisation of agriculture, the growing number of large State farms and the equipment of the collective and State farms with modern machinery which transforms farm labour into a type of industrial labour, and the considerable improvement of the transport system and circulation of commodities between industry and agriculture, create conditions for the complete obliteration of the difference between town and country.

The rapid growth of socialist economy during the period of the second Five-Year Plan in the national republics and regions will provide a basis for the elimination of economic and cultural backwardness of the various nationalities inherited from the tsarist capitalist-colonial regime.

In the period of the second Five-Year Plan, the Soviet Union will occupy the second place in Europe in its technical development. The work done in the first Five-Year Plan towards the transformation of the USSR from a country which imports machines and equipment into a country independently producing machines and equipment, will be completed, and "the economic independence of the USSR, protecting the latter against its conversion into an appendage of capitalist world economy, will be secured" (XIVth Congress of the CPSU).

All this creates the possibility for the USSR to catch up the level of technical and economic development of the advanced capitalist countries in several branches of economy.

The acute crisis in the capitalist countries is the best evidence of the coming downfall of the capitalist world. The successes of socialism in the USSR are the best evidence that the socialist system has advantages over the capitalist system.

In the capitalist countries we witness a catastrophic fall in production, the wholesale closing down of mills and factories, an unprecedented destruction of forces of production. In the USSR we witness a tremendous and steady growth of production, ever increasing construction of factories, giant plants, mines and power stations, a rate of development of productive forces inconceivable under capitalism.

In the capitalist countries we witness frightful unemployment of millions of workers and extreme impoverishment of millions of farmers. In the Soviet Union unemployment has been done away with completely and poverty has been wiped out. In this country, the seven-hour day has been introduced in the factories and mills and the welfare of the masses of town and country is constantly rising.

All of this makes the USSR a centre of attraction for the workers of all countries and the oppressed of the world. The significance of the Soviet Union as a revolutionary factor is growing. The USSR is being strengthened as a base of international socialism.

The XVIIth Conference of the Party expresses the firm conviction that the main tasks of the second Five-Year Plan will be not only accomplished but exceeded; that an actual and concrete economic guidance and energetic struggle with bureaucracy will be guaranteed by all the organisations of the working class; that the raising of the productivity of labour necessary for the realisation of the second Five-Year Plan will be guaranteed by the workers of the USSR; and that the number of engaged in socialist competition and organised in shock brigades will swell from day to day.

The conference has the unshaken conviction that the working class and the mass of collective farmers will find in the organisations of the Communist Party, the Young Communist League, the Trade Unions, and the Soviet Government, bolshevist organisers and leaders in the victorious struggle for the carrying out of the second Five-Year Plan.

The conference considers it necessary to intensify the work of Party, Soviet, economic, co-operative, professional and Young Communist League organisations for the speediest elaboration of the second Five-Year Plan and to present it for approval to the next Party Conference.
ABOLITION OF CLASSES

The fundamental political task of the second Five-Year Plan is the "final liquidation of the capitalist elements and of classes generally" and the "transformation of the whole of the toiling population of the country into conscious and active builders of classless socialist society".

The 1932 plan of national economy adopted by the Party presupposes that already by the end of the first Five-Year Plan private enterprises will produce less than 10% of the national income of the Soviet Union. Another fact: already over 60% of the peasant farms in this country are collectivised, and there can be no doubt whatever that in 1932/33 the task set by the Party of completing the collectivisation of agriculture will be carried out in the main. This means that already during the next two years the basic section of the capitalist elements in the village will be wiped out on the basis of complete collectivisation. Last but not least, in big industry the capitalist elements have long since gone down, while in petty industry and in trade their role is rapidly dwindling. Consequently, there can be no doubt whatever that in the second Five-Year Plan the Party can and should set before itself the task of the final liquidation of the capitalist elements.

But we are told: granted that you will effect the final liquidation of the capitalist elements, but what about liquidating classes generally? Such a statement of the question contains a crude contradiction which leads to great confusion.

As is known, the fundamental task of socialism is the abolition of capitalism, in other words, the abolition of classes, i.e., of the exploitation of man by man. Hence, it follows that the total liquidation of the capitalist elements implies the liquidation of the class of exploiters, and without exploiters there are no exploited.

In the theses the necessity is urged of the "full elimination of the causes which beget class differences and exploitation". What form is this to take? We bolsheviks know quite well what form it should take,

1 Here and on the following pages the theses on the directives on the 2nd Five-Year Plan are referred to.

for the bolsheviks have effected a socialist revolution which begins by turning over to public ownership, to the State, the means of production, i.e., the land, the factories, workshops, etc. The basis of human exploitation is the ownership of these means of production by some people and the lack of it by others. This divides people into classes and begets exploitation. We know that in regard to big industry of the land, the process of nationalisation of the means of production has long since been completed. This is still going on and with the final liquidation of the capitalist elements it will be fully accomplished in all other branches of national economy. Thus will we eliminate the causes which beget class differences and exploitation.

After all has been said it is clear that the full liquidation of capitalist elements and the total abolition of the causes of class differences imply also the liquidation of classes generally. If there are no capitalist elements, i.e., no exploiters, and if the sources of class differences have been eliminated, what talk can there be about the existence of classes? Consequently, once the second Five-Year Plan takes up the task of the full liquidation of capitalist elements, it inevitably takes up the task of liquidating classes generally.

Of course, the liquidation of capitalist elements involves tremendous difficulties to overcome the desperate attempts of resistance put up by the kulaks and bourgeois elements in general. Not only does not the class struggle end, but in some sections and at some periods it may and will become considerably sharpened. The full liquidation of capitalist elements is only possible by a thorough carrying out of the bolshevikist policy of a general offensive which surmounts all difficulties, which rallies to the working class the broad masses of the village in the struggle against the kulak, against all bourgeois-capitalist elements.

THE PROLETARIAT

Since the working class has taken power into its hands and gained control of all the means of production, i.e., big industry, the land, transport, etc., it has ceased to be the proletariat in the sense in which
this term is used under a capitalist society. The proletariat in capitalist society is deprived of the means of production and is therefore bound by the chains of bourgeois exploitation. The condition of the proletariat under capitalism is that of an oppressed and exploited class of society. Having overthrown the power of the bourgeois and taken away from it the means of production, the working class has become the dominant power in the State. From that very moment begins the liquidation of the capitalist elements and the paving of the way for the liquidation of classes in general.

In October 1917, the working class of our country scored the greatest historic victory over the bourgeoisie that is known in world history. Since that time the working class of the USSR is not only free from the slavery of capitalism, but has also become the dominant class that is building the new socialist society. The historic role of the proletariat consists not only in being the grave digger of bourgeois society, but also in being the builder of the new socialist society. Hence, the state that is created by the working class after its victory, is used by the proletariat to liquidate the capitalist elements, and at the same time to do away with classes generally. When capitalist elements are eliminated, the roots of class divisions in society are torn out, and consequently, the way is paved for the liquidation of all classes, and so of the working class itself. The working class of our country has already traversed much of the road towards the liquidation of capitalist elements. The next Five-Year Plan will be the period when the question of the liquidation of capitalist elements and of classes generally will be at the forefront.

In carrying out the task of the liquidation of classes, the working class of our country is fulfilling a special role. As the dominant class, the working class of this country is leading the whole of socialist construction including the liquidation of capitalist elements and the remodelling of the petty peasant economy upon the basis of socialism.

THE TOILING MASS OF PEASANTRY

Since the October Revolution profound changes have taken place in the condition of the peasantry that cannot be overlooked. This relates especially and above all to the masses of collective farmers.

Although it is only about two and a half years since the toiling peasants have taken to the road of complete collectivisation, we can clearly see that they have definitely taken up the course of socialism. In the struggle against the kulaks, under the guidance of the working class, the overwhelming mass of the collective farmers — and there are already millions of them — have firmly joined the ranks of the builders of socialism.

Of course, they remember quite well what they were before the October Revolution. They cannot forget how under the rule of the bourgeoisie and the landlords they were mercilessly exploited and oppressed, how they were beaten and flogged by tsarist officials, how they were steeped in ignorance and subjected to the ministrations of the “spiritual fathers,” the priests of the orthodox church, etc. Comparing their own condition with the starvation of the workers and the misery of the unemployed under capitalist rule and knowing no way for a better life, the peasants were clinging to their small holdings, and in this manner they developed the mental habits of petty proprietors.

During the period of the second Five-Year Plan the whole mass of the toilers in the village will be drawn into socialist construction, by the reconstruction of economy upon the basis of collectivisation and high machine technique. This cannot proceed smoothly and of its own accord. It can come only through a bitter struggle against the remnants of capitalism in the village, through a struggle for the organisational and economic strengthening of the kolkhozes. This means the struggle for the reformation of the petty proprietors of yesterday into collective farmers, into the conscious and active builders of socialism of today and tomorrow.

It needs no demonstrating that the present kolkhoz peasantry, and in the next couple of years the bulk of the peasantry, are no longer the individual farmers of the pre-revolutionary days. During the years of revolution, especially the years of the rapid growth of complete collectivisation in the village, there have occurred profound changes in the peasantry, and the peasant today has quite a different appearance. From an ignorant, backward and helpless creature, the rural toiler has been transformed into an active builder, a collective farmer. On these grounds the ranks of active and conscious builders of socialism in the village are growing so rapidly
that in the second Five-Year Plan — this may be confidently anticipated — the whole bulk of the toiling peasantry will be organised in the colhozes. This will mean the end to the petty ownership which has prevailed in the village for many centuries.

MUTUAL RELATIONS BETWEEN TOWN AND COUNTRY

The outline of the second Five-Year Plan contemplates also the question of mutual relations between town and village.

In "The Housing Question" Engels wrote: "Purest utopia is the desire to reform existing bourgeois society while wishing to retain the peasantry as such. Only the most even possible distribution of the population all over the country, only the close connection of industry with agricultural work, along with the necessary extension of the means of communication — while abolishing the capitalist mode of production, which is the premise — can get the rural population out of the state of isolation and stupidity in which it has almost invariably stagnated in the course of millenniums."

A deduction in this sense is drawn in our theses. In the theses it is pointed out that the fulfilment of the tasks of the second Five-Year Plan means the creation of conditions "for the full elimination of the contrast between town and village."

It is important, however, to deal here with the question of the ways to eliminate this contrast. On the one hand this depends on the village, which is being rebuilt upon the new colhoz basis (at the present stage, in the form of artels).

It is well known, that the socialist reconstruction of our agriculture is taking place on the basis of collectivisation. The colhozes are one of the varieties of co-operative organisations, the highest form of co-operation, a type of socialist production.

The distinction between the colhoz and the socialist State enterprise is of tremendous political and practical importance. The co-operative basis of the colhoz in the form of an artel, the principle of voluntary membership, the creation of the new, higher technical base of collective farming with the assistance of the State and under its guidance — all this facilitates in the highest degree the transition of the masses of the peasants towards socialism (through the various degrees in the development of the collective farms themselves). This arises from the famous co-operative plan worked out by Lenin.

The VIIth Congress of Soviets in 1931 emphasised the difference between colhozes and sovhozes. It was especially noted that "the sovhozes are State enterprises in which the State is the full owner". At the same time it was stated that "the owners of the colhozes are the colhoz members." The difference is obvious. This difference is emphasised by the Party in order to allow no incorrect identification of the sovhozes with the colhozes and vice versa, which, as you know, has taken place in practice in a number of cases. In that decision the co-operative character of the colhozes, and the peculiar ways of the peasantry towards socialism were emphasised to a sufficient degree.

The distinctive difference of the road to socialism for the working class and the peasantry is obvious. Owing to the peculiar conditions of its position as a class, the working class goes in advance of the peasantry, through the highest forms of socialist economy of the present stage. The toiling masses of the peasantry, owing to their conditions in the past, are following the course towards the classless socialist society through a number of additional transition stages, through longer periods, etc. Both the industrial workers and the peasants, in their masses, will become transformed during the next Five-Year Plan into more and more active and conscious builders of a classless socialist society. The varying ways of their socialist evolution do not hinder, but rather assure the ultimate victory of socialism, when at last all the differences between workers and peasants will have completely disappeared.

CHANGES IN THE MENTALITY OF THE PEOPLE

A big start was already made by the October Revolution towards the obliteration of the contrast between mental and physical work. Universal literacy is one of the basic measures in this direction. The facilities of not only elementary but also of advocated education extended to every worker in town or village, and the exceptionally rapid growth of the technical and scientific forces in our country, indicate that we are creating the material and cultural premises of the struggle for wiping out the contrasts between mental and physical work. Nevertheless we believe it premature, and not in accord with the object-
ive conditions, to undertake in the second Five-Year Plan the task of wiping out the contrasts between mental and physical work.

On the other hand, the realisation of such tasks as the full liquidation of the capitalist elements and of classes generally, and also of a continued and more rapid rise in the welfare of the workers is necessarily connected with the task of overcoming the survivals of capitalism not only in economics but also in the mentality of the people. Of course, these survivals will be far from liquidation in the course of the second Five-Year Plan. In the second Five-Year Plan, however, the struggle for overcoming the survivals of capitalism not only in economics but also in the mentality of the people should be unfolded along the entire front, in conformity with the fundamental political problems of the Party.

OLD AND NEW SPECIALISTS

When the technical reconstruction of all branches of national economy has to be completed, the mastering of technique means that thousands of skilled workers must be trained at an accelerated rate, that new and ever new organisers of socialist economy must be trained among the progressive workers and the toiling peasants who are devoted to the cause of socialism, that scientific institutions must be extensively developed for the purpose of developing science and technique in the country, and that at the same time a bolshevist sweep must be undertaken in educating the population in general and developing extensive technical education.

The technical reconstruction of national economy necessitates the corresponding utilisation of specialists of a bourgeois type in our economic and scientific labour. This question is of vast importance even now.

Emphasising the importance of composing the first plan of electrification of this country, Lenin in his days said:

"To us it is an achievement that we have attracted hundreds of engineers and scientists permeated with bourgeois views and given them the task of reorganising the whole of our economy, industry, and agriculture, roused their interest and secured much material from them."

The situation today differs much from what it was when the Goelro plan was being drawn up. Nevertheless the question of attracting specialists of a bourgeois type, the specialists of the old school, is very important even now.

WORK OF FOREIGN SPECIALISTS

At the present time, in many instances the work of foreign specialists is of great importance. In order to master foreign technique — to which we still resort in considerable measure — we are frequently compelled to engage foreign engineers. We can only be grateful to those of them who are conscientiously fulfilling their obligations and are actively working to organise our new enterprises. The duty of a communist consists in the skilful utilisation of the specialists, the establishment of proper control, at the same time striving to master the essence of the work. These duties of a communist were definitely outlined by Lenin.

THE CAPITALIST WORLD AND THE SECOND FIVE-YEAR PLAN

The USSR is still surrounded by a capitalist world. This means that a fierce struggle and competition is going on between two worlds opposed to each other by their class differences, between two social systems irreconcilable in principle — the capitalist and the socialist. This is particularly manifest at the present time, in the period of the deep world economic crisis.

In this connection it is impossible not to note the changes which are taking place in the attitude of the capitalist countries towards the USSR.

Even the first Five-Year Plan was accomplished while continually under the menace of an imperialist attack. However, this Five-Year Plan is already three-quarters realised; and was realised because we had a peaceful spell to devote to socialist construction. Despite all the interior difficulties, despite the sharpening of the class struggle within the country, we have victoriously advanced and are continually advancing and strengthening our positions.

At the present time the menace from our exterior foes, from the imperialist forces antagonistic to the USSR, is becoming more pronounced. The danger of an imperialist attack has greatly increased. We must take this into consideration in the course of all our work.

The situation in the capitalist countries today can be characterised first of all by the most acute crisis and the sharpening of all capitalistic contradictions. At the same time the capitalist countries are
more actively seeking an external solution of the existing situation in an attack on other countries, in the organisation of intervention against the USSR. The foreign policy of the imperialist countries is becoming more openly aggressive. In all countries, the war industries are loaded with orders, armaments are increasing with unusual rapidity; preparations for new wars proceed at a feverish pace.

At the same time it is important to note what is taking place in the camp of the bourgeoisie.

The bewilderment of the politicians and economists, the hopeless economic plight of many capitalist concerns, are causing a growing panic among the bourgeoisie. Those who only yesterday were sure of their power, now feel the ground cracking under their feet. The bourgeoisie press more and more advocates openly reactionary solutions for all fundamental problems, even in relation to machinery and technique. The master class in the bourgeois countries is showing increasing manifestations of spiritual and moral decay.

Condemnation of modern technique in the press and over the radio is becoming frequent in the capitalist countries. An English bishop has even gone to the extent of publicly declaring that it is necessary to withhold all new inventions and to retard the development of the natural sciences for the next decades.

Only yesterday the politicians and economists of the bourgeoisie prophesied that the end of the crisis was in sight, and that a new economic prosperity was approaching.

Of late the bourgeois press has been filled with predictions regarding the crisis. Predictions of various charlatans and fortune-tellers. This is most characteristic of the morals of the master class in the capitalist countries.

Here are some of the "prophecies" which have appeared in the foreign press. One Parisian newspaper reports that the famous French fortune-teller, Freya, has given an interview to the bourgeois press on the prospects for 1932. According to her, the crisis will decrease in the spring; because, at that time, the influence of Mercury will be replaced by Saturn— the fiercest foe of the crisis!

The fortune-teller further goes on to express her conclusions on Poland, the USSR, Britain etc., prophesying the following:

"Several revolutions will take place in Central Europe."

And further:

"Several floods will take place."

Besides astrologists, predictions for the current year are made also by "numerologists" in some London Sunday papers. The "numerologist" Quinton Siegfried, for instance, predicts the following:

"Soviet Russia, this year, is destined to destruction. She will be compelled to recognise her defeat and acknowledge the failure of her existing regime."

As you see, even the numerologists prophecy for the USSR a sort of "Thermidor."

And further:

"The luckiest months will be April and August; the luckiest colour will be blue; and the luckiest day, Friday."

I cannot refrain from quoting one other "prophecy" taken from a Parisian newspaper:

"Of particular interest is the horoscope of the famous Irish astrologist McCuckish whose predictions for the year 1931 have been completely realised."

For instance, referring to the world crisis, McCuckish asserts that it will end on the night of February 26, "at a doctors' ball in the Victor Hugo hall." This is the kind of stuff the bourgeois and Russian White Guard newspapers abroad are printing.

In order to get a more complete picture it will be necessary to say a few words about a certain celebrity of contemporary America— and perhaps of the whole capitalist world. It appears that recently several American journals added up the number of newspaper columns and photographs devoted to different bourgeois "heroes" during 1931. The result of these statistics showed that the most outstanding "hero" was none other than Al Capone, the chief of the Chicago gangsters.

Descriptions of his ventures, biographical data, interviews with him, etc., in the world press, were found to have filled no less than 1,587,422 newspaper columns. To this must be added the 5,050 photographs that were published in the different journals. Only second place in this world publicity is occupied by President Hoover.

Nothing but the decadence, the complete moral and spiritual decomposition of the ruling classes in contemporary capitalist countries can explain the existence of these facts.

On the other hand we find the best elements leaving the bourgeoisie.

For a long time Romain Rolland, a leading writer of France, has been severely
criticising bourgeois society; and at the same time he has proved himself to be a friend of the USSR. It is also known that one of the leading American writers, Upton Sinclair, has openly opposed Kautsky in the defence of the USSR. The British bourgeois writer, Bernard Shaw, has written many scathing articles on the bourgeois, contrasting its decadence with the development and achievements of the USSR.

The desertion of the bourgeois will evidently continue among men of science and of letters, with the increasing decadence of capitalist society and the simultaneous development of socialist construction in the USSR.

This is one of the indications of the victorious growth of socialism in the USSR. However, it is not the principal one.

Beyond the boundaries of our country the USSR has a real base: the masses of the toilers.

It is not necessary to prove that the prestige of the USSR is growing among the workers in the capitalist countries and in the colonies, thus strengthening our international position. It is impossible not to see that the active sympathy of the workers in capitalist countries is a most important condition for the building of socialism in the Soviet Union and the guarantee of the final victory of communism.

With each stride in the socialist construction of our country, not only our internal situation, but also our international position is strengthening. Despite all difficulties in our struggle with the capitalist elements within our country — as well as externally in defending the proletarian republic from each and every attempt of political pressure and economic blockade on the part of the capitalist powers — the Soviet Union is growing stronger from day to day.

What is the basis of this growth?

It is sufficient to visit our factories, plants and kolhozes, in order to see that the growth of the power of the USSR is based upon the activity of the masses, upon the participation of the workers and peasants in socialist construction. Our Party, the trade unions, the Young Communist League, and the Soviets are doing all in their power to stimulate greater activity on the part of the workers, in order to overcome whatever vacillation, backwardness or influence of bourgeois elements may exist among them, and further, in order to organise these masses and mobilise them for the decisive tasks of building socialism. This work, in mobilising the masses under the leadership of the Bolshevik Party, is the key to it all.

The development of our national economy proceeds on the basis of our industrialisation policy. On this basis, our economic and cultural construction is growing in all regions, in all national republics. Nationalities which only 15 years ago were colonies or semi-colonies of tsarist Russia are gaining new vitality; are developing their national culture: are training their national cadres of bolsheviks. The USSR is becoming stronger as the union of peoples, building socialism under the leadership of the working class.

LIFE AND CULTURE IN THE SECOND FIVE-YEAR PLAN

From the report of V. K u i b y s h e v at the XVIIth Party Conference

The new Five-Year Plan must provide for an improvement of the general welfare of the toiling masses in respect of food and manufactured goods supply, housing and living conditions etc.

One of the central problems of the 2nd Five-Year Plan is to develop production of the light industry and agriculture so as to treble individual consumption.

Approximate calculations of norms of consumption of the most important products in 1937 enabled us to say that, as far food supply both in town and country is concerned, the Soviet Union will be the foremost country in the world.

With a general growth of food consumption it is especially important to effect radical changes in the system of manufacture and distribution of food and to increase the amount of products easily digested by man. Consumption of such products as meat, milk, fruit, eggs, etc. must increase enormously.

Consumption of manufactured goods — cotton and wool textiles, boots, etc. — will also grow considerably. At the same time
should quickly grow "cultural" branches of industry such as paper, printing, photographic and cinema appliances, electrical mechanisms, medical instruments etc.

The 2nd Five-Year Plan makes it possible to satisfy the needs of the toiling population of important centres with regard to dwellings and to create a system of institutions contributing to collectivisation of living conditions (dining-halls, children's homes and creches, clubs, laundries, etc.) and corresponding industries.

Growth of such institutions as creches, consultations, spreading elementary knowledge of sanitation and improvement in quality of food, will lead to a great decline of sickness and further decrease of mortality, especially amongst children.

Development of social life, education, physical culture, popularising of art among the masses will go hand in hand with construction of clubs, labour palaces, halls for pageants and meetings, stadiums and sporting recreation grounds.

In this way the USSR will turn into a country with a highly cultured population. Universal literacy obtained already in the 1st Five-Year Plan will be insufficient for the 2nd Five-Year Plan. Then it would be necessary to have universal polytechnic knowledge, elementary information in physics, chemistry, biology, technology, together with political education.

Polytechnisation of schools must become the main method for overcoming the contrast between mental and physical work.

The 2nd Five-Year Plan opens up before us exceptionally favourable perspectives for the development of industrial forces on the basis of improvement of toilers' welfare.

THE DEVELOPMENT IN REGIONS OF THE USSR

THE FAR-EASTERN REGION

The Far-Eastern Region will be opened up at a much greater rate during the period of the second Five-Year Plan. It will have to create an industrial basis of its own. This will enable it to free itself from dependence on the Urals for its supply of metals, a task which is of very great importance from the point of view of national economy. Nowhere else are air routes being developed to the same extent as in the Soviet East. Amongst the heavy industries, the winning of gold and of both the ferrous and non-ferrous metals will be considerably developed. The output of coal will reach 10 to 12 million tons. The output of petroleum on Sakhalin and of coal in Kamchatka will be very much increased. Forestry and the timber industry as a whole, including the working up of timber, will also be extended, as well as the manufacture of paper. A great deal of attention will be paid to the fur industry.

The realisation of all the tasks mentioned will fully transform this region economically, and create a firm base for the development of its own industry.

The exploitation of the natural riches of the region will be linked up with the colonisation schemes which will be carried out on a large scale during the second Five-Year Plan.

THE EAST-SIBERIAN REGION

While remaining one of the largest cattle rearing and agricultural regions the East-Siberian Region will be developed also industrially during the second Five-Year Plan. After it has become one of the chief centres for supplying the Soviet Union with gold and other non-ferrous and rare metals it will be necessary very greatly to improve all the means of transport in order to link up the new industrial areas with the old ones.

In working out the second Five-Year Plan schemes will be exhaustively considered for building a power station on the river Angara and setting up various industries connected with it.

THE URAL-KUZNETSK COMBINE

The Ural-Kuznetsk Combine will not be finished by the end of the first Five-Year Plan. A number of enterprises comprising sections of the Combine will be still under construction, as well as the works and factories, which will supply the population of the new cities and industrial centres of the region.

All the districts of the U.K.C. will of course have a great deal of capital invested in them.
THE URALS

The Urals will continue to be developed as one of the most important industrial centres of the Union. Coal output will be increased to 25 million tons. That is of course a tremendous growth. The new foundries to be built will represent an output of 6 million tons of pig-iron. So as to provide a machine building centre to serve the needs of transport the Tagil rolling-stock works will be opened. At the same time farming will be developed both with regard to corn and industrial crops and the rearing of live-stock.

WESTERN SIBERIA

During the second Five-Year Plan the industry of Western Siberia will be expanded at a tremendous rate.

As regards agriculture this part of Siberia will still be a grain supply centre. It will also produce live-stock and industrial crops. Here also a large plant will be built for converting cotton which will then be transported by the Turksib Railway.

KAZAKSTAN

This region will continue to develop from a backward region into a large industrial and farming centre. Making use of the fuel resources of the Karaganda district where the output of coal has been raised to 15 million tons and of the great electric power available, the non-ferrous metal industry will grow considerably.

A large number of railways are to be built in Kazakhstan. Schemes are being drawn up for lines from Karaganda to Balkhash, Karaganda to Semipalatinsk and several others.

MIDDLE ASIA

Middle Asia (under which heading, besides Turkmenia, Tadjikistan and Uzbekistan, Kirgizia and Kara-Kalpakia are here included) will finally lose all traces of its former backwardness as a colony of the tsarist empire and will become the main source for supplying the USSR with cotton. At the same time it will be an industrial centre supplying the population of Middle Asia with manufactured goods and also important goods for factory use for distribution throughout the country.

Wool and cotton mills are being built to make use of the raw materials grown in the neighbourhood as also a silk-winding factory, sugar and canning factories. There are also plans for new railway main lines.

BASHKIRIA

Another of the Ural republics having close connections with the Ural-Kuznetsk Combine. A heavy industry is being built up. In all probability an electric car works will be set up here.

TRANSCAUCASUS

Transcaucasus will be opened up along the same lines as have been followed during the first Five-Year Plan. The chief feature will be the cultivation of those industrial crops which are most suited to the climate, e.g. cotton and other subtropical plants.

The cultivation of grapes, oranges, mandarines and lemons will also be given prominence. Before the end of the second Five-Year Plan these fruits will have ceased to be a luxury and will be available as articles of mass consumption.

Heavy industry will also be developed. The output of hard coal in Transcaucasus will reach 3 million tons (Tkvarechel and Tkvibulii). The mining of non-ferrous metals will be increased, copper in Zangezur and aluminium in Azerbaijan. Light industry will also develop.

Another important event will be the opening of a Dashkesan metallurgical works, which will supply the Baku and other Transcaucasian oil-fields, and also the machine building industry which reached considerable dimensions during the first Five-Year Plan.

Transcaucasus will be provided with a permanent source of energy in the form of a number of hydro-electric stations. Terter, Mingechaur, Khram and Kakhsky-Gumush have been suggested as possible sites.

THE VOLGA REGION

The whole face of the Volga districts will be entirely altered as a result of the reconstruction of the Volga basin. This work includes the building of a dam and a hydro-electric station. The second Five-Year Plan includes a scheme for building a number of dams on the tributaries of the Volga (Kama and Oka) and for making the whole Volga river and canal system thoroughly navigable. During the second Five-
Year Plan all the preliminary work in connection with the dams to be built in the upper and lower reaches of the Volga should be completed, and it is possible that work on one of these dams may actually be started. Dams will also be built near Nizhny-Novgorod and Yaroslavl.

THE TARTAR REPUBLIC

In this republic a synthetic rubber factory is planned, and an aeromotor works is contemplated as also a chemical-manure combine. These enterprises will be supplied with energy by the Volga-Kama hydro-station.

UKRAINE

The Ukraine will continue to be one of the leading industrial and agricultural regions of the Union and will continue to develop along the same lines as were followed during the first Five-Year Plan. The output of coal in the Donbass will reach 110—120 million tons, and a number of new electric power stations will be opened. The output of pig-iron will reach 11 million tons.

The Ukraine will produce more metal than the whole of the Union does in 1932.

The chemical industry will grow considerably. It is also important to note that a very much larger quantity of high grade steel for machine building will be produced. Machine building will be greatly developed, as also the construction of mining equipment (at the old and new Kramatorsky works), railway engines (at the Lugansk works and the Kharkov tractor works) and rolling stock (at the "Pravda" works). Ships will be built at the Nikolaev, Odessa and Sevastopol ship-yards and tractors and electric machinery at the Mariupol works.

As regards light industry, sugar, meat, hemp and cotton industries will be developed.

Dnieprostroy will be working at full power as also the Dnieprovsky combine. This will make a large contribution to the wealth of the Soviet Union and will radically alter the face of the land in the Ukraine.

Much work will be done in electrifying the railways and in laying new lines. As regards agriculture, the area sown both to corn and to industrial crops (such as hemp, cotton and sugar beet) will be increased.

THE NORTH CAUCASUS

The North Caucasus will still retain its character of a region combining agriculture with a developed industry. The chief industries featuring in the plan are coal and oil.

This region is becoming one of the chief centres for the production of industrial crops. It will practically monopolise the production of Italian hemp and kenaf. The North Caucasus will draw its energy from two large power stations, the Sulak hydro-electric station, and the Belaya Kalitva station.

Railway and river transport will be greatly developed. The construction of a port in Rostov is being completed and the navigability of the Don is being improved.

CENTRAL BLACK-EARTH REGION

The total capacity of the electric power stations of this region is estimated at 350,000 kilowatts. During the second Five-Year Plan the preliminary work will be done in connection with the scheme for the large-scale exploitation of the rich magnetic-iron ore deposits in the Kursk district.

MOSCOW REGION

During the first Five-Year Plan the Moscow region has been changing from a typical textile district into a district of machine building, electrical engineering, and chemical manufacture. This tendency will be still more marked during the second Five-Year Plan.

The coal output of the Moscow Basin will reach 25 million tons.

New electric power stations will be built and old ones re-equipped and enlarged.

The important part Moscow plays as a distributing and transit centre makes it necessary to establish an extensive railway service on the power basis provided by the electro-stations.

As a result of the huge communal and building schemes, Moscow will become one of the largest and best laid out towns in the Soviet Union.

LENINGRAD REGION

During the second Five-Year Plan the Leningrad Region will continue to be one of the largest machine building centres. It is especially important to emphasise the pioneer work done by Leningrad in
applying the latest findings of science and in making use of hitherto unexploited natural resources.

The Leningrad region railway system will be enlarged and a number of branch lines of the Murman railway will be built to connect it with the coast.

With the expansion of the fish industry new fisheries and new canning factories will be opened.

Leningrad itself will be converted into a thoroughly up-to-date and well-appointed town.

MURMAN REGION

Iron ore has now been found here. During the second Five-Year Plan it is possible that a metallurgical works will be built to supply Leningrad with metal.

It is not difficult to realise the very great importance of this fact both to Leningrad itself and to the whole Soviet Union.

The Murman region whose only wealth was at one time its fish, but which later rose to importance in connection with its chemical industry based on its apatite deposits and its non-ferrous metals (aluminium), now promises to become a large metallurgical centre.

In order to meet the demand of industry for building materials, the plan must allow for the full exploitation of the timber resources of the European division of the Northern regions and in particular for the construction of a paper and pulp mill. At the same time full advantage must be taken of the large quantities of fish (by building canning factories) and of the mineral wealth. So also the Asiatic division of the Northern regions must be opened up. At the same time the question of developing the industries of the North by making use of local natural resources must be thoroughly explored (reindeer breeding, hunting, the fur industry).

Before the North can be opened up a sound transport basis must be established. During the second Five-Year Plan much attention will be paid to improving the lines of communication to the North.

WESTERN REGION

This region has a very valuable source of energy in its large supplies of turf. The well developed railway system also facilitates the development of all branches of industry and agriculture. For this reason the region will make a tremendous step forward during the second Five-Year Plan. The reconstruction of the industry and agriculture here brings around the opening of new power stations. This part of the country is already one of the chief flax and hemp growing districts. During the second Five-Year Plan, the scheme brought forward by the Council of People's Commissars in 1929 for turning the Western Region into one of the leading flax growing countries will be realised. Cattle breeding and especially pig breeding will be developed.

The occurrence of minerals containing phosphorus makes it possible to build up a superphosphate industry. Building materials will also be produced here.

WHITE RUSSIA

The development of White Russia is based on the exploitation of its turf and timber resources and the expansion of intensive farming. The chief branches of farming in White Russia are cattle breeding, poultry farming, and the cultivation of industrial crops (in particular flax and potatoes). There will also be developments in the working up of flax both for food and other purposes.

What has been said as regards the economic prospects of the above regions, gives an idea of the tremendous work which is contemplated in the second Five Year Plan. We are going to make a tremendous step forward in the matter of exploiting the natural riches of the Soviet Union and setting free constructive forces in every corner of the land.
Soviet Science on the Eve of the Second Five-Year Plan

MORE INTELLIGENTSIA! MORE SCIENCE! MORE INVENTIONS!

By N. Bukharin, Member of the Academy of Sciences

The part played by science in the whole system of our industry, including its lowest link, the shops, is rapidly increasing.

We have now at our disposal a network of enormous and powerful scientific research institutes. Amongst them are several first-rate institutes with world-wide reputation. In the course of a single year the number of these institutions has almost doubled. And if we mention just briefly their accomplishments for the past year we can enumerate several discoveries of the research workers which have been already applied in industry.

Thus we have a series of ferro-alloys which can be directly used for construction of airplanes, motor transport, tractors, metallic constructions, chemical devices, which will now be produced in our country in ever increasing proportions. There are also several scientific researches on metals which were fully completed and submitted to our industrial enterprises for practical application.

Several of our biggest industrial plants under construction are erected on a scientific basis. Such are Hibiny plant, Magnitostroy, Krivoi-Rog, Donbass, non-ferrous metallurgy works etc. These plants are constructed in closest co-operation with great concentrating plants and stations whose work and methods are regulated and established by our scientific research institutes.

In research work we are supporting our outlying provinces where at present new important industrial centres are being created.

The Physical-Technical Institute newly organised in the Ukraine (Kharkov) has already won world-wide reputation. In Dniepropetrovsk our scientific research institutes are working entirely in factories themselves.

There is a new combination of industrial scientific research institutions and plants in Siberia. The number of such institutions in the Ural region is rapidly growing and steps have been taken to organise them in Central Asia.

The whole network of scientific research institutions should be geographically connected as far as possible with new industrial centres. Our scientific research institutes—not only industrial, but also others—are now serving the technical and economic plans and interests of our industry.

The Soviet industry is embracing an enormous number of new workers coming from villages, from collective farms and also from the individual sector (which is now quickly loosing ground) of our peasant economic system.

Propaganda of technical science should give to the masses the necessary minimum of knowledge and meet the demand for technical culture.

When large masses of people come for the first time into contact with industrial processes the extent of their technical knowledge becomes one of the main factors in the reconstruction and development of socialism in the country.

Steps have already been taken in this respect: propaganda of technical knowledge has been started in our plants, works and factories, also in the high technical schools and research institutes, several technical periodicals have been published, such as “Socialist Reconstruction and Science”, and the popular newspaper “Technique”; a great system of technical information has been organised and a special information bulletin has been published and finally there have been organised technical conferences which are especially important. All our young men who are interested in technical matters attend these conferences,—they are the best representatives of the working class in our country, true builders of socialism who are sincerely devoted to the cause and who are mastering the technique not in words but in deeds. Such conferences prove to be the most important medium for actually
turning the masses of people into a cultured people with technical knowledge. This also stimulates the growth of the number of worker inventors, greatly increasing their activity and drawing their interest towards technical questions.

Our successes in the domain of socialist construction prove quite clearly the advantages of our planning system. Owing to the world economic crisis in the capitalist countries several blast furnaces have been stopped, the biggest plants and factories closed, and millions and millions of workers thrown out of work.

The capitalist world has entered a stage of technical regress. Its prophets are talking about the necessity to return to home production. Statistical figures of capitalist countries show the decline of inventions which are slowed down by capitalists even in the most important and developed industries. We see that technical and scientific personnel is thrown out from industrial process. For instance, such a big and authoritative organisation as "D. I. V." (Union of German Engineers) is now concerned about the task how to hinder access into higher technical schools in view of overproduction of technical intelligentsia.

If you add to this the undermined faith in the power of capitalism, as evidenced by the publication of such books as the "End of Capitalism" by Fried (pen-name of Borsig's son), then you have a complete picture of the present decay of the capitalist world.

Of course, one should not draw the conclusion that capitalism will not fight and that it will quietly die off and yield to us the world. No, it will fight at us with all its guns, but still even its adherents and chiefs have lost their faith in its future.

And what are the conditions in the USSR? There is a problem before us of a different kind.


Our attitude is diametrically opposite. When several of us went to London to attend one of the scientific congresses we saw how rapidly this demoralisation of scientific capitalist upper circles and their masters was progressing. This is one of the symptoms of victory which is predestined for us in history. We can now unify all the forces of science with the whole creative energy of the large masses of the people.

THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES IN THE SERVICE OF THE SECOND FIVE-YEAR PLAN

By Prof. V. Volfhin, Permanent Secretary of the Academy of Sciences

The Academy of Sciences has resolutely turned to serving the needs of socialist construction. Having been formerly absolutely alien to the methodology of the proletariat and its Great Party the Academy of Sciences takes now all steps necessary for adopting in its work the methods of dialectic materialism.

What is the significance of such change of front on the part of the Academy of Sciences? If we look into its activity during the last two years, our attention will first be drawn to a great number of agreements and contracts existing between the Academy of Sciences as a whole or its various institutions, on the one hand, and our economic organisations on the other. Such are the contracts with the Supreme Council of National Economy existing from 1931, the general agreement with the People's Commissariat of the Heavy Industry, which is being prepared now. Such are also contracts between different Institutes and economic organisations. The Academy of Sciences tries also to satisfy the requirements of all the Republics of the Union as well as of different provinces and regions and takes them into account while making its own plans of work. One can say now with certainty that the major part of the present work fulfilled by the Academy of Sciences is connected with the needs and requirements of the various social and economic organisations.

This does not mean, of course, that the Academy of Sciences forgets the leading role of science because it endeavours to solve current practical problems. Simultaneously with directing the practical application the Academy is conducting theoretical work on which socialist construction is based.

In the course of 1931 there were organised two extraordinary sessions of the Academy. The first one took place in Moscow in June.
and was devoted to a general theme: "What can science do in order to realise the slogan: to overtake and outstrip the capitalist countries?"

The very fact of organising such a session of the Academy of Sciences in a large auditorium to consider reports on questions of socialist construction, as well as the fact that the Academy has sent several brigades of its members to various plants in the city and province of Moscow, have designated the great change in the attitude of members of the Academy and stimulated a further rapprochement with the toiling masses.

The second session took place in November in Leningrad and was devoted to a special theme: "Industrial resources and perspectives of development of the Leningrad Region".

During this session 35 brigades of academicians have visited different plants and regional centres of Leningrad.

The creation of new economic centres greatly contributes to the strengthening of ties between the Academy of Sciences and the socialist construction. These centres are in need of scientific institutions directly connected with industry and capable of giving theoretical treatment to concrete problems of construction.

Thus a movement was started for organising local branches of the Academy. Accordingly the Academy has decided to organise in 1932 its branches in the Ural Region, Western Siberia, Far East, Transcaucasia, Middle Asia and Eastern Siberia.

At the same time the drive would be carried on for training new workers for these branches.

THE USSR WILL BE THE RICHEST COUNTRY IN THE WORLD

By Prof. I. Gubkin, Member of the Academy of Sciences, Geologist

If we try to compare the state of geological explorations in the Soviet Union with that of pre-revolutionary Russia we shall see that there is no comparison between the two. The old Geological Committee was a miserable institution. Its personnel when I joined it in 1910 was about 12—15 geologists. After reform in 1912 it was increased to 50 members. The budget of the old Geological Committee amounted to a miserable sum of 250,000 rubles for special exploration work on coal and oil.

At present geological work is carried on all over the country. The Soviet geological organisation has at present 18 geological trusts for carrying on explorations. There are 82 geological bases and 17 new bases will be soon opened, each base being equal in size to the old Geological Committee. Last year the geological institutions of our country have sent 2,028 expeditions including 1,878 season expeditions and 150 stationary ones.

At present about 70,000 workers are engaged in the exploring works of the All-Union Geological Trust. Instead of 500,000 rubles assigned in the old tsarist Russia the budget of the geological explorations amounts to about 200 million rubles.

General geological deposits of coal amount to 653 milliard tons. Deposits in the Kursk region amount to 200 milliard tons of iron (which is about double the present world output).

The work resumed again under the initiative of J. Stalin in the Kursk magnetic deposits will allow us very likely to raise the question of organising new powerful metallurgical base in the centre of our country not far from its Red capital.

We have a series of great achievements in the exploration of deposits in Tula, Lipetsk, Khoper, Khapilovo, Ural, Western Siberia, and others.

It is enough to say that Siberia until recently was considered as a region not having iron and now we are informed that near Shori and Abakhants there were discovered iron ore deposits having approximately about 200 million tons of iron.

"We also have great achievements in coal and non-ferrous metals." During the last years there were discovered deposits of such tremendous importance as Kounrad, Bashu-Kul, Alma-Lyck and numberless deposits of polymetallic ores in the region Kara-Mazar.

The last expeditions to Pamirs had brought us information of gold scattered over a distance of 100 kilometres.

All this clearly shows how our Union is getting richer and richer owing to such energetic pushing on of geological explorations.
PAST AND PRESENT OF SOVIET TRANSCAUCASUS

On March 12th, 1932, the Soviet Union celebrated the tenth anniversary of the Transcaucasian Federation. Ten years ago the toilers of Azerbaijan, Armenia and Georgia formed the federation, as a fraternal union of the Socialist Soviet Republics of Transcaucasus. The Transcaucasian Federation was formed as a result of the necessity for co-ordinating the constructive forces at work in these republics and making full use of all opportunities to carry out successfully the tremendous tasks of economic and cultural construction. The formation of the Transcaucasian Federation of Soviet Republics was greeted with great enthusiasm. At that time V. I. Lenin wrote that the idea of a Federation of Transcaucasian Republics was absolutely right in principle and one that it was imperative to put into practice.

What has the last decade to show? During this period Soviet Transcaucasus made a gigantic stride forward in all branches of its construction, without exception.

It is particularly interesting to make a comparison with the years immediately preceding the revolution. It is well known under what difficult conditions the multilingual peoples of Transcaucasus lived under the “sovereign hand” of the Russian Empire. Russian tsarism pursuing with ruthless cynicism its famous policy of “divide and rule” was doing its utmost to set one nationality against another. Mutual destruction of different toiling nationalities was to the advantage of the colonisers whose aim was to impose the Russian civilisation. It goes without saying, that there could be no question of any normal economic and cultural development under such oppression.

Neither did the revolution of 1917 bring emancipation at once. It was only 3 years later that the ideas of October triumphed.

At first, Russian imperialism was replaced by the rule of a nationalist bourgeoisie—

the Azerbaijan mussavatists, the Armenian dashnaks, and the Georgian mensheviks. All these leading parties, imbued with a fierce hatred of the proletarian revolution, followed a ruinous, adventurism policy, combining irreconcilable chauvinism with the basest cringing before the foreign interventionists (first the German, and later the English). Fighting against each other, conducting ruinous fratricide wars, oppressing national minorities, these representatives of “democracy” talked loudly about the “Great Armenia” and “Independent Georgia”. At the same time they were selling their country, almost openly, wholesale and retail, to the foreign usurpers. One of the members of the dashnak government declared quite unambiguously: “It is clear that England should be the leader in all questions connected with the East. Questions concerning Transcaucasus in particular must inevitably be dictated by the English."

This cynical policy which drained the country’s life-blood excited the indignation of the toiling masses, and in 1920 and at the beginning of 1921 they overthrew the bourgeois nationalist governments in Azerbaijan, in Armenia and Georgia, and established the Soviet government.

Since then Transcaucasus has passed through a stormy and difficult period. Not only had wounds to be healed and ruins built up again, but a rapid and vigorous move forward had to be made in the direction of socialist and cultural construction. The proletariat and the masses of poor and middle peasants of Transcaucasus are successfully fulfilling (and in part have already fulfilled) the tasks before them, under the leadership of the Communist Party. As a matter of fact, tremendous results have been achieved in all branches of construction during the last ten years. Creative purpose, system and principles have borne fruit everywhere.

Tremendous upheavals are taking place in the economic life of Transcaucasus. A backward agrarian country is being transformed into a powerful industrial-agrarian country.

3 See also the article: “The Development of Regions in the USSR".
The industry of Transcaucasus, which was of a negligible importance under tsardom, is now rapidly developing. Statistics are sufficiently eloquent: in 1913, the gross production amounted to 319.8 million rubles, in 1930, to 912.5 million rubles, in 1931 to 1,270.4 million rubles. Nearly every day a new factory opens; prospecting is carried out on a large scale, new mines are being worked and the possibilities of exploiting all the other natural resources are being thoroughly explored. Particularly significant are the achievements of the last few years. Azerbaidjan oil deserves the first place. As a result of the heroism of the Baku proletariat, the Five-Year Plan of the oil industry has already been fulfilled by the end of last year (i. e. in 2 1/2 years), thus giving the USSR second place in the world's production of oil. There is a project at present on foot to organise metallurgical works, to utilise the high-grade iron ore of Transcaucasus, the famous Tkvarchely coal, and the manganese of Chalutiy. There are also great prospects for the development of the copper, aluminium, zinc, and building industries.

The industrial proletariat is growing at a tremendous rate. Thus in 1931 there were 347,000 workers, as compared with 281,000 in 1930.

Considerable progress has been made in the electrification of Transcaucasus. Suffice it to mention the names of some of the newly built powerful electric plants and of those now under construction: the Zemo-Avchaly (Zages), the Abash, the Rion, Dzorages, Kanakir. Here again comparison with the past is instructive. The total capacity of all pre-war electric plants in Transcaucasus amounted to about 75,000 kw., whereas during the Soviet period the capacity of electric plants nearly trebled, having reached 216,000 kw. in 1931. Further construction of hydro-electric central plants will still more increase this power basis for the reconstruction of Transcaucasian economy.

The progress in agriculture is not less important. A great deal has been accomplished during the Soviet period as regards the extension of the sown area, the development of industrial crops, the intensification of farming and the introduction of improved methods of land cultivation. The area under cultivation is growing steadily and rapidly. Thus, for instance, the total area sown in 1931 amounted to 2,359 thousand hectares as against 1,990 thousand hectares in 1927. At the same time the progress of technical and sub-tropical crops is very much in evidence. Their total area of 154,000 hect. in 1927 increased to 356 thousand hect. in 1931.

It should be noted, that the area sown to cotton (to which particular attention is being paid) increased from 117 thousand hectares in 1927 to 240 thousand hectares in 1931, whereas the area under tea (only several hundreds of hectares before the war) increased in one year from 14,500 hectares in 1930 to 17,700 hectares in 1931.

As regards collectivisation of farming there have been tremendous changes. 40% of all the farms belonging to the poor and middle peasants are embraced by collectives, this percentage being even as much as 55% in cotton-growing districts. As regards the Soviet farms, their total sown area increased from 29,000 hect. in 1927 to 69,400 hect. in 1931.

The primitive methods of land cultivation used so long in Transcaucasus are becoming things of the past. The number of tractors in 1931 reached the imposing figure of 1,600. There were 30 machine and tractor stations in 1930, and their number will increase to 49 in 1932.

A great deal was accomplished during the past period in the matter of irrigation, reclaiming of land, transport, road construction etc.

The Soviet government came in for a sorry legacy in the culture of these parts. The tsarist government did not trouble itself at all with the education of its subject peoples and russifying tendencies handicapped all cultural undertakings. The cultural and educational activity of the mussavatists, dashnaks, and mensheviks was a minus quantity.

A great and difficult work has been carried on during the last ten years, with good results. Much has been done to abolish illiteracy and semi-education, general education has been made compulsory, the school system has been extended as also kindergartens and evening classes. All this speaks of the intensive cultural life of the country. Here again statistics are more convincing than anything else. Suffice it to mention, that during the 7-year period (1921—1932) 1,325,990 toilers graduated from anti-illiteracy schools. In 1931 there were 1,388 reading-huts, 353 clubs and 1,246 red corners. Universal education will be introduced in Georgia and Armenia in 1932, and in Azerbaidjan—in 1933. The quota of students is rapidly growing: thus, the number of pupils in the 7-year schools increased from
90,500 in 1929/30 to 115,699 in 1930/31. Whereas in 1928/29 there were 11 universities and 9 workers' faculties in Transcaucasia, in 1930 there were already 22 universities and 21 workers' faculties. At the same time it should be remembered, that there was not a single university throughout Transcaucasia in tsarist times.

A number of scientific and research institutes, scientific organisations and societies are engaged in studying the productive forces of the country, its natural resources, and the economic condition of the peoples inhabiting Transcaucasia.

The revolutionary epoch brought about a tremendous efflorescence of the arts, especially in the field of literature. Proletarian writers are coming more and more to the forefront in Azerbaidjan, Armenia and Georgia. Differentiation is taking place among the old writers and their followers, the best writers devoting their talent to the problems of socialist construction. The romance, the fantasy and tinsel exotics of the old days which formerly served to veil chauvinistic aspirations have given place to the sense of the epic grandeur of the enthusiasm for the great new work of socialist construction. The Transcaucasian theatres, which at the All-Union Theatrical Olympiad showed a high standard of acting and stage technique, enjoy a well deserved popularity. The Transcaucasian cinema showed also a number of interesting productions.

In painting and sculpture old and young artists are competing with one another in their efforts to produce works worthy of the great epoch.

Such are briefly the successes and achievements which must be mentioned on the occasion of the 10th anniversary of the Transcaucasian Federation. Considerations of space prevent us from mentioning any but the principal items.

"The Transcaucasian Federation", writes G. Mussabekov, the President of the Transcaucasian Council of People's Commissarres, in his article published in "Socialist Construction in the USSR" (vol. 1, VOKS, Moscow, 1932), — "is a model of national peace and one of the adamantine socialist citadels of the great Soviet Union. At the present moment it is facing new colossal tasks; it must complete its Five-Year Plan in four years and prepare itself for the execution of the second Five-Year Plan of still greater scope, than the first. The working class and the toiling masses of the TSFSR, inspired by the brilliant successes achieved in every field of socialist construction, will proceed with still greater enthusiasm and assurance towards fresh victories and achievements, strengthening and developing the new socialist forms of labour, mastering the techniques of production and management.

On the base of the achievements of its first decade the Transcaucasian Federation will proceed in the second decade under the well-tried leadership of the Communist Party and of the leader of the world proletariat, J. Stalin, forward to fresh unheard-of victories".
We are building...

In the third, decisive year of the Five-Year Plan in the USSR the foundation has been laid for a series of absolutely new and extremely complicated branches of industry, of unparalleled importance for our national economy. Our industry has set going the production of 75 new types of textile machines, 20 types of shoe-making machines, 79 new brands of farm machinery, various types of factory equipment, powerful transformers, etc.

... new...

The concluding year of the Five-Year Plan will be a year of further forced development of heavy industry, a year of shock-work construction of new factories and of reconstruction of older machines and tool factories.

... machines...

This will be a year of intense struggle to create a powerful machine-making and tool-making foundation for our industry.

... Soviet...

According to the Five-Year Plan the machine-making industry of the Union in 1932 was supposed to put out production worth 2,058 million rubles. But even in 1931 the machine-producing plants of Soviet industry had already fulfilled their Five-Year Plan with an excess.

... bloomings...

The first Soviet blooming, the thirteenth in the world, was put out by the Zhora Factory in 9 months. The equipment of the second blooming was completed in even better record time—in 5 months, whereas up till now the period for building a blooming was regarded as not less than 12 months. Next year there will be 8 bloomings in our country.

... cracking-plants...

The Podolsk Cracking Factory made the beginning of Soviet construction of cracking-plants. The factory has already furnished the oil-industry with two cracking-plants. The cracking-process doubles the effectiveness of the production of kerosene and gasoline from oil.

... powerful turbines...

A powerful steam-turbine of 56,000 kwt. has been built by the Leningrad Factory in the name of Stalin. The production of so complicated a turbine has put the Stalin factory on a level with the very old and famous English firm of Metropolitan-Wickers.

... excavators...

In the small factory “The Red Metal-Worker” in Moscow the production of Soviet excavators has been set going. The first two excavators put out by the factory represent only a beginning of the mighty development of this branch of industry in our Union. In 1932 the factory has already promised to put out 100 excavators. The giant new factory now under construction near Sverdlovsk will give the country 3,000 excavators yearly.

... locomotives...

At the fourteenth anniversary of the October Revolution the Lugansk Locomotive Factory finished the production of an extremely powerful locomotive. The Lugansk workers set a world’s record by producing this engine in 70 days.

... aeroplanes...

This young branch of our industry—aeroplane-building—recently added to our civilian fleet a first-class plane—ANT 14.

... ships...

Four years ago the first Soviet ship, “Stalin”, built completely of Soviet materials, slipped down the ways of the Leningrad ship-building factories. And this year 62 Soviet ships and the first 5 Soviet fishing-trawlers under red pennants are plowing the seas and oceans of the world.
One of the foremost victories gained recently by the Soviet industry is the construction of the gigantic auto-plant in Nizhny-Novgorod, completed on the eve of the fourth and final year of the Five-Year Plan. The starting of operations in this plant marks the beginning of a new period in the development of the Soviet automobile industry.

The Soviet Union inherited not a single automobile producing plant from tsarism. The few unfinished, badly equipped enterprises that did exist were being used only as repair shops. In tsarist Russia the total number of automobiles manufactured during the eight years from 1908 to 1916 was 450. The extent of the industrial backwardness of pre-revolutionary Russia can be judged by a comparison with the 1904 automobile output in America (22,830); England (12,600), France (17,000) and Germany (4,000). Moreover all kind of details and appliances were imported from abroad.

During the first years after the revolution the automobile industry of the Soviet Union developed at a rather low rate, but the first motor trucks were produced at the "AMO" plant in Moscow as far back as 1924. With the beginning of the reconstruction period of national economy in the USSR the question of establishing a powerful Soviet automobile industry was seriously considered. This question occupied no small place in the Five-Year Plan, the fulfilment of which is now approaching its successful end. The year 1929 witnessed the initial work on the reconstruction of "AMO" and on the projection of a new great automobile plant to be constructed in Nizhny-Novgorod.

At present the reconstructed "AMO" plant turns out 25 two-and-a-half-ton trucks and buses a day. The Nizhny-Novgorod auto-plant, which recently has been put into commission, plans to produce, at full load, 140,000 cars and trucks a year.

17 months elapsed since the work of construction began at Nizhny-Novgorod. Within this period a gigantic plant, built and equipped in accordance with the latest scientific and technical achievements, was erected, assembled and put into operation. Here is a new proof of the wonderful energy and enthusiasm inspiring the toilers of the Soviet Union in their fight for the industrialisation of their country, for the creation of a new socialist society.

At the official opening of the auto giant, the decision was carried to give to the new plant the name of the leader of the Soviet Government — V. Molotov. In their report to the Government the builders of the plant wrote:

"Our plant is joining the front line of those who fight for the realisation of the slogan: to overtake and outstrip both technically and economically the more advanced capitalist countries. It will become the base of Soviet automobile industry.

We will bear with honour the glorious name of comrade Molotov."

General view of the Nizhny-Novgorod auto-plant
HOW THEY WORK AT MAGNITOstroy

The first of the Ural-Kuznetsk industrial giants has been put into operation: the construction of the first unit of the Magnitogorsk Coke-Chemical Plant is now completed. This plant will play a very important role in the development of Soviet chemical industry.

The Coke-Chemical Combine is one of the largest of this sort, not only in the Soviet Union, but also in Europe. It was built at true "shock-work" speed: 69 ovens completed in 67 days. The Magnitogorsk builders have broken all world records.

In those days, the workers of Magnitogorsk were fighting on the barricades of the Five-Year Plan. There were no cowards nor deserters. 30 nationalities were building the coke battery No. 8; in size, the second battery in the world. Former Kirghiz nomads, collective farmers from the Urals and the Volga, shock-brigade workers from the fire-proof works in Kerch and Dniepropetrovsk, were watching the construction with interest and respect. However, there was not much time for watching. It was necessary to fight and conquer. The battery with its 69 coke-ovens was a reality, one of the units of the greatest and most important metallurgical process—a component part of the future chemical combine. The stormy days, the sleepless nights, the petty joys and disappointments of each battle, now recede into the past. They had already become history.

Proletarians of 30 nationalities were fighting on the barricades of the third decisive year of the Five-Year Plan, under the glorious banner of socialist reconstruction, for the first pig-iron of the Ural-Kuznetsk Basin. This basin has recently assumed international importance: it has been spoken of in Madrid, London, New York...

It was during the days of confusion, when the first Magnitogorsk coke battery gave birth to the first coke. The chaos on the construction area was like that of an operating room where the fate of a woman in difficult labour is being decided. Specialists came and went; consultations were held. The director of the East Coke Trusts, tired with anxiety, slept in his clothes for the third night on a cot at headquarters—the office of the coke-ovens.

A snowy whirlwind rose from behind Atach mountain and headed straight for
the construction, its iridescent top reaching to the zenith. The wind raged through the chimneys with wild fury, swished through the labyrinth of gas pipes, hissed through the cranes. The icy wind burned past blast furnaces and cowpers and attacked the coke battery.

The workers spread a huge canvas to maintain the temperature in the coke-ovens despite the fury of the wind. It almost blew them, bodily, from the cornice. The wind battered them in the face — it was a snowstorm such as one reads of in fairy-tales.

But the striking invention of modern technique, the 69 ovens of the coke-battery, were nevertheless a reality.

Thus did the legendary struggle, the legendary heroism, create coke, ore, pig-iron, steel — the Five-Year Plan.

THE FIRST SOVIET FACTORY
FOR MASS-PRODUCTION OF COMBINES

On June 25, 1930, the first two shops of the Saratov Combine Factory have begun to work. On January 1, 1932, on the first day of the last year of the Five-Year Plan the factory was ready to begin operations.

In a suburb of Saratov, on the right bank of the Volga, on the waste land the mighty buildings of the combine factory and of the big wood-working mill connected with it have grown up. The building for the central heat and power station is in the way of construction — it will serve all the adjacent plants. Nearer to the Volga a factory for tractor-parts is beginning to be built.

In the centre of this industrial combination city has been built a workers' town, inhabited chiefly by workers of the combine factory. To the ten four-story stone houses already completed, new ones will soon be added; in two to three years a town will have grown up here with as many as 30,000 inhabitants.

The collective body of the workers of the combine-construction job is proud of its suburbs. The builders of the factory are concerned with the means of satisfying the workers' cultural and living requirements. Eight months before the factory was set going, a factory-kitchen had begun to work, providing 20,000 dinners per day. The best sound-picture house in the district has been built at the factory, the club is beginning to function, day-nurseries have been set up, a dispensary and a department store.

The training of new staffs is taken special care of, for the rapidly developing construction requires more and more new skilled forces.

As early as June 1930 contracts were passed with related factories engaged in producing agricultural machinery, for training master-workmen and highly skilled workers for the Saratov factory.

The factory's programme for 1932 is fully guaranteed with highly skilled labour. At the same time a factory school is in operation, training 1,600 children of workers.

The school is located in a tremendous newly erected building with special work shops. In addition, a "combine for workers' education" has been organised and is developing its work.

The tremendous significance of the Saratov factory is determined by the fact that it is the first one to begin the mass production of Soviet combines. In 1932 the Lowe and Middle Volga districts, i.e. a sowing area of more than 15 million hectares, will be supplied with technically perfect harvesting-machines.

The factory is equipped according to the last word of modern technique and already has a considerable number (about 100) of imported machines, most of them put out in 1931.

In 18 months this giant has been built it will put out 15 to 20 thousand combine annually, destined to guarantee the expansion of the basis of Soviet agriculture.

Socialist labour, which is the cause of honour, of valour and heroism in the USSR, has given the construction of the factor tempos which may rightly be called bolshevist.

1 The "combine for workers' education is a system of education directly connected up with production.
At the initiative of the best workers, organised in shock brigades, the lumbermen of the Northern region of the Soviet Union made out a report recording the achievements of Soviet lumbermen, the improvement in their living conditions, and the development of cultural activity among the mass of lumbermen.

This report was discussed at numerous meetings of the lumbermen of the Northern region. It was called the "Red Book" of Soviet lumbermen.

Already by the end of January, 27,126 signatures endorsed the "Red Book", and their number is growing daily. It is an achievement of tremendous importance as, according to the resolution of the lumbermen, only such worker is entitled to sign the report, who fulfilled and exceeded the programme of his work.

We quote below extracts from the "Red Book" of the Soviet lumbermen:

"From the forest front of the Soviet land, from the woods of the Northern region, we, the Soviet lumbermen, hereby proclaim our allegiance to socialist construction, and our full trust in Lenin's Party, whose correct and firm policy secured the successful completion of the foundation for the socialist economies of our country.

The Northern region increased its rates of lumber provisions during the third year of the Five-Year Plan by 359% as compared with the first year.

The lumbermen of the North transplant socialist forms of labour from the advanced enterprises to the work in the lumber woods. Even now, the majority of lumbermen are organised in brigades. The brigade method and socialist competition has doubled the productivity of labour as compared with the year 1928.

At the present time brigades producing 10 cubic metres do not form an exception, there are even brigades, which produce as much as 15 cubic metres.

Development of engineering gave us an opportunity even now to proceed with the construction in the Northern region, in the vicinity of the Northern Experimental Station, of an electrified lumber combine with an annual capacity of 300 thousand cubic metres. Electrification in this district will reduce to one third the amount of labour power now engaged in the work, and will thus reduce the cost of lumber provisions by 25—35%.

The growth of socialist construction, and of industry in particular, brought a great change in our living conditions, our culture and our political development. We have now a club, and a red corner in every lumber-provision point and frequently even in every plot. Thousands of lumbermen attend courses and schools, hundreds of workers are promoted to the staff of lumbering organisations.

And what was the position of a lumberman in the days, when foreign concessionaires and our native capitalists ruled autocratically the northern forests of semi-savage Russia? An overwhelming majority of men were illiterate, always cheated by the bosses, ruthlessly exploited, living in smoky barracks or filthy mud-huts, feeding only on black bread,—they lived like beasts, "vodka" being their only consolation.

And when the free lumbermen, to whom labour had actually become a matter of honour and glory, had raised by their creative enthusiasm the tempo of lumber exports, the campaign about "forced labour" and the famous "dumping" was started in foreign countries.

Increase of output, socialist competition and shock work, full trust in the Party—such is our reply to the slander about "forced labour".

The lumbermen will never be slaves. Never, while we are alive, will the dark times of cruel exploitation and oppression return."
LENIN ON THE EMANCIPATION OF WORKING WOMEN

(Extract from a speech by V. Lenin at the 1st All-Russian Congress of Working Women, 1918)

The Soviet Government, as a government of toilers, brought about, during the first few months of its existence, a revolution in the laws concerning women. Not a trace remains in the Soviet Republic now of the laws that placed women in a subordinate position. I am speaking now of those laws that took particular advantage of the weaker position of women, that deprived her of equal rights with men, and that were often degrading, as for instance, the divorce laws, those relating to children born out of wedlock and to the right of a woman to sue the father of her child for the child's support.

It was just in this sphere that the bourgeois laws even in the most advanced countries took advantage of woman's weaker position to deny her equal rights and degrade her. It was just in this sphere that the Soviet Government did away with the old, unjust laws that were unbearable for the toiling masses. And we can now say with just pride and without the slightest exaggeration that there is no country in the world except the Soviet Union, where women enjoy full and equal rights and are not placed in a subordinate or degrading position, which is particularly sharply felt in everyday family life.

This was one of our first and most important tasks.

In all the democratic republics equality is loudly advertised, while in their civil laws and those concerning the position of woman in the family, and with regard to divorce, we see her inequality and degradation. And we say that this is a violation of democracy, particularly in regard to the oppressed. The Soviet Government has, more than all the other countries, even the most advanced, put the ideas of democracy into practice by allowing not the slightest hint of the inequality of women to creep into its laws. I repeat, that not one State and not one democratic system of legislation has done for women even half of what the Soviet Government accomplished during the first few months of its existence. Legislation, of course, is not sufficient, and we should never permit ourselves to be satisfied by decrees alone. But in the field of legislation we have done all expected of us to make the position of women equal with that of men, and this we have a right to be proud of. The position of women in the Soviet Union today is ideal from the point of view of the most advanced countries. But we say that this, of course, is only the beginning.
In a speech made in 1920 Lenin said: "The Soviet Government strives to have all toilers, not only party-members, but also non-party persons, not only men, but women, take part in this economic reconstruction. This cause, begun by the Soviet power, may be moved forward only when not hundreds, but millions and millions of women in Russia take part in it".

Since then eleven years have passed. Lenin's words are being transferred into reality. The tumultuous growth of our socialist construction during the past few years, the development of new, great centres of industry are accompanied by the mass-wide attraction of women into industry. According to the plan of 1931 1,600,000 women were to be drawn into all branches of national economy, including 800,000 for industry and construction.

This task is especially burning in the national districts; there it is much more difficult to solve it, because of the conditions of life.

The brief table presented below clearly shows the increase of the share of women's labour in production in 1931 as against 1930, and its particular increase in the national districts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1930</th>
<th>1931</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>334,627</td>
<td>600,796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moscow district</td>
<td>556,649</td>
<td>238,029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leningrad</td>
<td>131,044</td>
<td>23,002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazakhstan</td>
<td>110,209</td>
<td>9,654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kirghizia</td>
<td>7,918</td>
<td>1,266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>196</td>
<td>1,421</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The position of women in Soviet industry is characterised not only by their growth in numbers, but incomparably better by their qualitative development. The attracting of women into socialist production is the attracting of women to the creative activity of socialism.

In the factories and mills of pre-revolutionary Russia hundreds and thousands of women used to work, but they were looked on simply as cheap labour. Keep the women at the hardest, least skilled work, pay her a miserable wage — such was the attitude of the old regime to the woman toiler. Woman was regarded as a lower sort of being, not capable of any responsible, creative work whatever.

Long years of oppression led women to become accustomed to regard themselves as suitable only for household work and hard labour. Bourgeois society, sternly observing the inequality of woman arising from her social position, absolutely refused to take into account the physical and physiological peculiarities of the female organism. There were cases when women gave birth to children right at the machines; although physically weaker than man, woman constantly had to bear the harder work.

The attitude of the Soviet Government to this question is absolutely different. While breaking for ever with the idea of woman's intellectual inequality, it takes strict account of her physical peculiarities. Women in industry are given four months' vacation during childbirth, two months before and two months after the birth; up till nine months they are given time for nursing the child; women are not burdened with physical labour beyond their strength.

We shall not enumerate everything that has been done by the Soviet power for the intellectual development of women. Let us pause over one question only, the question of women's skill in production. This problem was set on the boards in 1931 with especial acuteness, in connection with the mass attraction of women into industry. The People's Commissariat of Labour was directed to determine in what branches of industry female skilled labour could be utilised. And in this horizons for woman were opened, of which she would not even have dared to dream in pre-revolutionary Russia. Woman has secured access to the crafts of electric repairman, electrician, engineer in mining, engraver, turner and a number of other specialities in the metal industry, highly skilled crafts in the chemical, textile and food industries. From skilled working woman to engineer and factory-director is woman's path in socialist industry.

In this connection there has been a big increase in the percentage of women among...
the students admitted to the higher technical institutions and to the factory-schools. In the factory-schools there were 28.8% girls in 1927/28; on January 1, 1930, there were 30.25%, and in 1931, in connection with the mass attraction of women into industry, the percentage increased to 50%. We see the same picture in the workers' faculties, and in the higher educational institutions.

The advancement of women to responsible work in industry is extremely important. The working woman, from the machine, receives the job of master-worker, of assistant-director, of director. The working woman has fully justified the hopes set on her by the Soviet Government. She is not only becoming a skilled worker in industry, but is beginning to play a leading part in our socialist construction.

From the decree of the All-Union Conference of Trade-Unions, devoted to questions connected with the penetration of industry by female labour, we can see what unexampled activity and creative initiative is displayed in industry by women.

44% of the women metal-workers, 54% of the women in the chemical industry, 57% of the women textile-workers, 50% of the women in the paper industry, etc., have been drawn into socialist competition. By now that percentage has increased considerably. Women's shock-brigades are formed, many women shock-brigade workers have been rewarded with the Order of the Red Banner.

The attraction of women into active, creative work has radically changed their psychology. While in tsarist Russia the woman-worker regarded it as her great good fortune to do house-work and not to go to work in the awful factory, which ruined her life, now she sees the fundamental meaning of life in productive, socially useful work. She is struggling determinedly for community-housing, nurseries, kindergartens, public dining-rooms, public laundries, for new conditions of life, which set woman free from household, unproductive labour.

In developing the new, socialist forms of life woman is playing a most important part.

A shock-brigade of women-builders
The Svetlana works in Leningrad, where electric lamps and radio valves are made, was the first to fulfil the Five-Year Plan in two and a half years, and the Soviet Government has awarded the best workers with the supreme labour prize: the Order of Lenin.

The following sketch tells in short outline the life story of one of these workers, Evdokia Semenovna Alexeeva.

From 1889 to the present day — 42 years of hard work. And the greater part of this life was spent during an epoch when work was far from being considered a matter of honour and glory.

One winter day in 1889 a little girl of twelve trudged wearily through the streets of St. Petersburg. She had come from the province of Kaluga, from the little village Uteshevo and had been brought to St. Petersburg to go into service. Several days later she had found work as a house drudge, and was looking after the children, doing the scullery work and the washing and everything else in the house that was monotonous and soul destroying. There was barely time to do everything that had to be done and in return for her services she had to be content with the leavings from her masters' table, four rubles a month and plenty of kicks.

If occasionally she was lucky enough to snatch a free moment, Doonia would run over to do some washing or window scrubbing at the neighbours' in order to earn an extra ruble here and there and so make her life just a little more endurable.

Doonia spent the seven best years of her life in the fly-blown kitchen of a prosperous middle-class home. She had no future to look forward to. Her life began and was to be ended in the kitchen.

At 19 Doonia married Alexeev, a carriage upholsterer, and was now called Evdokia Semenovna Alexeeva. Her husband worked little, drank a great deal and considered it his duty to beat his wife. Evdokia Semenovna was still almost a child. Permanent overwork soon left its mark on her and premature wrinkles began to appear around her deep-set intelligent eyes.

Soon children began to arrive. She had three altogether and from early morning their hungry wailing filled the room until in the evening it was put to silence by the raucous yells of her drunken husband and her own helpless moaning as he struck her with his fists.

At last Evdokia Semenovna could stand it no longer and divorced her carriage-upholsterer. Of her three children only one son lived, and she decided to bring him up and educate him as well as her poor resources would allow. For that she would have to live and work and earn her bread.

*  *

At the sound of the first whistle the massive gates of the Stiglitz factory opened wide. Crowds of women burst into the yard and dispersed all over the buildings. Hunger brought Evdokia Semenovna Alexeeva to these gates. As a great favour she was put to work at the bench and given forty copecks a day.

On the wall there was a formidable list of all the things you were fined for doing. There were so many of them, that you felt you could hardly lift your finger without having to pay. If you left your machine for a second there was a fine to be paid. If you exchanged a few words with your neighbour — another fine. A rude reply to the foreman — again you must pay up.

Wherever they turned the women seemed to be faced with a fine, 50 copecks here, 25 copecks there, making a big gap in their miserable 15 rubles pittance.

Evdokia Semenovna spent many years at the same bench in the Stiglitz factory. Then came 1905. One day the news spread round the factory:

"We're going to strike."

There was great excitement. The women waited impatiently for the strike to begin, when they would leave their machines and stop working.

Evdokia Semenovna's bench was the first in the row near the entrance. Shriil whistles were heard resounding through the factory. There were shouts outside and a murmur rose up from the workshops. Some of the younger workers burst in and shouted authoritatively:

"Stop work!"
The sudden excitement was too much for the women. They lost their nerve. Evdokia Semenovna was the only one to keep her presence of mind. With a deft blow she knocked the belt off her machine and then did the same to her neighbour's.

The other women took courage from her and followed her example, and one after another the machines came to rest.

The factory gates opened and disgorged a crowd, nine thousand strong. The women went out onto the street and bravely facing the whips and bayonets of the police, they went to seek justice and protection from the tsar. Machine guns spat lead onto the square which was soon bathed in blood.

October 1917 found Evdokia Alexeeva at the works now called the "Svetlana". The revolution seemed to have made a new woman of her. She began to find a new interest in life. At the age of forty she studied with more enthusiasm than any school girl. In 1919 at the age of 42 Evdokia Semenovna became a member of the Party.

"I would have become a member much earlier", she would say as if in excuse, "as far back as 1917 even, only I was ashamed when I couldn't read or write. Now that I've educated myself a little I'm not afraid of joining."

Evdokia Semenovna spent three more years studying at the school attached to the works. She worked hard, both at her studies and in the factory, and soon became one of the best workers. She began to be given responsible work, for whatever she did, she did well.

"We're not working for the boss now", she would say, "but for ourselves, comrades, so look after your tools and do your work carefully."

Evdokia Semenovna was promoted to the post of assistant to the chief inspector of the factory. This responsible work, however, did not take her away from her bench. It enabled her to take an active part in improving production and she soon introduced her first suggestion for rationalisation. It was found effective and immediately applied. The result was a 50% improvement in quality. Then she had another idea for improvement which was also applied and after that another and yet another.

When her admiring companions used to ask her how she did it she would always say: "It's quite simple, if you want to do a thing you just do it."

And true enough, if you look at Evdokia Semenovna, at her high, wrinkled forehead, her smooth drawn hair flecked with gray, her intelligent, kind, deep-set eyes, you understand that what she does comes natural to her because she has set her mind on it.

Evdokia Semenovna's son, brought up during the hard times, followed his mother's example and with her joined the Party in 1919. He often says to his mother: "You are now 54 years old. You have worked in the factory 35 years. You have never known rest all your life, don't you think it's time to take it easy now? Surely you've done your share."

But Evdokia Semenovna takes no notice of him. She would not dream of leaving the factory now. She is too much attached to it.

"Just think for a moment", she argues with her son, "how can I leave? The factory can't get along without me. I am on the local tribunal, am a member of the Party cell bureau and of the Party membership committee. How can I possibly leave? And especially now when every worker is wanted. I should never be happy if I was out of it all."

It was April. The broken ice was being borne along on the swollen waters of the Neva. Leningrad was celebrating the triumph of the Soviet factory.

"Svetlana" reported: "We have finished the first Five-Year Plan in two and a half years. We are triumphantly beginning the second Five-Year Plan."

Several days later all the papers of the Union published the following news:

"The Central Executive Committee of the USSR has decided to award the Order of Lenin to Alexeeva, Evdokia Semenovna, worker of the "Svetlana" Electric Lamp Factory, for distinguished service in industry."

That is the story of Evdokia Semenovna, the story of a career full of heroism, such as many others may follow.
Anyone who has happened to observe the daily life and ways of the Red Army in the USSR knows that it is an army which educates not only defenders of the peaceful construction of the Soviet Union, but also active participants in the entire economic and cultural life of the country.

The worker, the collectivised peasant, the young employee come to the Red Army from the Moscow District, the Ukraine, Transcaucasus, Bashkiria, Tartary, from all ends of the Soviet Union.

After the army the young toiler returns to his factory, his collective farm, having greatly raised his cultural level, his knowledge, his political consciousness. Young village lads, after passing through the school of the Red Army, on coming home, become organisers of collective farms, leaders of reading-huts, become cultural workers in the socialist village. After the army the young toiler goes to the technical high school, to the higher educational institutions, to technical institutes or to special military institutes, if he has decided to devote himself to military work.

This result is attained by the tremendous cultural and educational work which fills the life of the Red Army.

What is this work, concretely speaking?

Along with their political education the Red Army men study reading and writing, get a whole series of information about mathematics, history and geography. The Red Army men study in evening-schools for general education, at courses, in all sorts of circles, planned for the most varied degrees of preparation — from circles for eliminating illiteracy to circles for studying higher mathematics. There are several thousands of such schools and circles in the Red Army.

The time which he has free from study the Red Army man spends in the club or in the Lenin corner. The clubs are specially adopted for rest; libraries, expositions, radio-sets are usually arranged in them.

Here evenings are organised for "Questions and Answers", for contact with the "patrons", i. e., with the workers of factories and mills who take this or that Red Army section under their wing. At literary evenings the works of Soviet literature are discussed, proletarian writers and poets speak. The programme for club-evenings likewise includes conversations on military, political and scientific subjects. The Red Army men pay collective visits to museums, exhibits, scientific and technical institutes.

The total number of cultural and educational circles of the Red Army (circles of military science, sport, political, anti-religious, artistic circles, etc.) amounts to several thousands. The entire mass of Red Army men is embraced by these cultural organisations. The Red Army men study with great interest in technical circles and at various courses, and acquire a definite specialty. Chauffeurs, tractor-drivers, inventors, rationalisers of production pass out of the Red Army.
The Red Army man is fond of books. There are millions of books in the libraries of the Red Army. There is constant demand for them from the part of the Red Army men, commanders, and other workers of the Red Army.

The Red Army men in the USSR are the equals and comrades of their commanders. Relations between them when at work or at study are determined by comradely discipline, based on social conscious-

ness, on an understanding of the tasks of the Red Army and of the duty of each single one of its workers. During their leisure-time in the club, or in the Lenin corner, the Red Army men and their commanders rest and amuse themselves together. Here we see the Red Army actor, the Red Army poet delivering his stories, reading his poems, participating in club-plays.

Proletarian art has great affection among the Red Army. In almost all bodies of the Red Army dramatic circles, theatres, string orchestras, ensembles of army songs are at work, frequently professional and semi-professional organisations are formed there. One of the most important artistic organisations is the "Central Theatre of the Workers' and Peasants' Red Army" in Moscow and similar ones in a number of other cities. The Red Army has also good reason to be proud of its symphony orchestras, composed exclusively of the Red Army men.

The Houses of the Red Army and Fleet represent clubs of a superior type for workers of the Red Army, for their families, for everyone, interested in the life of the Red Army. The People's Commissary for Military Affairs, K. Voroshilov, has called the Central House of the Red Army in Moscow "the Voluntary Academy". These words correctly characterise the tremendous sweep and variety of the work carried on in the Moscow House of the Red Army.

The press occupies a very important place in the cultural life of the Red Army. In the republics of the Soviet Union a series of newspapers is published illustrating the life of the Red Army and military problems. Many military and Red Army periodicals are published. In addition, in the different bodies of the Red Army their own printed and wall newspapers are issued. An article entitled "The Soviet Press" in No. 7-9 of the magazine "V.O.K.S.", 1931, has already made our readers acquainted with the press in the Red Army.

1 See the article on the theatre in this number.
2 See the article in this number.
Army correspondents, i.e. Red Army soldiers and commanders, constantly working in our newspapers and periodicals, form a link between all this press and the daily life of the mass of the Red Army.

Visiting her son

While serving in the Red Army, the young toiler does not lose contact with the life and constructive work of the Soviet city and village. The Red Army men coming into the fields to help the collective farmers are a usual phenomenon, — just as usual and important one as the workers’ collective of one factory or another acting as patron to some Red Army group. The workers look after the daily life of the Red Army, the fitting out of red corners, supplying them with books and other things.

The Red Army is equally well connected with the scientific and artistic forces of the country. The trade-unions of educational workers and of art workers are “patrons” of the Red Army and render it great assistance in its cultural work.

In the preceding issue of our periodical we wrote of the joint work of Red Army men and film-artists, producing films on the life of the Red Army.

The Red Army is connected with the writers by LOKAF (Russian initials for “Literary Federation of the Red Army and Fleet”), which includes prominent proletarian writers, “allies” and “fellow-travelers” (petty bourgeois writers sympathetic to our revolution and socialist reconstruction), and also the new generation of writers. In the periodicals issued by LOKAF (“LOKAF”, “Salvo”) there are published literary works representing the life of the Red Army, its heroic history, its participation in the building of socialism and in the defence of the peaceful work of the Soviet Union.

In 1932 the Red Army celebrates its 14th anniversary as the first army in the world to be a nursery of culture, as the army in which new people are being educated, builders of socialism, and in which fresh cultural values are being created.

Writers who are members of the Literary Federation of the Red Army and Fleet (LOKAF): the novelist Novikov-Priboy, the poet V. Lugovskoy and others...
The Red Army is not only the defender of the Soviet boundaries. Together with the entire country it is studying, growing, perfecting itself, taking part in all the artistic and cultural life of the Soviet Union.

In the system of the cultural work of the Red Army a great role is played by the Houses of the Red Army, among which a place apart belongs to the Central House of the Red Army in Moscow (C.H.R.A.).

Let us walk through its huge halls, numerous rooms and corridors and see what changes have taken place there during the past year, the third year of the Five-Year Plan.

But first of all let us cast a glance over the exterior of the house. The hundred-year old work of the Italian architect Gilardi has been somewhat changed.

At its right wing a severe, cement building of seven stories has risen up.

That is a new hotel, with 300 rooms, for workers of the Red Army who come to Moscow.

In the heart of the park we see other, unfinished buildings. Those are future workshops for school appliances, and a model garage of 50 automobiles.

Farther along in the park work has been begun for clearing the ground and marking off lots.

Here a gigantic stadium for all types of sport will be built by the fifteenth anniversary of the Red Army; it will include a swimming-pool, a motor-cycle- and auto track, a hippodrome.

Within the house two auditoriums, each holding 300 persons, have been built during the past year.

The military department, the sectors of mass work and sport, the Museum of the Red Army, the university, the theatre are all operating strictly according to plan. Just as before the permanent exhibition arranged by the Central House of the Red Army is always attended by a great number of excursions, groups, individual visitors.

In addition to the courses and schools lectures are arranged almost every evening in the auditorium of the C.H.R.A.

In one of the auditoriums we may hear a lecture on Marx's and Lenin's theory of war or on the results of the third, decisive year of the Five-Year Plan. In another hall the subject of the evening is electricity. A demonstration of equipment, experiments, moving-pictures.

Here come commanders and their families, Red Army men and students.

The library of the Central House of the Red Army is open to everyone.

That means that each visitor is admitted directly to the bookshelves. There is no one between him and the book.

The reader gets acquainted with the book before taking it to work at or to read. In this open library there are no librarians. There are only advisers.

In each copy of a book there is a review of it or quotations from appropriate critical articles. The book speaks about itself to the reader.

In the reading-hall
In the regimental clubs the sport evenings of the House of the Red Army are arranged periodically. Lectures are held there on the functions of one or another type of sport, followed by performances of model teams of men and women from the Central House of the Red Army; such evenings usually close with mass sport play to music, in which the entire public takes part.

In the chess-room

At the sport-bases of the suburbs, in the open air, the sport section of the C.H.R.A. organises races of skiers, drawn by horses, hockey-games, skiing estafettes.

Tens of thousands of workers passed through the halls of the museum of the C.H.R.A. last year.

They studied the history of the armed struggle for the dictatorship of the proletariat, for our peaceful socialist construction.

The museum has organised staffs of the participants in this struggle. They gather the recollections of living witnesses of its glorious battles, study documents and facts and write the real history of the Civil War.

Last year the Theatre of the Red Army offered a number of new plays. One of the plays (about a Red commander) was shown by the theatre 200 times during the past year, and the play invariably stirred the spectators.

Great success was also enjoyed by a play representing demobilised Red Army soldiers who, in a distant region of the Soviet Union, formed a Red Army collective farm.

The radio-station of the House talks to the entire Soviet Union, to all the Houses of the Red Army scattered over the great expanse of the USSR.

In the morning, if you pass through a row of class-rooms of the House, you will find groups of women studying.

These are the wives of Red Army soldiers preparing themselves to be radio-operators, librarians and nurses.

Here writers are at work studying the military art in order to understand more deeply the work of the Red Army and to reflect it more vividly in their works.

The beginning authors of military books and of text-books work here — they are commanders with experience and knowledge, but who have not done any literary work before. Tomorrow they will become the authors of their first books. They are learning to share their knowledge and experience.

Here you may meet scenario-writers and Red Army soldiers getting ready to enter the university after their military service is over.

The House is working, seething with work. The entire country is seething with its gigantic work of construction.

In 1932 the Central House, together with the entire country celebrates the fourteenth anniversary of the existence of the Red Army.
In most corps of the Red Army, in most crews of the fleet, in military schools and institutions of the military department there are theatrical and other artistic circles made up of the military service-men themselves.

The Theatre of the Red Army, which was organised at the end of 1929, was destined to become the centre of theatrical work in the Red Army.

The problems of building up the Red Army and of its daily life, of the strengthening the defence of the Soviet land, international and historical themes — such is the wide sphere of this theatre's activity. The Theatre of the Red Army is composed of four "shops": the dramatic groups, "the shop of small forms" (shows for small stages), the ensemble of Red Army singing and the doll-theatre — "the Red Army Petrushka". These shops correspond to the forms of theatrical work in the Red Army itself. The main difficulty — one natural in such a new enterprise — was the lack of a repertory. This explains why, at the beginning, the theatre had to make use of the plays which cannot be considered typical for the Red Army Theatre today (one instance is the play of an older dramatist, Wolkenstein, called "Makhno's Men"). From the first days of its existence the theatre set about educating a staff of authors and has a number of achievements to its credit in the formation of a repertory.

For its first play it took the review "The Chinese-Eastern Railway", dealing with the events of 1929. The play was offered immediately after the close of the conflict over the Chinese-Eastern Railway.

The next play was "The First Cavalry Army", written by a commander of the Red Fleet and a fighter in the First Cavalry Army, Vl. Vishnevsky — it was acknowledged to be a tremendous achievement of the Red Army Theatre. Its author at once advanced to the front rank of Soviet playwrights. The play was shown with great success throughout the Soviet Union. Vishnevsky succeeded in showing from various sides the tsarist army, various features of the 1914—1917 war, then of the revolution of 1917, in unfolding a picture of the civil war of 1917—1921, and in closing with a suggestive sketching of the class warfare which accompanies the socialist offensive in the days of the Five-Year Plan. The play shows the development of the First Cavalry Army with S. Budionny and K. Voroshilov at its head. By the example of the First Cavalry Army, Vishnevsky to a great degree discloses the path taken by the Red Army as a whole. The playwright makes use of various means for securing the dramatic effect; the play includes stories, moving-picture subtitles, music, singing. A sort of conférencier or 'reader' acts in the play; in his speeches he illuminates the separate episodes and offers conclusions, deductions. This structure of the play enabled the author to embrace a long series of events and render them with remarkable force and precision.

The language of the play is splendid.

The third play was "Makhno's Men", by Vi. Wolkenstein, which we have already mentioned.

Its second season the Theatre of the Red Army opened with a play by D. Kudrin, "The Lull". This was the first big play about the life of the Red Army under the conditions of peace-time construction. Its action is unfolded in the milieu of commanders, political workers of the Red Army, Red Army soldiers and the families of commanders in 1924, i. e., in the period of the reform of the Red Army, carried out under the leadership of M. Frunze. Nevertheless, a number of features in the play are up-to-date even at present time.

Gl. Alekseiev's play, "A Blow at the Steppes", tells of the building up of a Red Army agricultural commune. The Red Army men are building a new, collectivised village, drawing after them the masses of middle and poor peasants. That is the main line of the play.

For the first play of the present season (the third one for the Theatre of the Red Army) Vi. Ivanov's play "Naib-Khan's Compromise" was chosen. It relates the attack of the band of the former "ruler of Khiva and Turkmenia", Naib-Khan, against a State farm in Turkmenistan, situated near the Afghan frontier.

Like the dramatic group of which we have been speaking, the "shop of smaller forms" has also been busy creating its own repertory. Its first works were an anti-religious review, a cycle of acted soldiers' songs, a number of estrade numbers, a review entitled "Steel-clad Enthusiasm" (on a theme of military technique). Then a review
was performed, dealing with themes of international politics. This review, called "They are setting ready", tells of the preparation of international imperialism for a war against the Soviet Union. A Russian White-Guard general — the chief figure — visits a series of countries; this dramatic approach enables the authors to show the activity of the various imperialist elements in Western Europe. In satirical intermezzos, a Red Army man and two actresses comment on the action, while constructing from the parts of an object-formation an automobile, aeroplane, etc., on which they are supposed to be travelling after the general.

For the latest spectacle of the shop of smaller forms, V. Kvasnitsky's play, "Misprint", was taken. Its content is as follows: in the Red Army newspaper one squad was entitled a "shock-brigade" which, under conditions of the Red Army, means a squad advanced in the work of military training. As a matter of fact, this squad was not a shock-brigade. In order to correct the misprint, the Red Army men set enthusiastically about their studies and in fact the squad came to justify the title it had been given by mistake in the newspaper. This episode was shown by the author in the form of a theatrical sketch. The staging of both these things is distinguished by the sensitive and intelligent work of the director and designer. In this respect, the shop of smaller forms has achieved considerable successes.

The ensemble of Red Army singing is an original sort of artistic organisation. The form of its presentation is a peculiar placing of the chorus and of artistic reading. The theme of the ensemble's performance is usually the fighting history of one or another military body. Thus, various programmes of the ensemble have been devoted to the First Cavalry Army, to the Red Fleet, to the special Red-Banner Far-Eastern Army. In addition, the ensemble deals also with questions of socialist construction in the USSR (programmes called "Magnet-Mountain", "Defence of Socialism"). The ensemble is invariably received with acclaim.

The dolls' theatre, "The Red Army Petrushka", has done a number of merry, witty shows, chiefly from Red Army life. Trips to Red Army units enter into the system of the theatre's work. During the summer all its shops visit the Red Army camps. Here the theatre is not confined to its usual performances, but carries on a great deal of pedagogical work, instructing and helping the Red Army artistic circles.

The programme of this instruction includes general methods of work in the sphere of the "smaller forms", questions of staging, literary consultation, extension of mass singing, the doll-theatre, anti-religious work in artistic form, etc. The theatre's instructors showed specimen of small plays drawn from the life of the given camp, by working at their staging together with the members of the circles, their leaders, etc.

At present, in addition to the local organisations of the Red Army Theatre, there are series of theatres of the Red Army in which, as in the Moscow Theatre, professional artists are at work. A part of the duty of the Moscow Theatre of the Red Army, which has now become the central one, is to help these theatres.

The Theatre of the Red Army has already won sympathy and applause among the extensive circle of its public — Red Army men, commanders, workers and collectivised peasants. This success the Theatre of the Red Army owes first of all to the fact that it is the child of the first army of workers and peasants in the world, of the first army the aim of which is not the enslavement of the popular masses, but, on the contrary, the defence of the socialist State created by them.
ROMAIN ROLLAND ELECTED HONORARY MEMBER OF THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES OF THE USSR

The Academy of Sciences of the USSR has elected the French writer Romain Rolland as an honorary member.

The international fame and the sincere sympathies of millions of advanced men which Romain Rolland enjoys are due to the fact that he is a great man of letters and a great citizen rather than to his work in the field of science.

His election as an honorary member of the USSR Academy of Sciences was of course in recognition of his scientific achievements, but nevertheless what he has done in the literary field and in public life cannot be overlooked. Not only do his novels (and especially "Jean Christophe") show the greatest literary gifts but they also provide a singular epic inspiration for the best elements amongst the intellectuals of Europe and America.

His fierce protest against war and his faith in humanity all through the last great capitalist slaughter have shown him to be one of the foremost leaders of humanism and internationalism.

Not long ago Romain Rolland boldly declared that he is in definite agreement with Lenin's ideas and is ready to approve of violence when it is directed against the harmful power of capitalists.

But apart from all this Romain Rolland remains a scientist of no low order. His scientific works are written with such care and discrimination that from the literary point of view they do not fall short of his best novels.

All that being so, there can be no doubt that the election of Romain Rolland to the USSR Academy of Sciences will do honour to this high institution.

The USSR Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries welcomes Romain Rolland, that great and true friend of the vanguard of humanity which is boldly building up a new life in our country.

ASSISTANCE TO SCIENTIFIC WORKERS IN THE USSR

By R. Voronov,
Responsible Secretary of the Commission of Assistance to Scientists

The favourable position in which the scientific workers of the USSR are placed naturally stimulates the powerful development of scientific investigation in the Soviet Union. This is due to the special care which the Soviet Government takes of its scientific workers, and of the conditions in which they are working.

It was as early as in 1921, that the Government organised a special body "CE-KUBU" (The Central Commission for the Improvement of Living Conditions of Scientists), which in May 1931 was reorganised into a Commission of Assistance to Scientists, attached to the Council of People's Commissaries of the USSR — an organ of all-Union importance, vested with considerably greater functions and rights.

This Commission consists of a number of members of the Government and prominent scientists.

The activity of the Commission extends to the scientific and engineering workers, conducting independent scientific and research work, and in the first place to those among them, who are already known for their scientific works and practical achievements contributing to the socialist construction of the country.

The Commission consists of a number of sub-commissions, each being in charge of separate matters.

The sub-commission concerned with the material and living conditions is in charge of the sanitary and medical institutions of the Commission, of the payment of
pensions and lump sums granted to scientific workers. It also controls the hostels for scientists and generally assists scientists in their everyday life.

The sub-commission for the assistance in scientific research work organises the importation of foreign literature, apparatus and chemicals, renders assistance, when required, in the publication of scientific works, finances particularly urgent and important scientific trips and expeditions both inside the country, and abroad, awards prizes for important scientific works, etc.

The sub-commission for administration and organisation controls the management, the finances and the apparatus of the Commission.

Recently a sub-commission began to function, which is to draw the scientists into the working out of separate problems of socialist construction.

For the few months of its activity, the Commission succeeded in realising a number of practical measures, and in getting ready for the development of its activity in 1932.

Over 4,000 scientific workers passed through the sanatoria and other medical institutions of the Commission; the capacity of these institutions will be increased to 10,000 persons in 1932. The Commission controls several excellently equipped houses of rest and sanatoria near Moscow — "Uzkoe" and "Sosnovy Bor" (Pine Forest), near Leningrad — in Peterhof, in Crimea — "Gaspra", and many others in the Caucasus — in Kislovodsk, Teberda, etc. The existing houses of rest and sanatoria will be considerably enlarged this year; in addition to the above, new sanatoria are being constructed in the health-resorts of the Caucasian Spas, and in the North Caucasus — in Essentuki, Kislovodsk, and Teberda; on the Caucasian shore of the Black Sea — in Sochi; new houses of rest are being organised in the Zhigouli mountains on the Volga; in the district of Luga, near Leningrad, in Porechke, located in the Zvenigorod district of the Moscow region, and in Novgorod; there is a project to organise a special sanatorium for the children of scientific workers, a floating house of rest on the Volga, and several new sanatoria and houses of rest in the Urais, in Siberia, and in Central Asia.

For the convenience of scientific workers, arriving to Moscow and Leningrad for a short stay, special hostels have been organised in these cities. The Commission is at present organising similar hostels in other large centres of the Soviet Union.

The scientific workers enjoy a number of housing privileges. The Soviet legislation provides for the scientific workers a right to supplementary dwelling space in addition to the general rates.

The Commission is also in charge of the so-called House for the Veterans of Science in Moscow, where aged scientists reside, whose age or health do not allow them to conduct any active work in scientific research institutions. In this house they are surrounded with every comfort enabling them to continue their scientific work in accordance with their desire, or their state of health. The house is maintained entirely at the expense of the State. A recent government decree turned over to the Commission one of the buildings of the Peterhof palace (near Leningrad), the former summer residence of the tsars, together with all the furniture (hitherto it was a museum, illustrating the family life of the Russian tsars). A second House for the Veterans of Science, similar to the Moscow House, will be organised in this palace.

The Commission is also rendering direct financial and material assistance to the scientists in the form of long term loans and grants. Over thirty thousand rubles were expended in these loans during the period of existence of the Commission.

The sub-commission for the assistance in scientific research work during the period of its existence has satisfied about 15,000 applications of about 4,000 scientific workers concerning orders and subscriptions for foreign books, journals, and other scientific publications; transferred the membership fees of 300 Soviet scientists to foreign scientific associations; assisted in different way over 100 Soviet scientists in their personal research work; spent about 20,000 rubles on expenses of scientific commissions, prizes awarded for scientific work etc.

The Houses of Scientists serve as clubs for scientific workers, and are the centres for organising the work of the Soviet scientists around the basic problems of socialist construction. At the same time these houses contribute to the improvement of their qualification, helping in the exchange of scientific experience; they popularise the scientific knowledge, and conduct technical propaganda. The Houses of Scientists have at their disposal well equipped libraries and reading-rooms, dining-rooms, rooms for rest, special studies for scientific
work, etc. In the Houses of Scientists evenings of artistic reading, concerts, lectures and reports on miscellaneous scientific, social and political subjects, public demonstration of moving picture films, etc., are organised. The following circles are actively working at the Houses of Scientists: tourism, chess, billiards, physical culture and sports, hygiene of mental work, regime of rest of intellectual workers, assistance to the commission charged with the construction of sanatoria and of medical institutions.

Two Houses of Scientists are now functioning in Moscow and in Leningrad; a number of new houses will be organised within the next few years: in Kharkov and Kiev (Ukraine), in Minsk (White Russia), in Tiflis (Transcaucasia), Tashkent (Central Asia), Vladivostok (Far East), etc.

THE FIRST CONGRESS OF SOVIET INVENTORS

The Soviet Union is the only country in which invention—for the first time in the history of the world—is exercised by the masses, and aims at solving the most urgent economic problems. The invention movement in the USSR, the true school for the technical activity of the masses, has not sprung into being by chance. Socialised industry places before the inventors concrete demands. It is no mere hazard that, at the All-Union Congress of Inventors, which recently took place in Moscow, a special section elaborated plans for inventors' work. The object of this planning was to bring the inventor to concentrate all his power and attention on the most fundamental problems of technics. Such planning raises the technical standard of the inventor and gives the right direction to his creative thought.

The Soviet plan for rationalisation and invention is based on tens and hundreds of thousands of orders, arising from the needs of socialist construction, in scientific institutions, factories etc.

At the outset, inventions should deal with everything that promotes the fulfilment of the Five-Year Plan before its specified term and the earliest realisation of the slogan: "overtake and outstrip".

Inventive thought began to take shape with the first smoke of the factory chimneys at the close of the civil war. In the struggle to rebuild and develop Soviet industry, thousands of specialists and worker inventors made valuable contributions to invention. At first there was no organisation to assemble the isolated inventors and unite them into a powerful whole. But following the decree passed by the All-Union Council of Trade Unions, the All-Union Society of Inventors was organised in 1930. From that moment, invention in the masses took definite shape and developed tremendously. At present, the Society has over 400,000 members, including workers and specialists in all branches of industry.

At its first Congress, the Society made public remarkable display of achievements. The influx of workers' proposals and inventions during 1931 was two or three times as great as that of 1930. In the Supreme Council of National Economy alone, inventors deposited 194,799 rationalisation proposals. Their realisation would save hundreds of millions of rubles. Complicated machinery such as auto-coupling, motorless combines etc. were included among these inventions.

The enormous impetus given to the technical creative power of the masses originated in the vast development of socialist competition and shock-brigades which has brought out and developed the manifold talents hidden in the working masses. Together with the increase in the number of inventions, the quality and value of the offered rationalisation proposals has also shown marked improvement.

In order to experiment and test the value of their inventions, inventors are sent to scientific research institutes and laboratories for a trial period. Thus, in Leningrad, the academician A. Yoffe carries on systematic work in his institute with 25 inventors.

The Congress particularly emphasised the importance of a close relationship between inventors and the scientific research organisations and technical schools.

In his speech of greeting to the Congress the Chairman of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR M. I. Kalinin pointed out that the increase in the effi-
ciency of labour represents the basis for building socialism, and that invention is the most important factor in increasing the productivity of labour.

A SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH STATION HELPED BY A NEWSPAPER

In one of the districts of the Central Black-Earth Region of the USSR, in a small sovhoz "Arzhenka"—a Soviet scientist, Prof. Chizhevsky, is carrying out a series of experiments, destined to open a new era in stock breeding and raising.

The discovery made by Prof. Chizhevsky is based on the fact that air, ionised by a high pressure electric current, has immense influence on the nature of various animals. Poultry, bees, rats, guinea-pigs etc., subjected to ionised air, show greater activity, increased weight, and thicker fur or feathers. The immunity of animals against epidemics increases, maturity comes earlier, and the offspring possesses exceptional vitality.

Experiments with poultry were tried last year at "Arzhenka" sovhoz. At the end of these experiments, all fowl subjected to ionisation weighed 130% of the normal weight. Prof. Chizhevsky's work is of great importance to Soviet stock-breeding, since the application of his methods disposes of many difficulties peculiar to this branch of production. However, the sphere of Prof. Chizhevsky's activities is by no means limited to stock only. The application of ionisation opens new horizons in the field of medicine. The tests conducted by Prof. Chizhevsky in Moscow, on apes and human beings, proved that such diseases as rheumatism, gout, disorders in the functioning of endocrine glands; diseases of the heart vessels system; high blood pressure; bronchial asthma, and even tuberculosis—yield completely to the treatment by ionisation.

While commenting on Prof. Chizhevsky's discovery, it is only just to mention the support and aid given the scientist by the local community during the first stages of his work.

The sovhoz "Arzhenka" is situated in the Rasskazovsky district. A local newspaper "Vperiod" (Onward), published in the town of Rasskazovo, proved a real friend to Prof. Chizhevsky. On more than one occasion it came to his aid in moments of difficulty.

At the very beginning of the experiments with poultry the paper took the research station at "Arzhenka" under its patronage. In an open letter to Prof. Chizhevsky, the editors wrote: "In view of the great significance of the scientific experiments carried on at the station, the editors of "Vperiod" will undertake to see that the work of the station is given proper care and attention by the local community." This promise was faithfully carried out by the paper, which not only popularised the work of the station, explaining the tremendous importance of Prof. Chizhevsky's discovery and giving information on each new result obtained, but also gave concrete help to the station in its everyday work. The electro-station of the sovhoz was unable to supply Prof. Chizhevsky with sufficient amount of naphtha to carry on his work. The paper drew the attention of its readers to this subject and obtained the necessary deliveries of naphtha from a factory, situated in the same district. In another instance, there was a shortage of helpers to execute work at the station; the paper took up the matter and, within a day or two, recruited the necessary workers.

Closest relations came to exist between the experimental station and the editors of the local newspaper. In all the difficulties, the station applied for aid to its "patrons"; and the paper forwarded the demands to the proper organisations, obtaining in each case complete satisfaction.

Experiments carried out at "Arzhenka" have proved the immense scientific and economic value of Prof. Chizhevsky's work; and today "Arzhenka" is destined to possess the first institute—the only one in the world—for studying ionisation and educating staffs of qualified workers in this branch.

Thus a local Soviet newspaper gave precious assistance to work which opens new vistas in the development of science. We see in this co-operation of the newspaper and the scientific research station at "Arzhenka" a vivid example of Soviet science, closely linked with the masses, ever conquering new positions on the route to socialism.
THE HOUSE OF RAILWAY TECHNIQUE
IN LENINGRAD

The Leningrad House of Technique in the name of Stalin, belonging to the October and Murman railways, is, in the USSR, the first base of mass technical propaganda in the field of transportation. In the former home of the tsarist minister Pobedonostsev are now arranged cabinets for scientific research, exhibitions, laboratories, rooms for study, a technical library, a lecture-hall for the railwaymen of Leningrad. The House of Technique arranges popular reports on scientific subjects, discussions and lectures on questions related to the technique of railway transportation; it organises circles of technical study; even in this short time 34,000 railwaymen have been brought into this cultural work.

The library of 12,000 volumes transferred by the October railway to the House of Technique has already grown to 17,000 volumes of technical literature. 120 transportable libraries take care of the needs of the October and Murman railways. The best professors of the Scientific Research Institute of Railway Management, of the Moscow Institute for the Reconstruction of Traction and the Leningrad Institute of Transportation give lectures and reports every day to their worker audience.

In the House of Technique there have been organised eight laboratory-cabinets in accordance with the fundamental divisions of railway economy: traction, management, roadbed, communication, transportation, reconstruction etc.

In the traction cabinet the engineer, fireman or workman of any factory executing orders for transportation find brake-models, draughts etc.

In the roadbed cabinet one's attention is drawn to the model of the new railway roadbed, used by the super-power American and Soviet locomotives. The map of the electrification of the October railway, which occupies the centre of the exhibition-hall, shows the great work of reconstructing transportation which has already been begun and which will be completed during the second Five-Year Plan.

A special room has been set aside for inventors. Daily consultation by engineers has been organised and a special library set apart for them.

The House of Technique in the name of Stalin has set as its fundamental purpose to be the organising centre for the movement of the masses to master the technique of railway construction.

The House of Technique also organises branches in the stations. In three places such branches have already been opened and are operating; in 1932 sixteen more will be organised.

Another form of mass-work away from the centre is the moving branch, the so-called "House of Technique on wheels". Two such branches are already operating regularly on the lines of the October and Murman railways.

The methods bureau of the House of Technique elaborates study plans and programmes for technical circles. With the participation of the active body of workers two scientific and technical films on transportation have been made.

The arrival of American super-power locomotives was utilised to acquaint the Leningrad railwaymen with foreign technique. Seven and a half thousand workers took part in excursions to the Proletarian Factory while the locomotives were being assembled.

In 1932 the work of the House of Technique is being considerably enlarged. A series of technical conferences and special reports will be organised away from the centre. Mass technical propaganda will reach 150,000 men.

The example given by the Leningrad railwaymen has already been caught up by the railwaymen of other lines.
SOVIET ART MOVES AHEAD

The Congress of workers in art of the USSR

By S. Bogomazov

Not so long ago Moscow saw the opening of the Eighth Congress of the trade-union of workers in art—actors, moving-picture actors and workers, musicians, painters. More than 300 delegates were present at the congress, from the various republics and districts; among them some very prominent leaders in art: O. Knipper-Chekhova, I. Moskvin, M. Mikhoeils, the Ukrainian cinema director A. Dovzhenko, etc.

The preceding congress (1930) had already confronted the numerous army of workers in art with a responsible task—the active participation of art in the work of the cultural revolution, in our socialist construction.

The Eighth Congress, this year, set about checking up the fulfilment of this task. Reports were delivered on the work of the trade-union of workers in art and on the state of the different branches of art in the USSR by the president of the central committee of the trade-union of workers in art, Y. Boyarsky, the acting commissary for Education, M. Epstein, the vice-president of the Union Cinema Trust, V. Pletnev, the vice-director of art for the Ukraine, Benkovich.

The reports gave a picture of the great achievements made by Soviet art during this latest period.

In accordance with the development of popular education in the USSR, the work of satisfying the artistic needs of the masses also develops and grows stronger.

In 1930/31 about 900 million people were reached by all forms of professional art, instead of 500 million in 1929/30. There was a remarkable increase in attendance at theatres, concerts, moving-pictures, art exhibitions.

The artistic creation of the nationalities of the Soviet Union unfolded further. Following the All-Union Olympiad of Art (see No. 12 of the periodical "V.O.K.S.", 1930), four olympiads of national art were carried through—in the Urals, in the Republic of the Germans of the Volga, in Karelia, in the North Caucasus—during the last year.

In the RSFSR there are at work 45 theatres of various nationalities, performing plays in 33 languages.

A splendid illustration of the development of national art in the USSR was given by the report of the representative of the Ukraine, Benkovich, who spoke on the state of artistic education, in the broadest sense, in the Ukrainian Soviet Republic. Before the revolution Ukraine had only 30% literates; now it has been turned practically into a country of hundred-percent literacy. In the Ukraine there are now more than 100 dramatic theatres, operas and others. The network of moving-picture theatres is growing at a colossal speed. The mass artistic movement embraces hundreds of thousands of participants and draws millions of spectators.

The principle of spontaneous activity is now being carried out in all branches of Soviet art. The entire USSR is covered with a network of spontaneously organised workers' circles for theatricals, chorus groups or collectives, circles of the representative arts. The TRAM movement is a pioneer and leading link in spontaneous art. The theatres of the young workers (TRAM) unite 85—90% of the young workers, Young Communists, Party members.

The growth of culture requires the creation of new artistic forces. There is no such thing as unemployment among the actors, musicians and painters of the Soviet Union. All the 114,900 members of the trade-union of workers in art are at work (34% of them are women). In the trade-union there is a lack of workers to meet the needs of the new industrial centres, now being created on the territory of the USSR, of the new construction works, of big lumber camps.

The problem of new forces is therefore acquiring especial importance. The working
class is now creating its own artistic intelligentsia equipped with the skill of the craft and knowledge.

What are the achievements of the various branches of art during the past few years?

As far as the cinema is concerned we note a great increase in the network of moving-picture theatres, the appearance and development in the USSR of the sound-film, the creation of a number of valuable new films ("A Pass to Life," directed by N. Eck, "Mountains of Gold," directed by Yudkevich, "Alone" directed by Trauberg and Kosintsev, "Next to Us," directed by N. Bravko).

The theatre has given the Soviet playgoer a number of plays with themes of the day. It is especially important to note that in the repertoires of the best theatres of the capitals more and more place is being taken by the works of proletarian writers ("Grain" by V. Kirshon, "Fear" by A. Afionogenov, "Tempo" by N. Pogodin, "Matter of Honour" by Mikitenko). In many cities new theatre buildings are being constructed, planned for a large audience and equipped with up-to-the-minute technical apparatus.

The interest of the masses in music grows with every year, and its growth is reflected in the development of mass concert and pedagogical work. The creative activity of our young proletarian composers is developing (M. Koval, V. Bely, A. Davidenko), while many of the older masters have not ceased active work (R. Glier, A. Krein, S. Vasilenko, N. Myaskovsky).

Much has been done in the sphere of the plastic arts. A Federation of Painters and a Russian Association of Proletarian Painters have been formed. A special State publishing house for art ("Izogiz") has been organised; a co-operative, "Painter" ("Khudozhnik"), has been formed, which to a great extent guarantee to the artist a firm material basis and normal conditions of life. The artists travel to the State farms, collective farms and take an active part in the artistic organisation of political anniversaries.

In the reports and speeches at the congress a large place was given to a healthy self-criticism. It was remarked that some varieties of concert work are lagging behind, do not respond to the growing cultural demands of the masses; the development of the network of children's theatres does not keep up with the demand; the problem of the new musical theatre has not been solved.

In this frank self-criticism one could feel plainly the growth of the political and social activeness of the mass of actors. The Soviet actor does not shut himself up

The Congress of the trade union of workers in art. Y. Boyarsky, the president of the central committee, is delivering his report
in the narrow circle of purely professional interests. He wants to take a full and active part in the general development of the construction work directed by the proletarian government. This urgent wish found its expression in the appeal to the Eighth Congress of workers in art, made by a group of prominent Soviet actors and actresses, who, together with the shock-brigade workers of the biggest Moscow factories, proposed beginning concrete preparations for carrying out the celebration of the fifteenth anniversary of the October Revolution. The appeal has a figurative title: "For a Magnitostroy in Art" 1 and is signed by E. Geltzer, M. Blumental-Tamarina, V. Kachalov, L. Leonidov, N. Radin, A. Tairov and others.

The closing lines of this appeal characterise the contemporary ideas of the Soviet artists:

"The tremendous labour enthusiasm of the working class and the collectivised peasantry, with the constant improvement of the material well-being and cultural service of the proletariat, creates exceptionally favourable conditions for the development of Soviet art, which is destined to be the battle-trumpet of the idea of communism."

THE SLOGAN OF SOVIET THEATRES IS:
"FOR A MAGNITOSTROY OF ART"

THE MOSCOW GRAND OPERA

The Grand Opera is the centre of musical and choreographical culture of the USSR, and the seat of this culture.

Making all possible use of, and popularising widely the rich musical and theatrical legacy left by the pre-revolutionary period, the Grand Opera is at the same time carrying out an important and serious work in connection with the creation of a new repertory. The Theatre is carefully and minutely analysing all its methods and in this way is able to produce new forms and new methods appropriate to the new artistic repertory.

Of greatest importance for the creation of the new repertory is the contest-competition announced by the Theatre jointly with the Editorial Office of the newspaper of the Young Communist League, the "Komsomolskaya Pravda", for the creation of a symphony, opera, and ballet for the XVth anniversary of the October Revolution.

The present repertory of the Grand Theatre consists of 35 operas and 15 ballets. The Theatre staged for the last two years a number of new performances, and revived 10 operas and 7 ballets, of which 8 are the work of Soviet composers. Furthermore, a cycle of symphonic concerts consisting of the works of classic and modern authors is being performed. Special programmes for the reviews of creations of modern composers have been drafted.

The Theatre disposes of the following resources to fulfil its tasks.

The total number of workers in the Theatre amounts to 2,100 persons, of whom 1,190 are shock-workers, and 100% of them are taking part in socialist competition. In the opera and ballet collectives brigades are organised who are engaged in the production of artistic works of minor forms, imbued with the modern spirit.

The best artists of the Union are centred in the Grand Opera.

The training of the new ballet cadres, and the retraining of the existing ones are accomplished by the Choreographical School attached to the Grand Opera. This school produces not only highly qualified performers, but also stage-managers, ballet-masters, instructors, etc.

The Theatre has organised cultural patronage over six factories and social organisations. The district and workers' theatres and clubs had 250 concerts in addition to 12 performances by the Grand Opera.

"Corners of the working class audience", where lectures, talks, and exhibitions are organised, were opened in the Museum of the Grand Opera during the current season.

The Grand Opera meets the fourth completing year of the first Five-Year Plan with the slogan: "New, great art—for the heroic builders of socialism".
THE DRAMATIC THEATRE OF THE MOSCOW REGION COUNCIL OF TRADE UNIONS

The activity of the Dramatic Theatre of the Moscow Region Council of Trade Unions (‘MOSPS’) is guided by two principles: the struggle for Soviet plays dealing with Soviet topics, and the catering to the organised toiling audience.

The Theatre is striving to create a show, quickly reacting on all the problems of contemporary life.

The 25th anniversary of the revolution of 1905 was marked by the Theatre by staging the play “The Year 1905”, by K. Gaudurin, devoted to the “dress rehearsal” of the great October Revolution.

The Theatre produced in 1931 the following plays: “The West is Nervous”, by V. Bill-Belozerkovsky, dealing with Western Europe of today, “The Sunny Side”, by K. Davidovsky, on the subject of national policy of the Party in the Soviet East, and “Darkness” by L. Prozorovsky, on the subject of struggle against anti-semitism. In addition to these, the “Storm”, by Bill-Belozerkovsky, was revived.

In a number of indexes, the programme of the activity of the Theatre for 1931 has been exceeded.

476 shows were given during the year. 95% of the seats were sold on the average throughout the year, 99% of the audience were organised workers.

It was in 1930 that the Theatre organised a theatrical-industrial studio, something in the style of a factory school. The students of the studio are drawn from young working men and women. Thus, with the assistance of the educational-industrial method, the formation of the cadres of artists, required by the Theatre, is realised.

The new methods of work (socialist competition and the shock brigade movement) were taken as a basis of the artistic and social life of the Theatre.

At present there are 12 shock brigades in the Theatre.

The Theatre assumed patronage over the Voroshilov collective farm, located in the Moscow region. With the assistance of the Theatre the collective farm organised a crèche and a red corner, and by the 8th anniversary of Lenin’s death the collective farm was fully electrified. In addition to the collective farm, the MOSPS Theatre is the cultural patron of military detachments, and of one factory school in the October district.

At the time of the spring and autumn sowing campaigns, the Theatre brigades visited the Tartar Republic, and some of the districts of the Moscow region. They organised reading-rooms and red corners in 16 localities.

During the intervals in the play exhibitions, lectures with short films, mass games, evenings of questions and answers, political „Victorinas”, etc. are organised. The Theatre presents special shows for all political campaigns, sending its brigades to factories and works for this purpose.

The Theatre gave 163 shows in the Moscow districts, and in the workers’ centres around Moscow: Orekhovo-Zuevo, Mytishchy, Polesk, Sheolkovo, in the Moscow coal basin, as well as in the Leningrad Houses of Culture.

The main task of the Theatre at the present moment is the construction of a new building.

Five projects and models of the new building have already been submitted (architects Bruno Taut, Ladovsky, Nikolsky, Melnikov, Shchuko). The new theatre will accommodate 3,000 persons.

THE GREAT DRAMATIC THEATRE IN LENINGRAD

The Great Dramatic Theatre in Leningrad was organised in 1919.

Its main creative work is closely connected with the proletarian drama. In this respect was important the staging of “Grain” by Kirshon in 1930/31. There were one hundred performances of that play. The play of Mikiitenko “Matter of Honour” also was a considerable success.

The Dramatic Theatre is also producing its old plays of classical repertory, like Shakespeare, Molière, Goldoni, Schiller, plays which were staged here from the very beginning. Thus “Servant of Two Masters” by Goldoni was performed 300 times.

The Great Dramatic Theatre is recruiting its artistic personnel from amongst the proletarian youth. For this purpose there have been organised theatrical-polytechnical courses and the students are taken from among the boys and girls of the Leningrad factories and plants.

While carrying on a great educational work among new artists (Art University, attached to the theatre, correspondence
NEW SOVIET PLAY : "FEAR"

"Fear" is the last production of the Moscow Art Theatre, which has attracted a great deal of attention on the part of the Soviet public. The author of the play is A. Afino- genov, a very prominent proletarian playwright, whose other plays (as for instance the "Crank-Enthusiast") have been performed with great success in many theatres of the USSR. At the end of the last theatrical season "Fear" was produced at the Leningrad Academical Dramatic Theatre (formerly the Alexandrinsky) and it was then already that the play aroused a vivid interest.

Afino- genov's play deals with an extremely important and stirring topic of the present day — that of class-struggle in ideology. The process of readjustment that is now going on in the intelligentsia of the USSR has been made the subject of many writings of Soviet authors — among them no small number of dramatists. Thus we may mention "The Fire-line" by Nikitin, "Sonata Pathetique" by Koolish, "The List of Benefactions" by Yuri Olesha etc. The heroine of Olesha's play is an actress. Afino- genov in "Fear" portrays the circles of Soviet scientific intelligentsia. The play shows us how a scholar firmly believing that science is "neutral" and in no way connected with politics, inevitably ends by becoming the weapon of reaction.

The leading character of the play, the famous scientist, professor Borodin does not take reality into account, thinking himself "above" it; he knows only his scientific theories and deliberately ignores class-struggle. Borodin asserts that social life is controlled by physiological stimulus. To support his idealistic and reactionary theory he undertakes a series of experiments in the research Institute of which he is the scientific leader. The Institute becomes the field of an intense struggle between reactionary scientists and young communist scientific workers. The old professor, firmly convinced that he and his work have "nothing to do with politics", does not and will not understand what is going on under his very eyes. "What's the matter with the people?", he keeps repeating with a perplexed air. Meanwhile a group of persons hostile to the Revolution are acting behind his back, making full use of his name and position. Among these are: the professor's favourite pupil, Kasalsky, a selfish time-server thinking only of his personal scientific career; the librarian of the Institute, formerly a lecturer on Eastern religions, who had been expelled from the University, and the scientific secretary of the Institute — an active counter-revolutionary, sticking to the scientific institution. And when Borodin comes to understand the fallibility and the reactionary character of his theory, when he finally realises all the meanness and villainy of his surroundings, he returns to work on new lines, hand in hand with the young Soviet scientists. "Professor Borodin,— says the critic in "Soviet Art", — sees the crash of his conception of science "above parties and classes", witnesses the miserable perfidy of his intimate friends and realises the victory of bolshevist theory; all this makes him surrender."

As a contrast to Borodin, Afino- genov introduces the old party-woman Clara Spaso- sova, a representative of the elder generation of bolsheviks. Clara is a convinced revolutionist, not capable of any compromise. But she is portrayed by the author without any schematism or stiltdness. She is very vivid, full of class watchfulness
and deeply human at the same time. In the extremely interesting scene of the dispute, Clara appears on the tribune to disprove Borodin's theory of fear. She makes a passionate reply unmasking the reactionary essence of his theory. Her speech about revolutionary fearlessness is full of an unshaken faith in the final victory of the proletariat.

The drawing of other characters of the play is done in a lively and impressive manner.

The different types of counter-revolutionaries are very vividly portrayed. The figure of the professor's daughter, full of romantic illusions so characteristic of the intelligentsia, is also well worth mentioning. Among the communists appearing in the play the most expressive are the straight forward revolutionist Makarova and the aspirant Kimbaev. The last character is especially interesting; in his person the author tries to give an image of the young Kazakstan, a backward colony under the tsarist regime, a vigorously developing autonomous republic in our days. Kimbaev is seething with energy, enthusiasm and a tremendous craving for knowledge; a stranger to any tricks or compromises, he is a bright representative of our revolutionary youth.

A prominent part in the play is reserved to a ten years old schoolgirl, the daughter of one of the heroes. The image of this child, according to the neat remark of a Soviet critic, seems to be the "lyrical accent of the play". The author succeeded in avoiding both the "sugariness" and the pseudo-childish babble peculiar to the usual stage representation of children. In Natasha we see a plucky young pioneer, a clever So-

viect schoolgirl, a representative of the youngest generation of those building up socialism. But at the same time she is full of natural childish charm.

The Art Theatre succeeded in making a most interesting performance of Afirgenov's promising play. All the leading as well as the episodic roles found perfect interpreters in the cast of the theatre. Leonidov, who has been playing the difficult and very responsible part of professor Borodin, has created a strong and expressive image.

Both the play and its performance called forth a lively discussion in the Soviet press and platform. On the whole the appreciation was definitely positive. Afirgenov himself, speaking at one of the numerous disputes, organised with the purpose, said: "It is a precious and rare feeling for a playwright to see all his ideas truly expressed on the stage. I had this feeling when I first saw my play in the Moscow Art Theatre." For the theatre itself the production of "Fear" preceded by that of "Grain" by Kirshon represents a new success in the field of an active interpretation of subjects reflecting the building up of socialism in this country. It is not in vain that one of the emigrants' papers abroad responded to the new production by a plaintive lament: "The last hearth of Russian culture — the Moscow Art Theatre is lost". It is true that the Moscow Art Theatre, now a State Theatre of the USSR will be neither a smoky "hearth" nor a museum of archaeological antiquities. Its sublime art serves the tremendous construction now going on in the Soviet Union.

The "Fear" is included into the repertory of many Soviet theatres beside the Moscow Art Theatre.

SOVIET EXHIBITIONS

FINE ARTS IN THE SERVICE OF SOCIALIST CONSTRUCTION

Many of the Soviet artists have formed brigades each of which takes upon itself to portray on canvas or paper some new project which has just been fulfilled or some further achievement made by the USSR in the realm of culture.

Many of the exhibitions that recently took place in Moscow have shown convincingly how fruitful is this method of creative work. Take for example the exhibition at the Tretjakov Gallery, called "The Third Decisive Year of the Five-Year Plan". The themes of the artists, whose works are included in this exhibition, range from the achievements made by the USSR along the line of industrialisation and collective farming to the new life and the new types of men to be met here. A number of the paintings treat the theme of the Five-Year Plan in the most convincing manner.

Another exhibition called "The Giants of the Urals", given at the "Khudoznik" Gallery under the auspices of the "Artists' Co-operative Association", is devoted entirely to the work of Soviet construction in
shock-brigaders
all
show
expression
a
two
short
mount
the*
their
successes
Soviet
most
Soviet
gather
making
life
of
different
nationalities
composing
the
Soviet
Union
has
been.
It
shows
also
the
successes
attained
in
the
handicrafts
and
their
new,
revolutionary
themes.
In
the
most
colourful
manner
the
artists
of
the
Soviet
East
reproduce
on
canvas
the
new
life
and
the
new
forms
of
labour
which
are
making
their
appearance
in
the
Soviet
East.

EXHIBITIONS OF WESTERN ART IN
THE USSR

During the last months of the past year,
the
Soviet
public
became
acquainted
with
the
work
of
two
representatives
of
modern
western
art.
The
Moscow
exhibition
of
the
works
of
the
German
"photo-montage"
artist,
John
Hartfield,
aroused
great
interest.
Posters,
book
covers
and
other
"montages"
all
of
which
revealed
Hartfield’s
unusual
keenness
of
imagination
and
clarity
of
expression
drew
the
attention
not
only
of
Soviet
art
circles,
but
also
of
the
broad
masses
of
the
public.
The
Soviet
press
commented
extensively
on
the
exhibition,
as
well
as
on
Hartfield’s
methods
of
work.
The
exhibition
closed
with
a
discussion
which
emphasised
the
creative
element
in
the
work
of
Hartfield:
one
of
the
first
to
utilise
"photo-montage"
in
printing.

The
All-Union
Society
for
Cultural
Relations
with
Foreign
Countries,
together
with
the
Moscow
Museum
of
New
Western
Art,
organised
recently
an
exhibition
of
the
works
of
the
American
sculptor,
Minna
Harkavy.
M.
Harkavy
is
one
of
the
founders
and
an
active
member
of
the
John
Reed
Club
in
New
York.
Her
sculpture,
distinctly
modern
in
treatment,
reflects
at
the
same
time
a
search
for
new
subjects
and
for
new
content
in
art.
The
Moscow
Museum
of
New
Western
Art
acquired
two
works
of
the
sculptor:
the
head
of
a
worker
and
the
portrait
of
a
negro
singer,
Hall
Johnson.

THE PHOTOGRAPH EXHIBITION IN
IVANOVO-VOZNESENSK

An
interesting
experiment
in
organising
the
first
open-air
photograph
exhibition
in
the
USSR
has
been
made
in
Ivanovo-
Voznesensk,
the
big
centre
of
the
Soviet
textile
industry.

The
exhibition
which
was
devoted
to
"The
Five-Year
Plan
of
the
Ivanovo
district",
showed
in
the
most
direct
way
the
achievements
of
the
Five-Year
Plan.
Along
the
principal
streets
and
squares,
at
a
short
distance
one
from
another,
constructive
show-cases
with
photographs
were
set
up.
Each
case
contained
photographs
on
one
definite
theme
(electric
power,
industry,
agriculture,
transportation,
etc.)
and
was
set
up
in
accordance
with
this
theme.
In
all
there
were
displayed
650
big
photographs,100
diagrammes
and
more
than
100
slides,
out
of
which
four
films
were
made
up
and
shown
in
the
evenings
on
the
streets
and
squares.
During
a
brief
period
the
exhibition
was
seen
by
almost
the
entire
population
of
this
big
industrial
centre.
A
similar
result
could
not
have
been
obtained
even
in
the
largest
indoor
auditorium.
**Question:** What is “business method” in Soviet economy?

**Answer:** “Business-accounting” is the chief method of conducting socialist enterprises at the present stage of economic development in the USSR. Business-accounting means that each State or co-operative enterprise in the USSR works according to an industrial and financial plan, the plan of each enterprise being a component part of a unified plan of national economy.

Within the limits of the ratified plan and for the purposes of its successful fulfilment, an enterprise working according to business-accounting methods is self-governing with reference to its property and the conduct of its business. The manager of the enterprise personally directs the technical end; handles the buying of materials and the selling of products; introduces rationalisation methods etc. The independence of the enterprise is assured by providing it with principal and circulating capital and materials. An enterprise working according to business-accounting methods, deals with other enterprises by means of agreements and bears personal responsibility for its obligations.

To stimulate the work of the enterprise, a part of its profits is reserved for its own use. This profit is used partly for improving the living quarters and social conditions of the workers and for various rewards.

All shops and departments of a given enterprise which have adopted business-accounting methods, work on a similar basis.

Numerous shock-brigades, created by socialist competition in enterprises working according to business-accounting methods, are organised as “business-accounting brigades”. A brigade accepting business-accounting as its method of work, pledges itself to follow a definite industrial and financial plan, to fulfil and exceed this plan in quantity as well as in quality. The administration, on the other hand, pledges itself to supply the brigade promptly with materials of good quality. Awards are paid for the successful fulfilment of the plan and for the saving of labour power and materials.

The leader of the brigade is a worker appointed by the brigade and approved by the shop administration. The brigade makes a business-accounting agreement with the shop.

**Question:** How is the labour of women regulated in the USSR?

**Answer:** In the Soviet Union women participate in all the fields of socialist construction on equal basis with men. Women are prohibited from engaging in those industries only where the work is especially hard and dangerous. On the other hand, there are many branches of industry where women form the majority of the workers (the textile industry, the needle trades, etc.). The fact that women have been admitted to many branches of industry where their labour was never used before (the building trade, for instance) must be considered a great achievement in socialist construction. In the industrial Higher Technical Institutes, in technicums, in special courses, not only in large industrial centres, but in the backward districts of national minorities women form a considerable percentage of students. A woman tractor operator, a woman combine operator is a usual sight on all collective-farm fields.

The Soviet labour laws do not show any discrimination between men and women of the same qualifications in the matter of wages. The wages of women are depended wholly on the knowledge and the experience they have and whether they are suitable to the work they are doing.

Every woman is allowed a leave of absence with full pay during the last period of pregnancy and the first period of nursing. The length of this leave of absence is from three to four months, depending on the type of work (woman workers in industry, in agricultural enterprises etc. get two months before and two months after the birth of the child; woman workers doing mental work get six weeks before and six weeks after the birth of the child). Women entering the sixth month of pregnancy and nursing women during the first six months of nursing are not permitted to do night work.

Nursing mothers are allowed nursing periods during the working day of not less than 1/2 hour, not less than once every 3½ hours. No deductions are made from their wages for this time.
“Soviet Asia” — a journal of social sciences, devoted to the study of the Urals, Siberia, Far East, of the Turkoman, Uzbek and Tadjik Soviet Socialist Republics, of the Kazak, Kirghiz, Yakut, Buryat-Mongol and Bashkir Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republics. 1931, volume 1—2, pp. 328; volume 3—4, pp. 286; volume 5—6, pp. 298. Moscow.

The periodical “Soviet Asia” is published by the Society for the Study of the Urals, Siberia and the Far East, with the participation of the presidents of the Uzbek, Turkmom and Tadjik Soviet Socialist Republics, of the Buryat-Mongol, Yakut, Kirghiz and Kazak Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republics, of the Urals District Executive Committee, of the Western-Siberia District Executive Committee, of the Eastern-Siberia District Executive Committee and the Far-Eastern District Executive Committee, with Professor F. Petrov as editor-in-chief. This periodical offers great interest both because it raises the problems of the day concerning our socialist construction in the Soviet East and because it offers a wealth of concrete material from practical life. The periodical which originally concentrated its attention on the problems of the Urals, Siberia and the Far East (during the first years the periodical appeared under the title of “Northern Asia”), later expanded the circle of its activity to include the Central Asiatic republics, which, under our very eyes, are giving a powerful development to their economic and cultural construction.

This periodical gives the chief place to questions connected with the realisation of the Five-Year Plan of reconstruction of Soviet Asia.

The first section of the periodical usually publishes cycles of articles dealing with some capital problem. Thus, in Nos. 1—2 a whole series of articles was published dealing with the fur-industry in the East of the USSR. Everyone knows what a prominent role belongs to the Soviet Union among world exporters of fur, since it is a country remarkable for the unusual wealth and variety of its fur resources. It is no accident that the share of the USSR in the turnover of the world’s fur-trade amounts to 25%. In the articles published by the periodical, a detailed account is given of the different measures adopted for improving our fur-husbandry, for organising hunting, fur and breeding State farms, etc. An important place is assigned to reindeer-breeding. Of these articles we note: I. Schein, “Fur Industry on the Path of Reconstruction”, B. Zhitkov, “Fur-Bearing Animals of Soviet Asia”, S. Kertselli, “Reindeer-Breeding in the USSR and its Prospects”, I. Sobelman, “Tasks and Prospects of the Export of Fur Products from the Districts of Soviet Asia”, and others.

In Nos. 3—4 the first cycle of articles deals with the fundamental questions of the economic and cultural reconstruction of the Western Siberia District (18 articles). R. Eiche’s introduction, “Tasks of the Socialist Reconstruction of Western Siberia”, is followed by detailed articles dealing with the future of Western Siberia in the sphere of metals, with its electrification, the development of its transportation, its agriculture, present and future, etc. (articles of N. Briantsev, G. Dobrovolsky, M. Gorlov, M. Mineev, etc.).
Finally, in Nos. 5—6 we find in the first section an all-round investigation of the important problem of water transportation. Fifteen articles are grouped around this subject. Besides the introductory note by N. Yanson, “Give Water Transportation Bolshevist Tempo”s, we must note especially the article by S. Patonek, “The Five-Year Plan for River Transport in Northern Asia”, that by K. Lepin, “River Transportation on the Path of Socialist Reconstruction”, “Development of Port Economy of our Asiatic Coasts” by V. Soloviov, “Ocean Transportation of the Pacific Ocean Basin” by A. Chupin, “Results of 1930 in the Siberian North” by V. Lavrov, “Water-Transportation of Yakutia and its Tasks” by V. Berezin, and others.

In addition to articles on problems-cycles, printed in the chief position, each number of the periodical contains a series of sections, which vary somewhat in the numbers already published.

In all the numbers there is a special section, entitled “The Ural-Kuznetsk Combine”. The articles published in it examine the problem of Ural-Kuznetsk from various points of view. The decision of the Sixteenth Party Congress for creating in the East “a second coal and metallurgical base in the form of the Ural-Kuznetsk Combine” is being carried out energetically. And “Soviet Asia” is quite right in devoting a special place to the questions connected with this work. Among the articles of this section we may note: “The Plan of Work for the Combined Enterprises of the Ural-Kuznets Basin” by N. Kolosovskiy (the stating of the problem and programme of work for different sections), “The Transportation Problem of the Ural-Kuznets Combine” by G. Tretiakov (Nos. 1—2), “The Natural Electrical Resources of the Ural-Kuznets Combine” by Y. Zerkis, “The Problem of the Ural-Kuznets Combine and Phenomena of Freezing” by S. Parkhomenko, “The Prospects of Water Economy in the Urals” by I. Urban and N. Nikiforov (Nos. 3—4), “The Development of the Ural-Kuznets Socialist Combine” by V. Vassutin and S. Sarkissov, and “The Coal Resources of the Kuznets Basin” by N. Sazonov (Nos. 5—6).

An interesting article by Professor Alexandrov, “The Angar Problem” (Nos. 3—4) is devoted to another question of colossal importance — the Angar Combine. By way of a working hypothesis, Professor Alexandrov speaks eloquently of the ways of execution of this new big undertaking, which opens grandiose prospects for the development of the industry of Eastern Siberia.

The concluding words of the article ring out courageously: “In a wilderness, owing to its natural resources, a rich industrial country may grow up rapidly, its power considerably exceeding the usual dimensions. Our socialist construction will be expressed here in the creation of a tremendous power-combine, which can be built up according to a strictly elaborated plan.”

Among other articles devoted to questions of economy, we may refer to an article on transportation by an engineer, P. Vorobiof, “Air-Communications in the USSR” in Nos. 1—2, “Transportation Problems” of the Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic of Kazakstan and of the Republics of Soviet Central Asia” by P. Zakharov and “The Upper Yenisei as a Trade-Route to Mongolia and Tanna-Tuva” by A. Smirnov in Nos. 3—4, the section on “Bowels of the Earth” (two articles by B. Krugliakov, on investigating the deposits of Soviet Asia and the Urals, an interesting article by M. Charygin and V. Krestianikov, “Oil in Soviet Asia”), on agriculture (an article by S. Verzhbolovskiy on Siberian wheat and by S. Japumian on Turkmenistan’s irrigation prospects, in Nos. 1—2, “On the Question of Rice-Sowing in the Maritime Province” by S. Beljuikhin in Nos. 3—4, “The Problem of Distributing Rice-Growing” by R. Abolin and “The Reconstruction of Economy and the Problem of Mountains in Central Asia” by L. Kuznetsov-Ugomsksiy in Nos. 4—5).

The article by A. Arbarchuk on the population of Soviet Sakhalin is very interesting because of the data it presents; it contains rich material concerning the supply in Sakhalin and the possibility for developing agriculture, etc. (Nos. 1—2).

Under the section entitled “Socialist Construction” special attention is due to the article by L. Edokov on Autonomous Oyratia, summing up a book by the same author on the same theme (Nos. 3—4), an article by Y. Barkash, “Two Years of Socialist Construction of Uzbekistan”, and an article by Y. Abdakhanmaneev, “An Unforgettable Anniversary”, very appropriate recollections of the Kirghizes revolt in 1916 (Nos. 5—6).

Two very interesting articles appeared in Nos. 3—4: “Tasks of Soviet Ethnography in Soviet Asia” by Professor E. Kagarov, and “Current Tasks of Ethnography in the North” by N. Karger. Both articles
have a programme character, plainly showing what great advances are being made in the handling of ethnographical problems. Both authors advanced to the foreground the study of forms of economy, relations in production, class differentiation, anti-religious work, etc.

Another article belonging to questions of a cultural character is written by the recently decessed, noted Siberian scientist, N. Auerbach — "On Planning Scientific Research". Taking as his point of departure the general principles of the Bureau of Congresses of the State Planning Commission of the USSR, he examines concretely the planning of scientific research work in Siberia in closest connection with our economic reconstruction.

We must note the appearance in Nos. 5—6 of a special department, called "Abroad". It published a very timely article, detailed and eloquently documented, by N. Terentiev, entitled "Railway Construction in Manchuria and the Chinese-Eastern Railway". N. Terentiev pauses over the characterisation of the Japanese railway system concentrated around the South-Manchurian Railway, and of the Chinese railway system, going on then to a detailed discussion of the relations of both of these systems to the Chinese-Eastern Railway. In this article, full of factual material, the line of conduct of the interested imperialist powers is sketched with definite appearance of Japanese aggression (the article is written before the beginning of the Manchurian epopee). It stands to reason that this department, "Abroad", must be developed and enlarged.

In conclusion we may note the well composed reviews of the activities of scientific societies, the chronicle and bibliography. In each number appears the survey by P. Konogorov, "New Literature on Soviet Asia", which mentions and appraises the new publications on Soviet Asia.

In this brief bibliographical note we are, of course, unable to exhaust the whole rich contents of the periodical. We had to confine ourselves to the main points. "Soviet Asia" concentrates its attention to a great extent on "northern" questions. But of course, questions relating to our Central-Asiatic republics will also find reflection on the pages of this periodical. "Soviet Asia" is a necessary and useful organ, splendidly illustrating the sweep of the tremendous socialist reconstruction now being unfolded in the Soviet East.


"October", the journal of the All-Russian and Moscow Associations of Proletarian Writers, has now become one of the best Soviet monthly periodicals.

The first issues of "October" of last year printed works which have become very widely known. Among them is Kirshon's play, "Grain", played with great success at the Moscow Art Theatre. It represents a great achievement of proletarian literature. It mirrors the process of reconstructing social relationships in the village, shows with maximum expressiveness the striving of the mass of the toiling peasantry towards new forms of life. The representation of the chief personages of the play, both communists and kulaks, is very life-like and convincing.

Among other significant works published in "October" in 1931, attention is drawn to the novels: I. Shukhov's "I Hate" and V. Ilyenkov's "Chief Axle".

Shukhov, like Kirshon, chose as the theme for his work socialist reconstruction in the village. But while Kirshon concentrates on the problem of political leadership in the village by sketching communists, Shukhov devotes much more attention to the conduct and psychology of the kulak substratum, which resists with all its
might the movement of the peasantry and the socialist reconstruction of agriculture. The author shows the full force of the kulaks' hate for the new forms of life, and on the other hand, the peasants, entering the collective farms with full political consciousness, and the workers who come to help them fight firmly and resolutely against the people who, like weights on their feet, draw them back to the old, slavish life. Shukhov shows the clash of these class interests and the failure of all attempts to restore the capitalist regime in the village.

"Chief Axle" is a novel about a factory. Its chief theme is the counter-revolutionary sabotage carried on by the old specialists, who organised the production of intentionally useless axles for locomotives and coaches. Because of this, frequent accidents took place, causing tremendous damage. Side by side with the saboteurs Ilyenkov shows honest old engineers, sincerely devoted to the cause of the proletariat. In addition, he has sketched with clear lines the convincing portrait of one of those engineers, advanced from among the workers, of which there are now thousands in the USSR.

The story of the Rumanian proletarian writer, Kahana, "Winter in Toratskoshi", is interesting. The journal has printed chapters of the recollections of the older proletarian writer, A. Svirsky, who became well-known even before the revolution. These recollections, written in the form of a long story, are entitled "The Story of my Life".

We must note especially the fact that last year "October" was the first to begin printing the works of the shock-brigade workers, who were summoned into literature by the initiative of RAPP (Russian Association of Proletarian Writers).

"October" published "Notes of a Shock-Brigade Worker", by P. Orlovetsky — a worker of the railway car repair shop. With simplicity and winning warmth the author describes the victories of his factory, gives a whole series of artistic characterisations of his comrades in the shop.

In addition to its literary section "October" contains material on political themes and a number of sections such as criticism, bibliography, "life on the move" (sketches from the life of the big plants and construction jobs), art, memoirs.

Among the latter we must note the extensive recollections of the well-known Japanese communist, Sen Katoyan.

In the section devoted to journal appeared an interesting article by G. Vasilkovsky, called "Oswald Spengler's Philosophy of Life". The author examines in it Spengler's book, "Man and Technique", in which the author of "Decline of the West" develops his gloomy philosophy of the approaching doom of civilisation, of the destructive influence of modern technique on civilisation.

To Spengler's hopeless pessimism Vasilkovsky opposes the rousing optimism which penetrates through and through creative life in the USSR. "We love machines", ends Vasilkovsky. "Every fresh machine fills us with courage and strength. The noise of our machines is the struggle for the good life for all the toilers of our country, for the high cultural and material level of this life."

The poetry department in "October" is represented by a whole series of poems, among which special attention is drawn to the works of Lugovskoi, Anatol Hidas and Surkov.

E. Polonsky's novel, "Baku", shows the struggle of the oil-workers to fulfil their Five-Year Plan in two and a half years and their new attitude towards labour.


The series of works on industrial themes is further represented by the "Story of the Wolves' Fraternity" by a young writer, Shvedov; it pictures the work and life of the metal workers.

In his novel, "The End of Samodurovka", V. Dubrovin shows in broad strokes the life of the village before the revolution and under Soviet rule (to the latest time). Samodurovka, from a "lost", backward village, becomes, in the process of the socialist reconstruction of agriculture, a Soviet village, in which the new life is being built energetically and on collectivist principles.
AFTER THE SEVENTH ALL-UNION CHESS CONGRESS

The recently completed chess congress aroused the interest of the entire chess playing public of the Union. At present we note particular animation in the world of chess, now busy discussing questions raised by the congress: questions of organisation and, particularly, questions of method.

Attention is centred on teaching methods, since chess instruction has been introduced into all physical culture schools of the Union, as an obligatory subject. The best chess elements of the Soviet Union were recruited to work out a study course in chess. This preliminary work is now completed. The study course takes 180 study hours, of which 120 hours are spent in theoretic training and 60 hours in practical work. The following studies make up the chess course: chess literature, modern theory of chess, the working out of a course of lectures for mass-organisations, fundamentals of pedagogy, the history of the development of chess, questions of psychotechnics, an introductory course of chess composition.

Besides these, several subjects deal with questions of organisation.

The commission on chess composition is now working on the following problems:
1. Terminology (terminology is at present accidental and lacks a scientific base).
2. The working out of correspondence-courses in chess composition.
3. The first issue of a series of symposiums which will be the continuation of the published series: "Problems and Studies".
4. The subdivision of chess players of the USSR into categories according to their qualifications, etc.

In the field of theoretic novelties, the report of L. Issayev, given at one of the Moscow meetings of chess players on possibility of expressing problematic combinations by mathematical formulas, is of great interest.

THE DEATH OF H. G. M. WIENINK

On December 2nd, 1931, died the outstanding Dutch chess player H. G. M. Wienink. His work was always distinguished for original ideas, rich strategic contents, and irreproachable technical finish. He manifested great interest in theory: in this field, he undoubtedly possessed great knowledge. The chess world lost a great figure in the person of H. G. M. Wienink.

For the last few years, Wienink was editor of the Problem Department in the Magazine "Tijdschrift v. d. Nederl. Sc.".

Soviet chess players participated actively in this department and were given much encouragement by Wienink. It is interesting to mention that some of the young Soviet chess players published their first articles in Wienink's magazine (Birnbov, for instance). Soviet chess players often received valuable instructions from Wienink.

The players of the USSR regret the loss suffered by the chess world.
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VII. CHESS
On April 10th died Michael Pokrovsky, Assistant Commissary for Education of the RSFSR, member of the Soviet Union Academy of Sciences, one of the greatest Soviet scholars with a world reputation.

M. Pokrovsky is the author of a number of important works on Russian and foreign history. The death of the Academician Pokrovsky is a heavy loss to Soviet science and to the entire Soviet Union.

Below we publish a summary of the speech made by the Academician N. BUKHARIN at the commemoration meeting in Moscow.

M. Pokrovsky went through the entire heroic period of the underground revolution of 1905, of the great October revolution, of civil war and of the years of the most energetic heroic building of socialism in our country. He was one of the most striking, most brilliant personalities of the bolshevist movement; he was one of the most tireless workers in the cause of the liberation of the proletariat. He was the live embodiment of unity between revolutionary theory and practice.

He was the greatest theoretician and at the same time he took an immediate part in the routine work of the great socialist construction. In every sphere of his tireless activity he displayed an enormous sweep of action, a remarkable breadth of vision and a great talent. He was the most prominent, first rate historian of Russia. He was one of the greatest organizers of the theoretical front and of class war on that front, which are of special importance at the present time.

As a scholar M. Pokrovsky enjoyed a world reputation. He wrote a series of most original and brilliant works in the field of philosophy of history (the critique of Rickert, Dopsch, etc.). His special field was Russian history, yet he wrote many original works on West-European history touching most diverse subjects: on mediaeval heresies, on the renaissance of the philosophy of Plato, on crusades, on the fall of Byzantium, etc.

He has brilliantly depicted the economic history of imperialism, as well as its diplomatic and military history. And as regards Russian history it must first of all be stated that the Academician M. Pokrovsky takes the credit of being the first Marxist in our country who gave a consistently Marxist representation of the world historic events. The basic elements being supplied by V. Lenin, Pokrovsky wrote a fundamental work on the history of Russia. At the same time he wrote an excellent short history of Russia, both brilliant and popular. He belonged to that category of thinkers, historians and fighters, who could not help living and always lived in close contact and harmony with the masses and addressed these masses in a language that was familiar to them.

First of all he was a profound scholar familiar with first hand documents and he knew how to make a most excellent use of this enormous material. He was a brilliant Marxist historian who with exceptional success followed the method of
dialectical materialism in the fields which before him have never been treated from a Marxian standpoint. He did not turn out a mere unwieldy mass of facts, scattered historical "raw material"—he always drew general conclusions which were distinguished by such novelty, boldness and originality of thought that even when it was impossible to agree with them he acted as a factor which highly stimulated the subsequent evolution of historical science.

At the same time he was a master of style and could present any material with exceptional literary mastery.

However, it must be stated that he was by no means an armchair philosopher.

The life of M. Pokrovsky is indissolubly bound up with the revolution. In 1905 this scholar was the chief speaker of the Bolshevik Party in its struggle against the imperialist tendencies of the constitutional-democrats.

In 1917 M. Pokrovsky was the first president of the Moscow Soviet of the workers’ and soldiers’ deputies. He took part in the October revolution as publicist and propagandist, as a writer and a most active worker, who was always in the thick of the uprising. In the subsequent years M. Pokrovsky always stood in the front rank of the Party.

M. Pokrovsky was the organiser of the theoretical front and of the educational system of our country. He was the first to expound the basic ideas on the reform of the Soviet school. It was he who introduced the workers’ faculties, which in subsequent years trained such an enormous number of young workers and peasants.

M. Pokrovsky was one of the organisers of the Institute of Red Professors, and one of the principal organisers of the Communist Academy. And when now, after many years (many—if we take into account our rapid tempo) we look back on this activity, when we bear in mind what an altogether exceptional part is played by the question of the cadres, we can truthfully say that M. Pokrovsky was one of those who did most in this most important domain of our construction.

M. Pokrovsky combined intellectual gifts with the intuition of an artist and an outstanding intelligence. His was the life of a brilliant scholar of world-wide importance, a tireless class warrior and a steadfast communist.

The funeral of M. Pokrovsky. From the left to the right: V. Kuibyshev, S. Ordjonikidze, A. Mikoyan, M. Saveliev, director of the Marx-Engels-Lenin Institute, Academician N. Bukharin and others, carrying the urn with the ashes of M. Pokrovsky
Planning in the USSR demonstrates the advantages of the system of national economy of the Soviet State, in which all power is in the hands of the labouring masses, who own the land, industrial plants, factories and all the means of production and distribution. Production is not for profit, but for the benefit of the labourers themselves — industrial workers, collective-farm workers, all the toilers of the Union.

Distribution of the national income is based on the principle of raising the material and cultural level of the masses, and expansion of socialist construction. The constantly growing demands of the labouring masses insure the USSR against crises. Millions of people are becoming increasingly more active and effective participants in the reconstruction of the country because of their interest in the development of their own plant, their particular industry or agricultural unit. Precisely because it rests on these important factors Soviet economy is and can be planned economy. Without these factors economic planning is impossible.

Planning in the USSR covers the entire national economy and social-cultural construction. By means of a plan the proletariat is enabled to direct consciously and deliberately the development of its economy along the lines of socialist reconstruction. This clearly defined purpose — the building of socialism — is the pivotal point around which all planning revolves. Planning is the most important permanent function of all government and economic institutions of the country. It is carried on by special planning bodies (commissions) which are, in their work, dependent upon the whole apparatus of the Soviet Government, upon all the social organisations of the workers of the country.

The beginnings of organised planned economy date back to the initial period in the existence of the Soviet Government. Lenin, shortly after the October revolution, laid special stress on planning as one of the most important problems. He pointed out that "the organisation of accounting, control of the largest enterprises, the transformation of the entire governmental economic machinery into one vast mechanism, in the great economic organism, which will direct the activities of hundreds of millions of people under a single plan — that is the gigantic organisational task that rests on our shoulders".

In February 1921 the State Planning Commission (Gosplan) was created by the Council of People's Commissaries. This Commission began to function in April of the same year.

The work of planning grew steadily, following the development of the new economic order and with the growth and strengthening of socialist elements in the country's national economy. At the present time planning is carried on by special planning bodies in all departments of the State and economic apparatus, inter-related and united under one directing methodological leadership into a single system pursuing the same objectives.

The central directing body in all planning work is the State Planning Commission, under the Council of People's Commissaries of the USSR.

The duties of Gosplan are:

a) To organise and direct the entire planning and accounting of the country.

b) To draw up future, long-range plans of socialist construction, as well as annual plans ("control figures") and quarterly plans, and systematically supervise the carrying out of these plans.

c) To devise ways and means of assuring the fulfilment of the plans.

d) To examine, and co-ordinate with the general plan of the Soviet Union the economic measures submitted to the government by the People's Commissariats and by other institutions of the USSR. To render opinions on proposed important decrees and regulations, and make decisions on questions submitted by such bodies to the USSR government.

Scientific work is also planned, in connection with problems of national economic construction. At the initiative of the State Planning Commission and

By N. Popov
The Supreme Council of National Economy the first All-Union Conference for Planning of Scientific Research was called in 1931. At the Conference it was decided that it was necessary to "organise scientific work on socialist collective principles, to stimulate and accelerate its tempo, apply modern socialist methods to research and effect a thorough reconstruction in the field of scientific research on the basis of dialectic materialism, on the basis of planned scientific work".

Accounting and statistics are included in the general problem of planning in the USSR. There exists at the State Planning Commission a Central Bureau of National Economic Accounting, whose function it is to organise, coordinate and direct all the accounting work of the All-Union and People's Commissariats and central organisations of the USSR, and also to effect all statistical work and other accounting of nation-wide importance.

The State Planning Commission is an important body directly under the Council of People's Commissariates, and the chairman of the Planning Commission is also vice-chairman of the Council of People's Commissariates. It has a presidium consisting of 35 members, appointed by the Council of People's Commissariates, and a plenum, numbering 150 persons, to which are recruited directors of local planning organs, representatives of social organisations, prominent scientists, specialists and workers from various enterprises.

The State Planning Commission is endowed with full power to direct all the planning work of the country. The directives of the State Planning Commission are obligatory on all government departments. In order to keep in touch with local and departmental planning bodies, Gosplan organises periodic congresses and conferences on the more important planning problems. It is guided in its work by general instructions from the USSR government.

The Gosplan apparatus contains specialists in various fields of work: engineers, economists, technicians and others. The whole organisation is divided into sectors, which are responsible for their respective branches of work. There are at present 22 such sectors. These are sub-divided into two groups:

1. Sectors formulating plans for branches of economy such as fuel, electrification, mining and metallurgy, machine building, light industry, food manufacture, agriculture, railway and water transportation and ways of communication, automobilisation and aero-sification, city and communal economy, lumber and building material, supplies and trade.

2. The second group of sectors deal with the development of a specific plan in a given industry on a national scale. To this group belong sectors for:

   a) Capital large-scale construction: comprehensive plan for basic work in national economy, as regards various branches of industry and territorial units.

   b) Comparative balance sheets in the control of production and consumption of materials required in industry throughout the country (raw material, building materials, fuel, general equipment).

   c) Labour: consideration and utilisation of labour resources; organisation of labour and improvement of living conditions of the labouring masses.

   d) Health and social welfare: comprehensive plans for raising the general standard of living and the protection of health through prophylactic measures (sanitation, hygiene, travel, workers' recreation, rest, etc.), as well as by means of providing medical care for the population.

   e) National economy personnel: plans for the training of cadres (personnel) of a new industrial-technical intelligentsia from among the working class, and with
regard to the establishment of new special educational institutions.

d) Cultural construction: plans for universal education, for political-educational work among the people — educational institutions, the theatre, cinema, radio, the press, etc.

g) Science: plans for scientific research work and organisation of scientific societies.

h) Finance: drafting of a unified financial plan for the entire national economy of the country.

There are two additional sectors that stand by themselves: a) the Central Planning Bureau, which co-ordinates the work of all the sectors and makes final revisions of plans; b) the Control Department, which supervises the fulfilment of plans and which depends in its work on all the sectors of the State Planning Commission.

The State Planning Commission also has a Personnel Department, which selects and places the staff of planners, supervises their work, and directs the training of new workers in this field in technical schools and secondary educational institutions. There are now 12 institutions under the auspices of the Gosplan, with a student body of 3,500.

The Institute for Economic Research, established in 1929, is likewise connected with the Gosplan. Its function is the working out of questions relating to the theory of economics during the transition period, of methods of planning the national economy, and the solution of problems of a scientific character arising in the work of the Gosplan.

The State Planning Commission draws upon the work of departmental, economic and regional planning organisations, which operate on the same principle as the central body and which follow the directives of the latter.

Planning in the USSR proceeds in the following manner: the guideposts of long-range future and current planning are the directing decisions of the Communist Party and the government. On the basis of these decisions, the State Planning Commission works out, about the middle of the fiscal year, concrete directives with regard to the economic plan for the following year. The directives sum up the first results of the fulfilment of plans for the current year, and use this data as a basis drawing up plans for the following fiscal year. The Planning Commission further establishes approximate control figures for the most important projects in the national economy plan (capital construction, increased production, improvement of quality, etc.), which form the basis for the drawing up of plans. The directives are ratified by the government and are then sent simultaneously to the departmental and the regional planning organisations.

Thus the initial stage has been reached in drawing up the economic plan. The various departments now pass on the Gosplan directives throughout their periphery, all the way down to the factory. The planning commissions of the separate Republics and the regional commissions work out the details of the Gosplan directives to meet their local needs, and distribute them among all Soviet, economic and cultural organisations within their jurisdiction. The plans, based on the original directives, are brought up for
discussion before the higher planning bodies and are finally turned in to the All-Union State Planning Commission.

In this manner, Gosplan receives, in the fiscal year, planning material for the following year both from the government departments and from the regional planning organisations. After further revision and extension of these plans in the above-mentioned branch sectors, they go to the systematising sectors for general adaptation. Thus a unified economic plan is drawn up for the whole Union, which is submitted for ratification to the Council of People's Commissaries and the Central Executive Committee of the USSR. Upon ratification by the Central Executive Committee, the national economic plan is communicated to and becomes binding on all government departments and Republics. These revise their original plans according to the final national plan, and distribute them throughout their periphery, down to the various trusts, plants, factories, State and collective farms, and each individual worker.

The work of planning is carried on with the active participation of the workers, the collective-farm members and the entire labouring masses of the country.

The entrance of the USSR into the period of socialist was marked by great heroism on the part of the workers and peasants in the struggle for the plan of socialist construction. This enthusiasm found expression in the organisation of socialist competition and shock-brigades — the new and striking forms of socialist attitude towards labour. In its further development, socialist competition and shock-brigade activity took the form of the "counter-plan".

Counter-planning is a voluntary social obligation on the part of the workers of a given plant, collective or State farm to fulfil and exceed the ratified plan using the existing material and financial resources, by means of better organisation of labour and production, economy of raw materials, use of machinery to the best advantage, etc.

Thus, through the initiative of the workers, it is proposed to smelt this year 10 million tons of cast-iron, instead of the 9 million tons planned — by means of better organisation of work in the plants. The workers of the Petrovsky work, one of the largest metallurgical plants in the country, presented a counter-plan to produce 82,000 tons of cast-iron in excess of their set quota; and the workers at the Voykov plant promised 40,000 tons of cast-iron above their quota. The counter-plan is not limited to annual output alone. It is a form of mass participation in economic planning through the daily effort of the workers to fulfil the plan.

Counter-planning is especially prevalent among the different shifts in a factory. Each shift discusses its task before beginning work and proposes a counter-plan for the day. The efficacy of such counter-planning by shifts became apparent immediately on being introduced in various plants. With the introduction of shift counter-plans the brigades began to fulfil their tasks at the rate of 110% and over. This experience enables planning organisations to improve and perfect a plan in the course of its fulfilment.

That is how economic planning proceeds in the USSR — the land of socialist construction — with the assistance and participation of the entire labouring masses.
The Dnieprostroy Dam and Hydro-electric Station Completed

The work of building a dam and a hydro-electric station on the Dnieper (Soviet Ukraine) was begun in 1927, on the 10th anniversary of the October revolution. This was the first stage in the construction of the Dnieprostroy electricity, aluminium, iron and steel combine, to be the largest in the world. First of all the wild Dnieper rapids which had made the river unnavigable had to be "smoothened out". The great scheme was to convert the energy of the Dnieper into electricity, to harness the elements and make them serve socialist construction. The plan was everywhere ridiculed by the enemies of the Soviet Union, counter-revolutionaries and emigrants. Themselves defeated, they set all their hopes on the invincibility of the Dnieper rapids. Efremov, the leader of counter-revolution in the Ukraine, used to joke about the "fashionable Dnieprostroy" and prophesied that the whole scheme would be a fiasco. However, it was not the Dnieprostroy project that came to nothing, but the prophecies of Efremov and his counter-revolutionary friends.

In March 1932 the spring waters of the Dnieper rushed for the first time over the top of the greatest dam in the world. The Dnieper dam is a gigantic construction, it is 760 metres long and raises the water level of the Dnieper 37 metres. The ledges over which the turbulent Dnieper rapids used to flow have now been left far under the water. 704,000 cubic metres of concrete have been thrown across the great Ukrainian river. On the 28th of March the last cubic metre was poured on the dam and on the 1st of May the Dnieprostroy electric station gave its first current.

The energy of the Dnieper will feed an industrial combine of unprecedented proportions made up of the Dnieper water way, the power station, a coke and chemical works, a metallurgical works, an aluminium combine, works for the production of ferro-alloys, chamotte and cement, and also a repair centre. 800 million rubles will be spent on the Dnieper power station and the other enterprises connected with it — that is to say, a sum equal to what is being spent on Magnitostroy and Kuznetskstroy put together.

The works which are being built to make use of the energy from the Dnieper are already rising up on the banks of the river where there was once nothing but the lonely steppe land of Zaporozhie.

When the work was started, well known foreign engineers refused to believe that the power station could be put into commission before 1934, and a large American journal "Mechanical Engineering" published an article to this effect. But now, as it has turned out, the work is finished not only before 1934 but six months before the time set by the plan. On the 1st of May the first turbines were set going and in the last year of the Five-Year Plan six aggregates of the Dnieprostroy developing a power of 372,000 kw. will be ready to supply socialist industry and agriculture with energy. The power developed by the whole Dnieprostroy electric station will be 810,000 H.P.

From the Volkhostroy, the "first born" of Soviet electrification — to the Dnieprostroy, whose power will be equal to nine
Volkhovstroys; such is the victorious path of Soviet electrification, first planned by Lenin. The next stage will be the construction of new electric stations on the Middle Volga. Altogether three large hydro-electric stations will be equipped there: one in the Ivanovo-Voznesensk district, one in the Nizhny-Novgorod district and the third on the river Kama near Perm. These stations taken together will represent a power of 800 thousand to a million kilowatts. A directing body "Sredvolgostroy" (construction on the Middle Volga) has been specially formed for the work and at its head will be the leader of the Dnieprostroy construction, engineer Winter, recently elected as an associate of the USSR Academy of Sciences. The tried workers and technical staff from the Dnieprostroy will be employed also on these schemes, and will move over as they finish their work on the Dnieper.

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The story of the collective made up of 50,000 builders of Dnieprostroy has already its tales of heroism which once more bear witness to the fact that the Soviet Union is a country of new men and new methods of work.

Around the huge concrete structure of the dam, on the building sites of the power stations and the factories, Dnieprostroy is surging with life. Here is a characteristic episode, one of many. In the struggle for "bolshevist tempo" in laying the concrete, the builders of Dnieprostroy brought out a small news-sheet in Ukrainian called "Proletar Dniprobudu" (The Dnieprostroy Proletarian). The paper set itself the task of systematically reducing the great Dnieprostroy plan to concrete figures which would tell the workers and engineers what had to be done in a given day or given hour in any particular part of the work. The paper looks after the supply of concrete and its allocation and keeps work on the dam up to the mark. All that is written in it is of a militant character. On many occasions, the workers on being given a plan for their work brought forward their own counter-plan which they fulfilled in due course. In the last and most important stages in the laying of the concrete, the paper declared socialist competition between the three best shifts of workers. "The shift showing the best figures", the Dnieper paper wrote, "will be given the honour of laying the last cubic metre of concrete on the top of the dam." Judges were chosen from among the workers, the management and the editorial staff of the paper. Among the best workers who actually won this honour there were several shock-brigades of young communists. On the day when work was finished, the 200th number of the news-sheet "On the Dam" came out.

The directors of Dnieprostroy were perfectly right when they wrote in their report: "The shock workers of Dnieprostroy have given a splendid example of the communist attitude towards work and of speed and efficiency in carrying it out, such as are unknown in the capitalist world."
Factory-town in Moscow

On the waste place which used to be called the Simonova Sloboda (Suburb), after twelve months of work, the buildings of the first ball-bearing factory in the USSR, largest in the world, have now risen up. Six thousand workers were employed to build it. In less than four months more than a thousand complicated machines were set up in position.

Here are some figures giving an idea of the dimensions of this new giant industry. All the factories of Europe do not give more than 120,000 ball-bearings a day. The Moscow factory will give about 100,000 a day, that is 24,000,000 in a year. The value of this production is estimated at 120,000,000 gold rubles. All the processes of production have been mechanised to the maximum extent. The workers for the most part have only to control the work of the machines.

All the departments are gathered together under one roof and form a huge building covering 135,000 square metres. The walls and roofs are of glass so that the whole building is flooded with light. The workers and employees of the factory will live in a socialist town, situated in the midst of gardens and crossed by tramway lines and asphalt roads. A settlement of large five-storey houses has already been built. A group of standard houses are in course of construction. The cultural facilities of the factory will not fall behind its technical equipment. In the factory-town a theater is being built as also a department-store, a cinema, a club, a school, a crèche, a dispensary and a mechanised kitchen-factory.

It will now no longer be necessary to import ball-bearings. When the third factory has been built in 1934 (the second is already working in Moscow) the production of ball-bearings in the Soviet Union will be sufficient to meet all the needs of Soviet industry.

Here are a few words by A. Bodrov, who directed the work of the building of the ball-bearing factory:

“No country in the world has a ball-bearing factory equal in size or in the perfection of its equipment to our factory. The largest ball-bearing factory in America is only half the size. The Moscow factory is equipped with machines among which there are some which even in the capitalist countries are regarded as very great rarities. Our factory has been built by the whole country. Thanks to the working people of the Soviet Union, these huge bright buildings have been raised up and these superb machinery has been put in place. Only a socialist country, only the working class under the leadership of Lenin’s Party could produce such a factory as the “Sharikopodshipnik” giant.”

At a huge meeting celebrating the opening of the factory, the workers passed a resolution that the factory should be named after L. Kaganovich, the secretary of the Moscow Region Committee of the Communist Party. Tribute was also paid at the meeting to the Italian engineers for the part they had taken in the work.
Soviet Metallurgy Wins a World Record

In 1930 work was started on a tremendous plan for linking up the mineral wealth of the Urals with the coal deposits in Siberia in order to create a second huge metal supply centre—the Ural-Kuzbass (the first metal supply centre is in the Ukraine, in the Donets basin).

Owing to the tremendous enthusiasm with which work was carried out it was possible in the extraordinarily short period of two years not only to complete the construction but also to begin working it.

On the 1st of February 1932 the first blast-furnace of the Magnitogorsk combine rose up on the borders of Europe and Asia.

57 days after it had started working the furnace gave 1,037.5 tons of highest quality pig-iron.

This was a tremendous triumph of Soviet engineering. There had never before been furnaces of such a capacity either in the Soviet Union or in Western Europe. In the United States of America there are only one or two such furnaces. At Magnitogorsk the volume of a furnace is less than a cubic metre per ton of iron. Such a figure is a world record for furnaces of such a capacity.

The triumph at Magnitogorsk is a joyous event for the vast masses of Soviet workers and they have sent their most hearty congratulations to the Magnitogorsk contingent of fighters for socialism. Once again Soviet engineers and workers have shown that they are joining the front ranks of world technique.

The Magnitogorsk blast-furnace did not remain long alone. In this year another three have been built. On the whole there will be twenty-four large furnaces starting operations in the fourth year of the first Five-Year Plan.

In all the articles in the Soviet press about the Magnitogorsk record it is shown how the Soviet Union “is achieving one triumph after another while the capitalist world, paralysed by the economic crisis, is extinguishing and destroying one furnace after another”.

Stalin in his greeting to the workers of Magnitogorsk has congratulated them on the way that they have mastered the technique of building and operating the greatest blast-furnace in Europe, the “unique blast-furnace” as he has called it.
THE FIVE-YEAR PLAN IN SOVIET MOLDAVIA

By V. D e m b o

The population of the Autonomous Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic is 600,000, of which more than 30% are Moldavians. About 48% of the population are Ukrainians. The Poles form about 2% of the total population.

In Moldavia of former days even in towns almost half of the population (44%) were engaged in agriculture, and only 3% of the urban population worked in factories and mills. Only 1/4% of the total population was engaged in industrial enterprises.

An overwhelming majority of the population was illiterate and even a few years ago the proportion of illiterates reached 78%.

Prior to the revolution, 40% of the land in the territory of the present Soviet Moldavia belonged to land-owners.

The victory of the Soviets turned over to the local peasantry 300,000 hectares of land, so that 93% of the entire land (780,000 hectares) are now in possession of the peasants. By the spring of 1930 50% of Moldavian farms were collectivised. By the autumn of 1931, the corresponding percentage reached 65. The collective farms own 75% of the total land used by the peasants.

No wonder that this successful collectivisation met with a furious resistance on the part of the kulaks.

The poor and middle peasants of Moldavian and other nationalities are convinced by their own experience that the Leninist national policy secures for the Moldavian Soviet Republic an unprecedented rate of economic and cultural development. A rapid growth of socialistic economy in the national republics and regions during the period of the second Five-Year Plan will do away with the cultural and economic backwardness of minor nationalities, which was inherited from the tsarist capitalist-colonial regime.

The collectivised farmer of Soviet Moldavia is able to state that already in 1929 Moldavia possessed 550,000 hectares of sown area, tilled by 370 tractors, and that in 1930 two machine and tractor stations were established with 109 more tractors. By the end of 1931 there were 7 machine and tractor stations, and 5 more will be set up in the near future.

The toiling peasant of Soviet Moldavia knows that formerly the Southern part of the Soviet Moldavian Republic was continuously suffering from droughts and that the Soviet Government instituted an irrigation system which raised enormously the yield of vegetable gardens and of orchards which constitute the principal wealth of this part of Moldavia. Several thousands of hectares are already being irrigated. In 1932 the area of land irrigated by canals, owing to electrification, will reach 15,000 hectares. A further 15,000 hectares will be improved.

Within the next few years, the irrigated area will reach 75,000 hectares. Owing to these measures of the Soviet Government, and on the basis of the collective farm and State farm system, Soviet Moldavia becomes the richest source of fruits and vegetables. The canning industry for both fruits and vegetables is being developed.

In Soviet Moldavia in 1931 there were two canneries in Tiraspol, at the end of 1931 a new canny was put into operation in the village of Glinnoye. The total number of workers employed at these three works exceeds 2,300 and their output in 1931 was about 80 million cans of various fruits and vegetables. This year they will start construction of a fourth canny with a capacity of 50 million cans. The total annual capacity of the four canneries of Soviet Moldavia will reach 225 million cans by 1933.

By rapid strides Soviet Moldavia in the course of the last few years has transformed itself from a backward agrarian country first into an agrarian-industrial and then into an industrial-agrarian one. In 1929 the agricultural production here amounted to 51 million rubles and the industrial production—to only 37 million rubles, and in 1931 the manufactured products constituted 52% and the agricultural production 48% of the entire economic production of the Republic. The industrialisation of Soviet Moldavia is pro-

1 At the present time there are only 3 small canneries in Bessarabia: one in Kishinev and two in Ackerman—the 3 of them put together at the best of times employed only 60 workers, but now there are fewer.
gressing with seven-league boots. At the session of the Central Executive Committee of the Autonomous Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic, which took place in Tiraspol on March 15—16 of the present year, G. Petrovsky, president of the All-Union and All-Ukrainian Central Executive Committees, made a detailed report, in which he outlined the plan of great works in Moldavia which are to be carried out in the immediate future. He said: "The special tasks of material and cultural development of Soviet Moldavia confronted all the toilers of that Republic with the necessity of a new industrialisation of our country. In view of the general growth of national economy throughout the Union, the increase of production of our industries and the growth of the working class, the Central Committee of the Party and the Government are now working out the problem of an increased tempo of development for Soviet Moldavia."

The said plan foresees an investment of more than 50 million rubles in the industry of Moldavia. It is proposed to build two new local electric-power stations (one in the Southern and the other in the Northern part of the Region), a cement works, an industrial combine for the production of lime in Kodym. The stone quarries of Rybnitsa, the Giderim and Voronkov quarries of building material, all this secures for Soviet Moldavia a prominent place in the supply of building material. New geological surveys for the purpose of discovering lime etc. will be carried out. A wood-working factory for the supply of building material in Birzula is being extended.

A tobacco factory will be constructed in Dubossary, a dairy for the production of butter in Birzula, a wine-cellar to hold 500,000 kegs of wine and a mechanical bakery in Tiraspol, and affiliated enterprises for producing tin-cans and barrels.

As regards agriculture, apart from the above mentioned measures of irrigation and improvement, a new Soviet vineyard covering an area of 3,000 hectares will be set up in Butor, the orchards supplying

OLD MOLDAVIA

Old-fashioned Moldavian agricultural implements at the Ethnographical Museum in Moscow
the market will cover an area of 15,000 hectares, as against 11,000 the previous years, and a new giant orchard is being created, which will cover an area of 37,000 hectares.

Great work will be performed in the field of municipal economy (the extension of water supply, housing facilities, the paving of streets etc.) and in the construction of medical centres. There will be considerable extension of telephone service and many highways will be built. In two or three years, in every corner of socialist Moldavia, on the frontier that separates two worlds, there will arise the chimneys of enormous socialist enterprises, orchards and vineyards will flourish on tens of thousands of hectares, well equipped Soviet farms will arise, based on the most up-to-date application of electrical power.

This gigantic growth of socialist construction in industry and agriculture is most closely connected with the enormous cultural growth and rapid uplifting of the cultural level of the local toilers, above all the Moldavians, who at one time were the most backward. Apart from enemies and prejudiced people, who will ever believe the libel on Soviet Moldavia, when it is precisely here that we witness the birth of culture of all nationalities inhabiting Moldavia, above all of the culture of the Moldavian people?

In 1925, when the Moldavian Republic was founded, there existed only 11 Moldavian schools. And now in 1932 we have already 600 schools, where the teaching is in the Moldavian language, and at the same time the teaching in the schools of the other nationalities is in the native tongue of their pupils (the Ukrainian, Russian, Jewish, Bulgarian, Czech and Polish schools). A compulsory seven-year education for all children of school-age has been introduced and 75,000 children are taught in elementary schools.

The illiteracy of the adults is being very rapidly eliminated. Soviet Moldavia will soon become the republic which is not only 100% collectivised, but also 100% literate.

A number of newspapers and magazines are being published in the Moldavian language. A Moldavian literature has been created and the yearly production of the Moldavian State Publishing House reaches several million copies. According to the 1932 plan, the output of publications will increase $2\frac{1}{2}$ times in comparison with the previous year and will reach 12 million copies.

Last year there were 9 vocational schools in North Moldavia. Now they have been transformed into technical schools with a student body of 3,500.

The Higher Moldavian Institute of People's Education has three faculties and is attended by 300 students. A Moldavian Agricultural Institute will soon be opened. Apart from the schools of factory-apprenticeship, one of the main tasks of which is the training of skilled workers of Moldavian nationality, there exists a network of workers' faculties and collective-farm universities. Instead of 56 schools of seven-year course, which functioned last year, there will be 142 of such schools this year, mainly in the villages.

The number of students in the various higher schools of Moldavia will this year reach 6,500. They are all of them sons and daughters of workers, peasants and, generally speaking, of toilers. 500,000 rubles have been appropriated for the con-
struction of a home for proletarian students in Tiraspol, which will start immediately. Another 500,000 rubles have been assigned to the construction of a new building for the Institute of People's Education which will be completed this year. The Moldavian section of the Kharkov Communist University is being transformed into an independent Moldavian Communist University and will be transferred to the city of Tiraspol.

A new State theatre will be constructed in Tiraspol. It will accommodate 1,000 people and 900,000 rubles have been assigned for its construction. At the present time Soviet Moldavia is adopting the Latin alphabet in place of the Russian. In the words of G. Petrovsky, president of the Ukrainian Central Executive Committee:

"The wave of alphabet modernisation by use of Latin script has spread to all the Transcaucasian districts, Central Asia, generally speaking, to all nations, it is a tendency to adopt a universal alphabet, in order to facilitate the process of reading and thereby contribute to the rapprochement of the nations."

Such is the real state of things, such is the enormous work performed by the toilers of Soviet Moldavia, supported in a brotherly way by the toilers of the Ukraine and of the whole Soviet Union.

The working masses of Soviet Moldavia are convinced by obvious facts that the socialist system enables them to raise in their formerly oppressed country the development of the productive forces and their national culture to an unparalleled height.
Organised Child Centres in the USSR

THE CHILDREN'S HOME AT KARDVINONO

By A. Deyanova

The above Home was organised in the autumn of 1920, in the summer house of a former landowner at Kardvinovo in the Moscow district. It was opened exclusively for the benefit of orphaned children of railway employees and workers.

The house is situated in the country and this has led to the occupants taking up farming. Thanks to the energy of the workers there, this farm has grown considerably and is now able to purchase out of its own earnings the necessary equipment, and to build barns, a workshop, a laundry etc.

At the present time there are forty-nine orphans in the home. The house itself has been added to and a dining-room built on to it. The grounds have been turned into a model farm. The home now possesses several head of cattle, both large and small, twenty-two beehives, a kitchen-garden and an orchard which contains forty old fruit trees, in addition to the hundred-and-fifty young ones just planted.

The farm is run by the orphans in cooperation with the teachers and staff.

At the end of every "production" year the Home organises an agricultural exhibition in the district. It has twice received a first-class diploma and a money prize for the produce exhibited.

This farm not only provides the Home with the necessary produce, but is also able to help the neighbouring collective farms. The Home supplies them with seed, and also provides food for hot breakfasts for the children in the collective-farm school.

The Home is a cultural centre and it plays a leading part in socialist construction in the surrounding collective farms. It was through the efforts of the Children's Home that the collective farm at Grin-tsovo was created. Both the staff and the children themselves take an active part in the life of the collective farm, help in drawing up the working plans, in making the accounts and in cultural work of a mass nature.

The orphans work in shock-brigades and among the latter they have organised socialist competition.

When the children leave the Home they do not lose touch with it. It gives them material and moral support during the initial stage of independent life. Many of the children brought up there, who have already become students, teachers, and skilled workers, still remain attached to Kardvinovo and are glad to spend their holidays there.

A SCHOOL OF YOUNG JOURNALISTS

By N. Sotnikov

At the Leningrad Press House courses are held for the editors of Young Pioneer wall newspapers, and these have now been reorganised into a University of Child Correspondents.

Once every four or five days at six o'clock in the evening the child correspondents of the wall newspapers in schools, the young editors and other helpers gather in the Press House. They are all children whom the schools and pioneer groups have sent to the University on account both of the activity they have shown in their school newspaper work and of their political consciousness.

About 80 future journalists of twelve to eighteen years of age regularly attend these courses.

At the head of the University is a principal unanimously elected at a general meeting of the young students. His name is Kolya Soloviov and he comes from a factory seven-year school. He has been a "child correspondent" since 1926, is an active contributor to the Young pioneer newspaper "Leninskie Iskry" (Sparks of
Leninism) and now writes even pamphlets for a series published by this paper.

The governing body of the college is made up of Shakhin, the head boy of the first group and editor of the college wall newspaper, Sleivich, head of the second group, and Soloviov, the principal. Responsible to the governing body there is a council of brigadiers consisting of nine children. The students are grouped together in brigades of 5 or 6. The brigades work together over the material for study, and give collective reports about this material.

The brigadier keeps account of attendance and makes himself responsible for the work and discipline of the brigade. Many of these brigades have declared themselves shock brigades and junior and senior groups have taken one another on in socialist competition. The whole University now intends to challenge the Communist Evening Institute of Journalism to compete with them.

* * *

Study is now in full swing. Here is the room in which the senior group is working. The exercise to be done is to draw up a plan for a special Lenin number of a wall newspaper. The group leader is saying what kind of editorial should be given. When he has finished he asks the students to give their opinions about a plan for the number. The room becomes a hive of industry.

The plan for the number is submitted to the practical criticism of the children. Each one is anxious to have his say, to make his suggestions.

The second group is occupied with the problem: "How to write an article for the wall newspaper". After some discussion the teacher suggests that each one write an article of his own.

One of the boys called up to the board and writes in his article: "Ivanov's brigade comes last in competition thanks to its members not coming to work in time."

This is greeted with laughter: "Not much to be thankful for!" The children are going to see that there will be no ambiguity of language in their wall newspapers.

* * *

The children attending lectures at the Child Correspondents' University feel themselves to be on an equal footing with the other members of the Press House. They demand access to the library under the same terms as the grown-ups. They want to attend the same public lectures. They are pleased at the interest shown in the college by the general public.

During the holidays when the students were free in the day-time as well as in the evenings the Press House arranged an excursion to a paper mill.

The college gives a good grounding for real newspaper work and many of the children now studying there will take their place amongst the Soviet journalists of the future.

The editors at work
THE FACTORY OF NEW PEOPLE

Some years ago, on December 29, 1927, to commemorate the tenth anniversary of the All-Union Cheka (later the G.P.U.), the workers of the G.P.U. of the Ukraine, chiefly with their own funds, created a children's labour commune, in the name of Felix Dzerzhinsky 1, for homeless children.

From that day on, "Felix's children" became the object of untiring care. For the workers of the G.P.U. the commune had become their dearest child.

In the commune there are now 212 boys and 84 girls — 61% of them have a "street period" back of them. Years were required for this past to be uprooted, to be dissolved in a current of days of toil. Socially useful labour, study, properly organised work have made this possible. The pupils of the commune go through the complete course of the seven-year school and of the workers' faculty. In the commune there are likewise elementary groups for the illiterate.

In 1931 three workshops were in operation at the commune — fitting, wood-working and clothing. All members of the commune were divided into 24 brigades, on the principle of production; at the head of each one is an elected commander. The commanders' council is the highest executive organ of the commune. The commune's plans of production are fulfilled splendidly. For the first quarter of 1931 the industrial and financial plan was fulfilled by 103%, for the second by 143%, for the third by 101%. During the first 11 months of last year the commune gave a net profit of 373,694 rubles. This sum is being used to perfect further the equipment and living conditions of the commune.

The members of the commune receive wages. The average wage is now 66 rubles a month. They dispose of their wages as follows: 35 rubles they contribute to the commune for their support, 7 r. 75 k. to the fund of the commanders' council, a half of the remainder — 11 r. 62 k. — to the savings-bank on their accounts, and the rest — 11 r. 62 k. — for pocket-money.

What do the members of the commune spend their pocket-money for?

To buy radio-apparatuses, gymnastic articles, to subscribe to newspapers and periodicals. Some of the girls buy pretty scarfs, or other trifles. The young lads spend money on sweets.

1 The deceased president of the All-Russian Cheka (Extraordinary Commission), later the O.G.P.U. (United State Political Department).
Not long ago the commune celebrated its fourth anniversary. That day a mill for producing electric drills, built with the funds of the commune, was set in operation. The building of the mill, its equipping were carried out with the commune's funds. "Enough of old fashioned artisan work", say the members of the commune. Electric drills, extra tractor parts, oil cans — that is what the former waifs will produce now.

This is how that commune educates the child who was not long ago a waif to be a new, socialist man.

**LIFE AND SCHOOL IN THE LUMBERING DISTRICTS**

The October revolution freed the lumberjacks of the USSR from the yoke of barbarous exploitation. At present the lumberjacks live in large, well-lighted barracks. Despite the remoteness and scattered distribution of the lumbercamps, an extensive network of provision shops and huts, of bakeries and dining-rooms has been organised. In almost all districts there are "Red Corners", where the lumberjacks may listen to radio, get newspapers, periodicals and books. The lumberjacks' organisations issue their own printed and wall newspapers.

The average wage of a permanently working lumberjack has greatly increased. Their conditions of work are safeguarded by the only socialist labour legislation in the world.

With the growth of the material well-being of the lumberjacks, the living conditions of their children are also being improved. In all the lumbercamps school and pre-school institutions have been organised for education of the lumberers' children. Needy school-children receive free-of-charge shoes, clothes and school-books. In almost all schools the school-children are given hot lunches.

In the Northern district, where the main industry is lumbering, the schools are attended by 266,050 children. In the Western-Siberia district this figure reaches the tremendous amount of 1,024,300 children; in the Eastern-Siberia district — 265,600. In the Nizhny-Novgorod district 681,784 lumbermen's children study in the schools; in the Urals district — 697,023, and so on.

In improving the life and education of the lumbermen's children, the development of the pre-school network in the lumbering regions is of extreme importance. According to the figures of the trade-union of lumbering and wood-working men alone, i. e., according to incomplete information, 220 nurseries and 209 children's homes for the lumbermen's children are functioning.

Besides these trade-union pre-school institutions, there is a great number of governmental ones. Thus, in the Northern district (the greatest lumbering region) there are 540 State kindergartens and 1,200 children's play-grounds. For maintaining these institutions 166,000 rubles are spent annually. In Eastern Siberia 1,100 kindergartens and 40,519 children's play-grounds have been organised for the children of lumberjacks. For the Nizhny-Novgorod district the corresponding figures are 160 and 11,740. At the lumber-exchanges alone 2,250 children are taken care of by pre-school institutions.

What do these few figures mean?

The lumbercamps, from the "land of graves" which they were before the October revolution, are being transformed into very important industrial areas, with organised, free labour.

The fulfilment of the Five-Year Plan in lumbering and of the Five-Year Plan of cultural reconstruction guarantees the further and rapid improvement of the living conditions of the lumberers and, particularly, of the life and education of their children.
THE TRUE MUSSORGSKY

By G. Polianovsky

For many years it was the commonly accepted opinion that Mussorgsky was a composer with great potentialities but that his talent was hampered by his ignorance of musical theory and his "dislike for study". Much has been said of the part taken by Rimsky-Korsakov in "reviving" Mussorgsky and it has often been contended that without his help Mussorgsky's music would never have been presented in publishable form. Even friends and admirers of the composer have spoken with a touch of bitterness about a certain crudity and outward unattractiveness of much that is profound in his music. Reactionary critics referring to the unusual melody of Mussorgsky's compositions have claimed that he could not think musically.

Even now in many books and articles by bourgeois critics you can feel that tendency to depreciate the artistic and ideological significance of Mussorgsky. P. A. Lamm and other devoted revivers of the musician had to overcome a stubborn opposition in order to give the original "Boris Godunov" and "Khovanshchina" the place that rightly belonged to them, both on the operatic stage and as musical composition.

To the State Music Publishing House belongs a part of the credit for giving us the true Mussorgsky. Very good editions of "Boris Godunov" and "Khovanshchina" have already been published and an edition of his unfinished composition, "Sorochinsky Fair" is now being prepared.

The State Music Publishing House has also published a large number of Mussorgsky's songs after checking them carefully with the original and a number of orchestral fragments both in full score and transposed for the piano. Much time and effort has been devoted by Soviet writers to the study of Mussorgsky's musical works.

"For Proletarian Music" and "The Proletarian Musician", both periodicals of the Association of Proletarian Musicians, have published a number of articles dealing with the creative genius of the composer. Numerous lectures and concerts connected with the "new Mussorgsky" have been made in special institutions and in workers' clubs. Many workers' musical circles have also been making a careful study of Mussorgsky's best compositions.

Mussorgsky's musical dramas, in parts or as a whole, are being shown in the largest clubs. Thus we see that the revival of the true Mussorgsky is attracting the attention not only of Soviet musicians but also of the many thousands of workers who belong to choral and musical circles.

The first volume of the complete composition of Mussorgsky to be published was "Boris Godunov". In contrast to the incomplete and inaccurate edition of "Boris" made by Rimsky-Korsakov, the present edition fully re-instates the author's conception. P. A. Lamm, the leading authority in the question of Mussorgsky's musical heritage, compiled the present edition from the composer's manuscripts including tableaux, scenes, fragments and variants, hitherto unknown to the public.

For the first time is restored the original variant of the end of the first tableau in the prologue of "Boris", which shows the people as they should be shown, — not as an impersonal mass, but as a many-faced collective, critically and ironically obeying the commands of the powers above them.

Comparatively small but nevertheless important changes were also made in other tableaux. Substantial work was done in incorporating the scenes in front of the cathedral of Basil the Blessed and the scene near the town Cromy, most striking mass scenes revealing Mussorgsky's genius and characterising him as the mouthpiece of definite social ideas. These scenes portray the critical and rebellious attitude towards the government that was rife in the sixties. They attribute to the common masses elements of purposeful activity and that is why they were banned by the censor.

Another very important piece of work done by P. A. Lamm was the revival of another of Mussorgsky's operas, "Khovanshchina".

The most colourful and vivid public scenes were pushed into the background by Rimsky-
Korsakov, while anything that related to religion or mysticism was emphasised and exaggerated.

A presentation of "Khovanshchina" in its original form shows us Mussorgsky with all his inconsistencies. It shows us how he was striving to understand the fundamental causes of the social conflict between the persons in power with those supporting them and the masses of people, whom Mussorgsky took for an undivided whole.

In the revised opera the elements are very clearly portrayed of the struggle between two principles, the external European introduced by Peter the Great and the feudal principle supported by the hereditary nobility. Mussorgsky's conscientious and persistent efforts to reveal survivals of the past in the present were invariably slurred over by the editors of his "popular musical dramas". Now for the first time the perfect harmony between the composer's innermost thoughts and the peculiar form of his work, that seemed so strange and unfamiliar to his contemporaries, has been given a true sociological interpretation.

The problem of the two unfinished operas "Sorochinsky Fair" and "The Marriage" of which only fragments remain has also been given a new interpretation. The first of these two operas was completed in parts and the score written by the Soviet composer Shebalin under the direction of P. A. Lamm. Shebalin showed great sensitiveness and understanding in accomplishing his responsible task. He took original fragments as the basis, and in working them up made use of orchestral effects characteristic of the composer. In order to do this he made a thorough study of the originals and on the whole he carried out his task with a fair degree of success. The revised "Sorochinsky Fair" is full of sparkling humour and fine descriptive passages, preserving the local colour of Gogol's story. Shebalin tried to keep the freshness of Mussorgsky's melodies and harmonies. This style was the result of Mussorgsky's philosophy which was still in a state of flux under the influence of the great social changes that were taking place during the sixties.

The opera in its new form was produced in the Nemirovich-Danchenko theater. "The Marriage" was revived by the People's Artist prof. M. Ippolitov-Ivanov at the suggestion of the operatic radio-theatre. Here the real Mussorgsky comes out only in the first act. The masterly sequence of motifs, the extraordinary way in which each part of the musical theme stands out in almost sculptural relief, makes it unique amongst operas.

The composer makes malicious fun of the inanity, idleness and sensuality of the official classes and of the well-fed landed gentry, satisfied with their empty, primitive life. All this is brought out with biting sarcasm in the first act.

All Mussorgsky's songs were re-edited and altered to agree with the original. Almost all of them were supplied with historical and explanatory notes. Special mention should be made of the collections under the titles "Youthful Days" and "Jubilee Collection". The first of these contains the immature works of Mussorgsky written during the first period of his creative career; the second — his later songs which are the ones of greatest interest to us.

It was thus that the humorous genre song under the title "Oh, you drunken bird" first came to light. This was never published during Mussorgsky's lifetime, but was preserved in manuscript in a private collection. It was followed by a whole cycle of light songs.

Recently the State Music Publishing House brought out two very interesting volumes which throw light on the life and work of Mussorgsky. Both of these volumes were edited by a young musical student Y. V. Keldysh, the first volume in collaboration with V. V. Yakovlev.

The first volume contains articles by I. Glebov, P. A. Lamm and Y. V. Keldysh, the other a complete correspondence between Mussorgsky and his friends.

Very much more research has been done in connection with Mussorgsky and very many more editions published of his works since the revolution than before it. Now a new and a truer Mussorgsky is shown to the audiences of concert-halls and clubs, whose numbers have vastly increased.

Thus the real Mussorgsky has been rediscovered through the untiring work of Soviet musicians and scholars who have carried out a scientific and revolutionary analysis of his work, his creative method and his place and role in the social life of the contemporary epoch. This work made it possible to determine the true specific weight of Mussorgsky's composition in the vast cultural inheritance of bygone times.

Now the compositions of the genuine Mussorgsky, full of vigour, depth and inspiration, become widely known to the vast masses of workers in the Soviet Union.
SOVIET CINEMA EXHIBITION ON TOUR THROUGH EUROPE

The All-Union, Ukrainian and Transcaucasian Societies for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries have organised in co-operation with the State Cinema Concern (Soyuzkino) a traveling exhibition of the Soviet cinema which will go on tour through Europe visiting Amsterdam, Madrid, Rome, Paris and other capitals. At the exhibition the latest Soviet sound-films, educational films and newsreels will be shown.

The exhibition differs from all other Soviet cinema exhibitions hitherto held abroad in the way the exhibits are arranged. There are a number of sections dealing with different aspects of the Soviet cinema. All these sections taken together will give the European public a good all-round idea of the main characteristics and distinguishing features of the Soviet cinema, its methods of work, its achievements during the last few years and the lines along which it is likely to develop during the period of the second Five-Year Plan.

The first section will show the scheme according to which cinematography is organised in the Soviet Union. There will be a large decorative diagram showing all the ramifications of Soyuzkino, from the head office to the separate production units. All the trusts included in the corporation — there are more than twenty of them — are shown with all the organisations connected with them, and their size and situation are indicated. Side by side is a huge poster illustrating the socialist planning of the cinema. The main figures relating to the work planned for 1932 are given on this poster, together with an outline of the plans for the second Five-Year period. Besides giving figures, the poster will make clear the methods used in planning for the cinema, the way subjects are chosen, scenarios ordered and the films acted. The small space at the disposal of the exhibition made it impossible to do justice to the third most important section of the cinema industry in the Soviet Union, namely the manufacture of film, and apparatus. The manufacture of film, one of the youngest of Soviet industries, is represented by photographs of the interiors of factories, samples of the sensitised ribbon and other exhibits illustrating the way work is done in Soviet film factories. Statistics are also given with regard to new factories which are to be built during the second Five-Year Plan. There are similar exhibits of cinema apparatus and its manufacture. Exhibits dealing with the actual production of film plays occupy a central position at the exhibition. There are a large number of photographs of scenes from films and of different aspects of their production. These include a general view of the giant Moscow film studio, or rather cinema factory in the Potylikha Suburb, and views of its different departments. To these are added diagrams and schemes giving statistical information about Soviet film production.

Considerable attention is paid to the production of educational and news films. Of especial interest in connection with the establishment of a Soviet news films service are the new methods of work — the touring editorial staffs which go round from one building site to another and the cinema train (the latest achievement in this field) which is a fully equipped “ambulant cinema factory”.

In the section devoted to the production of film plays the chief exhibit illustrates the subject “How Soviet moving pictures are made”. The material is taken from one of the latest Soviet sound films “Mountains of Gold” by Yutkevich.

The largest section of all is devoted to the national cinemas. Six different cinema trusts serving 100 different nationalities of the Soviet Union are represented at the exhibition. Here we find scenes from national films, sub-titles in different languages of the Soviet Union, portraits of prominent figures in the national cinema world, illustrations of different phases in the actual work of production, figures referring to the building of cinema houses and factories and statistics showing the extraordinarily rapidly growing importance of the cinema in the life of the minor nationalities who were so oppressed and kept in such a state of ignorance under tsardom. These cinema exhibits alone are eloquent enough of the tremendous cultural advance made by different nationalities of the USSR as a result of the October revolution.

A special space is given to the work of enlarging the system of cinema houses and extending it to outlying parts. Attention is paid here also to the re-equipment of cinema houses for sound films, to the
political and cultural work carried on in connection with the performances and to the estimated figures for the growth of the cinema and increase in the number of cinema-goers during the second Five-Year Plan.

The section for cinema education shows the extensive system of schools of cinematography under the auspices of Soyuzkino, which train workers for all branches of film production. There are three colleges of cinematography in the Soviet Union: one in Moscow, one in Leningrad and the third in Kiev. These include a special technical college for training engineers for sound-film work. Besides these there are 10 cinema technicums and over 100 special courses on cinematography. In 1932 all these organisations together with the schools attached to factories and the system of correspondence courses will turn out 50,800 workers qualified in different branches of the industry. Amongst the students there are a very large number of workers and members of the national minorities.

The last section of the exhibition is devoted to public cinema organisations. The work of the society "For a Proletarian Cinema" is shown here. The society has over 300,000 members including workers, members of collective farms, Red Army men and office employees. It carries on intensive work among the masses, makes the Soviet public take an active interest in questions of cinema production and does political educational work in this field. The work of the Association of Workers in the Revolutionary Cinema is also shown here. This is an association of cinema producers, members of technical staffs and working people attached to the cinema industry. In the same section there are exhibits showing the methods of work of the cinema press, and the part it plays in the development of the Soviet cinema.

All the sections are arranged with great care and are provided with slogans expressing the principles underlying the work of the Soviet cinema. There are also special stalls and windows displaying literature, text books, catalogs etc. The exhibits are arranged according to the designs of the artist Semenov who himself superintended the work. The general planning of the different sections is the work of G. Boltyansky, Honorary Artist of the Soviet cinema.

DEATH OF A PROMINENT SOVIET ACTOR

Stephen Kuznetsov, the People’s Artist, has recently died in Moscow.

S. Kuznetsov was born in 1870. His father came from a peasant family, his mother was a laundress.

When only 12 years old, Kuznetsov was placed as an apprentice in a book shop and spent several years of his life standing behind the book counter. From his extreme youth Kuznetsov took to theatre and at last decided to leave his job and to go on the stage.

In 1901 he appeared on the stage for the first time as a professional actor in a small provincial theatre.

During the thirty years of his artistic life, S. Kuznetsov has played a tremendous number of roles in an extremely various repertoire, if only to mention: Figaro; Marmeladov, in “Crime and Punishment”; Tsar Feodor Ioannovich; Rasputiev in “The Wedding of Krechinsky”; Arkashka in “The Forest”; Sganarel in “Don Juan”; Khlestakov in “The Inspector-general”; Yusov in “The Paying Job”, and after the Revolution—the sailor Shvandia in “Liubov Yarovaya” (by Treney), “Zholud” in the “Colhoz Yasny Log” (by the same author) and many others.

This excellent artist knew how to fill every role with this theatrical truth which out of any even episodic character creates an unforgettable image, full of life and of deep revolutionary meaning.

S. Kuznetsov has played in almost all big towns and theatres of the Soviet Union. In 1925 he joined the cast of the State Little Theatre in Moscow, where he has continued to play up to the last days of his life. In 1929 Kuznetsov was granted the name of the People’s Artist.
Goethe and the Soviet Union

NEW SOVIET EDITIONS OF GOETHE

Although Goethe is a writer belonging to a pre-proletarian culture he is nevertheless close enough to us for much of his universal work to be a very real part of the cultural wealth of the land that is building socialism. His sparkling optimism, his faith in life, his faith in man and in his eventual victory over slavery, the war he waged against the torpor of the middle ages in the name of a free self-affirming personality, at the same time overcoming individualism in the interests of the whole, and finally and more important than anything else his extraordinarily throughgoing monistic philosophy, which in its realism and dialectical leanings was one of the direct forerunners of dialectical materialism,—all this, quite apart from the official anniversary, makes it imperative for us to make a more thorough study, long overdue, of Goethe’s life and work and to take all that is acceptable in his immense literary heritage.

Up till now the Soviet reader not knowing German had practically no opportunity of getting to know Goethe, because the very few editions of his works published in Russian both before and after the revolution have become almost bibliographical curiosities. Hardly any traces of the influence of Goethe can be found in pre-revolutionary Russian literature. If one leaves out of account the passing interest taken in Goethe in the early nineties and a certain hint of the Goethe philosophy in the theoretical works of the symbolists at the end of the 19th and beginning of the 20th century, the interest in Goethe as an artist and thinker has up till now been of a merely dilettante kind. It is true that Zhukovsky, Alexei Tolstoy, Tuchcev and Fet have done a
number of very good poetic translations of Goethe, and also that the influence of Goethe's poetic method can be traced to a certain extent in the work of Tutchev and Fet, but it cannot be said that there was any regular development of Russian poetry along Goetheanian lines. Goethe was never as popular as Schiller or Heine.

A collection of Goethe's works edited by Herbel was published in the seventies but it is now terribly out of date and even in its own time it can hardly have done much towards awaking interest in Goethe. It appeared during the period of reaction when poetry was in a state of stagnation, and apart from the translations mentioned above it is marked by an extreme deadness of language and betrays the inaptness of its translators and their superficial, amateurish understanding, or sometimes even misunderstanding, of the original. Besides it shows a complete absence of system in the choice of the texts especially as regards the lyrical poetry.

The translations which have appeared during Soviet times (the first part of "Faust" by Valery Brussov, the "Sorrows of Werther" by J. Mandelstamm and the scientific extracts in a book of Lichtenstadt's) show a very great command of translation technique, but unfortunately they were very soon sold out and nothing was done to fill the gap until the State Publishing House (whose work in this matter was later taken on by the State Publishing House for Fine Literature) started in 1920 on a thirteen volume Jubilee Edition of Goethe's works in Russian.

This edition is chiefly intended to give the Soviet reader as complete a collection as possible of Goethe's works, i.e. to select from his immense literary heritage such material as would give a true idea of the extraordinary richness, many-sidedness and often contradictoriness of that great writer's genius. It is intended to help both the ordinary reader and those who make a special study of literature to see Goethe, poet, natural philosoper and thinker, in a fresh light and to delve more deeply into his work.

The editors have for the most part observed the traditional classification into lyric, epic, drama, novels, short stories, autobiography, letters, diaries, criticism, and scientific works, and have arranged the works under each of these headings in chronological order. This has been considered the best method as it enables the reader to see the varied aspects of Goethe's evolution over a large number of years, each time from a different point of view.

The 1st volume is devoted to his lyrical works and contains more than 13,000 verses; about 400 poems have been translated into Russian now for the first time. The 2nd volume contains his epic poems, earlier plays fragments and satires from the pre-Weimar period. The 3rd, 4th and 5th volumes contain his larger poems, and dramatic works including "Faust" (vol. 5) the first part of which is given in a new translation carried out collectively, and the second part in the hitherto un published translation by Valery Brussov. The 6th volume contains his novels and short stories and the 7th and 8th are the two parts of "Wilhelm Meister". The 9th and 10th are devoted to "Poetry and Truth", selected essays, and sayings on art and literature, the 11th to "Travels in Italy", the 12th to selected extracts from his diaries and letters, arranged chronologically, and the 13th to his scientific works. The volumes are provided with introductions and notes intended on the one hand to put the reader in touch with the great work that has been done in the study of Goethe in the West and on the other hand to point out the new interpretation of his work and genius along the lines of Marxist-Leninist literary criticism. Very great attention has been paid to the translation. The task that confronted the translators was not only to retell with approximate accuracy the meaning of the original, but to make a strictly accurate and adequate translation based on a scientific understanding of the methods of translation as well as on a scientific interpretation of the original text, preserving its full artistic value, by carrying over into the new language all the different shades of meaning and all the peculiarities of form and style.

However far our translators have succeeded in carrying out the tremendous task undertaken—that of putting into Russian the works of one of the greatest literary geniuses of all time, we may justly claim that the publication of this Soviet Jubilee Edition of Goethe is a very notable achievement, and one that represents the very best that could be done in this line at the present stage of development of translation technique. The fact that the translators include the well-known modern poets M. Kuzmin, V. Rozhdestvensky, P. Antokolsky and the experienced translators both of prose and poetry G. Rachin-
sky, S. Shervinsky, M. Lozinsky, B. Yarkho, N. William-Wilmont, P. Kochetkov, D. Ussov, and S. Zayaitsky and that the editorial board is made up of the best Goethe scholars ensure that the work will be well planned and carried out with thoroughness. The first two volumes have appeared in the Jubilee days; many of the others are now ready for the press. The chief editors are: L. B. Kamenev and Academicians A. V. Lunacharsky and M. N. Rozanov. Some of the single volumes are being edited by Academician V. I. Vernadsky, A. G. Gabrichevsky, V. M. Zhirmunsky, M. Levin, B. C. Pshibyshevsky, M. A. Petrovsky, and S. V. Shervinsky. The chief editors, special editors and translators form a single friendly collective sharing their knowledge and experience.

In outward appearance the work has a purely academic character and illustrations are confined to portraits and drawings of the author and autographs. Amongst the manuscripts reproduced will be a number which have not yet been published and which are preserved in Soviet museums and libraries. Not only do a considerable proportion of the works included in the edition appear in Russian translation for the first time (this applies especially to lyrics, letters, diaries, literary criticism and scientific works), but also of most of those which have already been published new translations are given. In the first volume there is a long introduction to the whole edition by A. V. Lunacharsky, and this will also be published separately.

On the day of the anniversary the State Publishing House for Fiction brought out the first two volumes of the Complete Works, and with them are appearing in the Cheap Classics series the first part of "Faust" translated by Valery Brussov with introductions by P. S. Kogan and A. G. Gabrichevsky. This translation of "Faust" which is certainly the best yet available is particularly welcome as the first edition which came out in 1928 in the Russian and World Classics series issued by the State Publishing House is now a bibliographical curiosity.

Brussov's complete translation of "Faust" which was found amongst his papers after his death, and the second part of which had never been published, will soon appear in full in an edition of the Academia Publishing House edited and commented by B. I. Purishev. The same house is also publishing "Selected Lyrical Poems" with A. G. Gabrichevsky and S. V. Shervinsky as editors and introduction and notes by the former. This book will be a little smaller than the first volume of the Jubilee Edition and will contain Goethe's lyrical masterpieces. The poems will be arranged chronologically in order to enable the reader to follow the evolution of the poet. This volume will contain certain poems not included in the Jubilee Edition. The illustrations and arrangement of the text will be of great interest, as the decorative designs and the portrait of Goethe are to be carried out by no less an artist than V. A. Favorsky. Finally the same Academia Publishing House is bringing out a limited édition de luxe (1,000 copies) of the "Roman Elegies" translated by S. V. Shervinsky with parallel Russian and German text. This will include four posthumous elegies which have been exclud-
ed from most of the German editions on "moral grounds" and now are translated into Russian for the first time. The outward appearance of the book down to the smallest detail is to be in the hands of the artist I. I. Nivinsky. There will be an illuminated fly-leaf, an engraved title page and numerous drawings.

Finally in a cheap "Ogonyok" series there will be a small collection of Goethe's poems translated by S. V. Shervinsky. This little book is intended to give the general reader the clearest and most accessible examples of the lyrical works of the poet.

"Krasnaya Nov", "Novy Mir", "Projector", "Ogonyok" and other periodicals are publishing articles on the life and work of Goethe and a number of translations, chiefly of his poetry.

SOVIET WRITERS AND SCHOLARS ON GOETHE

On the occasion of the recent Goethe centenary the most prominent Soviet public men, writers and students of Goethe wrote articles for the newspapers and periodicals in which they gave their views on the great poet, his place in world history and culture and the importance of his work for our own time.

"The world pays tribute to Goethe's genius", writes Academicians A. Lunacharsky in "Izvestia", "but what is the world? Is the world one? Certainly it is not. The old world and the new world, that is to say the bourgeoisie of all nations and the international proletariat are divided by a great gulf with regard to their views on Goethe."

The attention of Soviet scholars has been directed chiefly to those contradictions in Goethe's character which made Marx and Engels refer to him as "that genius, the greatest of all Germans", at the same time emphasising that element of narrow-mindedness in his character which was the result of the fact that he was unable to rise above the mediocrity of the contemporary society.

Engels wrote of Goethe that in his work he "had a dual attitude to the German social order of his time. He was hostile to it, it seemed unacceptable to him, and he sought to run away from it on the one hand, and on the other hand he tried to make friends with it. Thus we find Goethe one minute very great and the next minute very petty, one minute a rebellious genius with a contempt for the world and the next minute a narrow and cautious philistine satisfied with everything. He found himself continually faced with the same dilemma resulting from the fact that although he could not but hold in contempt the environment in which he lived yet he was nevertheless bound to this environment since outside of it he could have no scope for his activity..."

Reactionaries are very fond of contending that Goethe only "saved himself" by making a compromise with the ruling classes. In opposition to this view Soviet science asserts that Goethe's greatness is permanent because "his poetry was the incarnation of the eager youthfulness of his class... the joy of men putting body and soul into the fight against the idols and temples created by the thousand year rule of political, economical and philosophical mediaevalism".

Goethe was before his time in his rejection of everything superhuman and his ridicule of the idols and traditions of the middle ages. His life-affirming philosophy and his brilliant thought of the new world and of transformed humanity were prophetic of the future.

"After considering and rejecting every possible answer to the problem of the meaning of life, Faust-Goethe eventually solves the riddle on the edge of the grave. His answer is— the victorious struggle
of a labour collective. Thus the great master of words lived to proclaim the deed, the great individualist to proclaim the human labour collective” (L. Kamenev).

There is a dialectical tendency in Goethe’s philosophy which caused him to look upon the world as “one single whole, moved by antagonisms and requiring for its explanation no kind of supernatural or superhuman forces”.

The dialectical element in Goethe’s philosophy is a result of his having been so closely in touch with nature. The Soviet writer Marietta Shaghinian has dealt with this point in her article on Goethe. In so far as Goethe represented a class which was then in its youth, as a practical philosopher he showed signs of striving for a real broad constructiveness, a planned control of natural forces. “Goethe”, says Shaghinian, “had a peculiar feeling for nature, a feeling that I can only describe approximately as a ‘feeling of cultivation of nature’, a feeling of the close bounds existing between man and nature. This feeling is an essential part of the history of civilisation and is expressed in the very system of nature. For Goethe nature is not something isolated and arbitrary but part and parcel of the social complex.”

We see in Goethe’s Faust, acclaiming the struggle for freedom, thirsting to see his land and his people emancipated, a confirmation of the words of Marx and Engels, that it is the proletariat and the proletariat alone that are the inheritors of the great thinkers and poets including amongst them Wolfgang Goethe. This idea is emphasised by A. Lunacharsky in the final words of his article on Goethe.

S. Dinanov in his well annotated article shows that the forces of reaction in the West in reality reject the great heritage of Goethe and try to use his great name for the purpose of preaching counter-revolution and war. In the West we find a desperate and cynical attempt to prevent Goethe’s centenary being celebrated or else an interpretation of him such as is intended to use the harmony and equilibrium which are ascribed to him to cover up the terrible contradictions of our age.

“The reactionaries of the West”, writes the literary critic Averbach, “honour Goethe not because they want to reveal his historical mission—the struggle for a free German nation—but in order to hide their own weaknesses, and their real aim which is to break the struggle for national emancipation, as national emancipation can only be the result of social emancipation.”

In place of such a distortion of Goethe the Soviet public and Soviet science give an objective analysis of his life and work which infallibly shows the great revolutionising significance of all that is permanent in him.

What Averbach has to say about Goethe and about the old art, as well as about the new art that is being built up in the Soviet Union, is very interesting. When he says that Goethe “began to be pessimistic about the future of art” he traces out the connection between this attitude and the victory of the bourgeoisie in life and the bourgeois cultural hegemony.

Only the literature of a new class building a new society is capable of resolving the contradictions many of which Goethe vaguely understood.

Proletarian literature is the literature of a class which is able to know reality as it really is, it is the literature of the only class “whose theory and practice lead to the acquisition of objective truth”.

The views which Goethe held on natural philosophy are considered in the article by I. Luppol.

M. Rozanov writing in the “Literary Gazette” deals with Goethe’s literary fate in revolutionary Russia. He has also written a long article on the same subject for the “Moskauer Rundschau”, a German newspaper published in Moscow.

Besides Karamzin, the well known Russian historian and writer who thought very highly of “Werther” and who in his turn attracted the attention of Goethe, a number of other Russian writers including Zhukovsky had both literary and personal connections with Goethe. Zhukovsky himself said that “Goethe and Schiller had made him”. Pushkin wrote of Goethe as of “our German patriarch” thus expressing his personal opinion and that of a group of poets which surrounded him. Amongst these should be mentioned Baratynsky, the author of the beautiful poem “On the Death of Goethe”, and also Pushkin’s school friend, the Decembrist Küchelbecker.

Then there come Tuchev whose lyrics show some similarity to Goethe, A. K. Tolstoy who as a boy visited Goethe in his home, and finally the Russian symbolist poets, Viacheslav Ivanov and Valery Brussov, the latter of whom have enriched us with admirable translations of his works,—
all these men served as links between pre-revolutionary Russian literature and the poet of Weimar.

We must not omit to mention the article published in the "Literary Gazette" by our friend Romain Rolland.

"The truth", he writes, "is always in what will be and never in what has been left behind. That is why somehow or other Goethe's will was always directed towards the rising sun. The Weimar Goethe can wait for it where its approach has been heralded, but the Goethe of Faust goes to meet it, to wrest it from the night. Are not the immortal words of the dying Faust Goethe's own words:

That man alone his life deserves and
Who daily strives to win them new.

"And these words are our banner" Romain Rolland concludes.

THE CELEBRATION OF GOETHE ANNIVERSARY IN THE USSR

The Soviet social, literary and scientific organisations responded to the hundredth anniversary of the death of the great German poet and thinker by arranging a series of evenings, impressive meetings, exhibitions etc. We shall give here a brief review of the most important social functions devoted to the memory of Goethe which took place in the Soviet Union.

Evenings, concerts, reports

The Academy of Sciences of the USSR, jointly with the Leningrad Regional Council of Trade Unions and the local scientific and literary organisations, held a meeting in Leningrad. The meeting was opened by the Academician Karpinsky, president of the Academy of Sciences. The Academician Komarov, vice-president, in his report on "The metamorphosis of plants in the works of Goethe", described Goethe as a learned naturalist. The Academician Lunacharsky read a paper on Goethe and his epoch. The Academician Bukharin analysed profoundly the social and philosophic ideas of Goethe. After the meeting a concert took place, consisting of musical compositions which have a bearing on Goethe's works.

Academician Bukharin's paper was published by the State Publishing House as a separate pamphlet.

* A great and impressive evening devoted to the memory of Goethe was organised by the People's Commissariat for Education of the RSFSR, the Communist Academy and the State Publishing House.

In his introductory speech, A. Bubnov, the People's Commissary for Education of the RSFSR, dwelt on the tasks of the revolutionary Marxian theory in regard to the cultural heritage of Goethe.

He said: "We cannot forget that both in the sphere of art and in the sphere of philosophy, Goethe bequeathed to the world ideas which are linked up with great ideas now being carried into effect by the revolutionary proletariat."

A. Lunacharsky delivered a long report on "Goethe, his epoch and society". Professors P. Kogan and I. Luppov have also read papers dealing with the various aspects of Goethe's work. The literary critic L. Averbach spoke on the attitude of the bourgeoisie towards Goethe.

The evening was concluded with a grand concert.

* The All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries also marked the 100th anniversary of Goethe's death by organising a great evening-concert at the great hall of the House of Unions in Moscow. In his opening speech Professors F. Petrov, president of the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries, laid stress on the fact that evenings like this one not only expressed the feelings of the Soviet publ in regard to the great artist and scholar but also served the cause of cultural rapprochement between the USSR and other countries. The nations of the Soviet Union which are building up their own culture cannot dispense with the study and assimilation of the best specimens of the gre
cultural heritage of world literature in which Goethe's work holds a place of honour.

Academician M. Rozanov delivered a lecture on "Goethe and world literature". Professor E. Braudo made a speech in German on Goethe as reflected in musical art. The speeches were followed by a grand concert in which the best artists of Moscow took part. V. Kachalov, the People's Artist of the Republic, read with great vigour Egmont's monologue. At this evening there were present the representatives of the Diplomatic Corps, foreign correspondents, as well as representatives of Soviet social, literary and scientific organisations.

* *

A peculiar interest is attached to the evening organised by the Section of Translators at the Federation of Associations of Soviet Authors. At this evening after a report of professor F. Schiller, on Goethe's work, new Russian versions of Goethe's poems were read by the authors themselves — the best of the Soviet translators.

* *

The Leningrad Section of the Federation of Associations of Soviet Authors, and the Leningrad Press House also marked the anniversary by a large meeting. The well-known Soviet authoress, Marietta Shaghinian, read an interesting paper on Goethe's work.

The latter half of the evening was devoted to new translations of Goethe's poems read by translators and artists of the Leningrad theatres.

* *

In the Ukraine, the hundredth anniversary of Goethe's death was marked by a solemn meeting of the All-Ukrainian Academy of Sciences, jointly with representatives of various organisations. Moreover in Kharkov and Kiev special evenings-concerts were organised for Consulates and foreign colonies.

In the Kharkov House of scientists an evening was organised specially for scholars.

* *

The wealth and variety of musical works connected with Goethe's work made it possible to draw up programmes of jubilee concerts, consisting entirely of works whose text or ideas were taken from Goethe. Of the many concerts organised in this manner, we must note the symphonic concerts organised by the Moscow Philharmonic orchestra under the direction of the German conductor, Hans Wilhelm Steinberg. The most important musical items in these concerts were Wagner's overture "Faust" and Beethoven's music for the tragedy "Egmont".

In Leningrad a grand concert was arranged in the State Theatre of Opera and Ballet. Considerable vocal talent possessed by the singers of that theatre enabled it to give a full and creditable exposition of the best specimens of Goethe's works as reflected in music. Apart from the symphonic works quoted above, the programme of the concert included a number of arias from various operas written on the subjects of Goethe's works ("Werther", "Mignon" and "The Death of Faust" by Berlioz).

The Society of Chamber Music in Leningrad devoted to the memory of Goethe a special meeting and a concert which mainly consisted of songs. In selecting the material for the programme, it was intended not only to shed light on the various periods and stages of Goethe's creative work, but also on the various forms in which this work was reflected by various composers in various epochs. A valuable contribution made by the Society of Chamber Music on the occasion of the 100th Anniversary of the death of the poet was the special adaptation for a string quartet of Beethoven's music for the tragedy "Egmont".

Exhibitions

The State Public Library in Leningrad organised a great exhibition devoted to Goethe's work. The exhibition contained a large number of Russian and foreign monographs on Goethe, in particular on "Faust".

As regards the Russian material special interest was attached to the various translations of "Faust", of which there were more than thirty including the translations of the greatest poets such as Pet and Brussov, and also those that long since have been forgotten and are hardly known even to specialists. On a special stand under the general title "Goethe in the USSR" there was a collection
of the numerous translations of Goethe and books and articles about him, which appeared after the October Revolution. A special stand contained several valuable autographs of Goethe. Among them an inscription of the poet on the book presented by him to the Decembrist Küchelbecker.

In the Book Museum at the Lenin Public Library in Moscow there was opened an exhibition of numerous editions of Goethe’s works in all the languages of the world. The exhibition occupied a long enfilade of rooms and the walls were hung with portraits of the Russian translators of the German poet. The portraits of Derzhavin, Gribojedov, Lermontov, Fet, Tutchev, Maykov, Alexey Tolstoy, A. Grigoryev and of the representatives of new poetry V. Brussov, Pasternak and many others served to illustrate the influence which “the greatest of Germans” has exercised on Russian literature. The attention which is paid to Goethe in the land of socialist construction is exemplified by the collection of Goethe’s work in thirteen volumes which are now being published here and of which two volumes already appeared by the date of the anniversary.

The exhibition was opened by V. N. Nevyansky, director of the Library, in the presence of the German Ambassador to the USSR, Mr. von Dirksen, and the president of VOKS, Prof. F. Petrov.

The State Theatrical Library under the auspices of the Little Theatre organised an exhibition dealing with “Goethe and the Theatre”. The exhibits illustrated Goethe’s activity in the theatrical field. Apart from literary material on that question, the exhibition contained a large number of photographs and reviews referring to the staging of Goethe’s works in opera and dramatic theatres, in Germany, France and Russia, from 1892 to 1928. This exhibition also contained a series of illustrations by the artist Wilhelm Kaulbach on “The Heroines of Goethe”.

New Editions

In commemoration of the hundredth anniversary, the State Publishing House is publishing a Jubilee Edition of a complete collection of the works of Goethe in thirteen volumes 1.

This new Soviet edition in point of completeness is far ahead of all the former editions of Goethe in the Russian language. Most of the works it contains are given in new translations; many are translated into Russian for the first time. Twenty-seven translators are working on this edition. It will contain over fifty portraits, drawings and fac-simile, of which latter many re-

1 See article “New Soviet Editions of Goethe” contained in present issue.

Goethe evening organised by VOKS

In the centre: Mr. v. Dirksen, the German ambassador to the USSR, Mrs. v. Dirksen, Prof. F. Petrov, president of the USSR Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries, Florinsky, Chef du Protocol of the People’s Commissariat for Foreign Affairs
produce Goethe’s autographs heretofore unpublished. The State Publishing House for Literature has published for the jubilee days a special edition, the first part of “Faust” translated by Valery Brussov.

The publishing house “Academia” published a volume of lyric poems of Goethe and an édition de luxe of the “Roman Elegies”, translated by S.J. Sherovsky.

Press Notices

During the jubilee days all the central Soviet newspapers devoted considerable space to material referring to the anniversary of Goethe’s death. Moreover, a number of big periodicals are preparing special numbers devoted to Goethe. Particular interest is to be attached to the special issue of the journal “Literary Heritage”, the organ of the Institute of Literature and Language of the Communist Academy, which issue is now being prepared for the press. It will contain a number of articles of prominent scholars and critics—M. Rozanov, A. Lunacharsky, L. Averbach, F. Schiller and others.

A special review in this issue deals with “Russian critique about Goethe”. This review will examine all ideas expounded by Russian critics about Goethe from the end of the XVIIIth century down to the present day.

The great work “Goethe and the Russians” has mainly been based on material that has never been published and has almost entirely been forgotten. This work deals with interviews which Goethe had with contemporary Russian authors, scholars, artists, and their correspondence.

Most interesting research work has been embodied in the article “Goethe as reflected in the art inherited by the USSR”; it publishes the original portraits of Goethe which are to be found in the USSR—portraits made by Yagemann, Kiprensky, Maltsev and others.

The issue will contain over a hundred illustrations, among which the most important, along with the genuine Goethe iconography situated in the USSR, are the reproductions of all the autographs we possess in this country. The total number of these autographs is over thirty, of which ten were heretofore unknown.

The hitherto unknown material on Goethe being published by the almanac “Links” issued by the “Academia”.

A special number of this edition devoted to Goethe contains, among other material, an unpublished manuscript of the great Russian revolutionary and critic Chernyshevsky dealing with Goethe.

The “Literary Gazette” has also devoted a special issue to the jubilee. This issue contains a number of long critical articles on the literary heritage of Goethe.
Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries

"SEE MOSCOW AND LIVE"

Colonel Mansell Moullin, former senior surgeon of the London Hospital, has visited the USSR together with his wife, Mrs. Mansell Moullin, who is the Chairman of the London Society for Cultural Relations with the USSR. Colonel Mansell Moullin and his wife visited a number of Soviet cultural and educational institutions and below we publish their letters addressed to the president of VOKS.

Before leaving this wonderful city I want to place on record the deep gratitude that Colonel Mansell-Moullin and I feel to all comrades who have made our visit so delightful.

I can only exclaim with the historic queen of Sheba: "the half was not told me", for it is indeed a city of miracles.

We extended our visit here to twelve days as we felt nine far to short, but each day we feel less able to express our admiration of the great work that is being accomplished for socialist construction.

We see on all sides that the splendid ideal of the elimination of ignorance, of disease, of selfishness and all crime, is actually coming to pass, and the hideous psychology of capitalist countries, of everyone for himself and the devil take the hindmost, has in deed and truth been swept away.

This country has always been renowned for art, culture, literature, music and dancing — now in addition to the economic industrialism which is going on with such feverish haste, all these things are developing in a fuller degree in the new Russia, for they are open to all, and encouraged where any talent is shown — even prisons having studios.

We spent two hours in a prison mixing freely with the criminals, in the only country in the world where they are being treated as human beings, and where crime is looked upon as a disease of the body politic that can be cured.

We were told that for the past five years not one had ever been re-arrested, but all had become good citizens.

The freedom they are allowed and the trust in their word of honour works the miracle with murderers and burglars.

To me it is a fairy tale come true that capital punishment, solitary confinement and flogging have been abolished and that a criminal on his or her release is found a home and work, for which they have been trained, and that their comrades accept them on a status of equality.

The story I treasure most to take home is that on April 30th we wished to visit a prison and phoned to know if it would be convenient — the reply came: "the men are so busy decorating their club for May Day that they have no time to receive visitors".

As one who was a keen suffragette and founder of the only Welsh suffrage society (as Wales is the land of my fathers) it is a real joy to be in a country where women are on an absolute equality in everything with men. I shall return home far better equipped for the work I have tried to do for so many years in the course of socialism, internationalism and peace, as I have seen a vision of the new world and feel certain that what is fast coming into being here must affect humanity as a whole.

Let those who wish to remain in the past continue to quote the old slogan: "See Naples and die". I shall always say and feel: "See Moscow and live".

Edith Ruth Mansell-Moullin.

* * *

Now that our delightful visit is coming to an end, I feel that I must write and thank you for all that you have done to make it such a success and for the immense amount of trouble you have taken. I only wish that I could do so adequately.

I have been answered frankly and openly by everyone whom I have questioned, and I have seen, at my leisure, everything I wished to see, thereby belying the statement unfortunately current at home, that "you will only see what is convenient to show you". Everywhere we have received the greatest courtesy and kindness and nothing has been concealed from us. I only wish that the editors of those newspapers that spread abroad those lying reports (and opinion in England is guided entirely by its newspapers) could be induced to come over here and see for themselves what is being done.
The things that have struck me most are the absence of unemployment, the well-fed condition of the people, and the determination (not merely the willingness, but the determination) of everyone to work, and to do the work as well as it can be done. Of course there is an enormous amount to be done still. Rome was not built in a day. But the foundations have been laid. The superstructure is advancing by leaps and bounds; and with the determination to work and the extraordinary directive power behind it, there can be no doubt as to the result.

But what I am chiefly writing for is to thank VOKS on behalf of Mrs. Mansell-Moullin and myself for the way in which it has planned and carried out our tour with such success. We shall always look back upon our visit here with feelings of the deepest gratitude.

C. Mansell-Moullin.

BRITISH EDUCATIONALISTS IN THE USSR

A group of English educationalists recently visited the Soviet Union. It consisted of 22 university lecturers and secondary school teachers.

The trip was organised by the London Society for Cultural Relations with the USSR and was the first of its kind.

An evening was arranged in the VOKS headquarters to introduce the English educationalists to the Soviet educationalists.

The speech of welcome was delivered by Professor F. Petrov, president of the VOKS, who laid special stress on the importance of that trip since it is calculated to strengthen the cultural relations between the USSR and England.

A well known Soviet educationalist Professor A. Pinkevitch made a speech in which he described his impressions of his latest trip abroad, and the enormous interest which is shown by the public abroad in the achievements of the USSR in the domain of cultural construction.

In her reply speech the president of the group Miss Wooton frankly related of the preconceived notions of the English educationalists before they came to the USSR.

That which they observed in the Union forced them to change their views altogether. She said: "We have got rid of our ignorance in regard to Soviet culture owing to the enormous achievements which we have witnessed in the USSR." The visitors said that they were particularly struck by the enthusiasm of the builders of new culture in the Soviet Union and by the courtesy with which all their questions were answered, although some of these questions, they admitted, appeared rather naive to Soviet citizens.

Miss Wooton wound up her speech by an assurance that on their return to England the members of the group will give truthful and exhaustive information on the actual state of things in the Soviet Union.

A LETTER OF VICTOR MARGUERITTE TO VOKS

Wishing to be kept regularly informed of the scope of the cultural and industrial movement in the USSR we have sent you — my wife and myself — a sum to cover our subscription for the "Soviet Culture Review" and for the "VOKS".

Like all those who are eager for progress and who are stifled by the decomposition of the old world, it is with a feeling of growing affection that we turn towards the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

We are wholeheartedly in sympathy with the robust youth of the Soviets. We are watching it fight its heroic battle for the collective emancipation, which is indis- solubly bound up with individual emancipation.

This irresistible enthusiasm, which carries it towards the grandest future, this immense hope of a people where all, men and women, are absolutely equal, this light that emanates from the zeal displayed in their work and the selflessness of their sacrifices, how could we fail to see along with the birth of a new world, the upsurge, the urge of humanity towards its emancipation.

I welcome the first rays of the sun of future, the new order of justice and solidarity which has already taken shape.

Victor Margueritte.
THE BIG SOVIET ENCYCLOPEDIA

By Prof. O. Schmidt
Editor-in-chief of the Big Soviet Encyclopedia

The publication of encyclopedias has repeatedly marked the most important turning points in the history of mankind. The French bourgeoisie, which in the XVIIIth century was preparing itself for an uprising and a struggle for power, issued its most complete manifesto in the form of the famous "Encyclopedia" of Diderot, d'Alembert and others. Diderot's "Encyclopedia" not only covered the science and arts of his period. It was to a far greater extent a militant organ proclaiming and substantiating a new world conception.

The enormous cultural rise unparalleled in history which came as a consequence of the socialist revolution in Russia, produced a passionate thirst for knowledge on the part of millions of people, who have risen from slavery and who are now building up their own, new system of State.

It is common knowledge that the cultural progress of the USSR has assumed unheard of proportions. From a complete elimination of illiteracy — the fetters that remained on the feet of a free people as a heritage of tsarism — to a tenfold increase in the number of university students. The victorious proletariat, the toilers in towns and villages claimed knowledge. The mastering of science and technique became one of the most essential conditions for the success of socialist construction.

However, this knowledge cannot be simply and without any criticism borrowed from the sources connected with the old culture.

This is combined in the USSR with the grasping of the Marxian-Leninist theory, the highest scientific theory, embracing all the laws of nature and of human society.

One of the many features of the cultural revolution in the USSR has been the stormy growth of numerous encyclopedias. Foreigners justly regard this feature as one of the most characteristic phenomena in the cultural life of the USSR. The encyclopedias proved to be the most convenient form of solving the task set to us: to master the experience of Europe and of America and to refashion it so as to give it a uniform direction of a scientific synthesis.

The preparation of the Big Soviet Encyclopedia began in 1924 and its publication — in 1926. The success attending this publication and the manifold interests of the readers led soon afterwards to a differentiation of publications: at the present time there are already appearing several encyclopedias, both of a general and special character. In order to give an idea of their importance it is sufficient to quote a few figures: in what country would it be possible to publish a serious Technical Encyclopedia consisting of 30 volumes with a circulation of 30—40 thousand copies? The Small Soviet Encyclopedia...
consisting of ten volumes was published in 120,000 copies which are all sold out. A second edition is now being prepared consisting of several hundred thousand copies.

The Big Soviet Encyclopedia was the parent of all the other encyclopedias (apart from those mentioned above), there are appearing a Medical Encyclopedia in 25 volumes, a Literary Encyclopedia and an Agricultural one. It embraces all sciences and tries not only to give a reference, but also an authoritative article, combining theoretical conclusions with the methodology of their application.

When the publication was first started there were not a few sceptics, who prophesied failure. Indeed, the tsarist period left us few scientists and scholars, and in 1924 the economics of the country were as yet going through a period of restoration.

However, the results justified the optimists. An editorial staff was set up, which comprised several scholars of high standing, such as the historian M. N. Pokrovsky, the physicist A. F. Yoffe and many others. One of the initiators of the Encyclopedia, professor O. Schmidt, was appointed Editor-in-chief. His substitute is professor F. N. Petrov, president of the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries.

The editors invited over 1,000 authors to participate in the work. Moreover there appeared also articles by foreign authors. Careful editing and the outward appearance of the publication were unanimously praised by numerous foreign reviewers. Foreigners value the Big Soviet Encyclopedia especially for its detailed and reliable information about the USSR, its economics, politics, culture.

The Encyclopedia must supply a solid information thoroughly based on theory. This causes its rather considerable dimensions, although minor, obsolete details have been carefully banned. Without binding itself at the outset to any definite number of volumes, the editors determined the required dimensions by practical experience. It turned out to be 65 volumes. This figure was clinched by the publication of the last 65th volume, which was issued before the time appointed for it.

For purposes of speeding up, the Encyclopedia will be published "from both ends" simultaneously. It is proposed to publish the whole of it by 1937, by the end of the second Five-Year Plan.

The 23 volumes which have already been published (1—21, 23, 65) have already become a most important factor in the culture of the USSR. They have been issued in 60,000 copies and over 120,000 subscribers have been enlisted including those abroad.

The second edition of the first volumes has already become necessary. This we are now starting. Thousands of letters from our subscribers approve of the Encyclopedia and offer suggestions for its further improvement. Every new volume shows signs of such improvement. The number of new young authors taking part in this venture is ever on the increase, the theories are being worked out ever more thoroughly and consistently. The features of the first Soviet Encyclopedia that has ever been published in the world are coming out with ever greater clearness and definitiveness.

THE SMALL SOVIET ENCYCLOPEDIA

By N. Meshcheriakov, Editor-in-chief of the Small Soviet Encyclopedia

The demand in the USSR for special encyclopedias is a remarkable phenomenon, even if we take into consideration the conditions in the Soviet Union, where an enormous interest is taken in books in general — thus, publications with a circulation of 10,000 copies are being completely sold out in the course of 2 or 3 weeks.

Suffice it to mention that even before the first volume of an encyclopedia is published, the number of subscribers reaches some scores of thousands. And this in spite of there being no advertising campaign.

In particular, the number of subscribers to the Small Soviet Encyclopedia during the two and a half years of its publication reached 201,200.

What is the cause of this exceptional success?
The toilers of the USSR, the active builders of new life, are in need of knowledge in all its branches. It is with great eagerness they read the various encyclopedias.

The editors of the Small Soviet Encyclopaedia have received some 5,000 letters from subscribers. Very many of them, almost the majority, are writing that they read absolutely everything contained in the Encyclopaedia.

The Small Soviet Encyclopaedia represents an altogether new type of encyclopaedia, unlike the former ones. Our Encyclopaedia is adapted to the requirements and the intelligence of workers and those toilers who are proletarians or peasants by descent (a great number of office employees, proletarian students, etc.), whereas the subscribers to the old encyclopedias were either the bourgeois or the highly paid strata of the intelligentsia.

Here are the main features which distinguish the Small Soviet Encyclopaedia from the old encyclopedias.

1. In the first place it is an encyclopaedia which tries to shed light on all subjects, which are dealt with, from the point of view of Marxism-Leninism, from the point of view of the revolutionary proletariat. It declares a ruthless war on the old ideology.

2. The Encyclopaedia turns its principal attention to contemporary questions. It strives to dwell mainly on those events which have a bearing on the current life of the Soviet Union and of the entire world. A great deal of the material which filled the old encyclopedias and had no bearing on contemporary life is being eliminated. Thus, f. i., the Encyclopaedia does not contain articles on the old kings, generals, aristocratic families, on old authors and artists of little importance, etc. Instead of this, articles are inserted on the most prominent public men of the past, on great scholars, revolutionaries, present-day politicians, present-day institutions and organisations, etc. The Small Soviet Encyclopaedia strives to become a weapon of socialist construction in general, and of the realisation of the Five-Year Plan in particular. Such are the principal aims of the editors of the Small Soviet Encyclopaedia. It is impossible to create an encyclopaedia which would be serviceable for all times. Therefore our editors wish to make it an encyclopaedia which in the most appropriate manner would help to understand the problems of contemporary life.

3. The articles cleverly combine the elements of a reference book with descriptions of various subjects from the angle of Marxism-Leninism.

4. Popular exposition, but not at the expense of scientific accuracy. This is by no means an easy task, but if we are to judge by the opinions of the readers, it has fully been achieved. Now in the USSR the Small Soviet Encyclopaedia is used both by highly trained workers, such as professors, writers etc., and also by mass readers, the latter forming about half of the total number of subscribers.

5. The enlisting of new contributors. The Small Soviet Encyclopaedia tries to enlist young authors; the editorial staff is also mainly drawn from among the youth.

6. A close connection between the work of the Small Soviet Encyclopaedia and the work of various scientific research institutes. Questions which are of special importance in point of principles are previously worked out by the collectives of scientific workers of the corresponding institutes.

7. A close contact with the worker readers. The editors of the Small Soviet Encyclopaedia tried to establish this connection from the very beginning of this publication. When about two hundred specimen articles were written on most divers subjects (natural science, politics, techniques, law, literature, medicine, etc.), the editors printed these articles in the form of a special pamphlet. Thereupon with the assistance of the trade-union organisations...
of Moscow 300 workers of all kinds of trades were brought together. There were men and women, young and old, communists and non-party members. A short report on the Encyclopedia was delivered to them and then this pamphlet was distributed to all of them with the request to read it through carefully and let us know their opinion about it. The workers treated this task with all seriousness, and in a fortnight's time brought to a new meeting whole copy-books filled with reviews. Some of them after having read through the pamphlet gave it to their wives and children and put down their opinions as well. Some of them made speeches at the meeting expressing their views on the pamphlet, and these speeches were recorded by stenographers. The editorial staff was present at the meeting and listened attentively to this critique. The material thus obtained proved to be exceedingly valuable. It was carefully studied by the editorial staff.

Moreover, the editors of the Small Soviet Encyclopedia, after the first few volumes were published, organised meetings of subscribers. These were attended by workers, teachers, librarians, students, Red Army men; occasionally also by professors and writers. At these meetings were discussed the latest volumes of the Small Soviet Encyclopedia. The debates were also stenographed and then carefully considered by the editors in their current work.

Finally, the editors sent out a questionnaire to all the subscribers and some 5,000 persons filled it.

At the present time the first edition of the Small Soviet Encyclopedia has been completed. It contains ten volumes totalling 4,976 pages. These ten books contain 29,332 articles, totalling 24,144,800 letters. Thus the average size of an article is 823 letters.

The principal sections of the Encyclopedia are: 1) Natural and exact sciences, 2) Economics, 3) Geography, 4) Literature and art of the nations of the USSR, 5) Literature and art of Western and Eastern countries, 6) General history (previous to the founding of the First International), 7) The history of the nations of the USSR during the same period, 8) Modern history and present-day politics of the USSR, 9) Modern history and the present-day politics in the West and East, 10) Law, 11) Education, 12) Ethnography, 13) Military art, 14) Medicine, 15) Technics, etc.

In each section there are one or two learned collaborators who do the entire work under the guidance of a well known specialist. After terminating their work and having obtained the approval of the editor of their respective section, they turn it over to a special department, which collects all the articles (3,000—4,000 in a volume); hence the article proceeds to the “Control Department”, which checks figures and facts. The article thus amended goes then up to the Editor-in-chief, who introduces in it necessary amendments and gives his sanction to its publication. Everyone who worked on the article puts his signature to it and is responsible for his part of the work.

The first volume of the Small Soviet Encyclopedia appeared in the autumn of 1928. At the present time it has been decided to start a second edition. The size of the publication will be increased approximately by 25%. The editors are particularly anxious to strengthen their permanent contact with the readers by setting up at the editorial offices a special organ, charged with this task. It is proposed periodically to send the contributors of the Encyclopedia all over the country in order to organise meetings of subscribers so as to find out the opinion entertained by the readers about the Encyclopedia, and subsequently to take into account their advice and wishes.

The editors hope that the second edition will have 400—500 thousand subscribers.
Published by the Chess Section of VOKS (editor — M. Barulin)

PROBLEM No. 5

Bogoslovsky

(First prize at the competition of problemists, of the Central Black-Earth Region)

Mat in two moves.

White: Kd1; Qb7; Rab, c8; Ba4; Sc4, g6; p. d7, f5, h5, h7 (11).

Black: Kf7; Qd8; Re6; Bb6, c8; p. a7, e5, f6, g7 (9).

NEW BOOKS ON CHESS COMPOSITION

Recently two new books on chess have been published in the Soviet Union, one "How to Make up Chess Problems" by L. Issaev and the other by A. Gulayev "How to Solve Chess Problems". Both writers are well known problem-makers and so their work has attracted great interest among chess players.

The complete absence of any literature on the subject greatly added to the difficulty of the task. Nevertheless the authors tackled this problem quite satisfactorily. L. Issaev’s book while being popularly written is nevertheless free from over simplification. Both his terminology and his formulations are very clear. The author not only acquaints the reader with the methods and technique of chess composition, but also gives the most varied practical directions for making up new problems. He raises a number of questions of principle, chiefly concerning the relation between chess problems and actual games.

Gulayev’s book "How to Solve Chess Problems" is no less interesting. As has been said, this subject presented very great difficulties and it has not hitherto been satisfactorily treated in books. There is, of course, no universal method of quickly solving any problem, nor can there be any such method. However, in every problem one can show what are the most promising points of attack. The book is chiefly concerned with a classification and description of such points of attack and the different procedures to be followed in working out the problem. The author in estimating the value of the problem which has been solved first considers its artistic and intellectual merits. Gulayev, like the above-mentioned author, makes a number of contentions very characteristic of Soviet problemists. "For a long time the idea was current", he writes, "that the purpose of chess problems was to give you something to rack your brains over, so that they were generally more like a rebus or puzzle than anything else. However, now the first requisite of a chess problem is not that it should be difficult." The author tries rather to include in his problem any combinations and ideas which occur to him as interesting.

Difficulty in a problem is not made an end in itself but is regarded merely as the outward form or elaboration of the scheme of combinations. If the combinations are not in themselves interesting and out of the ordinary they cannot be said to make up a problem. They are then nothing more than a possible situation in an actual game.

The book tries to help the chess player to take as little time as possible in solving the problems and at the same time to understand its combinations, and the idea underlying them, as this is more important than the actual solution. A problem without any idea is not a problem, and a person who has found the answer to a problem without understanding the idea has not really solved it.

Gulayev tries throughout his book to train the chess player in the most interesting manner to study the problem and not merely to solve it.

Both books are undoubtedly valuable additions to the literature on chess not only in the Soviet Union but also abroad.
Men and women of the USSR
* Industry and finance
* Preparations for the second Five-Year Plan
* On the reorganisation of literary and artistic bodies
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Vol. 3. Heavy and light industries and labour problems.
Vol. 4. Care of public health, social welfare, education and Soviet law.
Vol. 5. Jubilee issue devoted to the 15th Anniversary of the October Revolution.
Vol. 6. Results of the first and prospects of the second Five-Year Plan.

Moreover, each volume contains the following sections:

1. Science and technics,
2. Literature and art,
3. Economics,

on which subjects informative articles will be contributed by eminent Soviet specialists.

In 1931 a number of articles by the following authors was published in the "V. O. K. S." magazine:

POLITICS AND NATIONAL ECONOMY
J. Stalin, A. Enukidze, A. Tadjiev, G. Lomov, N. Miliutin, K. Radek, etc.

ART AND SCIENCE
Prof. Bashkirov, Prof. Kotliarevsky. Prof. Liubimov, Prof. Petrov, etc.

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Academician Keller on scientific work in the USSR

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Before me is the difficult task of telling briefly of the reconstruction which is now taking place in Soviet science and the steps that are being taken in this field in order to attain our great common goal of building a classless communist society.

The Academy of Sciences of the USSR at the present time has become an Academy of Science and Engineering. Only recently, in March, thirteen new and unusual members were elected, the type of which had never before belonged to the Academy. Who are these new members? They are building-engineers, experts in energetics, metallurgy and electrical engineering. It is the first time that science and technics, scholars and builders have gone hand in hand to the very headquarters of scientific work. These new academicians are people of a new order who have come to the heights of theory from practical everyday work. They were nurtured and brought up to be the present members of the Academy of Sciences by the tremendous work of socialist construction going on in the USSR.

This summer groups of academicians will go out to Sverdlovsk, Novosibirsk, Magnitogorsk, Kuzbass and other giants of industry with the purpose of bringing science closer to socialist production. The Academy of Sciences will emerge out of its thick high walls on Vassilyev Island at Leningrad and go out to the broad field of socialist construction organizing its scientific centres all over the country, in the Far East, Middle Asia, in the Caucasus, etc., and at the same time drawing into this work the local scientific forces.

But the Academy of Sciences is only a small, although important section of our scientific front. The 50,000 scientists we have in our ranks are now taking a big step forward. Good organisation, business accounting methods, the same approach to scientific activity as to production based upon the six directions of Stalin, methods of socialist competition and shock-brigade work, are not mere theory but they are being actually applied in all our scientific work. The Soviet scientists are now completely changing their outlook, a fact which is especially important at the moment in view of the tremendous problems of the second Five-Year Plan.

The liberation of scientific workers from the influence of bourgeois scientists is now taking place. The rich scientific inheritance of the past is now being smelted in the flames of the Marxist-Leninist methodology.

The most wonderful thing is (I have experienced it myself) that we, the grey-haired scientists, are rapidly undergoing a great change. It is a common occurrence that going over the things we have written two years ago, it seems as though another person had written them.

But much has to be done yet. It is difficult for the youth of today to understand what harmful and poisonous rubbish was crammed down our throats under the old regime. There is much that is rusty in us and of this we must free ourselves so that our thoughts may scintillate and cut like steel to be fitting instruments for the great work of socialist construction.

Millions of people have recently liquidated their illiteracy and now they desire to master science and learn engineering. I could tell you a great deal of what the scientific workers are undertaking for the fulfillment of this extremely difficult task.

Scholars of all nationalities and generations, from the young aspirant to the grey-haired professor, give all their energy and knowledge and are ready to give their very life for the creation of a new human civilisation, a civilisation of scientific socialism of Marx, Engels, Lenin, Stalin, for the formation of a classless communist society, for the creation of a new world of joyous labour and a tremendous life-transforming development of science.

We are not merely the scientists of the Soviet Union, but we are most of us real Soviet scientists. With all the powers of science and with our life itself we are ready to defend our Soviet Union, the fatherland of the world proletariat, against all attacks of capitalism. To this we challenge the scientists abroad.

The success of the second Five-Year Plan and its defence against attacks and aggression is for the Soviet scientists a matter of honour, glory, and heroic achievement.
They were four foreigners who had come on a rainy day to visit the well known grain State farm "Giant" situated in the Northern Caucasus. A Czechoslovakian journalist, a Pole, an engineer from New-York, and the fourth — an agronomist from Buenos-Aires, the country of wheat and corn.

The guests expressed great admiration for the land of the Soviets. Their smiles found response in Yakov Fedorovich Bogomolkin, the director of the "Giant". The director was surprisingly young. His grey-blue eyes flashed with life and youthful enthusiasm, his brow was pure and clear.

The conversation became more and more lively. Presently the director noticed a certain embarrassment in the guests as they put up certain questions. He smiled speaking to the interpreter:

"Tell them that I will answer all questions."

The agronomist received a brilliant and thorough explanation of how maize is grown in the Soviet Union. There was a moment in the conversation when the Buenos-Aires guest with undisguised amazement gazed upon Bogomolkin.

"Tell me something about yourself", he said. "How did you become a director?"

In the same clear, unhesitating way in which he had talked about wheat, combines, and automobiles, Bogomolkin answered:

"My biography is very brief: I first worked in a factory, then I was in the army for a time. After that I started studying. And now as you see I am a director."

This was all that Bogomolkin said about himself.

But who is he really, this manager of the world's biggest granary?

For many centuries in the ragged, poverty-stricken Russia of the tsar bread was produced at the sweat of the peasant's brow.

Before the people who had come unto the fields after the revolution lay the task of changing the face of the steppes.

The wild feather-grass of the steppes had to give place to wheat. Yakov Fedorovich Bogomolkin was one of those who went to the wild, desert steppes in order to create grain factories there. He was sent to Biisk, to the Altay steppe which was destined within a short time to ruste with wheat.

96,000 hectares of land were marked out for the future State farm. On a short winter day a site was selected for the headquarters of the State farm.

Bogomolkin ordered the selected spot to be marked with a stake. This was the beginning of the Biisk grain factory.

In the wild steppe the first buildings of the future town arose. And in the spring, when the full waters of the river Biia began to roar, 69 tractors turned up the surface of the land and for the first time into the hitherto barren soil grain was planted. Behind this simple but marvellous fact lied super-human effort. A great number of questions and problems had been probed into and solved. There had been sleepless nights, worries and victories. A town in the steppe cannot be easily built...

Labourers formerly employed on private farms, people from Siberia, that Canada and Klondike of the Soviet land, Oiors and Kirghizes, all came to the Biisk State farm.

It was necessary to weld this varied-tongued, motley avalanche of people, to unite and consolidate them, to inspire them with enthusiasm for the construction.

Bogomolkin knew each worker personally. He became very close and friendly with them. With his own work he set an example for the new attitude toward labour. Whenever the Oior had difficulties with the tractor, Bogomolkin himself would sit at the wheel and explain to the tractorist how the thing worked until the high cheek-boned face of the Oior would break out into a smile of joy to show that he understood.

1 At present Bogomolkin is the director of a large State farm in the Soviet Far East.
In the spring upon the low slopes of the Altay Mountains thousands of labourers who have been taught shock-brigade work created a grain factory.

Tractors throbbed in the Altay steppe. Buildings swiftly arose. The population took special pains in building the electric station which was to dissipate the sinister dark.

The harvest plan was exceeded. Each hectar yielded 15 centners of best quality wheat. The State farm received a tractor station as a prize.

Bogomolkin took his plans for the second year to Moscow. But they would not let him return to Biisk. On January 16, 1930, he was appointed director of the grain State farm "Giant".

This is what Bogomolkin tells us of the spring of 1930: "The appointed task before the 'Giant' to plant 80,000 hectares of land in 8 days, including the work necessary just before sowing, was a task unprecedented in the world history of agriculture."

Not for a second did Bogomolkin forget that only a proper attitude toward labour, and the enthusiasm of the workers could bring victory and set a world record in sowing.

One can get an idea of how great was the actual part taken by the workers in the life of the State farm from the eloquent fact that out of 283 suggestions for spring made by the workers 211 were accepted and put in practice.

Everybody at the "Giant" knows the director's capacity for spending sleepless nights in tireless and persistent work.

The steppe hummed. It twinkled with lights. From the top of a small hill an unforgettable picture was unfolded. In a sea of darkness large brightly gleaming lights of the tractors moved like wandering stars. This was the night shift of the grain producing department of the grain factory.

This was heroism—everyday heroism, often unnoticed, but always felt in the general enthusiasm and the upward surge of the workers.

Paul Semilyakin, former editor of the State farm news-sheet "The Giant", worked with Bogomolkin during the most intensive and difficult days.

"In Bogomolkin", says Semilyakin, "were combined the best traits of a bolshevik—an ability to rise to any difficult occasion, an unwavering confidence in ultimate victory, the uncompromising political attitude, the hardihood of a Leninist and a close affinity to the masses. I don't like high-flown words, but about Bogomolkin I can say that he is an enthusiast."

In July 1931 M. Kalinin visited the "Giant".

In his speech addressed to an audience of thousands of workers of the "Giant" the chairman of the Central Executive Committee said amongst other things:

"A few years ago J. Stalin suggested the organisation of a number of large grain farms which in five years would yield 1,6 million tons of bread for the market. Many specialists maintained that this task was impracticable, and that it was impossible to organise a number of large farms simultaneously.

Tractors in the field of the State farm "Giant"
Why were the specialists mistaken? Because they did not take into consideration the tremendous efforts, the initiative and the unflinching determination of the masses. In the course of work cadres were formed. Bogomolkin, the director of the "Giant", is a member of the proletariat and a former hired farm hand. He is one of the best organisers. A former shepherd now manages one of the largest farms in the world."

In speaking of the achievements of the "Giant" Bogomolkin invariably emphasised: "All this was only made possible by the enthusiasm of the workers and the unanimous assistance of the social organisations."

Then, as an afterthought, he added: "I had many difficulties, but I never lost heart. I found support in the unyielding will of the masses engaged in building socialism. At all times I felt as one of them and knew that in times of trying difficulties I could turn to them for help. And so long as I work with the Party and under its control, with the support of the work masses, difficulties holding no terror for me."

Thus the bolshevik Bogomolkin follows in his activity Stalin's style of work.

SHE WILL BECOME AN ENGINEER

By N. Nikol'sky

From the age of 12 Olia drudged in the village Yartsevo. In squalid stuffy peasant huts she looked after small children. Later on, she worked at a sugar refinery somewhere in Podolia.

In 1929 Olia came to the Dnieprostroy, where she found work as an unskilled labourer. For some time Olia worked in the barracks as a char-woman, but this kind of work however soon became a burden. She decided to leave the place and seek happiness elsewhere. On the eve of her departure she went to say farewell to the river Dniepr.

That was in 1929. The building of the dam had only then begun. Night came on. Thousands of lights shone upon the construction. Loaded with stones the dumpcars roared. The locomotives whistled, the sirens wept. The dam was teeming with life.

She crossed the dam. Below she saw the dark Dniepr grumbling with indignation, licking furiously the wooden struts of the dam.

She saw a carpenter fearlessly walking across a tottering plank; she saw an electrician installing wires almost right in the river. She came back to the bank and went to the factory-kitchen to have some tea. Then again she wandered aimlessly by the river. Her decision of going away began to waver.

The next day Olia went to the management's office and declared that she wished to work at the construction. Olia now became a concrete-layer. Five months she
did the work. She was one of the best, her name was in the wall newspaper and also on the “Red Board”.

At that time there were over 30,000 workers on the Dnieprostroy. A hundred of these received guilds for their shock work. Olia was among the honoured, and soon afterwards she was promoted to the post of mechanic’s assistant. In earlier day, besides her drudging, Olia knew nothing and when she first came to the Dnieprostroy she was only fit to be a char-woman, and now she was entrusted with a compressor!

All the winter of 1930 Olia worked as a mechanic’s assistant.

In 1931 during the elections to the trade-union organisations, Olia was promoted by her fellow-workers as a member of the District Committee of Builders’ Union.

You can see her there sitting at a big table, with curly hair looking so youthful. Her brown eyes are serious. She receives visitors, settles disputes, gives instructions.

Three years ago when she came to the Dnieprostroy she could only do the rough unskilled work. And so she entered the new life on one of the biggest constructions of the Soviet Union.

Now she is entrusted with a responsible trade-union work among 55,000 building workers. She is preparing herself to enter the 3rd year of the workers’ faculty in order to enter later on the Highest Technical School. In about 5—6 years Olia will become an engineer-structor.

THE STORY OF THE SHOCK WORKER AKHMETOV

By B. Yaglin

Saidulla Akhmetov, a Chechen, a worker of the boring No. 27,123, is standing before the editor of “The Voice of Towers”, a newspaper published at the oil-fields in Grozny.

In his hands he is holding a number of the illustrated German magazine “AIZ”. The magazine is opened on the page with a picture of the house inhabited by Philippov, a Moscow worker.

“Look here, says Akhmetov, now the whole world knows about the life of the shock worker Philippov and his family. But may be among those who read this magazine, there are some who think: ‘Well it goes without saying, that the Moscow worker lives in good conditions but what about those who work in mines, plants, borings scattered all over the country, they certainly live in miserable huts and starve’. So I decided to tell them about my own life. You take this letter I have written and send it to a newspaper, so that they could read it abroad and know how the workers live at the oil-fields of the Soviet Union.”

In the oil-fields of Grozny
When a small boy I was a shepherd in Urus-Martan. Poor and an orphan, I could only be a drudge in our village. I had not got even the most wretched hut. I lived where I worked, and when the work was over, my lodging for the night was also lost.

For my work I got very little money. Often I had to work only for food. It was very hard. So when I had grown up a little, I went to the oil-fields. But life did not become easier. My working day lasted from sunrise to sunset. I was paid 7 rubles a month. This was hardly enough for food. And I had neither clothes nor shoes. I was barefoot and in rags, when in a month I returned to the village. I could not remain at the oil-fields anymore. And again I began my wanderings from one rich Chechen's hut to another. Here I helped in the field, there I looked after the herd. That was called life. There was no other. And the mullah used to tell me: "Allah will reward you with eternal bliss. Be wise and do not deplore your fate."

It was not long before the Revolution. And in 1924 I came again from Urus-Martan to the town. The Chechen Labour Exchange sent me to the "New Oil-Fields".

"Are you sent here for work?" — they asked me there, — "Very well. Here is a note, go and get yourself boots and an overall, and here is the number of your bed in the barracks."

So I started to work, as an unskilled worker. This was the only kind of work I was able to do. I worked, I tried to learn, I questioned, I got explanations. I began to understand the production better and better.

Soon I was given a more responsible job, and after a year I got a regular speciality. I was sent as a student to the courses at which mechanics for boring operations were trained. I was not the only Chechen at the courses. Brothers Rasaiev, Khadjimuradov, Baidayev, Khezriev and others attended them together with me.

We had a course on Latin alphabet, courses on physics, mathematics, drawing, boring operations. The studies lasted three months and after the final examinations I received the diploma of a mechanic of boring operations, which is one of the leading professions in the oil-fields.

Then I started my independent work. I remember when I first took my place at the motor. The day was blue as a turquoise shining on the handle of a dagger, and the newly squared wood of the tower smelt of the sun. The brigadier showed me my place and I pressed the handle. The motor began to drone like wind in the mountains. The hand of the manometer winked at me and began to go up.
The clay solution splashed and the chisel went screwing into the ground. The tower was trembling, its floor was shaking under my feet, but I felt a great joy, and it seemed to me that the wood of the tower was singing.

Going home that evening, I felt very proud.

Later, when days, weeks, months had passed, I grew quite familiar with my work, but this feeling of pride remained. Together with other workers, I declared myself a shock worker. Our boring completed its plan ahead of scheduled time.

Together with my wife Zelimat and two little sons, I live in a new white two storey house at the "New Oil-Fields". We occupy an apartment of two large light rooms with a kitchen, we have gas and electricity.

When I first came to work here, I did not earn much—50—60 rubles. Now I get more than 200 rubles a month and free lodgings. The greater part of my money is spent on food and clothes, the rest goes for cultural needs.

On evenings, after work I read the newspaper "Serlo" (which means "Star" in Chechen) and then we usually go to the Palace of Culture, to see a moving picture or a performance. We have a very good club.

My children are yet very young (one is 5 year old and the other only 1 year old). But the eldest will soon go to school. I would like them to be engineers and they will be engineers.

Have I not a right to be proud of my life and of my work?

I did not have even a miserable hut, now I live in a two storey stone house.

I knew only how to look after a herd of sheep. Now I control most complicated mechanisms. I can start a motor and I can stop it.

I feel every movement of an American boring machine which is entrusted to me.

And I am proud of that, as in old time I would have been proud of a beautiful horse or of a richly embroidered Circassian coat.

ONE OF OURS

By V. Stavsky

Cossack whips and factory whistles—the most vivid impressions of his childhood. Whistles floating through the peaceful streets in the outskirts of the town—fading out into the limitless Don plains...

Swiftly passed the brief, joyous days of 1905. The heavy pressure of the autocratic government became still heavier. The Cossack whip threatened. Smiles of joy vanished from the tired, gloomy face of Taras Rogatin, locksmith at the Novocherkassk depot.

Hopes for the future of his sons and their education were frustrated and it became necessary to seek for them employment anywhere in order to make a living.

This was the background of Nicholas Rogatin's life, the youngest son of the locksmith Taras. Nicholas was born in 1903.

He started his working career at 13, as an iron worker's assistant. His adolescence passed in a smoky workshop. How well he remembered the exhausting work, the war, conversations about the war and the iron discipline in the shops and on the railway.

One of his brightest joys has always been singing. Nicholas sang in his workshop, on the street, and in the evening with the boys. He sang on the locomotive where he was now employed as the engine driver's assistant.

The furnaces are alight with a blazing fire—the powerful "Compound" climbs up hill and then slowly descends—the engine is in order, an accustomed ear catches the steady rumble of the turning wheels as they crush the rails underneath...

How good it is to put one's head out of the window and test the power of one's voice against the roar of the wheels and the wind beating against one's face...

Then the revolution came bringing new songs. But they abruptly ended when the White Guards swept the Don and crushed the Soviet Government. The older brother Vladimir Rogatin joined the Red Guard. His brow wrathfully puckered, Nicholas now sang different songs.
From this epoch came the passionate notes of protest and unswerving determination ringing in the voice of the former iron worker’s assistant, who has now become singer laureate of the Rome Musical Academy.

The real life of Nicholas Rogatin, as that of millions of Rogatins, began with the establishment of the Soviet power.

At first he was a student of the Voronezh railway workers’ education courses, then became a Red Army soldier, then worked on a propaganda train in the North Caucasus.

Upon one sunny languid day when bronze-yellow corn rustled in the steppes, and somewhere on the right machine-guns barked, the future pride of Soviet vocal art, Nicholas Rogatin, was advancing with his comrades in extended order upon the enemy hidden at some distance ahead by the river, which glittered like steel under the rays of the setting sun.

The haunting memory of that day... A scar on his foot to keep that memory fresh.

In 1922 the Novocherkassk social organisations sent Nicholas Rogatin to study in the Moscow Conservatory.

In 1926 he was sent to Italy to finish his musical education, and many bright hopes accompanied him on his journey.

Nicholas Rogatin justified the hopes reposed on him when, as Nico Rogatin, he distinguished himself in the Rome Musical Academy. However, the justification was not in that distinction alone. It lay in the fact that this son of the working class, having mastered the musical lore of the old world, never for a moment ceased to be the son of his class and never for a moment hesitated as to his future actions.

In 1928 Nicholas Rogatin returned from Italy to embark upon his artistic career. Competent critics have repeatedly spoken of the softness of tone of his pleasing baritone-bass, his clearness of diction, his marvellous pianissimo effects, the original and fresh treatment of his work as well as an attractive delivery, and his lyric tone.

But Rogatin did not rest upon his laurels.

His discipline and the firmness and grit of his class prompted his decision to pursue further and more difficult study. As a result of this decision he entered the Great Academic Theater in Moscow.

The response of workers and employees of the Donbass and Transcaucasus, Grozny and the Urals, Siberia and the Far East, his native Novocherkassk and Rostov-on-Don — the response is one: “Ours, wholly ours is this singer and his genius is an active element in the socialist construction of our Union.”

THE NAME OF LENIN IS OUR BANNER

A letter of David Babayev—the member of a collective farm in Uzbekistan

I am a member of the Faizulla Khodjaiev collective farm in Uzbekistan. In 1913 I was drudging in my village. Everyone knows what the life of a drudge is. I did not earn enough to keep my wife and my two daughters from starvation; very often we had nothing to eat for a whole day. I remember how I was working 6 months for the aksakal 1 Alim Bey in the village Kaunchi, getting 3 small loaves a day.

At the time of the Soviet agrarian reform, I was given 3 hectares of land, that formerly belonged to rich landowners, a horse and 120 rubles to provide myself with the necessary equipment. And so I started to work on my land cultivating chiefly cotton. I concluded a contract with the government and I gave all my cotton to the State.

My life was utterly changed. I built a clay hut and got a few things necessary to carry on the work.

But farm work was very difficult, as we lacked hands.

We were four in my family, but only I could work. So a portion of the land remained unsown.

Therefore, in 1931 I entered a collective farm, which at that time was being organised in our village.

Even the first year showed all the advantages of collective farming. In 1931 we fulfilled the plan of cotton growing and collecting by 103%, and our crops increased

1 Boss, kulak in Uzb k language.
considerably, as compared with the time when we used to farm on an individual basis.

At the end of the year we received also a sum of money, beside bread and different food-stuffs which will last us the entire year. This year the collective farm helped me to buy a cow. We never had a cow before. All my life before the revolution I drank milk only a few times and I am 40 years old.

Almost all my life I was blind, as I was illiterate. Now each day I read our newspaper "Kzyl (Red) Uzbekistan".

And I know how the workers and collective farm members are working and achieving success all over the Land of Soviets.

I compare very often my life before joining the collective farm with my present life.

There is a great difference.

During Soviet time we gradually provided our farms with cows, goats, sheep and lambs. Now there is not a single member of a collective farm, who has not got dairy cattle. In 1928 all the members of our collective farm were illiterate. In 1932, 125 people have completely liquidated their illiteracy, and 80 people can read, though with some difficulty. All our children from 9 to 15 years go to school. They will never know the hard life their fathers knew.

In our farm we have 33 socialised (that is belonging to the collective farm) horses, 14 bulls, 6 camels, 17 sowing machines driven by horses, 14 ploughs, 27 iron harrows and a number of other implements. We are forgetting our old "omach" (a primitive agricultural implement).

We have collective money funds, reserved for cultural needs. We have our own school and 9 crèches. In the cotton growing regions of Uzbekistan, 80—90% of farms are collectivised. And there are hundreds and thousands of such collective farms as ours. Some are even better.

The name of Lenin has united us for our common work.

This name is our banner, the banner of all the labourers of the Soviet East.
PREPARATIONS FOR THE SECOND FIVE-YEAR PLAN

The Conference for the distribution of productive forces in the USSR

The questions touched in the second Five-Year Plan are drawing the attention of the whole Soviet Union. The press is full of articles by eminent scientists and economists covering these questions.

A large Conference recently took place in Moscow, which discussed problems of distribution of the productive forces in the country during the second Five-Year Plan. Prominent scientists, members of the USSR Academy of Sciences, representatives of the State Planning Committee as well as numerous delegates from all parts of the country participated in the work of the conference.

The chairman of the State Planning Committee V. Kuibyshev, speaking at the first session of the Conference, reminded his hearers of the words of Lenin, who had said that the national economy built up on a socialist basis required in the first place a rational distribution of industry taking into account the nearness of raw material and the possibility of the least waste of labour in the processes leading from the raw material to the finished product.

The most important reports were delivered by a number of academicians who spoke on various subjects: academician Gubkin reported on the geological research work, academician Fersman touched upon the question of the complex use of the mineral wealths. Prof. Rubinstein characterised different regions of the Soviet Union from the standpoint of climate.

Academician Alexandrov spoke on hydraulic power resources and the tremendous possibilities which affords the exploitation of such rivers as, for instance, Yenissey and Angara. Considerable interest was created by the speech of the People’s Commissary for Justice, N. Krylenko, who is one of the most steadfast and courageous tourists in the Soviet Union. N. Krylenko raised the question of attracting and interesting the masses and especially young people to research and investigating work.

The conference has given an abundance of material for the work on the preparation of the second Five-Year Plan.

Tkvarcheli coal-fields (Transcaucasia)
A large map of the USSR is nailed to the chair. But it would be difficult to find on maps of tsarist Russia the places which are mentioned by the speakers at the All-Union Conference for the distribution of productive forces. The old geography has become a "dead" science, a latin language of our time. Once, students used to try to memorise: "Orenburg... Two military colleges... one monastery... the seat of the Governor General of Tourgai..." In present day Orenburg there is no trace of all those monasteries and military colleges. The hopelessly old geographical truths together with the Governor General of Tourgai have disappeared into the past.

The conference listened to 67 reports. Eminent academicians took part in its work. A wealth of material has been collected for the new economic geography of the USSR. The draft of the second Five-Year Plan will be prepared on the basis of this material.

The motor of the second Five-Year Plan will require an enormous amount of electrical power.

Academician Yoffe reported on the tremendous supplies of power, available in the country.

Hydraulic power is the same solar power, which is wasted on water evaporation. If we can make rain fall on heights for instance in mountainous regions, we shall get new sources of hydraulic power. During the war, thousands of kilometres of barbed wire were used to destroy the lives of mankind. The Soviet scientist Yoffe is quite sure that this amount of wire would be sufficient for the purpose of discharging clouds over the mountains with the aid of electricity, thus regulating the mountainous streams and increasing their power.

Only the victory of socialism gives the possibility to use the barbed wire of war for the benefit of mankind. Chemical attacks on the glaciers can then be organised covering the surface of glaciers with plain soot in order to accelerate snow thawing.

We are already building a power station at Ashkhabad for the utilisation of the solar power. Ingenious hydro-accumulators of the wind stations at Balaklava.
(Crimea) allow us to combat very successfully the main defect of wind — its inconstancy. The wind power rises water here to a very considerable height. When the wind drops, the fall of water replaces the decreased power of wind.

The power which is obtained as a result of the difference between the water and the air temperatures should be included into the new sources of natural forces, which we can utilise. This difference produces an enormous amount of heat. Thus a cold river can heat an entire city. The tides in the narrow fiords of Murman can be utilised as a means for obtaining the necessary power in the nearest future. The second Five-Year Plan is the control date for our scientific laboratories, which must translate all such problems from the language of hypothesis into the language of practice.

But the Conference further recorded that we have quite sufficient supplies even of those kinds of energy, which can be easily mastered and used by science.

The country approached the first Five-Year Plan with the Donets Basin as its only resource unit.

Now we have the coal of Kuznetsk, and the coal of Cherembass and Karaganda, the cheapest coal in the world.

Investigations of the Tunguss Basin assure us that it can double the world supply of coal.

In pre-revolutionary Russia there were no hydro-power stations. Now we are building the Sulakstroy and a number of mighty power stations on the Volga.

This is the beginning of the great reconstruction of the whole Volga, which will change all the conditions of the river and its shores. The famous landscape of the Volga will likewise change. The machine will be the most important shipload of the Volga freight boats.

The Volga districts will become a region of developed machine building industry. The gigantic auto-plant at Nizhny-Novgorod is already operating. A carburator-plant is being constructed at Samara.

High-grade steel will be produced at Khalilovo-Orsk region.

The Great Volga project, worked out by professor Chaplygin, schedules the construction of 9 power centres on the Volga. According to this project 21/2 million hectares of dry land will be mechanically irrigated.

Engineer Avdeev-Anov proposes to direct the river flow into the Volga steppes. By this means 40 million hectares of drought-dried land will be naturally irrigated.

During a period of 37 years the northern part of the Caspian sea will be drained. It will give up 1/4 of its space, where oil is flowing under the deep sea bottom.

The Conference paid much attention to the problem of Angara. This river is a source of cheap electric power, which is equal to the total hydroelectric power of France and a third part of the hydroelectric power of America.

Russian capitalism had prepared a miserable role for Angara. In 1885 this river was let by the tsarist government to the shipowner Sibiriakov for his tugboats, on the condition that Sibiriakov spend 10 thousand rubles annually for the upkeep of Angara.

The Soviet Government has granted this year 5 million rubles for research and design work of the Angara-Yenissey region. A new joy and a new life have come to this wild and lonely place, this former country of tsarist prisons and hard labour.

Geologists reported to the Conference on the "coal coats" and the "iron hats", on the rich mineral "clothes" of the East-Siberian Region.

The districts of Angarostroy will be come centres for smelting the structural steel, and light high-grade metal.

Formerly metal articles were sent here from Odessa through the Suez canal.

Now, after the Conference has listened to reports on designing large power stations at Baikal, Angara, Selenga and Irkut, it should not be imagined, that building workers from Kaluga and Vladimir with their primitive tools will come into this far away country and build up the enormous Angarostroy board by board.

During the second Five-Year Plan all tools, building machines and construction equipment will be prepared here on the spot.

At the very beginning of the second Five-Year Plan the first tracks leading to the future plants will be cut through thick forests and the sites for construction will be cleaned up. The great work, which will develop completely at the beginning of the third Five-Year period, will attract to this region not less than 5—7 million people. This great influx to the wild spaces of the great Angarostroy must be gradual. Heat central stations and hydraulic central power stations, put into operation in the second Five-Year period, will give 1 million kilowatt of power and will
cause this flow of people into the Angara and Yenissey regions.

In the distant areas, where the map of Eastern Siberia has not yet been read by the eyes of a geologist, investigation groups of Angarostroy are already working. They will add to the theses of the main report on the Angara-Yenissey problem.

Entirely new principles should govern the work of Soviet geologists—investigators of the second Five-Year Plan. They have been expressed at the Conference clearly enough.

"There are no categories of useful and useless minerals. These categories are determined by our creative attitude towards nature."

Not long ago, "nephelins" were considered a useless waste of production. Now they have entered the valuable fund of our raw material resources. And moreover:

"If no such matter exists in the nature of the region we must make it."

In Khibinogorsk there has been a lack of lime and sulphurous acid. Sulphurous acid has been found near here. Now they are searching for lime; if no lime is found — it will be made. Quite recently the question of Soviet tin was discussed. From time immemorial tin was considered a "foreign" metal. Now tin has been found at 35 places in the Union. In the last few years our advanced revolutionary geologists have discovered large new regions with tremendous supplies of industrial importance. The "magnetic anomaly" at Kursk, the Kounrad copper, the newly discovered minerals of Ural—all this is a result of scientific work under the Soviet regime.

The economic, social and political importance of the socialist distribution of productive forces is especially clear, when we think of the Soviet East.

In 1839, general Perovsky, conqueror of Turkestan, wrote to the tsar: "... Holding Samarkand in our hands, we can easily leave Bukhara without bread and water and doom it to hunger and thirst. This would enable us, Your Majesty, to control the passions of the fanatic population by means of a salutary diet..."

A representative of the Kursk nobility, Markov, declared once in the "Duma" when the question of Asiatic Russia was discussed:

"Gentlemen, you should not forget that the population there consists of Kirghizes, who are the dirty offspring of Tamerlan and Chinghis-Khan. They must be treated in the same manner, as redskins are being treated in America."

1 Russian pre-revolutionary parliament.
And the gentlemen did not forget. The Governor General of Turkestan, Kaufmann, sent all over the Turkestan a personal order, short as a word of command on the parade-ground:

"I order the nomad Turkmens to be completely and finally exterminated."

On this old map, in this country where the butt of the tsarist soldier blocked up all paths to bread and water, the Soviet builders have traced a new line — Turk-sib. Siberia stretches out a hand to the republics of Central Asia. Freight trains with timber and grain for Central Asia will run from Siberia on the rails of Turk-sib.

Russian planters,— all these Kudrins and Tarsins,— managed their business so poorly, that it was more profitable to import cotton from America. The Moscow merchant could obtain American cotton much cheaper than Turkestan cotton.

"The cotton colony", "the country of dried apricots" — such were the names which should have been written on the map of the old tsarist Asia. Turkestan was selling carpets for the sum of 5 million rubles in gold annually.

Woven carpets were laid down by the carpet weavers directly on the threshold, so that passers by could trample on them and increase their value by making new carpets old.

Magntogorsk. Blast-furnace No. 2

So they trampled on all the country, which was like a rich carpet with the wealth of its colours and the luxury of its nature.

The revolution has changed the face of this old map. Textile mills, built up during the first Five-Year Plan, are operating at Fergana.

A textile combined plant is to be constructed near Tashkent. The machines of the plant will produce 70 million metres of cloth annually. It has been calculated that in the second Five-Year Plan we shall require 1 million tons of raw cotton to satisfactorily supply the population of our country with clothes.

And from this amount, 45 millions will be furnished by Central Asia.

Textiles for the local population will be fabricated on the spot, near the fields of raw material.

And the trains from the central republics will carry machines and equipment into Central Asia — trains running on the new black lines on the map, on the reconstructed tracks and new railways.

The industrial population of the transformed country will amount to 3 millions.

The reporter is speaking about new towns. The members of the conference are leaning over the transformed map of Central Asia, this working draft of the second
Five-Year Plan of the 5 Central Asia republics.

In the plan of this Five-Year period a new destiny is also reserved for another once suppressed country, the country of transportation and hard labour — the Far East and the Extreme North — now a new region for the distribution of productive forces.

80% of all our timber supplies are located in the Extreme North. The Northern region has all the known minerals from the bright gold to the dark graphite.

The Soviet North has timber, minerals, coal for steamer boilers, fur and fish. Ushakov, the head of the group which spent the winter in the North Land, has caught together with his assistant 70 good polar foxes.

A whole fleet of fishing motor boats will be built up during the second Five-Year Plan. Steel birds — aeroplanes — will track down the beast, helping the hunters.

Our North keeps one more element of value — the keys of weather. When we install the meteorological stations in our arctic regions we would be able to predict all changes in weather, which is very important for our agricultural districts. The enormous range of work in the North means for us a discovery of a new land, which is not yet explored and utilised.

Such are the first “recruits” of the industrialisation, the regions which will be fundamentally changed during the second Five-Year Plan.

But the face of the old industrial regions will also be completely changed in the course of the second Five-Year Plan.

In fact, nothing of old will remain in these old regions.

PARTICIPATION OF THE MASSES IN THE FULFILMENT OF THE FINANCIAL PLAN

By N. Liubimov

The part taken by the many millions of workers and members of the collective farms in the realisation of the financial plan is characteristic of the attitude of the new society and is a radical departure from the traditional relations that formerly existed between the tax payers and the government. In the old times the tax payers tried as much as possible to avoid paying income tax and often gave incorrect figures of their income, while the government officials on the other hand used every means possible to discover those offenders and collect the full tax. The truth of this statement is proved by the Geneva International Convention of 1929 (Convenation Internationale sur la double imposition et l’évasion fiscale).

The chief reason for the successful fulfilment of the financial plan in the USSR is due to the fact that financial work is not restricted to the narrow office walls but is carried on amongst the broad masses of workers. Workers, members of the collective farms, employees and research workers, are all taking active interest in the government resources and are helping it to fulfil its plan.

The active interest taken in the government resources by the workers, members of the collective farms, employees, and scientific workers is expressed in various ways and methods.

Below we shall give a concrete account of these ways and methods. But first we will say a few words about the huge scale of the financial programme for 1932.

The entire sum of expenditures according to the government budget for 1932 is equal to the huge sum of 27.5 milliard rubles. As compared to that of 1931 it shows an increase of 7 milliard rubles, or more than by one-third. Out of the above sum more than 20 milliard rubles is used for financing national economy. If we add to this the sums expended for social and cultural needs, the total will constitute over 4/5 of the government budget.

The three main sources of the Soviet State budget are derived from the collectivised industries, from Soviet trade and from the mobilisation of public means. From the first source the revenue received in 1932 will be equal to 10.5 milliard rubles, turnover tax and revenue from Soviet trade together give the figure of 19.2 milliard rubles and the mobilisation of public means equals 8.9 milliard rubles. In the last figure taxes make up 1/3 of the revenue and the remaining 2/3 are volun-
tary loans. The popularity and success of financial measures in the USSR are shown by the fact that the plan for mobilising public means in 1931 was carried out 105%.

2/3 of the total deposits in 1932 cover the government budget while the remaining 1/3 is for a credit system for utilising the internal resources of various enterprises.

12 milliard rubles are spent on the heavy, light, timber and food industries, 4.3 milliard rubles on agriculture, 3.7 milliard rubles on transport and 3 milliard rubles on housing and communal needs.

The total sum of expenditure on social and cultural needs, taking into consideration that sum which does not go through the government budget of the USSR, constitutes 9.4 milliard rubles. In practice this means the education of 2,000,000 people in the higher educational institutes, in workers' faculties and in the technical schools; 1,700,000 students in factory schools (combination of theoretical study and practical training) and 4,250,000 students in schools of first and second grades.

If we take into account all the types of educational institutions together with the pre-school and out-of-school classes then altogether in 1932 there are 80,000,000 persons who are being educated in the Soviet Union.

Let us now return to the question of how such a tremendous financial programme is being carried out. The success of the financial plan is based upon the huge growth of the public income and upon the interest of the broad masses in the realisation of the plan for socialist construction.

The strength of the system lies in the methods of socialist competition and shock-brigading which bring out the most active workers in the struggle for the fulfilment of the financial plan as well as help to draw into this work greater masses of people.

Thus in Leningrad social organisations from factories and various concerns, with the motto "the campaign of the millions", took part in mass measures for the realisation of the plan.

The financial campaign put on by the youth of the Middle Volga and the Ivanovo industrial region gave splendid results for the first quarter of 1932.

The trade-union of the finance and bank employees composed of 160,000 members organised a special campaign for the purpose of establishing the best accounting methods.

The activities of the scientific research institutes, of the higher educational institutions, and technical schools are closely connected with the operative work of financial firms.

Of extreme importance to the financial system is the method used in all spheres of industrial and cultural development: works and factories taking on the "patronage" over government concerns. The Electrozavod, one of the largest industrial giants of Moscow with its 23,000 workers and an output of various products, took the patronage over the central financial apparatus.

By taking patronage over a concern, we mean the part taken by workers in checking the personnel of a firm, as well as estimating the quality of work produced.

In this instance, the workers set themselves the task of helping the People's Commissariat for Finance to fulfil the government loan, to collect dues for the co-operatives etc.

In connection with the patronage system another important method has been found; it consists in that workers from various factories, without giving up their permanent job, take an active and responsible part in the organisational and operative work of large Soviet institutions.

In their turn the experts of the People's Commissariat for Finance help the factory which is its "patron" in organising its accounts according to the business accounting methods. For example, in the polishing brigade of the wolfram department of the Electrozavod, there is a business accounting contract which was drawn up by the experts of the People's Commissariat for Finance and accepted at the production conference of the workers.

From the above it follows that the various factories and works as well as the financial concerns of the USSR form one unified mass organisation which works unswervingly toward the creation of a financial base for the plan of socialist construction.

See the corresponding article in the 2nd number of our magazine for 1932.
STATE INLAND CREDIT AND SAVINGS BANKS’ BUSINESS IN THE USSR

State Inland Credit and Savings Banks’ business in the USSR are organically bound with the socialist economics of the country, with its social and political conditions which create an exclusively favourable situation for a wide development of the social activity.

The State budget of the USSR is the budget of the socialist construction. Loans issued by the Soviet government facilitate the State to build new industrial and agricultural units with an income sufficient not only for the settlement of loans but leaving a balance for creating new values which secure further development of national economy and the welfare of population.

The rate of development of economic and financial construction in the Soviet country and its dynamics explain the rapid growth of the State Inland Credit and Savings Banks’ business.

In 1931 the national income had been increased by 13.2%; in 1932 the increase should be 30%. Reaching this rate means that the national income during the period of 4 years of the Five-Year Plan is almost doubled.

The following figures can characterise the growth of money income of the population: in 1930 — 31.4 milliard rubles, in 1931 — 43.5 milliard rubles and in 1932 — 53 milliard rubles.

The total of wages’ fund in 1931 reached 21 milliard rubles against 15 milliards of the previous year. The rate of wages in 1931 on the average rose up to 18%.

The growth of money income of the rural population was: in 1930 — 13.2 mldr. rbls, in 1931 — 19.1 mldr. rbls and in 1932 — 22.4 mldr. rbls.

The great successes of the Five-Year Plan exiles a mass movement towards the increase of the voluntary funds.

According to the general programme for the mobilisation of the population’s resources obligatory payments were only: in 1930 — 48%, in 1931 — 44% and in 1932 — 36%.

The chief holders of the State securities of the USSR are the workers, office employees and the working peasantry. The other part of holders consists of cooperative craftsmen, artisans etc.

Great activity of masses in the course of fulfilment of financial plans finds its practical application in a great number of permanent public organisations in a form of “Assistance Committees for State Credit and Savings Banks’ business”.

Such committees are working directly in the factories, offices, collective farms, co-operative stores, village Soviets, etc. Millions of active workers are concentrated around these committees, helping them in the distribution of loans, drawing of investments and establishing the best system of service for the bond-holders and investors.

Campaigns for the distribution of loans, drawing of investments, better service for the holders of bonds are growing into an extensive mass movement. The widest strata of the population and a great number of diverse public bodies are taking part in this movement.

Subscriptions to loans are paid out of the income of the working population.

These payments are made out of the current income of the working masses, which is secured by the steady improvement of the economic conditions of the population, complete abolition of unem-

Evening Savings Bank in Kyzyl-Arvat (Turkmenistan)

By I. Pavlov
The drawing of the “Five-Year Plan in four years” loan in Ukraine. Decoration of the building where the drawing takes place.

ployment, increase of wages, social insurance against disablement, improvement of cultural and living conditions etc.

Purchase of bonds for ready cash can be made in any of the Savings Banks.

Workers and office employees can obtain bonds on the deferred payment system through the factory or office where they are working. Under this system the selling value of the bonds does not increase.

The management of the given factory or institution summarises all applications from workers and employees into one joined application and presents same to a corresponding Savings Bank with an instruction to satisfy each separate subscriber. Subscription to a loan for the whole collective for total amount made out of various amounts of applicants involved is called “a collective subscription”.

Workers of other categories besides those above stated make their collective subscription through various collective farming, co-operative and public organisations. Such form of subscription is the most popular.

Rural population pays the subscriptions out of income raised owing to the improvement of economic conditions, owing to the socialist reconstruction, owing to the participation of village in the industrial construction. The branching system of Savings Banks is in close contact with the population.

At the beginning of 1932 there were 58,912 Savings Banks, and a majority of these banks were established in the factories, new constructions, offices, etc.

The system of Savings Banks in the USSR is the principal credit institution established for the purpose of involving all great free resources of the population into the work of socialist construction.

All work in connection with the distribution and settlement of loans 1, also the life insurance business are carried through the Savings Banks. Besides this work, Savings Banks are called to attend to all mass financial operations of the population (cash transactions between the population and State institutions or public organisations — payments and receipts by cash).

The State Inland Credit and the State Labour Savings Banks are existing only 10 years, but the rate of their development is showing swift progress of the national economy in the USSR.

In 1931 the total amount received against the principal loan emissions was 1,635 million rubles with the increase against 1930 by 102%. The increase of personal investments was in 1931 270 million rubles with the increase against 1930 by 150%.

In 1931 the amount of money drawn by loans and investments comprised 21.9% of the total amount of all capital investments put into industry.

In the current year the State Savings Banks and State Credit sets forth a programme of loans for 25½ milliard rubles (increase against 1931 by 74%). The amount anticipated for investments — 500 million.

In 1932 the total amount of resources drawn by loans and investments will be 31.1% of the total amount of all capital investments put into the industry.

It is essential to point out that particularly favoured are loans issued for the purpose of financing the socialist reconstruction, which is to be realised according to the Five-Year Plan. The first issue of the Five-Year Plan Loan (including the 3rd Industrialisation Loan) and the issue of the 3rd Decisive Year are distributed for a total amount of 3 milliard rubles.

The loan, financing the gigantic construction of the fourth and final year, receives most warm response among the workers-investors of the USSR.

1 All bonds of Inland State Loans can be sold foreign currency transferred to the USSR and abroad, or for the currency which according to the value exchange legislation in the USSR can be transferred abroad.

Such bonds are furnished with the State Bank’s certificates securing the right of a holder to receive all the money due to him against loans in foreign currency at the gold parity rate of chervonetz.

Operations concerning the sale of bonds in foreign currency are effected by the State Bank’s branches and their correspondents abroad.
Literature and Life

THE NEW TASKS AND THE NEW SYSTEM OF LITERARY AND ARTISTIC ORGANISATIONS IN THE USSR

As a result of the tremendous successes of socialism achieved during the last years, the greater part of the old technical intelligentsia is going over to the positions of the Soviet power. We also witness a decisive turn towards the same positions on the part of the greatest scientists of this country bringing their abundant knowledge to serve the cause of socialism, a turn which became particularly manifest in the new methods of work adopted by the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, now engaged in solving the most urgent problems of socialist construction.

As far as literature is concerned, the same tendency is to be observed in the work of numerous writers supporting the platform of Soviet power. Their active participation in socialist construction finds its expression in their writings (L. Leonov, N. Tikhonov, M. Shaghinian, A. Malyshkin etc.).

For fifteen years of the existence of the USSR tens and hundreds of thousands of workers and peasants got access to science, technics, literature and art. Many new workers have joined the ranks of proletarian literature and art, many new writers and artists came from factories, mills, collective farms.

The land of socialist construction presents unheard-of facilities for a boundless growth and development of creative power of the broad toiling masses in all fields of culture.

In the light of these successes of socialism, of the growth of a new, proletarian intelligentsia, and of the strive of the old intelligentsia towards the positions of socialism the recent decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the USSR reproduced below acquires a historic importance.

ON THE REORGANISATION OF LITERARY AND ARTISTIC BODIES

(Decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the USSR)

The Central Committee states that on the base of the great achievements of socialist construction considerable advance has been made in the field of literature and art for the last few years, qualitatively as well as quantitatively.

Several years ago, when the influence of hostile elements, who became especially active during the first years under the New Economic Policy, was still considerable in literature, and the ranks of proletarian literary workers were rather weak, the Party promoted in every way the setting up of new proletarian literary and artistic organisations and the strengthening of the existing ones in order to give a firm footing to the proletarian writers and workers in art.

At present, when cadres of proletarian literature and art have grown up, when new writers and artists have come from the factories, mills and collective farms, the bounds of the existing proletarian literary and artistic organisations (such as the United Associations of Proletarian Writers of the USSR, the All-Russian Association of Proletarian Writers, the All-Russian Association of Proletarian Musicians etc.) are becoming too restrictive and hindering the creative work in its onward sweep. Thus the danger arises that these organisations from centres mobilising Soviet writers and artists around the problems of socialist construction may change into isolated circles, torn away from the political tasks of the day and from the numerous groups of writers and artists sympathising with socialist construction.

Hence the necessity of a corresponding change in the system of literary organisations and an extension of their field of activity.
Proceeding from the above the Central Committee decides:

1. To liquidate the Association of Proletarian Writers.
2. To organise all the writers supporting the platform of Soviet power and willing to take part in the work of socialist construction into a single Union of Soviet writers with a communist fraction in it.
3. To carry out a similar reorganisation in other branches of art.
4. To charge the Organisation Bureau with the elaboration of practical measures to carry this decision into life.

**TOWARD THE ART OF CLASSLESS SOCIETY**

**SOVIET WRITERS AND ARTISTS ON THE DECISION OF THE CENTRAL COMMITTEE OF THE COMMUNIST PARTY**

**A. Dorogoychenko.**

The decision of the Central Committee is an expression of the general attitude of the Party and the Soviet power towards the intelligentsia. It is the practical application of J.Stalin's thesis on the old and new intellectuals to the workers of literature and art.

The decision is a new proof of our strength in the field of art, and a convincing proof of the ever growing range of creative work in the USSR.

The development of Soviet literature and art is entering on a new, higher stage. Days are to come when socialist competition will be extended to literature and art, when books will vote, when we shall witness the creation of Magnitostroys of literature, worthy equals of the giants of socialist construction.

The decision carried on by the Communist Party of the USSR expresses the exclusive tact and the great confidence it places in the masses of writers and artists of our socialist country.

**I. Seifullina.**

The merging of all the literary organisations into one powerful union will, no doubt, promote the development of activities in its different sections. And this is to be welcomed. The sections should pay much attention both to the specific laws of our production and to each individual writer.

We do not recognise art for the sake of art, as we do not recognise art disconnected with politics. It is quite clear to us that if an author writes about a swallow he knows very well, where this swallow will fly to. And we also know that it always flies in the direction preferred by the author himself.

The decision of the Central Committee concerning the literary and artistic organisations is a trustworthy pledge of a further deepening of the channel the whole Soviet literature is flowing in.

**N. Ognev.**

Even mathematical verities undergo changes. I am not speaking of Einstein's theory here; I am speaking of the two parallel lines along which the proletarian literature and the creative work of the literary allies have hitherto developed in the Soviet Union. These parallel lines are steadily drawing together finally to fuse into one single line, that of the literature of the classless society.

**V. Lidin.**

The decision of the Party to set up a single union of Soviet authors makes each individual writer face the problem of his own creative work. For the creation of a unified literary organisation will help the creation of a great literature worthy of our epoch.

An author's sympathy for socialist construction reveals itself in his writings, in his work devoted to the cause of this construction. Further readjustment of our conscience and our creative work is what this historic decision of the Communist Party means to each of us.
E. Lubimov-Lanskoy,
Stage-manager, Honorary Artist of the Republic.

The decision of the Central Committee falls in with the general attitude of the Party towards the intelligentsia which is eager to help actively the work of socialist construction. It is an act of political confidence in this intelligentsia and it stirs the broad circles of workers in art and literature to new creative efforts.

A. Goldenveiser,
Professor of the Moscow conservatoire, Honorary Worker in Art.

The exceptional confidence that has been placed by the Party and the Soviet power in the artists makes them face serious obligations.

Composers have to make every effort in order to create music worth of our epoch and calling forth a vivid response from the broad masses of toilers.

Soviet musicians have to face and solve very responsible problems such as the education of new artistic cadres, a critical assimilation of the cultural heritage, the mastering of the technique of a true composers’ and performers’ craftsmanship.

K. Yuon,
Painter, Honorary Worker in Art.

The decision of the Central Committee with regard to literary and artistic organisations represents first and foremost a highly important act of confidence in the "fellow-travellers" in art.

The very fact of this confidence arouses the enthusiasm of all workers in art devoted to the cause of socialism and the recently carried decision opens up new horizons to their creative work.

Creating a single and general sphere of activity for all representatives of Soviet Art, the decision of the Central Committee creates also a base for the socialist competition of workers in art.

LITERATURE AND PLAN

There are writers in the West who, when touching upon the question of labour and production, invariably assume a tone of pious indignation against division of labour, or rather the consequences which result from it in human psychology. The growth of productive forces and the steady advancement in culture divide labour into infinitely small processes of production, as a result of which a worker repeating all his life anyone of the simpler operations gradually turns into an automaton. For, when a worker does not see the whole product of his labour and is neither benefited by nor concerned in the entire scheme of production, then division of labour does lead to automatism.

There is division of labour in our country, as indeed there must be, for it is an essential factor in the development of a society. But instead of the bourgeois tactics of keeping the worker isolated, and out of touch with the work of the factory as a whole, instead of making a blind automaton of him, conditions are created here which bring the worker into a close and harmonious relation to production as a whole, making him responsible for his job not merely as an end in itself, but in its relation to the whole of production.

There exists a strong link between the smallest and the largest branches of our industries. Now the question naturally arises: in view of such a co-ordinated plan, and the interdependence between the whole and its separate parts — is it possible that a worker engaged even in the simplest operations of production could fail to see the relation of his task to the factory as a whole and be uninterested in the result of his work? Certainly not. And not for that reason only, that he feels connection between each small task and production as a whole morally, but also because it is an actuality which becomes obvious in production itself. The worker cannot help feeling it as he could not help feeling the electric current, if he were connected with the circuit.

As proof of this let me cite an event, simple in appearance but really of deep significance, — and in our time one could give many such examples, — the meeting between men working on a certain build-
Marietta Shaguinian, an outstanding Soviet writer, author of the novel "Hydro-central", which is considered by Soviet critics one of the best literary works dealing with socialist construction in the USSR.

ing site with the workers from a factory providing them with equipment.

From this meeting it became evident that Soviet workers do not look upon their work as a mere fabrication of single details having no relation to anything else, but on the contrary look upon it, in the first place, as work on the co-ordinated whole represented by the order in hand; in the second place, as work on the co-ordinated whole represented by the hydro-electric station for which this order is destined, and in the third place, as work on the co-ordinated whole represented by the plans for establishing socialism in our country.

Where will you find in the USSR a worker crushed by the blind automatism of labour? That type is now extinct. What has become of the craftsman who with his own hands finished the pair of boots or a hat, an axe or a jar? What has become of him — the object of regret for romanticists, and people dreaming of small private enterprises, this Russian temptation, which

Lenin in his time fought so passionately? He also is extinct. Not only has he ceased to exist in practice, but in theory too. For the so-called complete product of his labour is incomplete and is merely the product of a private trade. The complete product can be, and is only achieved in a socialist scheme of production.

This consciousness of co-ordination in production takes the worker far beyond the sphere of the mere technical operations of his work. Figuratively speaking, it makes the worker seem as though he were million-armed and million-legged, so wide and general is his interest in the work of thousands of his comrades, whose work he feels in part is his own work. He perceives the link between the various processes of production and a co-ordination of the whole plan looms up before him — a co-ordination not only in production itself, but in the use made of it, and its wide application far beyond the factory walls out upon the limitless spaces of the Soviet Union.

What, then, is the attitude of Soviet writers toward the question of labour and production? Instead of horror before the division of labour and the automatism in which it results, our writers are given the task of portraying the joyous and unique experience of the new man and worker before whom lies the task of building a classless society.

And in order to help this new man to perceive the unity and co-ordination of the great plan, we, the writers, must show in our books that dependence of one part of production upon the other and that unity which distinguish our industries. This is the reason why we go out to the new enterprises and constructions, practically make ourselves part of them, remain at the building site a long time, suffering in their needs and triumphing in their victories. And it often happens that the connection still lives on, even long after the book has been written and published, forcing us, as it were, participate to the end in its development. For example, this happened to me in the case of the DZORAGES 1.

The role of literature in fostering and strengthening this consciousness of a co-ordinated whole is the part of the Soviet writers in the general struggle for the plan.

1 Construction of a hydro-electric station in Transcaucasia being the theme of a great novel by M. Shaghinyan, "Hydro-central".
In writing my novel "Russia" I spent several years on exhaustive study for the purpose of finding the fundamental characteristics of the Russian national character, and particularly stressed those negative traits which forced this nation to remain in a state of political stagnation longer than any other.

General passiveness, a laziness to move, to struggle, weakness, a mystic frame of mind, an ability to a short spurt of activity, but utter incapacity for intensive, uninterrupted effort, I took as the basic characteristics of the Russian character.

I, as a student of the psychology of nations, during the period of the revolution could not help being deeply impressed by a manifestation of an entirely different character. Whence came the capacity to prolonged and for a period of fifteen years uninterrupted effort, the unremitting adherence to the once chosen line and the motto of struggle in place of former non-resistance?

Now the basic traits of the national character have ceased to be basic and the acquired characteristics have given life an entirely new aspect.

I perceived how the small numbers of active workers grew into hundreds and thousands, how the national character underwent a radical change and how the acquired characteristics showed a marked tendency toward internationalism thus still more redeeming its sin of allowing itself to remain longer than any other nation under the yoke of an autocratic government.

This is a breathtaking theme... The first time I felt it especially clear was when I came to the construction of the Auto-Plant in Nizhny-Novgorod.

Nizhny-Novgorod, birthplace of Gorki and of Korolenko, Volga, Vetluga, Kerzhentsevs, Unzha... What romantic and poetic names! Before one's imagination rise the austere outlines of hermitages and cloistered within its walls, removed far from human existence, stern long-bearded men, and women in black and white kerchiefs on their heads. One hears a cheerless whisper go through the tree tops.

The Nizhny-Novgorod district was an area of mysticism in the past, the land of potential wealth. This was once the home of the champions of capitalism and of their virtual slaves—the longshoremen and the Volga boatmen with their plaintive songs.

This was Russia, Russia with all the boundlessness of its space covered with forests, swamps and mighty rivers.

Untold wealth lay unexplored in the huge tracts of land in the Volga region. Capitalists did not care to risk their fortunes which were anyway too small for undertakings on such a scale as has become possible nowadays.

The rich Omutninsky district with its iron foundry and its iron and phosphorite deposits had no railway. The capitalists had no other aim than to multiply their wealth in those enterprises which were started by their ancestors. These were the fishing and shipping trades.

The life of the Volga merchants had its own specific pathos—a pathos of wild orgies and uncontrolled temper and the prodigal casting about of money after successful transactions involving huge fortunes. This was made the subject of numerous songs and stories.

The present pathos is different. It is the pathos of conversion of swamps into sources of energy and light. The creation in one year of an auto-plant and a town around it with a population of 80,000. Moreover, in the near future the conversion of the gradually shoaling Volga into a mighty river by means of dams and powerful electric stations.

The Nizhny-Novgorod region is becoming one of the most important construction centres of our Union. The natural wealth of this region explains this. The deposits of iron ore in the Omutinsky district alone is calculated at 14 milliard tons. There also are found the richest beds of phosphorite and bituminous shale.

The mountain region over Oka contains about 3 milliard tons of iron ore and lumber to about 13,000,000 hectares. There also are found deposits of limestone, gypsum and alabaster. In addition to all this there is the mighty energy hidden in the Volga. And all these secrets of nature are now being probed into and brought out to serve man.

Breathtaking as is the perspective, even more so is that which has already been accomplished, as it proves these perspectives
attainable. What private capital could not do, the victorious proletariat is now doing.

Where not so long ago were deserts and swamps now have risen the auto-works, the paper-mill of Balakhna, the latter equipped with machines of a type of which up to the time when the factory was constructed there were only seven in the whole world. We have our own Nizhny-Novgorod electric station.

In place of what once was Russia, now we have the USSR.

But where do I come in as an artist? What is my place and what is my role? Would not the now dried swamps have been fitter subjects for a writer — those swamps where in spring, at dawn, in the small thickets of birch trees where the snow has just melted, the black grouse tocked? Can one speak about a wilderness of stone and iron in the same living vivid language that one can about forests? Art is weaker than reality — when it deals with objects that are visible.

But one soon understands that the writer is needed not so much for describing the visible objects as for bringing out those unseen.

I felt myself redeemed when I perceived these unseen hidden objects; the inner process going on in old Russia which is giving birth to the USSR; the mysterious and yet palpable force which is changing the character of the whole nation. And I saw how all along the front the old character is dying and the new one is being born creating "visible objects" on a scale and with a rapidity never heard-of before.

TO THE MEMORY OF PROFESSOR P. KOGAN

A prominent man of letters, professor P. Kogan, died suddenly in Moscow. His name, widely popular in the Soviet Union, was also well known abroad.

P. Kogan was born in 1878. He graduated the faculty of history and philology in the Moscow University, where he had worked chiefly under the direction of a prominent Shakespeare scholar, professor N. Storozenko. After the completion of his university course, P. Kogan began his pedagogical, scientific and literary career.

A specialist on West-European literature, Kogan was at the same time a good connoisseur of Russian literature, having carefully studied everything new in this branch. He wrote a great number of books, pamphlets, critical reviews, prefaces, etc. His general reviews of literature, such as the "Essays on the History of West-European Literature" in 3 volumes (the first volume has run into 9 editions) and "Essays on the History of Modern Russian Literature", are especially well known and popular.

From the number of other important works of this scholar, we must mention such books as: "Romanticism and Realism in European Literature of the XIXth Century" (1914); "Literature of the Present Years" (1924); "Proletarian Literature" (1924); "The Red Army in our Literature" (1926); "Our Literary Discussions" (1927); "Literature of the Great Ten Years" (1927); "M. Gorky"
(1928), and many others. In these books as well as in his critical articles, we always see P. Kogan as an ardent partisan of the Marxian method in literary science. He considered all literary phenomena in their dependence on economic conditions and in close connection with science, philosophy and social-political ideas of the given epoch. During the pre-revolutionary period, Kogan had to fight the idealist and mystic tendencies in the Russian literary criticism. His works, written in a clear and distinct language, had a large audience of readers.

The great merit of Kogan was also in acquainting the Russian reader with the literature of Western Europe.

P. Kogan prepared a text-book on the history of West-European literature. Translations of the works of many prominent writers edited by him were published with his prefaces.

At present an authorised translation of the works of Romain Rolland edited by Kogan is under print. His appreciation of the prominent French writer was very great, and in his articles he expressed this appreciation and sympathy.

Kogan was a very good teacher, a talented lecturer, always attracting large audiences. Up to his last days he gave lectures and reports, directed the work of students and took an active interest in the preparation of new cadres.

But the work of Kogan was not confined to the scientific, literary and pedagogical branches. Since the October Revolution, he has taken an active part in the cultural construction of the Soviet Union. Kogan worked at the People's Commissariat for Education as chairman of the scientific-art section of the State Learned Council, he was a founder and the first president of the State Academy of Arts.

Having been an enthusiast of the October Revolution, joining the proletarian revolution completely and irrevocably, Kogan helped considerably in the task of attracting the intelligentsia into socialist construction.

P. Kogan was closely connected with the Soviet Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries and actively participated in its work.

And the role of P. Kogan in the development and strengthening of our cultural connections with abroad deserves special attention if we consider his many-sided and varied career. The part taken by Kogan in the organisation of the first Soviet art exhibitions abroad is well known. He was the supervisor and the commissary-general of the exhibitions at Milan, Paris, Venice. We must likewise remember the time when these exhibitions were being prepared. It was a time when imperialistic States were full of the libellous legends, that art was completely destroyed and abolished in the USSR. Our exhibitions clearly refuted all these malicious and fantastic concoctions. And the task which fell to the lot of Kogan was very difficult. He had to answer endless inquires, to give interviews, to write articles in the foreign press. Kogan directed the work of showing these examples of Soviet art with the greatest tact and knowledge. In his further career, P. Kogan did not cease to participate in developing cultural contacts with Western Europe. P. Kogan used always to come personally in touch with every writer (as Bernard Shaw, Andersen Nexë and others), with every artist, every painter coming to the USSR and to acquaint them with all modern achievements of Soviet art and culture.

His great cultural knowledge, his deep erudition in all questions of literature, theatre, fine arts gave him the possibility to carry out the task of widening cultural relations with great authority.

P. Kogan was well known abroad and was personally acquainted with many prominent representatives of the West-European intelligentsia. The day before he died, we had seen Kogan at the opening of the exhibition of modern Dutch art organised by VOKS in Moscow.

In these days, when the interest in socialist construction in the Soviet Union is daily increasing, when our cultural relations with all countries of the West and East are continuously developing and strengthening, when the information of our achievements on all the fronts of the tremendous construction work should be intensified — the death of P. Kogan is a great loss.
URALS AND SIBERIA IN SOVIET ART

A new base of coal and metal is being created in the East of the USSR. It comprises such gigantic combines as the Magnitostroy in the Urals, Kuznetskstroy in Siberia and other large industrial constructions. Many new factories are being built there and around them new towns spring up.

The workers on these constructions find a new life here. They participate in the most complex production processes — they strive to raise their intellectual level and they create new conditions of life and labour. In a previous number of our review we have already written about the life of the workers at Magnitostroy.

Below we print the appeal of the most outstanding Soviet writers and artists which bear witness to the fact that the most outstanding representatives of Soviet art respond most readily to the cultural needs of the industrial workers.

TO ALL MEN OF LETTERS AND ART

The Party at the brilliant suggestion of its leader, J. Stalin, passed a resolution that a new coal and metal base be created in the Eastern part of the USSR. Work hums in the Urals now where millions of industrial and collective farm workers together with the 200,000 local communists are heroically and unselfishly engaged in bringing about, with a speed never seen before, the realisation of this historic decree.

In the processes of socialist construction tremendous progress has been made by the Urals industrial and collective farm workers in their demands for culture. The builders of the Magnitogorsk blast furnaces demand a Magnitostroy of art.

We, the writers, poets, composers, artists and actors consider it our vital duty at the present stage of development in the Soviet art to reflect in our works the gigantic work of construction going on and more particularly the construction in the Urals.

This task should occupy the same place in the Soviet art as the Urals themselves hold in the political and economic scheme of the Union.

We appeal to all writers and artists to make the theme of their artistic work the great socialist construction now taking place at the Urals.

We feel that by turning our attention to the Urals, the most effective and decisive means are achieved in the way of bringing about definite changes in the minds of the best artists of our Union.

One of the greatest paths to the Magnitostroy of art shall lead through the socialist Urals.

Signed:

Soviet writers:

Artists:
V. Meyerhold, L. Leonidov, I. Bersenev, A. Tairov.

Composers:
D. Shostakovich, A. Mosolov, M. Frolov, B. Zolotaryov.

Painters:
A ROAD WHICH IS NOT MARKED ON ANY MAP

By N. Oruzheynikov

“You are near, distant socialism”, recently wrote the well-known poet Boris Pasternak.

The social landscape of the country is rapidly changing.

“Russia, poor, beggarly Russia”, engraved on the pictures of Levitan, expressed in the bitter poetry of Block and in the works of whole generations now stands up as a country of wonders. The geography of the Soviet Union is vastly different from that recent prison of the peoples, Russia, not only because the boundary lines have changed, not only because dozens of autonomous regions and republics have grown into existence.

Gigantic construction work has literally changed the face of every corner in the country.

When Marietta Shaghinian in her “Hydro-central” shows us a mighty power station, radiating electric current, which will penetrate into the wild clefts of Armenia, or when Leonid Leonov in the “River Sot” tells us a story about a paper-mill, which has disturbed the lonely thick forests, we have here the works of writers, for whom the reality appears transformed and changed by the construction of a new socialist world. And here is the birth of a new subject-matter, which is also developing in the Soviet drama. It is the subject of intelligentsia and socialism.

The drama reflects the reformation of intellectual conceptions, the reformation which playwrights, being a particle of the intelligentsia, have experienced personally.

The playwright is influenced by the growing attractive power of socialist construction which makes him feel that outside the new social forms there is no way for true creative work, that socialism means a tremendous development of the intellectual forces of mankind.
First attempts of the Soviet drama to reveal the relations of the intelligentsia and the proletariat, building up socialism, have been very modest.

Generally, such attempts represented only a statement of a change in the feelings of those specialists, who having before belonged to the privileged classes are attracted now by the creative construction work.

Such is "Engineer Merts" by L. Nikulinn, where we find the steadfast type of a specialist who has finally and irrevocably chosen his new road.

Such is the play by Kissin "Life is changing". An economic wrecker and an honest specialist, an enemy and an enthusiast of revolution—such was the contents of a majority of plays, devoted to the subject.

But these plays did not yet depict the main essence—the development of relations between the intelligentsia and the proletariat in the USSR; they did not describe the departure of large numbers of intelligentsia from their old positions of mistrust and waiting. It should be stressed, that not only those, who from the very beginning have bound up their fate with that of the proletariat, but also those who have tried to remain silent and to "wait", are now whole-heartedly participating in socialist construction.

Life itself shatters all prejudices.

A play of Y. Olesha "List of Benefactions", staged by the prominent artist of the Soviet theatre, V. Meyerhold, has caused a storm of controversy all over the Soviet Union.

In the chief character of the play—the actress Helen Goncharova—the author has once more called to life the subject of "Hamletism", of the inner instability of mind which finally brings the situation of "between the devil and the deep sea."

Helen is passionately fond of Art. In the role of Hamlet she feels the charming music of sentiment, the sweet little voice singing in the human soul, the voice, which is brighter and fresher than all the thunder and din of the actual present life. Goncharova goes abroad, where the surrounding atmosphere seems more congenial to the efflorescence of her images and her ideas. But the waves of actual life throw her on the bare and stony shores: she meets business men and cocaineists, cynics and dullards, instead of those troubadours of Art, of whom she has dimly dreamed. The blow of disillusion is merciless.

But Helen is faced with the other side of the question: the intense struggle which carries her away. She perishes, struck down by a bullet fired by an agent provocateur.

Helen Goncharova is not a typical character. Soviet artists, who are joining the camp of socialism, are influenced and convinced by the gigantic construction work, going on in their socialist mother country. Contrary to Helen Goncharova with her tragic end, they understand, that the true Art and its development is now possible only in the country, which is creating new values in all branches of life and culture. Though the play does not reveal the problem in its true aspects, it is nevertheless noteworthy, as a sign

"Fear" at the Moscow Art Theatre. Scene of the discussion. Clara (Knipper-Chekhova) makes her speech. At the extreme left Prof. Borodin (Leonidov)
of decisive change even in the most refined and subtle strata of the intelligentsia. A. Afinogenov in his play "Fear" has chosen as his hero a thinker, a champion of science. Clad in the armour of exact knowledge, armed with the weapon of scientific analysis, professor Borodin seems to himself a Gulliver, around whom numberless Liliputians are swarming. Scientists must govern the world. According to Borodin, it is not the class struggle, neither the ideals of socialism, but absolute positive reflexes that determine the actions of mankind.

In working out his "theory" Borodin sincerely believes, that he has nothing to do with politics. Science is above classes. The author of the play, who is a communist, does not try to make the image of Borodin any poorer or lower. We have here a man of powerful mind, a man of high moral standards, but a man made blind by the cataract of old prejudices and misconceptions of the meaning and importance of science. Borodin feels himself a giant, but proves to be a pygmy. His laboratory, and his experiments, directed towards establishing his theory, are provoked by a group of counter-revolutionaries. These men, who had flattered Borodin with their seeming veneration, blame him for all their crimes, as soon as they are touched by the chastising hand of Justice.

Borodin has to check up all his accustomed moral conceptions and ideas, all his scientific principles. A grain of doubt is thrown into his mind on a dispute where his professorial wisdom is opposed by the voice of revolutionary practice.

An old partywoman, Clara Spassova, defeats the philosophy of Borodin, using simple examples of her experience as a fighter. Fear, declares Borodin, is the motive power of the world history. But every revolutionary is a bearer of fearlessness, replies Clara, and fearlessness fights fear and defeats it.

After the shameful renunciation of his friends the grain of doubt begins to germinate in the mind of Borodin. He wants to work honestly and truly. We shall not touch here on the defects of the play or show how by means of some characters of new scientists Afinogenov justifies the change of Borodin ¹.

It is very interesting and characteristic that the play was staged with deep love and carefulness by the Moscow Art Theatre, which for a long period has reflected all the hopes and aspirations of the Russian intelligentsia. The fate of Borodin is a symbol of the general road of honest scientists, technical workers and artists in the USSR. The road, which has not been marked on the maps of the past years. The road leading to socialism.

¹ For more details see the article in No. 2—3 of our R view.
Interest in opera is ever on the increase in Moscow as well as throughout the whole Union. Before the war there were two opera theatres in Moscow; now there are six: the Grand Theatre, the Affiliated Grand Theatre (formerly the Experimental), the K. Stanislavsky and V. Nemirovich-Danchenko Theatres, the Radio-Opera and the District Operatic Theatre directed by Y. Lapitsky. This last theatre has no special playhouse but gives performances in the district workers' clubs and Palaces of Culture. The work of the other five theatres is chiefly based upon their central premises but their casts also give sometimes performances in different workers' cultural institutions. Every evening over 6 thousand workers enjoy operatic performances in Moscow.

During the season of 1931/32 in Moscow the following eight new operas were played: "The Golden Cock" by Rimsky-Korsakov (Grand Theatre and Stanislavsky Theatre), "Othello" by Verdi (Grand Theatre), "Turandot" by Puccini and "The Pskov Maid" by Rimsky-Korsakov (Affiliated Grand Theatre), "The Sorochintsy Fair" by Mussorgsky (Nemirovich-Danchenko Theatre), "The Marriage" by Mussorgsky and "The Stone Guest" by Dargomyzhsky (Radio-Theatre). These productions show clearly the general direction followed by Soviet opera: revival and critical familiarisation of the best heritage of old musical culture, as an accumulation of experience necessary to create new grandious works of musical and scenic art, works that would adequately reflect the great epoch of socialist construction and cultural revolution in the USSR. The recently declared competition for the best opera and ballet to be written to the XVth anniversary of the October revolution is pursuing the same aim.

"The Golden Cock" was produced at the Grand Theatre about the end of 1931. This opera of Rimsky-Korsakov's has always been considered a malicious satire on tsarism.

Rimsky-Korsakov belonged to a group of intellectuals, fairly radical for its time and realising perfectly the absurdity of absolutism. Of course it was not monarchy as a principle he was objecting to, but only the most stupid, senseless form of tsardom. In "The Golden Cock" this idea was expressed in an artistic form. As a matter of fact this masterful opera is not so much a satire directed against the tsar and his retinue in general, as a joke making fun of the type of tsar as Dodon — a puffed-up chump whose sole desire is to eat and to sleep to his heart's content. The director Smolich added a symbolical meaning to the images of this simple fairy-tale, hyperbolised them, thus creating a real satire.
not always justified by the material of Rimsky-Korsakov's opera. It was for this reason that the production called forth the protests of some Soviet critics. The Soviet theatre-goer expected the producer of "The Golden Cock" to disclose and to emphasise on the base of a critical approach the elements of political and social satire present in the work of the composer, without exceeding however the limits of his musical material, text and general idea.

The production of the "Golden Cock" at the Stanislavsky Theatre was the result of a year's work of the theatre. K. Stanislavsky himself directed the production. The producers succeeded in revealing the satirical meaning of the opera. As far as the performance is concerned one should mention the outstanding clearness of delivery peculiar to the soloists as well as to the chorus of this theatre. The drawing of characters is also of special interest; it was done with great care and vividness, as for instance the tsar's house-keeper Amelfa officiously nursing Dodon and in his absence assuming the reins of government not only over the household of the tsar but over the country. The role of the Shemakhan tsarina has been given a new and very interesting interpretation. Instead of the banal type of an "oriental beauty," we see a clever, malicious, sarcastic charmer enjoying her power over the stupid lascivious old man spell-bound by her beauty.

The scenery of "The Golden Cock" in the Stanislavsky Theatre was designed by two artists. One of them, Ivanov, used for the settings of the 1st and 3rd acts the style of popular illustrations to old Russian tales. Sarian, the second artist, created a very peculiar and curious design for the phantastical part of the opera: the tent of the Shemakhan tsarina, her dreams, etc.

The second production of the Grand Theatre was "Othello" by Verdi. The choice of this opera, which is perhaps the best of Verdi's works, must be deemed most successful. A careful and cultured realisation of Shakespeare on an operatic stage is in itself an event of no small importance. The producer, Smolich, was right in laying stress upon the main idea underlying the opera, namely the struggle of feelings in a man, absorbed by his personal inner existence, torn away from problems of a higher, social order. Othello as an incarnation of jealousy, the Moor, whose human dignity was painfully injured and who becomes the victim of infamous gossip, is also opposed in the production to the representatives of the white-skinned gentry.

All the merits of Verdi's music, which had imbied the best part of Wagner's influence, all the while preserving the freshness, warmth and spontaneity of Italian melody, found their expression in the performance.

Much attention has been paid to the scenic design, done in a very grand and pompous style. The painter P. Sokolov, mastered his task with much taste and craftsmanship.
Both new productions of the Affiliated Grand Theatre—"Turandot" by Puccini and "The Pskov Maid" by Rimsky-Korsakov—should be regarded as definite successes.

The producer L. Baratov, a recent acquisition of this theatre, is quite familiar to Moscow theatres audience through his work in the Nemirovich-Danchenko opera. In "Turandot" he created quite a festive, brilliant performance which impresses the spectators not only as a beautiful spectacle but also as a fascinating one.

The scenic design of the production deserves special notice. The painter Rabinovich, whose part in the work has been of no small importance for its success, displayed all his ingenuity and good taste in realising his difficult task: to give an essentially theatrical, gay, fairy-tale China, instead of the gawkish pseudo-exotics, common to many old opera theatres. Irony, conventional grotesque are characteristic of both the settings and the production as a whole.

The producer tried to overcome certain elements in Puccini's music, namely the serious and even tragic compassion to the "tortured" claimants for the hand of Turandot. But the music itself is yet dominant in the performance, so that not all the ideas of the producer and the designer reach the public. A certain shade of melodramatic mystery is still to be felt in the scene of Kalaf's dreams. The dance of the hangmen, the guessing of Turandot's riddles do not express the original conception fully. The producers should have been still more daring in overcoming the somewhat dull though smart statics of the musical turn.

"The Pskov Maid", produced in the same theatre and under the same director belongs to an early period of Rimsky-Korsakov's work, and was afterwards repeatedly rehashed and altered by the author. The original version of this opera dates in the early seventies when
Rimsky-Korsakov depended entirely on the influence of the "mighty group" (composers Borodin, Balakirev, Serov, Dargomyzhsky and others), was interested in the nationalism movement and dreamed of creating not a simple opera, but a real popular drama. "The Pskov Maid" was originally conceived as a work of this kind, but licence conditions and later on the changes in the general outlook of the artist himself prevented him from developing the opera along these lines.

The subject of the opera is taken from the history of the "free city" of Pskov, its struggle against the tsar, who wanted to bring under his power the hitherto self-governing towns and countries.

The producer emphasised the historical element in the opera, but he was unable to overcome its romantic character to the necessary extent.

The production abounds in highly impressive moments; such is the scene of Ivan the Terrible's arrival, the confused and frightened crowd shrinking before the lifeguards of the tsar; the scene of the v e l e h e (popular assembly), the dance and play of the girls, and others. All the passages where music itself suggested vividness and dynamics have found better expression than the static scenes, which resembled somewhat sculptural groups.

Now let us consider the new productions of the younger theatre — the Radio-Opera.

One of them, "The Marriage" by Mussorgsky, completed by Ippolitov-Ivanov, has been already dealt with in the preceding issue of this review. The other is "The Stone Guest" written by Dargomyzhsky. The composer used in full, without any alterations, the text of Pushkin and by talented and careful work succeeded in reaching a perfect rhythmical harmony between words and music. The reserved, but expressive accompaniment of the orchestra underlines the recitatives of the opera. The story of Don Juan treated by Pushkin with so much genius was interpreted by Dargomyzhsky in the style of naive realism. The production in the Radio-Theatre reveals the intention of the producer, Sudakov, to treat the opera in the style of conventional realism, laying stress upon the vividness of decorative and musical colours.

In "The Marriage" the same producer created a keen grotesque maliciously mocking the philistinism and the bestial stupidity of the depicted personages.

One of the most interesting achievements of the operatic season is the production of Mussorgsky's "Sorochintsy Fair" in the Nemirovich-Danchenko Theatre. Though the producer Mordvinov and the painter Shifrin could not get rid of some estheticism in their creation, it was still a very original, interesting and bright spectacle.
As it is known, the "Sorochintsy Fair" as well as the "Marriage" was left unfinished by the author. The task of completing the "Sorochintsy Fair" was entrusted to two experienced musicians, the well-known Soviet student of Mussorgsky's work, P. Lamm, who had already effected the restoration of the true "Boris Godunov" and "Khovanshchina", and to the gifted young composer Shebalin. The latter finished the orchestration of the opera and wrote the lacking scenes on the basis of the author's drafts. This careful work was successful. A picture of Gogol's phantastical Ukraine, full of sun, lively humour, ardent feelings, colour and health — such is the "Sorochintsy Fair" on the stage of the Nemirovich-Danchenko Theatre.

The producers have shown much ingenuity and resourcefulness especially in making use of the simplest scenic accessories. Masterful staging, good singing and perfect acting make of Gogol's tale, freed from its mysterious and mystical elements, a gay and entertaining performance. This spectacle is a great victory not only for the Nemirovich-Danchenko Theatre, but for Soviet operatic art as a whole.

Eight new operas shown in Moscow during the current season reveal the striving of Soviet producers, painters, conductors and artists to satisfy the ever-increasing demand of the masses of new spectators of whom the Moscow opera houses are full day and night.

Ingenuity of the producers, vocal culture of the actors, soloists and choir-singers are developing, new forms of operatic performance are being sought and found.

Thus even the opera which has always been the most conservative of all branches of theatrical art is not stagnant in the USSR, but strives to reach the heights which the Land of Soviet expects art to reach.

"THE RUN"

K. Stavsky's play in the Moscow Realist Theatre

"The Run", the play now on at the Moscow Realist Theatre (formerly the 4th studio of the Moscow Art Theatre) stirred up a great interest amongst the Moscow theatre-goers. The play has been adapted for the stage from a novel of the same name by K. Stavsky. The scenic version was made by the author in collaboration with G. Pavluchenko, who up to this time had worked in the capacity of a scenarist-writer.

The action of "The Run" takes place in 1929, in one of the villages of Kuban (in the Northern Caucasus). "That year," says Stalin, "was the year of radical change all along the front of socialist construction." The change manifested itself, as it still does, in the sweeping onslaught of socialism against the capitalist elements of town and country. In the realm of agricultural development we speak of "the change that is taking place in our agriculture going over from small and backward individual farming to advanced, highly mechanised collective farming, turning toward co-operative tillage, toward machine and tractor stations, artels and kolhozes, based on a new technics."

Stavsky in his play shows this mighty "run", this intensive process of reconstruction. He depicts class war which revolves around the creation of the collective farms. The communists at the head of the more advanced section of the Cossack village fight for the influence upon the masses of peasants against the counter-revolutionary
kulaks. The subsequent march of events in the life of the village prove that right is on the side of the communists. Then the peasants realising the advantages of collective over individual farming resolutely repulse the armed attack of the kulaks, and the village enters upon a new stage of existence.

In this play Stavsky shows a number of complicated processes that take place at the village. He minutely describes the various characters, their relation to each other, their attitude toward the different arising events and their participation in them.

As a result of such a great number of characters the plot of the play is highly complicated. It is quite obvious that such a production could not be made in the traditional way. From the point of view of its form, "The Run" is a series of loosely-connected episodes.

The great wealth of material is with difficulty crowded into the four acts which last four hours.

The interest of the play is further enhanced by the artistic work of N. Okhlopkov, the producer, who created a vivid and fascinating spectacle, filled with action. He showed a great inventiveness in his adaptation of Meyerhold's style and cinematographic methods.

The scenic design made by Stoffer is quite unique. The stage in certain parts comes right out into the auditorium and a section of the audience sits on the stage, surrounded by platforms on which the play is being enacted. The public is thus sitting both in front and behind the scene of action. The producer coped quite successfully with this uncommon and intricate arrangement.

Both naturalism and conventionalism are combined in the setting. Apples, pears, willows, sunflowers, poppies, and maize are included in the setting to give the atmosphere of the gardens and fields of sunny Kuban.

The place of action of the various episodes is constantly shifted about — from the central platform, which is situated between the two sections of the audience, to the side platforms, and from there to a gallery platform which is right above the central platform. The light projectors, which follow the changes in the scene of action, are focused on the stage, on the ceiling, also over a section of the auditorium.

There is very little scenery throughout, but each episode is accompanied by a complete change of setting. The scenes presented are vivid, clear and outstanding due to the producer's clever methods. These new methods, founded on close observation of life, greatly add to theatrical experience. N. Okhlopkov was fortunate in having many very brilliant actors in his cast, who were able to do full justice to his original ideas. There are many unforgettable scenes in the play.

"The Run" is another testimonial to the tremendous progress made by Soviet art and its ability to solve the complex problems presented by a swiftly moving life.

"The Run" at the Moscow Realist Theatre

The magazine under review is devoted chiefly to the publication of new documents and materials relating to the history of Russian literature and public thought. In the two first issues serious attention has been paid to the representatives of the most radical ideological tendencies of the past, whose literary legacy has heretofore to a considerable extent remained beyond the scope of interests of the old literary science.

Thus in the first volume we find the hitherto unpublished fragments from the work of the greatest Russian satirist Saltykov-Shchedrin, "From the Correspondence of Nicolas I with Paul de Cock", and also his other satire, "The Corrupt Children", one of the sharpest satires of this author which unfortunately has been entirely forgotten, not included in any of the collections of his works and untouched in general literary research works as well as in special investigations of Saltykov-Shchedrin's writings.

In the same volume we come across another forgotten work of another great satirist of the XIXth century, Kurochkin, namely "The Prince Latonia", a play which had appeared only once in an old magazine and never was published again. Two stories by the writer Reshetnikov, "Hard to Believe" and "A Philharmonic Concert", have also been left in oblivion since their first appearance, in the eighties, on the pages of some provincial paper.

Among the material of the second volume we should mention, as belonging to the same group of publications, the article under the heading "The Literary Liberals" written by Bervl-Flerovsky, publicist and scholar, who took an active part in the narodniki movement. This article contains his critical analysis of a review dealing with his book on the condition of the working class in Russia (the review was published in "European Mercury", a moderately-liberal magazine).

Considerable place has been given to materials relating to the history of Russian underground press and to the development of workers' journalism in Russia. The publication devoted to "The Gibbet", a periodical paper issued by Goncharov, a revolutionary of the seventies, deserves special mention, as this paper reflected the attitude of Russian revolutionaries towards the Paris Commune.

Another publication deals with the journal "The Worker", the only number of which was issued in the early eighties by a group of Rostov workers, members of the revolutionary organisation "Narodnaya Volya" and which was one of the first publications of that kind in Russia. Further we find the minutes of a staff conference of the social-democratic newspaper "The Proletarian" issued during the period of reaction (1905—1907). The minutes, published for the first time, give a vivid illustration of the philosophical discussions then going on among Russian social-democrats, and in particular Lenin's fight against idealistic revisions of Marxism.

To the same period belong two letters from Leonid Andreev to Gorky dealing with the symposiums "Literary Decay". This edition was one of the first organised reactions of Marxian critics against those anti-social, reactionary and mystic tendencies which at the period of reaction gained a considerable and ever increasing influence over literature. The principles stated in these letters are characteristic not only of Leonid Andreev himself but of a whole group of writers who had kept close to the revolutionary movement during the period of its victories (1905), but deserted its ranks immediately when the revolutionary wave began to fall off.

Twelve forgotten articles and paragraphs by the famous revolutionary poet V. Mayakovskv relating to an early stage of his literary activities have to do with a more recent period—the eve of the world war and its first years. The point of view expressed in these articles and their general tendency are definitely opposite to the principles stated in the above mentioned letters of Leonid Andreev. The articles of Mayakovskv are highly characteristic of those groups of intelligentsia, which later joined the ranks of the revolution and decisively threw in their lot with the working class. It is true that this final transition to the camp of the revolution-
The article by Paul Lafargue dealing with Zola's "Money" was published in the "Neue Zeit" in the early nineties, probably after the French original, and up till now had never been reprinted.

Finally we must mention the new material belonging to the rich literary and critical heritage of Plekhanov: a review of "Life Stories" by Bystrenin, a prose-writer and publicist little known to the reading public; two reviews of the "History of French Literature" by Lanson, which are especially interesting as they represent a practical illustration of Plekhanov's methodological principles outlined in his famous article on French drama and painting applied to a more extensive historical data; a review of the book by Maugras, "The Last Days of a Society". The letter of Plekhanov concerning the composer Skriabin deserves special notice, being partly based on personal remembrances, partly representing a general philosophical analysis of Scriabin's creative work.

Particular attention is attracted by the reminiscences of a serf, Peter Krotov, dealing with the manufactory of Kupavino. Krotov belongs to the very few representatives of genuine workers' memoir writers and his recollections give a very vivid picture of the labour and life conditions, in a Russian factory based on serf labour of the early 19th century. The recollections are also interesting from a literary point of view.

All the publications mentioned are accompanied by introductory articles giving a general characterisation of the facts touched upon in each particular work. Besides, they are followed by detailed comments, containing the deciphering of different hints and allusions in the text difficult for the modern reader's understanding, the explanation of unfamiliar and unknown names, bibliographical references, etc.

Bede the publication of documents the "Literary Heritage" also contains various reviews chiefly of a bibliographical character. Thus in vol. II we find four surveys of West-European literature and philosophy. Two of them deal with Zola; one treats the question of Zola's literary heritage in France, the other, "Zola in Russia", deals with the relations between Zola and the Russian authors, as for instance Turghenev, Zola's contribution to Russian magazines, etc. In a special review devoted to Hegel the author traces the main stages in the fight for Hegel,
giving an analysis of the different interpretations of Hegel's system which found their reflection in the history of West-European philosophy during the 100 years since the philosopher's death.

The last review deals with the literary heritage of Anatole France, with some of his writings that either have remained hitherto unpublished or were not included in the collections of his works, as well as with those long ago published in France but never translated into Russian, and therefore unknown to the Russian reader.

One should also mention here the short but rapid survey of the activities of such institutions as the Central Records Office of the USSR, the Museum of Revolution, the Lenin Library, the State Historical Museum, and also some publishing houses, chiefly the State Publishing House for Literature.

NEW GRAMOPHONE RECORDS

The following records may be mentioned out of the series put out by the Moscow Recording Studio:

I. Folk music (original and arranged):

1) Suite of Tartar melodies by Verikovsky, Ukrainian composer (5 parts, two records—26,801—802).
2) Bashkir songs, sung by Sarah Sadykova (59,742).
3) Russian songs, sung by Michael Siversky to his own accompaniment on "gusly", folk string instrument (15,586).
4) Russian popular songs, sung by a peasant choir, conducted by Yarkov (14,335—36—37—38).
5) Russian songs, sung by Anna Zagoskaya (18,197—98).
6) Songs of White Russia sung by a women's choir from the White-Russian State Theatre (76,511); White-Russian melodies played by Novitsky on the folk instrument called "cymbales" (76,251—52); the singer Alexandrova with two cymbalists (76,711); the same singer to the accompaniment of wind instruments and a lyre (76,401).
7) Russian songs, played by an ensemble of "gusly" players from Leningrad (13,357).

The outward appearance of the magazine too deserves special notice. There is a great deal of illustrative material: portraits, photographs of rare editions, autographs etc. The 1st volume contains over 50 illustrations of this kind, in the 2nd there are about 80.

The 3rd volume which is to appear soon, will also contain much interesting material, among which will be the correspondence of Marx and Engels with Lassalle on the subject of the latter's tragedy "Franz von Zikingen" (the complete publication appears in Russian for the first time), unpublished works of Dobrolitov and Chernyshevsky, surveys of the literary works of Chernyshevsky, Saltynkov-Shchedrin, Reshetnikov, and many other documents and reviews.

The 4th volume which is also being prepared now will be devoted entirely to Goethe.

8) Jewisch folk tunes played on cymbale, by the brothers Lepiansky.

II. Orchestral records:

1) Polonaise from Chaikovsky's opera "Eugene Onegin" (big record —02,237).
2) Oriental dances from Glazunov's ballet "Raymonde" (11,528).
3) Ukrainian dance "Gopak" from Mussorgsky's opera "The Sorochintsy Fair" (11,529).
4) Oriental dances from Borodin's opera "Prince Igor" (big record —02,232).
5) Overture to the first act of Rimsky-Korsakov's opera "The Tale of the Tsar Saltan" (big record —02,234).

III. Vocal records:

1) "The Mermaid", romance by Gliêce, sung by Stepanova, artist of the Moscow Grand Theatre (coloratura soprano, with orchestra —18,154).
2) Air of Lise from Chaikovsky's opera "The Queen of Spades", sung by Matova, artist of the Moscow Grand Theatre, with orchestra (big record —06,075).

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In 1931 a number of articles by the following authors was published in the "V.O.K.S." magazine:

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The end of wars, peace among nations, the cessation of plunders and violence—this is our ideal.

_{Lenin._}
We don't want to be a hammer for weak nations or an anvil for the strong. — We are striving for peace.

Stalin.
The USSR and the Menace of Imperialist War

LENIN AND STALIN ON THE STRUGGLE FOR PEACE

The problems of war and of the struggle for peace take a prominent place in the works of Lenin and Stalin.

We give here some of their statements in connection with these problems.

Lenin was always consistently striving to reveal before the broadest masses the real importance of the Imperialist War, to reveal the meaning of those "sophistries" (Lenin) which were used to cover up and to propagate war.

Basing himself on this conception of war as a phenomenon inevitably arising out of the conditions of the capitalist regime, Lenin in a series of writings developed the idea which can be summed up in the following statement of his: "The Imperialist War of 1914—1918 is the continuation of the imperialist policy of 1898—1914... this war was born of half century's development of world capital, of millions of its threads and connections."

Stalin, referring to the contradictions generated by the development of capitalist society, also shows that these contradictions "inevitably lead to one fundamental danger, the danger of new imperialist wars and interventions". Stalin points out that "the danger of new imperialist wars and interventions is the principal question of the present day".

This danger is above all directed against the Soviet Union.

The reason for that is that under the present day conditions "whenever the capitalist contradictions begin to increase in intensity, the bourgeoisie turns its attention to the USSR and asks itself: would it not be possible to settle this or that contradiction of capitalism or all the contradictions of the capitalist system at the expense of the USSR, that country of the Soviets... which is hampering the organisation of a new war..." (Stalin).

The struggle of the USSR for peace assumes under these conditions the greatest importance. It is but natural that such struggle is very complicated.

Lenin's words: "Whoever imagined that it was easy to obtain peace was a naive person"—are being confirmed by every international action, by every diplomatic conference, at which the Soviet Union inevitably finds itself in the position of the only country which is championing the genuine conditions making for peace.

"The projects of 'disarmament' are falling into an abyss and the conferences for the reduction of naval armaments are turned into conferences for the renewal and extension of the navies" (Stalin).

When we compare the slogans of peace figuring at such conferences with the proposals of the USSR (e.g. on general and complete disarmament) it is impossible not to recall to one's mind Lenin's ideas on the "slogan of peace".

"The slogan of peace can be presented either in connection with definite conditions or without any conditions, as a struggle not for a certain kind of peace but for peace in general. It is obvious that in the latter case we are confronted with... a slogan which is altogether devoid of all meaning and of all content. Everyone is for peace in general. But the point is that everyone advances imperialist conditions of peace in favour of one's 'own' nation."

These ideas of Lenin and Stalin assume now a special importance. 1932 supplied us a striking example of a struggle for definite conditions of peace. This example is the proposal of the USSR about a general and complete disarmament as a guarantee against the danger of war. On the other hand we find in the same year a great deal of slogans of "peace in general". Suffice it to point out to the project of the so-called "moral disarmament".

The absolute duty of everyone who is really struggling for peace must be the exposure of the meaning of declarations of the type of "peace in general". The meaning of it is not yet clear to everyone. Stalin said: "Many people imagine that imperialist pacifism is an instrument of peace. This is wrong. Imperialist pacifism is an instrument of the preparation of war... Without such an instrument the preparation of war is impossible under present conditions..."

"They imagine that if there exists imperialist pacifism, it means that there will
be no war. This is altogether wrong. On the contrary whoever wants to find out the truth must paraphrase this statement as follows: ‘Since imperialist pacifism is flourishing... new imperialist wars and interventions are bound to follow’. „Under such conditions “the danger of war will grow at an increased rate”.

This was said a few years ago. It is common knowledge that since that time the danger of war has been growing at such an increased rate that already in 1931—1932 the world witnessed a war in the East, not to mention the fact that in some form or other, in some part of the world or another, wars have in effect continued to rage throughout the entire “post-war” epoch.

The possibility and danger of war are at the present time the greater, because military operations, as was also proved by the latest events, are not necessarily connected with the official declaration of war.

“The peculiarity of the present moment consists in that the boundary line between the state of peace and that of war is being more and more obliterated — people glide into war and are fighting without an open declaration of war” (Molotov).

The war danger is wholly directed against the country of the Soviets.

Openly, in hundreds of newspapers, in dozens of speeches and articles by responsible and irresponsible persons, appeals are launched for a military attack on the USSR, for the capture of its territory and for a blockade. From the abortive anti-Soviet campaigns about “dumping” etc. they pass on to an utilisation of all kinds of crimes committed by the dregs of society under the direct guidance of parties interested in provoking war. Such is the meaning of Stern’s attempt on the life of the German ambassador to the USSR, or the murder of the president of the French Republic by the White-énigre Gorgulov.

They are bold enough to advance the most fantastic inventions such as declaring Gorgulov, a sworn enemy of the Soviet Government, to be a “bolshevik” or spreading the cynical report to the effect that the French steamer “Georges Philippar” whose passengers were saved by Soviet sailors was set on fire by the Soviets.

Events which are taking place in all corners of the globe indicate the dangers threatening the Soviet Union both from the West and from the East.

Such are the “chances” of war and above all of a war directed against the Soviet Union.

M. Litvinov, People’s Commissary for Foreign Affairs, at his working-table

The real danger of war forces the Soviet Union and all its friends to fight for peace still more persistently and with increased vigour.

Lenin described excellently the Soviet policy of peace by saying that “this policy is based on solid foundations and cherishes no illusions”.

We have already stated why there are no illusions and why there can be no illusions about the struggle for peace being an easy matter.

But what are these “solid foundations” of the Soviet policy of peace?

The country of Socialism by its very nature pursues and can only pursue peaceful aims. “The end of wars, peace among nations, the cessation of plunders and violence — this is our ideal” (Lenin).

In 1915, a long time before the victory of October, Lenin and his friends indicated a concrete programme of peace which should be realised “if State power in Russia belonged to the Soviets of workers’, soldiers’ and peasants’ deputies”. One of the planks of this programme was an immediate and open proposal “to all the belligerent powers to conclude an armistice”. This programme was based on the following consideration: “The workers and the poorest peasants constitute an overwhelming majority of the population. They make no money on the war, but are ruined and starved by it. They have nothing to do with capital or with the agreements between... groups of capitalists. They can and sincerely wish to put an end to the war” (Lenin).

It is known that as soon as State power in Russia passed into the hands of workers and peasants they began to realise their peace programme. The struggle for peace
began from the first days of the Soviet rule with the first decree on peace published on the very next day after the victory of October (Oct. 26—Nov. 8, 1917). With an iron consistency this struggle for peace on the part of the land of the working masses continued ever since and will go on in the future.

This was distinctly stated in a number of speeches and articles by the leading statesmen of the USSR. Stalin, the leader of the working masses, stated as follows:

“Our policy is the policy of peace... The result of this policy is that we succeeded in maintaining peace, preventing the enemies from involving us into conflicts in spite of a number of provocative acts and adventurous attacks by the incendiaries of war. We shall continue to follow this peace policy with all our might, with all the means at our disposal...”

The firm stand taken by the Soviet Union in the struggle for peace “exposes all and sundry people engaged in engineering wars and means at the same time that a mighty repulse met and will meet all the attempts to attack the USSR” (Molotov).

Thus the growing might of the USSR—a country “hampering the organisation of a new war”—is under present conditions the most important and potent factor of peace. This might is based on a gigantic growth of socialist construction carried out by the working masses and on the willingness of the millions of workers to uphold the conquests of this construction from all attempts on them.

The masses of the people have already demonstrated this willingness in conditions of Civil War and intervention of 1919—1920.

The country that fought intervention in 1919 was not like the present country of Magnitostroy and Dnieprostroy, of giant automobile and tractor works, of the largest system of agriculture in the world. It was then only a newly founded Soviet Republic. Yet it emerged victorious from the struggle. And how did this happen?

Lenin at that time repeatedly raised this question in his speeches and articles. He asked: “How did this ‘miracle’ take place?” meaning the victory over the interventionists. And he replied: “We gained a victory, because we were and could be united... whereas our enemies, infinitely more powerful, suffered defeat because there was no unity among them, because there could be no unity among them nor will there ever be, and every month of struggle against us meant greater disintegration within their camp.”

The united masses “replied to each blow by welding their forces, by consolidating their economic might”. This unity enable Lenin to assert that “if a military intervention were to take place in a few years it would be frustrated, because we would then be stronger than we are now”.

Lenin already in 1918 stated that “as soon as we passed on to the first stage of State construction” and enabled the toilers to “practically convince themselves that they were building up their own life it became clear to all and it turned out in practice that no power on earth, no counter revolution, would be able to overthrow the Soviet Government.”

Such was the case in 1918.

In the course of the last 15 years the economic and cultural forces of the USSR have grown immensely and so did the closeness of the working masses. In the course of the last 15 years many people even outside the Soviet Union became convinced of the importance and power of the USSR not to mention the toiling masses of the whole world, who always felt and could not help feeling their kinship with the Soviet Union.

The following, for instance, was stated by one of the foreign statesmen: “In the course of a few years the Soviet workers and peasants, in spite of unparallelled obstacles have transformed the first workers’ republic from a primitive country of the XIVth century into a country of the XXth century. Even today the USSR is the point of organisation, planning and cultural aims has outstripped the capitalistic world by at least a century” (Purcell). The Soviet Union is strong not only by its internal ideological and material power but by that moral influence which the construction of a new world exercises on millions of people outside the boundaries of the USSR.

This had its effect already at the time of the intervention of 1919—1920, and one of the consequences of the intervention was that the war against the young Republic of the Soviets, in the words of Lenin “took the soldiers away” from her enemies.

Simultaneously a certain section of the intellectuals abroad began to agitate against intervention. Lenin in one of his speeches mentioned the “declaration of a large number of representatives of the French intellectuals, the French public organisations” headed by Anatole France. Lenin said: “They opposed intervention in the affairs of Russia, because blockade and starv
ation, which kill children and old men, are inadmissible from the point of view of culture and civilisation.” Lenin acknowledged the great value of such actions, but could not help regarding them as somewhat “vacillating”.

The enormous growth of the economic power, the amazing successes of new culture in the USSR brought about an increase in the friendly actions performed by the most important representatives of public opinion and of the world of art and science abroad. The attitude of Romain Rolland towards the USSR is common knowledge. Everyone knows how G. Bernard Shaw evaluated everything he saw with his own eyes in the Soviet Union.

In our review we have published a series of friendly and favourable reports on the construction and life of the USSR, reports made by scholars, scientists, educationalists etc. representing various trends in various countries.

Stalin states that in regards to the USSR “there exist two sets of factors, two different tendencies acting in opposite directions”. One of the tendencies is to find a way out of the crisis by a war against the USSR. It leads to the preparation of intervention and wars.

The other tendency is characterised by “sympathy for and support of the USSR on the part of the workers of the capitalist countries, the growth of the economic and political power of the USSR, the growth of the defensive ability of the USSR, the policy of peace, persistently followed by the Soviet Government.” Hence those “solid foundations” of the Soviet policy of peace referred to by Lenin.

The consolidation of the factors of peace and the struggle against the factors and tendencies leading up to war, constitute the duty of every person who regards himself as a friend of peace and a friend of the Soviet Union. Enormous tasks are now confronting the friends of the Soviet Union, above all the task of the struggle for peace, and the exposure of war. We have already stated above that under present conditions war presents an extremely complicated phenomenon. Lenin magnificently defined this complexity when he said that in fighting for peace it was necessary “to explain to people the real environment, to explain to them how great is the secrecy in which war generates”, to explain “how war can daily arise over a dispute... over a trifling difference of opinion” on this or that question.

The complexity and subtleness of processes preceding and leading up to war require special vigilance, special painstaking attention, special activity from each friend of peace, from each friend of the USSR.

The “secret” now enshrouding the war which is being engineered, must no longer remain a mystery. The unity of open and secret forces making for war must evoke by way of reply a close alliance of all the friends of peace, of all who value the peaceful existence of a country which embodies in life the best ideals of mankind.

K. Voroshilov, People’s Commissary for Military Affairs
TO ALL FRIENDS OF PEACE

War is coming. The war approaches on all sides. It threatens all the peoples. In fact, it may break out tomorrow. Once it sets one corner of the earth on fire, it will no longer be possible to localise the flames. In a few weeks, in a few days, the fire will devour everything. And it will spell the unspeakable calamity, the destruction of the whole of civilisation. All civilisation, the whole world is in danger.

We are sounding the alarm: arise, all! We appeal to all the peoples, to all the parties, to all men and women of good will. It is not a question here of the interest of one people, of one class, of one party. Everybody is concerned. Everybody must give a helping hand, otherwise there is no salvation. We must give up the discussions which divide us. Let us all unite against the common enemy! Down with war! Let us stop it!

We call you to a great congress which should turn into a mighty manifestation of all parties against war. We call on all parties whatever their social position: trade-unionists, socialists, communists, anarchists, republicans of all shadings, free-thinkers and christians, non-partisans, all the associations of pacifists and resisters, the conscientious objectors, all independent individuals, all those in France and in other countries who have firmly made up their minds to stop the war by all the means.

We beg them to appoint forthwith representatives to an Organising Committee of the World Congress of all parties which will fix as quickly as possible the date, the place and the practical procedure of the forthcoming Congress. There is not a day to be lost.

We need not draw up the plan of action in advance. This would mean encroaching upon the liberties of those whom we convene. And it will be left to them, in the Congress, to state freely their different plans and subsequently to reach a common agreement in regard to action. What we wish, is to arouse an immense wave of opinion against war, whatever its nature, from wherever it may come, whomever it may threaten. We wish to arouse the conscious will of the peoples, of all that is sound in humanity. Let them oppose the lame and equivocal attitude of their government in curbing the monstrous instigators to war, the profiteers of bloodshed, the war industries, the cannon merchants, their clients and their agents provocateurs in the venal press, and all those who carry on their intrigues in order to catch fish in blood-stained water.

Let us muzzle war!

Romain Rolland
APPEAL OF SOVIET WRITERS TO THE WESTERN INTELLIGENTSIA

Vera Inber.

"You must say your word in defence of the USSR!"

The USSR is the help and hope of the proletariat of the whole world, it is a country that acts as a leader. And the capitalists know it as well as the workers themselves.

During the last few years all the "Great" powers and powers which are not "Great" are openly and secretly preparing for war. A great deal has been and is being concealed. Only from time to time the bourgeois papers in a half articulate way, as if the voice were to come from the bottom of the sea, bring to the surface fragmentary reports about new gases, about bacteria, about a shell which can fly 1,500 kilometres, about dozens of new means of destruction. And all this is directed against the only country which is building up socialism, against ourselves.

We are being dragged into the war irresistibly, persistently and by all and every means.

We Soviet authors, active members of the LOKAF, are armed with pen and pencil. But this weapon in our hands must be of longer range and more effective than the shell flying 1,500 kilometres. Only it is directed in a different way.

No distances exist for words in defence of the proletarian country. We are talking in Moscow, but we are heard by the whole world.

Authors of Western countries, the best representatives of Western intelligentsia, friends of the USSR, we must hear your voice in our defence. In common with us you must say your word in defence of the USSR and fight in our ranks for the socialist fatherland of the workers of the whole world.

V. Katayev.

"It is not too late as yet."

I personally had the pleasure of enjoying in Odessa all the charms of the intervention. I was well acquainted with the shrill whistle of a heavy shell of a maritime gun flying over a spell-bound city. For the rest of my life I shall always remember the sight of the bodies of the workers hung in the squares and on the railway viaducts, I know what a punitive expedition, a court martial, guns sticks, secret service. "an attempt to escape", are like.

Well, all these lessons have not been wasted on us. We have learned a great deal, yet we have not forgotten anything.

The Russian white-guardist monarchist divisions, the foreign international fascist battalions — all that is most conservative and reactionary in the world is flocking together in order at the very first sign to invade the Soviet Union and to try to strangle the only proletarian State in the world, which not only in words but in deeds is capable of making all war impossible, of destroying all armaments, all the military supplies, of disbanding all the armies and of establishing for all times to come peace and fraternity of nations on the earth.
Such are the facts. These facts are irrefutable.
I appeal to all the honest toiling sensible people.
Do not allow yourself to be deceived! Do not trust the reassuring information of the venal press! Learn to read between the lines.
Between the lines it is written: war has begun.
Do not delude yourselves by the idea that war is being waged somewhere far away, that it will not touch you.
It will. War is standing at each door. It will affect you. Not a single family in the world will be able to avoid its monstrous, pernicious, irreparable effects.
Remember 1914!
Do not forget that war will not be waged by those who have instigated it... War will not be conducted by kings, emperors, presidents, dictators, bankers, manufacturers or proprietors of newspaper trusts. War will be conducted by you, your brothers, your fathers, your betrothed and your husbands!
War has begun.
It depends on you whether it will be averted.
It's not too late as yet!

L. Seifullina.

“We are waiting for the voice of support.”

The graves of the great imperialist slaughter have not yet been forgotten. The half dead mutilated human beings, the invalids are still alive who serve as an indelible mark of the crime perpetrated by the governments of all nations. And there is a new war on. An immediate danger is threatening the USSR. Millions of toilers are being placed under the yoke and led to slaughter for the purpose of settling the bankers’ accounts.
The voice of R. Rolland must not remain solitary. And not only in France — in all countries of the world the voice of those who create the spiritual values of the nation must be heard by us. We are waiting for it. The USSR, as the fatherland of the toilers of the whole world, acting in self-defence, will find the support of the proletariat of each and every country, whose capitalists are directing against us their lethal weapons.
But we shall find not only enemies, but champions too. We know it perfectly and
the names of the representatives of culture who did not raise their voice against the threat of invasion of the USSR in the countries who want to destroy us, will cover themselves with shame.

L. Leonov.

"If you are silent, who are you?"

Once again, trying to find a way out of the burning house, imperialism is venturing on a new war. In fact such war has already started.

We all of us hear its echo, which is always approaching. The nearest objective of war is the country which is on the eve of setting up a classless society. We are ready, for we know that this war will become suicidal for our enemies.

Leonid Leonov

However, the USSR is not only the first proletarian State. It is the real symbol of that true humanity, for which each of us is striving. It is impossible to remain silent, and at this decisive minute we only call on you to remember, what you bought for blood, shed during the last war?

...And if you are silent, who are you then?

VI. Lidin.

"Why I shall go out to defend the USSR."

I shall go out to defend the USSR not only because I am a citizen of the USSR, not only because when called to the colours I shall have once more to join the ranks of the Red Army.

I shall go out to defend the USSR because an attack on our Union will be an attack on the world fatherland of the toiling mankind, because that which has been built up by us in the course of these few years will become the foundation for the future reconstruction of the whole world.

Only a futile humanism can produce an abstract idea of an actual state of things and vague thoughts about good and evil in this world. That part of the radical intelligentsia of Western countries which fails to proclaim today together with us: "Defend the toilers! Fight the war menace! Fight the war!" — that intelligentsia will soon be placed by the logic of history into a state of utter and shameful failure.

Vladimir Lidin
War in Soviet Literature

A SOVIET AUTHOR ON THE WORLD WAR

By I. S

Tikhonov’s book “War” is looked upon by the Soviet literary public as one of the most important works on the world war that has been produced during the past few years. Indeed, the theme dealt with by Tikhonov in his novel is developed in a very striking and artistic manner, and his characters and the various episodes of this book remind us of the best examples of war fiction that has recently been published.

There are points of similarity between “War” and certain works of Western European literature. It is somewhat like “All Quiet on the Western Front”, the celebrated novel by Remarque. But N. Tikhonov goes further than Remarque. This becomes evident if we study for instance the life of Earnest Asten, one of the characters in “War”. At the beginning of the novel Earnest Asten is a modest student, a humanitarian through and through. And it is out of purely humanitarian considerations that he is somewhat opposed to all militant expressions of chauvinism. Later as a member of insurgent troops who occupied the Reichstag in 1917, he is put in jail for assaulting an officer. Thus Tikhonov differs from Remarque in that he shows how the pacifist attitude and the lack of interest in politics on the part of the radical European intellectuals in its logical development inevitably passes into action.

As a whole “War” is radically different from “All Quiet on the Western Front”. Not only does Tikhonov graphically describe the horrors of war but he also shows its underlying significance and meaning. He depicts war in all its hideous details and reveals those who are responsible for it.

The fundamental theme of Tikhonov’s book is not war itself, but it is war and its relation to contemporary science. His main characters are not the rank-and-file soldiers as it is the case with Remarque’s novel and with the majority of books dealing with this particular epoch. His central characters are three scientific inventors who enrich war technique with new and perfected means for destroying human life.

The major Otto von Starke, is a classic soldier type. Discipline and a set of rules are his religion. Just before the outbreak of war, practice manoeuvres take place. Thus enemy pressing close upon von Starke’s troops, finally surrounds the fortress defended by them, when suddenly cascades of water out of fire pumps are levelled against the attacking enemy. To the August commander in-chief of the army, highly amazed by such an action, Starke offers the following explanation: “Bearing in mind the conventionality of manoeuvres I gave the order for burning oil to be poured over the ranks of the enemy”. In the ensuing silence the episode assumes huge proportions. Starke’s idea interests the heads of the army, his project soon becomes realised and during the very first months of war, the flame projector takes a definite place in the ranks of war weapons.

The second central character of “War” is Prof. Carl Faber who in addition to the purely technical military theme introduces into the novel its second theme—that of western science in its relation to war. Faber is a prominent chemist and a scientist with a world reputation. He is interested in nothing but himself and his laboratories “To kill a dozen men, one must have the soul of a demon.” This is his philosophy. And it is this same Faber, “a man with a round attractive face”, and “a great admirer of witicism and jokes” who becomes the desired guest of the military staff—a guest far more important than the old chief of the fire-brigade, major Otto von Starke.

Faber is a chemist and as an aid to the flame-projector he invents gas bombs. “An aeroplane cast off a black cloud of smoke which hung suspended in the air... Behind the wisps of clouds the greenish rusty fog was visible but it did not mingle with the clouds of smoke issuing from the shells. Like the fog at sea, even and calm, it loomed ever nearer showing no tendency to rise.

up into the sky until presently the whole field of battle was enveloped in its greenish veil... The corporal lay on his stomach. He was not wounded. He was convulsively pressing his face against the earth, the filthy dark earth of the trenches. Evidently the corporal has lost his mind."

The machine of destruction once started cannot stop. When one of the flame-projectors is left on the field of battle, its remains fall into the hands of the enemy. And now a third character comes out on the stage, the English Lieutenant Hitchens. He becomes interested in this “broken gas container, bullet-riddled and dented from the attackers’ spades. A few days later Hitchens was already on his way to London. His bag contained the German flame-projector and a report on the feasibility of creating a similar apparatus, but emitting gas instead of oil”. To the flame-projector and the gas bomb a third invention is added — the gas-projector.

Hitchens is a second Faber with the only difference that Faber either because he has not the courage or because he does not desire it, fails to understand fully the meaning of his work, but Hitchens knows perfectly why and for what he is fighting. He is more cynical and more shrewd than Faber. He knows that the wars of the past few years “are like a midsummer night’s dream compared to that war which is going soon to grip the whole world”. He knows that “wars solve all crises, do away with unemployment, that they require supplies of iron and steel, copper and coal, oil and nitrogen, paper and leather, canned goods and butter, and animals and men, ready for anything”. And he also knows that it is not Starke who will be his enemy in this next war. “We are close friends”, he says to the old chief of the fire-brigade, “grown close to each other in the battles which renewed civilisation”. Another will be the enemy. Hitchens names him: “The world has known wars with the dragon, the crescent, the lions and eagles of the empire, but now it shall be at war with the hammer and sickle.”

Starke, Faber, and Hitchens are the three characters who unfold the theme of Tikhonov’s novel. However, there are other characters in the book. We have already mentioned Earnest Asten who in five years changes from a radical pacifist to a rebel who blows up an ammunition dump. A parallel type is Faber’s wife, Anny. She, as a chemist, always used to help her husband in all his experiments. “And recently I found out that part of the laboratory had become secret a long time ago, barred to the other experimentalists, and guarded like a fortress”, she tells one of her friends. “I learned that he worked out methods whereby poison gases could be applied for war purposes. I grew cold from horror at this thought... So far no chemist in the world could ever make up his mind to do it.”

Earnest Asten’s pacifist attitude changes into action and at first brings him into the ranks of insurgent soldiers and later into jail. Anny’s path is different. It is characteristic for its humanitarian wavering. The disgust Anny feels when she learns of her husband’s work does not lead her to any solution out of the difficult situation and so she ends it by committing suicide.

The character of Anny Faber rounds out and concludes the idea of “War”. The book has not the conventional ending of a fiction work, for it is not really a novel or a story. The author himself defines his work as a chronicle: “Learning different facts from the epoch of the world war: mentioned in special literature, I could not resist the temptation of incorporating into a conventional narrative which sometimes borders on a chronicle, certain tragic episodes of the gas and flame-projector war which
were practically unknown to the general reader."

This is a true definition, true in the sense that as far as the general idea of the book is concerned, it stands out whole and complete in the reader's mind, although the fates of the various characters are left unfinished. And the scene where Faber, after his numerous scientific inventions which he has been putting to practical use for a period of many years, with an eagerness and zeal of a true humanitarian signs a protest against the execution of wreckers in the Soviet Union, this final scene of the novel admirably crowns the conception that Tikhonov sought to bring out in his work.

"WAR"

1. ANNY

Professor Faber's wife learns from newspapers of the first gas attacks. This is the work of her husband...

"Have you read the evening paper?" she asked, looking him straight in the eyes. He was surprised by the enormoussness of her eyes.

"Ah", he said, "gases... Evidently, you mean the gas attacks. It must be an amusing sight, Anny..."

"An amusing sight?! You are mad! You know nothing. There is one man who is responsible for this. The world scientist, your friend, Carl Faber, of his own accord became a murderer."

As she spoke, her shoulders moved convulsively.

"Tell me everything", he begged, "everything, Anny. It will relieve you..."

"Winny, you know Carl. There was no man living more devoted to science than he. I, as a chemist, was his assistant. There was nobody happier than I, Winny. I was reproached for my seriousness, but I knew how to laugh and be gay. We knew that there was nothing more important in life than science, and when I donned my laboratory dress I felt young, Winny...

Those were happy times. Carl was surrounded by splendid assistants. His discoveries are known all over the world. And recently I found out that part of the laboratory had become secret a long time ago, barred to the other experimentalists, and guarded like a fortress. Military men were now seen in the laboratory. They felt themselves quite at home there. I thought they were making casual experiments, and asked Carl what was happening. And this embar-

rassed him, my honest Carl became confused, began to lie and began explaining in such a way that I understood that the matter was of far-reaching importance, otherwise, surely, Carl would not take casual questions so much to heart. I told him all I thought on this subject. I said that when two people live together, they share everything half-and-half, or else they part and each goes his own way. Thus, so far, it was with us. I can't help it, Winny, that is the way I am. And he told me what I had already expected. I have no right to tell you this, Winny, you must forget what I tell you, for if the others find out about this, it will be very disagreeable for you. But I cannot, I cannot help speaking.

I learned that he worked out methods whereby poison gases could be applied for war purposes. I grew cold from horror at this thought. You are not a chemist and you cannot imagine the horror and the loathsomeness of such a thing. So far no chemist in the world could ever make up his mind to do it. I found out that the thing had gone far, so far that as they say in the newspapers, great success has been achieved."

Anny spoke in a tired and hoarse voice, choking with tears.

2. PROFESSOR FABER

At the front Prof. Faber talks of the significance of his scientific discovery.

"My friends in England and France will be only too glad to accept our challenge. We must work day and night. We must prepare a defense against enemy gas. The
hound race has begun. At this moment we have a good start in the race, but we shall soon lose it. Then we shall go head to head. Our answer for each gas must be a super gas, and for each gas mask, we must have a super gas mask. The face of war will change every month. But perhaps you do not quite realise what gas is. Gas may be used in various shapes and forms. It may assume the guise of clouds, waves, and screens. You can fill shells and torpedoes with gas, you can turn every ruin, every trench, every wood and every street into a gas trap, you can make people cry or laugh, you can make them scratch like monkeys, bellow like buffaloes, or coil up like snakes. It will seem to them that they are breathing ozone, but it will be a smoke veil out of yellow phosphorus. They will enter into gardens, where the air will smell of early spring, but in fact it will be ethyl ether of bromoacetic acid. Chloride of nitro-benzole will seem to them to be the scent of the forgotten fatherland, the scent reminiscent of quiet and comfort, the whole town will be redolent with the smell of geraniums, of violets, and of peppermints — but gaunt death shall stalk along the entire garrison. Yes, we will go in for chemical horticulture. I am not raving. They are quite right — I have not a military mind. I am a scientist who has long tired of watching the prehistoric fights where dull heads are being beaten with sharp weapons.

"Are you going to Berlin now?"

"No, I am going home. I am somewhat tired and miss my laboratory, my wife and friends. The front is filthy, I found a louse in my linen yesterday, threw it all away and took a hot bath."

3. LIEUTENANT HITCHENS

To the left of Hitchens an artillery lieutenant was shouting at his platoon. This strange world was peopled only with officers and soldiers — no other human beings were to be seen. "Very well, lieutenant Hitchens", said he to himself, and his eyes grew heavy like after three nights of hard drinking.

Horror haunted the entire front. The flashes of occasional gunfire were mistaken for flame-projector attacks. Smoke and fog were taken for waves of poison gas. A spectre of fire and gas haunted the trenches.

In a single day lieutenant Hitchens grew ten years older. Perhaps, because he was expecting death any moment and could not decide whether or not he was ready to die. He spent long hours in front of the broken gas containers, bullet-riddled and dented from the blows of the attackers' spades.

The colonel found him there one day and was surprised to note the deep preoccupation of his officer.

"You are looking extremely wise, Hitchens", said he "what are you philosophising about?"

The colonel bent down and recognised the remains of a German flame-projector.

"I wish to return them everything", the other said, "effective fire, and effective gas, but that will require study. However, I learned something already."

"Very good", said the colonel and four days later Hitchens was crossing the grey sea on his way to London.

Within his cabin Hitchens jumped up every now and then, longing to discharge his revolver into the dark door of the cabin.

He had with him a German flame-projector and a report on the feasibility of creating an apparatus similar to the flame-projector, but emitting gas instead of oil.

Hitchens' suitcase was open and showed the wild disorder of its contents. The first objects to be seen were newspapers. These were German newspapers taken by Hitchens from the division staff. They contained detailed articles by special correspondents from the front about gas and fire attacks.

4. RICH PROSPECTS

In 1930 Hitchens visits Otto von Stark. They were both inventors of lethal weapons during the world war.

"My name is of no importance. It tells nothing. If I tell you that I was known at various times of my life as Hitchens, as Stokes, as Lavoix, as Katarini and then again as Hitchens, I should be merely turning over a few pages of my biography.

In 1915 your flame-projector and poison gases created such a panic among us, that people went mad from fear. I had never given myself up exclusively to military service, but when I had learned of your flame-projector, the spirit of war took complete possession of me. Fury sustained me like a life belt supports a drowning person. I was confronted with great difficulties but just the same, my inventions were quite successful.
I lost my mistress, war became my mistress. Although I was a sportsman, I was deprived of the opportunity to play games, for with one arm you cannot be a sportsman — then war became my sport. I am a doctor of philosophy but now that philosophy is dead, I take joy in the philosophy of war. Our time is the time of ceaseless hostilities. I shall tell you that the ten years that passed since the world war I spent in a field of battle, leaving it only to go to the laboratory and then back again. Where did I fight? Consider the wars of the past few years and you will realise that there have been quite a lot of them. But all these wars are like a midsummer night's dream compared to that war which is going soon to grip the whole world. A new supply of cannon fodder is now ready in all countries for a new world war. Both capitalists and scientists will enter into the war, the former because of their fear of the tremendous growth of the proletariat and the latter from mixed feelings. The war will solve all crises, it will do away with unemployment, it will require supplies of iron and steel, copper and coal, oil and nitrogen, paper and leather, canned goods and butter, and animals and men ready for anything.

I went to see Prof. Faber to thank him for his contributions to science which revolutionised human history.

The world has known war with the dragon, the crescent, the lions and eagles of the empire, but now it shall be at war with the hammer and sickle. Everywhere where this symbol will appear there will be conflicts, and any man who will side with them will be our enemy. This is why our great campaign shall unite the nations of the world. We learned a great deal during these years. It appears that we are still young, that the blood of the pirates — as a friend of mine has put it — still flows in our veins. An empire cannot be built in white gloves. I must tell you one thing, dear — Mr. Otto that you and I are enemies no longer. We are very close friends brought together during a war which renewed civilisation.

Recently I attended a dinner in London where a great German, the defender of eastern Africa and a great Englishman, the conqueror of eastern Africa, men who for years fought against each other, shook hands and pledged friendship.

I wish to ask your permission to shake hands with you.

5. THE "HUMANITARIAN"

Prof. Faber and his Assistant Vogel.

"Prof. Vogel, said Faber, 'I am very glad to see you.'"

"I came to you on business. Professor", said Vogel, "again those bolsheviks..."

"What do you wish to say, Vogel?"

"Not more than three days ago, the newspapers printed information from Moscow that many of the so-called 'wreckers' and among them several scientists, were executed."

"This is a protest against the execution", he added, "in the name of humaneness we must protest. I am collecting signatures of German scientists and I have already secured some."

Faber began to read the signatures. He frowned when he had read the text. "Several dozen men", he said, "just think, Irma, my child, think, to kill several dozen men! All right, Vogel, I will sign this. Have you a pen? That is good, thank you, Vogel. It will soon dry."

CIVIL WAR IN THE WORKS OF SOVIET WRITERS

By I. Sergueievsky

Rarely we find among the works of Soviet writers even a few who do not reflect the Civil War in their works. This fact alone deprives us of the possibility to embrace fully in this brief review the entire works of the Soviet writers dealing with the theme of Civil War and we are obliged to confine ourselves to the most characteristic works dedicated to this epoch.

During the climax of the Civil War contemporary themes began to penetrate into literature. From this we should start — from the Red Army news-sheets, on the pages of which the fighters themselves tried to
lighten, in the form of artistic narrations, events of recent battles.

Thus by the end of the Civil War its days and deeds had already become the theme of many poetical works, short stories and novels. A certain amount of experience was thus accumulated. This fact alone can explain why during the first years of the restoration period we had a considerable number of literary works, dedicated to the Civil War, which stood on the high level of art and have preserved their interest to the readers until now, in spite of nearly 10 years gone by. To emphasise the particular importance of this literature we should mention the numerous songs, marches, satires and popular verses belonging to such a master of agitational poetry as Demian Bedny ("To the deceived brothers. White Army's trenches", "Defend the Soviets", "Manifest of baron Wrangel" etc.). Himself an active participant of the Civil War, who fought in many battles, Demian Bedny succeeded in placing his works on a high level of art.

To the literature of the Civil War epoch belongs first of all the cycle of the so-called guerilla stories by Vsevolod Ivanov. It was the first appearance of this writer in Soviet literature, but nevertheless his stories gave the most vivid and brilliant description of the epoch. True that his themes may appear rather one-sided as he only wrote about the peasant movement — the movement of peasantry directed against the White forces and interventionists, the movement of masses ignorant of politics, who however knew well their aim and object: bolsheviks gave them land, gave the workers factories and bolsheviks they will follow. This elemental struggle was often started by those who wishing to escape the violence of the Whites, left their villages and hamlets, retreated to the forest and there formed fighting detachments. Description of such events can be found in Vsevolod Ivanov's "Partisans" and "Armoured train". The place of action in both stories is the East, the remote Siberian forests. The plot is emphatically straightforward and simple. "Partisans" is the story of four peasants who after a raid of the White punitive expedition go into the forests where they form a defensive partisan detachment. The detachment is attacked by the Whites, its organisers are killed in the fighting and those remained retreat and join the advancing Red Army.

In the "Armoured train" a detachment already connected with the city bolshevist organisation, stops and captures by its order an armoured train of the Whites. The train is stopped by a Chinese partisan, who lies down on the tracks thus sacrificing his life for the common cause.

The same elemental upheaval of the peasantry is pictured in the "Iron flood" by Seraphimovich. This story is based on true events which took place during the Civil War in the Caucasus. The episod described concerns the Taman division, which was surrounded by the Whites, succeeded in breaking through and after an exhaustive five days march joined the Red Army. The core of this division was formed by the local peasants who came to Taman with their families trying to escape the terror of the Whites. Seraphimovich shows how the wild undisciplined crowd in the process of the struggle gradually grows into a strong efficient fighting force perfectly realising the object of the struggle and its final goal. The images of Seraphimovich are vivid and true to life. He gives a careful and detailed description of all characters from the leaders down to the rank-and-file fighters.

The peasantry in the Civil War was generally a favourite theme of all writers describing this epoch. The same theme is dealt with in "Badgers" by Leonid Leonov— the story, which in its artistic value comes up to the "Iron flood".

"Badgers" also portrays anarchist rebellious peasantry, which in the process of struggle,
in the process of class differentiation eventually finds its place among the revolutionary forces and marches together with the proletariat. The story is chiefly devoted to portraying the contemporary life. If in the descriptions of Vsevolod Ivanov there is a certain amount of exotics and if the descriptions of life by Seraphimovich though occupying a great place in the story yet actually play a secondary part, these descriptions in Leonid Leonov's novel have a most vivid and prominent role. Finally to the same group of authors belongs Artem Vessioly who almost exclusively deals with the materials of the Civil War. He wrote the novels "The Flaming rivers", "Mother-country", "Russia bathed in blood" and others. The main feature of Artem Vessioly's works is their many-sidedness. He does not limit himself with any separate episodes but tries to embrace the whole movement. Although the peasantry remains the centre of the plot he also introduces other revolutionary strata: first of all that same peasantry organised into an army, a soldiers' mass already revolutionised at the end of the Imperialist War; then the revolutionary working mass of the town. The novels of Artem Vessioly have no particular plots. They represent a number of fragments joined together, but without any definite circle of characters.

The new phase in the development of Soviet literature dealing with Civil War is represented by Fadeev's novel, "Havoc". The main theme here is also the partisan movement, but unlike of all those already mentioned works, the chief body of partisans consists not of peasants but of workers. These are Siberian miners, who carry on revolutionary propaganda in the rear of the Whites' front in the Far East. The head of the movement is not one of the partisan mass but a professional revolutionary from town. The story refers not to the initial stage of the movement when the separate detachments acted at their own accord and risk but to the more advanced period when the partisans acted already in an organised way under one central leadership.

The next stage in the development of this kind of literature deals chiefly with the Red Army and its role in the Civil War.

Here we must mention the whole cycle of stories by Iabel collected in one book under the title of "The Cavalry". Certainly the army described is not the Red Army of today as far as its body and mode of life are concerned. This army has many former partisans who fully preserved their partisan ways and customs. The style of the
author is at times grotesque and therefore his works cannot be regarded as documents or historical facts. A contrast to Babel in this respect is D. Furmanov, whose chief theme is also the Red Army in the Civil War. His "Chapaev" and "Revolt" are just the works which for their truth in historical facts go beyond the existing limits of literature and grow almost into a historical chronicle. The author not only acts as an eye-witness of the described events, as a memoirist, but also introduces real documents into his works. The characteristics of Chapaev, for example, is based on the original autobiography, written down by the political commissary of his division. It was such an epoch that the description of a casual skirmish impresses one as a great battle and the biography of a rank-and-file fighter becomes a heroic legend. Furmanov's "Revolt" is a chronicle dealing with the kulak's revolt in Semirechie. The liquidation of the revolt takes place during the last years of the Civil War.

It is essential to mention here another work touching the subject of the Civil War, namely "The Week" by Libedinsky. In all the works previously mentioned, the place of action were the front lines, and the leading characters — first partisans and later Red Army men. "The Week" deals with the rear lines, which only during the unexpected raid on the Whites become a field of military action. "The Week" is one of the few stories where the restoration of the national economy of the country during the days of destruction, blockade and hunger, is portrayed. Such is the scene where the volunteers are collecting fuel for the local railway branch.

A. Fadeev, author of "Navoe"

Once more we repeat that we have limited the present review to the most characteristic and valuable materials of Soviet literature dealing with Civil War. We have not mentioned here the works of a considerable interest and value, which only partly approach the subject of the Civil War ("Towns and years" by Fedin, "The Bare year" by Pilniak and others).

To give the full account of everything that was written in Soviet literature concerning this heroic epoch would be the work of many volumes.

DANIEL FIBICH ON HIS NOVEL "BLOOD SALT"

Daniel Fibich is a young Soviet writer — the author of the novel "Ugar" (Vausea) and numerous short stories and sketches. Below we print a communication received by us from the author on a new novel which he is now writing.

In the year 1919 a splendid Pullman train roamed over the great Trans-Siberian railway that was jammed at the time by military trains.

This particular train was inhabited by a colonel who was the direct adviser, instructor as well as bodyguard, one might say the doting nurse, of the "supreme ruler of the Russian empire", admiral Kolchak. The colonel, alive to the responsibilities of his situation, not only advised the admiral on what he thought would be the most successful strategical plans for the crushing of Soviet Russia, but also travelled from station to station on the Siberian railway, explaining to the railro
the benefit of this strategy to the "cause of culture".

The arguments used by the colonel were sufficiently weighty and convincing: on leaving the meeting addressed by the colonel, the railwaymen could see the machine guns and quick-firing trained on their village.

This brief historical excursion is quite opportune at this moment when the iron heel of intervention looms again over the Soviet Country, when in the heated atmosphere one feels the faintly perceptible, stealthy approach of poison gases intended for us.

We know and remember what foreign intervention is like. We have studied it with our blood. We can tell, and we must tell those who still believe in pacifist protestations, what is the real worth of these protestations and who really supported the Russian counter-revolution.

In all probability, the colonel is still alive today. Alive are also the other "heroes" of the great Siberian tragedy. Not only alive, but also rattling their rusty swords. Their names are re-appearing in the newspapers.

At this very moment it is relevant to recall the memories of the recent past, and to show it as it was in reality.

In my novel, "Blood Salt", I have tried to show the Urals and Siberia in 1919, icebound amid the flare of rebellion, trampled by interventionists. The great upheaval of surging human masses. Shattered illusions. Destruction of ethical habits and values. Remodelling of the psychology of the intelligentsia. The new human, class consciousness born in storm and fire, the new iron truths.

I want to tell how the army of the proletariat came into being, how the soil was won back from the enemy inch by inch, how — clad in tatters and semi-barefooted, decimated by typhus — it accomplished its heroic drive from the banks of the Volga to the Pacific Ocean.

Before setting down to write this novel, which I am now finishing, I have spent nearly two years in studying the materials — the diaries of Kolchak's supporters, the leaders of the intervention, in poring over documents in the archives, and finally, in travelling to localities where the Civil War had raged — the Volga, the Urals, and Eastern Siberia.

In conclusion, let me decipher the name of the novel, "Blood Salt", in Russian technology, is the name given to media used for the calcination of materials to render articles more durable.
On the Eve of the World War


A publication of tremendous interest has been undertaken by the Commission of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR for the publication of historic documents. The late Academician M. Pokrovsky was president of the Commission until his recent death. The first volume of the series, issued simultaneously in the Russian and German languages, was well received by the foreign press of all shades of opinion which noted the serious value of the documents published. In many respects the antecedent and preparatory period of the world war appears here in a new light.

Of outstanding interest is vol. IV which covers the period of June 28—July 22, 1914, i.e. the very eve of the world war. On reading the documents contained in this volume (and there are 340 of them) one constantly recollects the words of the Academician M. Pokrovsky in his introductory article to vol. I:

"The moment of exploding the long-since-laid mine was not clear to the very people who had laid it. Nevertheless, the objective atmosphere, for which there could be no other outcome but a European war in the near future, had become finally established in the winter of 1913/14. By that time anyone in possession of all the political and military information of both sides (and such information was not really possessed by any of the political leaders of the countries that were ready to start the war, England and Germany not excluded) might have expected the explosion 'with a time-piece in his hands'." On studying now the documents, one can indeed trace, almost by the clock, the maturing of the terrible catastrophe of 1914.

A whole number of vital problems of foreign politics of the period are touched upon in these 340 documents relating to the days of June 28—July 22, 1914. Here, as in the first volume, a considerable role is played by the Near-Eastern and Far-Eastern aspirations of the tsarist government. There is considerable debate on affairs in Persia where the interests of the two allied powers—England and Russia—came into collision. The quite unequivocal Russian aggression causes apprehension in England, diplomatic negotiations are conducted, and every effort is made to balance their influences, of course, least of all worrying over the interests of the Persian people. It was a battle of wits between Grey and Sazonov trying to devise some clever formula to outwit one another. Tsarist Russia gave also considerable attention to Turkey. A number of documents deals with the question of acquiring the Bank of Salonica and amalgamating it with the National Bank—a special international consortium with the participation of the Russo-Asiatic Bank. The different machinations in connection, with this enterprise might characterise the expansion of international capital into the former Ottoman Empire. The reports of the tsarist diplomatic representatives constantly deal with banking matters: troubles in Albania, a Bulgarian loan, Bulgaro-Russian frontier disputes, etc. With Serbia, which occupies considerable space in the documents, we shall deal separately.

In regard to the tsarist Far-Eastern policy, one should note its advance into Mongolia. The published materials deal also with other questions connected with world politics of the period.

And suddenly this diplomatic correspondence, with its subtle intrigues and counter-intrigues, takes an abrupt turning upon the receipt of a special telegram from the tsar's ambassador at Vienna informing about the assassination of the Austrian archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife at Sarayevo. Beginning with this short telegram we see how gradually are brought into motion all the cogs in the machine which has long since been prepared for starting. It is interesting how Sarayevo begins to occupy a more and more prominent place in the diplomatic correspondence. During the first days it is limited to the expression of indignation about the murder, to visits of condolence to the Austrian emperor, etc. Next comes anxiety as regards the position of the Austrian Government towards Serbia. Here the documents
enable one to trace all the nuances. It is interesting to observe that the Russian ambassador in Vienna, Shebeko, did not sufficiently appreciate the gravity of the situation, and his reports are rather of a reassuring character. Thus, in his despatch dated June 30 he states: "The tragic death of the archduke Franz Ferdinand has little affected the local financial circles and the stock exchange — this barometer of the sentiment of the business portion of the population. The quotations of State securities have not been lowered, this being due to prospects of a calmer and more peaceable policy in the near future." The Russian diplomat shows a rather confused view of the situation when he concludes in the same despatch: "But now there is every ground to presume that at least in the near future the trend of Austro-Hungarian policy will be more restrained and more calm." More penetrating vision is shown by the Russian ambassador in Belgrad, Hartwig, who in his despatch of June 30 speaks of the possibility of a straining of the Austro-Serbian relations. In his letter of July 1, Shebeko speaks already about great irritation reigning in Austrian military and clerical circles not only against Serbia, but also against Russia. "Some of organs of the press", he writes, "like the 'Reichspost', go so far as to see a connection between the Sarayevu event and our calling in the army reserves." In a telegram dated July 8, Shebeko advises to take with great caution all the alarming news coming from Vienna; yet he himself in a letter of the same date considers the established tranquility to be rather superficial, and he adds that "the traces of the bloody Sarayevu event will not be so quickly effaced". An altogether different note is sounded in his telegram of July 16, in which he informs Sazonov about the supposition that the Austrian Government would make certain demands to Serbia. In his telegram of July 21, Shebeko finds nothing better than to inform about his leaving on a vacation. Sazonov, however, in a telegram addressed to him on July 22, speaking about the anticipated Austrian action in Belgrad advises Shebeko "in friendly yet persistent manner to point out to the foreign minister the dangerous consequences which might follow from such action, should it assume an unaccountable character for Serbia's dignity." The reports of the tsarist ambassador from Vienna do not reveal any particular diplomatic sagacity on his part.

Soon after the Sarayevu event, reports came also from tsarist ambassadors to other European courts. Particularly interesting here is the diplomatic correspondence of the ambassador to Great Britain, Count Benkendorf. Already in a brief message to Sazonov on June 30 he speaks about a dangerous situation; especially in his letter from July 9 intimating the details of a conversation he had with Sir Edward Grey. Grey had said that he did not like the news that came from Vienna, that there was very great excitement, considerably greater than ever before. The situation is represented as being very grave: "So that you consider the situation as a serious one?", I asked Grey. The latter replied that the thought that this horrible crime might lead to a sudden outbreak of a universal war with all its cataclysms after the great pains we took last year to avoid it, and that matters seem generally to grow steadily worse, might raise one's hair on end." ("En resumé, dis-je à Grey, vous trouvez la situation sérieuse? Grey me répondit que la pensée que de cet horrible crime pourrait surgir inopinément une guerre générale, avec tous ses cataclysmes, alors que nous avons pu l'éviter l'an dernier avec tant de peine, et que les choses en somme paraissaient lentement s'aggraver, fait dresser les cheveux sur la tête.").

In his letter of July 15, Benkendorf says that although no alarming news had come from Vienna and from Berlin, Grey seemed to be little reassured. Curious are the details in the reports of the envoy from Serbia and Bulgaria. The envoy at Sophia, Savinsky, reports that the Bulgarian government press raises wholesale charges against Serbia and the whole of the Serbian people, thus settling the accounts for Bulgaria's failure in the recent war. Rather dry are the reports of the ambassador from Berlin which do not sufficiently characterize all the shades of sentiment in German official circles. It is curious that the ambassador to France, Izvolsky, reacted in no way to the Sarayevu event. At any rate, there are no documents bearing on this subject.

The imminence of war was palpable at every step. All the powers were preparing for it to one extent or another. Highly symptomatic, for instance, is the secret correspondence between Sazonov and the minister of the navy on the question of strengthening the Black Sea fleet and the numerical strength of the troops available for landing operations. Hardly unexpected is
the advise given by the ministry of foreign affairs at the request of the minister of finance. In conclusion, this correspondence treats of the possibility of the seizure of money, funds, and securities of the Russian treasury held in foreign banks by a foreign power at war with Russia (Letter and Memorandum of June 29). In a confidential letter to the minister for foreign affairs, the acting chief of the general staff informs on July 3 that 120,000 rifles with 120 million cartridges containing blunt bullets have been sold to the Serbian army from Russian military stores.

While preparing for war, the powers endeavour to strengthen the ties of their alliances. A big event on the eve of the war was the arrival of the President of the French Republic, Raymond Poincaré, in St. Petersburg. The preparations for this event are curiously illustrated in the documents. An eloquent description of the "left" cabinet of Viviani is given in Izvolsky's letter to Sazonov on July 1st: "You have noticed, of course, the chat given by Viviani to the local correspondent of "Novoye Vremya", Yakovlev (Pavlovsky). This interview had a twofold purpose: to explain at once to French public opinion and parliament that although the present cabinet relies on the extreme left parties which do not sympathise with Russia in principle, nevertheless, it is fully devoted to the Franco-Russian alliance; at the same time M. Viviani's words are addressed no doubt to the Russian public in view of his impending visit to Russia with the President of the Republic. I know that M. Viviani feels deeply happy at the thought of this journey, and he is very anxious to make a good impression on us." This testimony given by Izvolsky, hardly flattering as it is for the prominent socialist leader, is confirmed by Viviani himself, who in his memoirs writes exultingly about the splendour of the tsar's court and the charms of the journey. The following words in that letter have quite an unambiguous purport: "You know, of course, that on the return journey the President of the Republic will visit not only the Danish, but also the Swedish and Norwegian courts. M. Poincaré has told me in private conversation that these visits, in his opinion, may bring a certain amount of benefit to the policy of the Triple Alliance, and that, especially in Sweden, he intends to exert all his efforts to explain the true aims of this policy." It is quite clear that the journey was not undertaken by Poincaré for mere pleasure, and that it pursued quite definite aims. Not without reason did the other side take such a keen interest in the details of this journey. The telegram from the Austrian minister of foreign affairs to the chargé d'affaires on July 14 reads literally as follows: "I implore Your Excellency to let me know immediately the date of M. Poincaré's arrival and of his departure, as well as the principal festivities arranged in his honour during his stay in St. Petersburg." The war was being prepared; the adversaries keenly watched each other, and the allies endeavoured to demonstrate their mutual friendship. It is true, in this case the music was almost spoilt by Jaurès. Izvolsky complains in a letter to Sazonov on July 8: "Yesterday in the Chamber of Deputies, during the discussion on the vote of four hundred thousand francs for the journey of the President of the Republic to Russia, the leader of the Unified Socialists Jaurès pronounced a sharp speech against Russia."

Jaurès died a tragic death, having come out as an ardent opponent of the war at a moment when the war, carefully prepared by the combined efforts of the leading imperialist powers, had become a fact.
Physical Culture and Sport in the USSR

THE PART PLAYED BY PHYSICAL CULTURE IN SOCIALIST CONSTRUCTION

The whole work of physical culture in the USSR is directly co-ordinated with the activities of all the official and public organisations which look after the education and instruction of the rising generation and its preparation for labour and defence of the country.

This co-ordination determines also the organisational structure of physical-culture work in USSR.

Every organisation that engages to one extent or another in politico-educational, cultural-social or sanitation activity, includes also physical culture in the sphere of its interests.

Physical culture in the schools is part of the educational system and of the educational and cultural measures carried out by the Commissariat for Education and its subordinate bodies. Medical control over physical culture exercises is taken care of by the People’s Commissariat for Health. The latter also conducts and supervises physical culture in the curative and prophylactic establishments: sanatoria, health resorts, rest homes, hospitals, etc.

The People’s Commissariat of Labour has charge of physical culture in factories and workshops, bearing in mind the value of physical culture as a means to stimulate the health of the worker and increase the productivity of his labour.

The organs and enterprises of the People’s Commissariat of Light Industry supply the physical culture organisations with the necessary outfits and clothing, which in old times used to be either produced by private manufacturers or imported from abroad.

There is also a good deal of self-activity developed by public organisations for the furtherance of sport. The rank-and-file physical culture units are formed upon the industrial principle (factory and shop units). There are no territorial-physical culture organisations. Units exist in factories, workshops, schools, State farms, collective farms, producers’ co-operative Societies, Red Army companies, in the Navy, etc. Thereby the system and methods of physical culture become interwoven with the needs and interests of industrial life and of definite sections of the socialist construction that goes on throughout the country. Therefore, the various organisations, such as trade-unions, producers’ co-operative societies, the Union of Collective Farms, the People’s Commissariat for Education, etc., by setting up physical culture units in the institutions under their respective control, are directly guiding and supervising their activities, maintaining special organs and paid officials for this purpose.

Since the work of physical culture is looked upon as a matter concerning the State, there ought to be uniform State control of this work. This control is exercised by the Physical Culture Boards of the Soviet organs of government. These are: the All-Union Board of Physical Culture attached to the Central Executive Committee of the USSR and similar boards under local governing bodies and Republican and Regional Executives. The Physical Culture Boards exercise uniform State guidance and control over the work of physical culture in all the organisations engaging therein. The decisions of these Boards are obligatory on all the physical culture organisations.

The physical culture movement has grown quantitatively, and continues to grow day by day. Thus, whereas in 1928 it comprised about 600,000 persons, at present there are about 3 millions of them. The largest of the physical culture organisations in the USSR is that of the trade-unions.

At the same time grows also the material basis of physical culture work. In 1932 the sum of 25 million rubles is going to be spent on the building of physical culture establishments, about 10 million rubles on the training of instructors, and upwards of 30 million rubles on other aspects of the work. Building operations have begun in Moscow on a gigantic stadium to accommodate up to 200,000 people.

The physical culturists have become active participators in all the economic and political measures carried out in this country. The participation of physical culturists as an organised mass in sowing and harvesting campaigns, in lumbering

By N. Znamensky
campaigns, in agricultural collectivisation and other public political campaigns has become one of the constant forms of the work of the physical-culture organisations. Thus, in the 1931 campaign, due to the efforts of special groups of physical culturists who went to the villages, 5,600 individual peasant farmers were induced to join the collective farms, 7,290 agricultural machines were repaired, 2,600 quintals of seeds were separated, and so forth.

About one-half of the physical culturists are shock-brigaders in their respective enterprises. Among them are many enthusiasts of socialist labour who have set examples of work and were repeatedly rewarded with premiums. The set purpose of the physical culture movement is to turn every physical culturist not only into a shock-worker, but also into the best shock-worker among the rest of the workers. This is quite natural and feasible. Who but the robust, agile, buoyant physical culturist should set the pace in his line of work!

Every individual physical culturist is expected to carry out a certain specified complex or quota which consists of 13 physical culture and sport exercises known under the slogan: “Ready for Labour and Defence”. The result is the thorough physical development of the organism, practical preparation for physical work, and the acquisition of the necessary experience for the event of being called upon to defend the country.

This complex includes: racing, leaping, disc throwing, gymnastics, skiing, swimming, rowing, etc., also practical knowledge in hygiene, sanitation, military matters, first aid, and fundamentals of the physical culture movement. An obligatory stipulation is also participation in a shock-brigade at the place of work. The one who has successfully completed the stipulated quota is rewarded with a silver breast badge, “Ready for Labour and Defence”, with a certificate of merit from the Supreme Board of Physical Culture, and with the title of “best physical culturist of the USSR”.

This quota, in view of its clear purpose,
has already gained mass sympathy not only among physical culturists but also among the majority of the toilers. In a short time no less than 30,000 people have already passed their tests on the full quota. During the winter season no less than half a million people passed their tests in ski-ing. These people in the course of 1932 are going to win the badge of "Ready for Labour and Defence".

Upon the basis of the quota the whole system of physical culture exercises is being built up throughout. The passing of the tests has to be the result of diligent daily exercise.

This system of work by no means implies the denial of the cultivation of the separate varieties of sport. On the contrary, such thorough training creates wider possibilities for training in separate kinds of sport, and for achieving higher distinction. The sport technique rises from year to year. The best proof was furnished by the Winter Sport Festival given in March of the current year. Very characteristic was the composition of the participants in the festival, 50% of them being factory workers with a training period of from one to three years. At this festival two new All-Union records were set on non-racing skates.

In the summer of 1931 a whole series of new All-Union records were set in light athletics and swimming. The international football matches, most interesting among which was the meeting with the team from Turkey, gave victory to the Soviet players. It should be noted that the Soviet team was made up mostly of young players.

The World Proletarian Spartakiad, which will be held in August, 1933, will enable the physical culturists of the Soviet Union to show, alongside of successes of socialist construction in the USSR during the first Five-Year Plan, also the results of their activity in the creation and development of the new Soviet physical culture.

TRAINING CADRES OF PHYSICAL CULTURE WORKERS IN THE USSR

By P. Belchikov

The question of cadres of physical culture specialists is an internal part of the general problem of cadres, that confronts us. It would be advisable to divide into two chief groups the kind of physical culture workers we have. The first group we may simply class as physical culturists, in other words, those who have had no particular training. Among them are the leaders of the numerous physical culture circles, the referees and umpires, and the active workers who direct the various sections of the physical culture organisations. These people carry on voluntarily widespread work for physical culture among the masses. In the second group are the specialists that is, those who have had professional training in some special form or the other.

There can be three definite stages of such training: first in some sort of a course where the term stretches anywhere from a month up to a year; secondly in a technicium for physical culture; and finally in a physical culture institute.

For those groups who have had no special training we commonly hold short courses which teach certain specific subjects. They last from four to six academic hours and are generally held in the evenings. Such courses are held very frequently for the coaching of referees and umpires owing to the increasing need for them in the different sports.

Let us now come to the question of cadres of specialists and see how they are trained. We must bear in mind that right up to
the time of the Revolution there was not a single institute for physical culture, if we were to except the gymnasiums, a kind of public school for future army officers. They were, at least from our point of view, totally unlike what physical culture schools should be. The only institution that did at all resemble one was the Professor Lesgaft Institute (formerly Courses) for Physical Culture. In 1918, after the Revolution, the Moscow Institute for Physical Culture was opened, which at that time gave a year's training. At about the same time a number of courses were started for the training of sports instructors, following which a Higher School for Physical Culture was established. A part of these institutions were in time closed down or were reorganised so that by 1923 there only remained two institutes: one in Moscow and the other in Leningrad, as bases of special physical culture training. In 1925 the local organisations at Stalingrad upon their own initiative formed the first physical culture technicum in the USSR and ever since then more and more such technicums are arising throughout the country. At the present moment we have the following institutions: Central State Institute for Physical Culture in Moscow, the Lesgaft State Institute for Physical Culture in Leningrad, and the Institutes for Physical Culture in Kharkov and Baku. In the autumn of 1932 an institute will be opened in Tashkent. There is also a total of 24 technicums for physical culture in the USSR.

It should be known that all these institutions come under the joint jurisdiction of the local Physical Culture Boards and the People's Commissariat for Education. In other words they come under the heading of State institutions. As to the courses, they are generally formed by the organisations directly interested, particularly the trade-unions.

The number of students being actually trained in the physical culture institutes of the USSR amounts to 1,500; that of the technicums is about 2,000.

The figures of 1931 show that 87% of those admitted in physical culture institutions were children of industrial workers, the other being collective farm members, children of specialists and employees.

Due attention must be paid to the fact that in the physical culture institutions as well as in other educational institutions there is a large number of women — about 30%. They are quite as experienced as the men are in every principal branch of physical culture, and tackle any practical job or scientific research work fully as well.

In accordance with the general policy of furthering the economic and cultural development of all the nationalities inhabiting the USSR, cadres of physical culture specialists are being trained also from among the peoples of the national minorities. 25% of the students enrolled in 1931 in the Central Institute for Physical Culture were from the national minority regions of the USSR. The quota of native students accepted into the physical culture institutions in Kharkov (Ukraine) and in Baku (Transcaucasia) is fixed at no less than 75%.

The students at the physical culture institutes must, besides having a general political and theoretical education, be acquainted with all the main branches of physical culture, have a thorough knowledge of gymnastics, be cultural workers in their branch of studies, and also be useful social workers.

An indispensable part of the training of physical culture students is practical work. For example, students who have been lectured on physical culture for children go direct to the schools and the pioneer detachments and put into immediate practice all that they have learnt. At the same time they are in a position to find out whether they have correctly understood their lecturers. After such a period of practical training the students return to their respective institutes and there summarise the work done. The second part of their special training is devoted to the development of their physique. Here we see particular attention being devoted to their perfecting their knowledge of gymnastics, and the proper application of it. The students besides carrying out their programme of work and studies, also organise their own physical culture collectives outside the institutes for the purpose of getting additional practical training. The professors of these institutes generally act as consultants and direct the work of such collectives.

The general educational training of these students is the same as in other universities; lectures are given on Soviet economy and culture, the various sciences and the latest scientific achievements. All this knowledge serves as a foundation for the study of definite branches of physical culture. The science that is of paramount
importance, after that of the special subjects, is Marxism and Leninism.

The student body of the physical culture institutes and technicums participate in the public life of the country. Take for example the Transcaucasian Physical Culture Institute. In 1931 its students took an active part in the cotton harvesting campaign and admirable carried out the tasks given them. The students of the Stalingrad Physical Culture Technicum in 1930 and 1931 worked in the Stalingrad Tractor Plant. Many other such cases may be cited.

As a rule all graduates from the physical culture institutes go to take on organisational work in the Boards of Physical Culture, in the Trade-Union Councils, in the organs of the Commissariat for Education and in the Commissariat of Health. They also take posts as teachers in the industrial, pedagogical, medical and other universities, and wherever there are large industrial and agricultural undertakings. Specialists from the physical culture technicums are sent to the schools, to technicums, to the factories, the collective farms, to the rest homes and other places where mass work is required.

A matter deserving much attention is that relating to the preparation of cadres of physical culture scientists. In 1930 groups of aspirants (fellows) were formed at three institutes. At present they total about 100 persons. Scientific workers in medicine, biology and pedagogy participate in the research work in physical culture.

The Commissariat for Education has now founded correspondence courses in a number of important cities in the USSR. These courses deal with different aspects of physical culture and have been formed for the express purpose of giving advance training to the old cadres of physical culture workers. In the autumn of 1932 the State Institute of Physical Culture in Moscow will be opening a correspondence course department which is calculated to serve up to 4,000 students. In 1933 a special institute is expected to be opened where physical culture workers may go for post-graduate work to complete their studies.

Besides this, the physical culture instructors themselves are doing much home study.

In conclusion we may say a word or two on the subject of material welfare of physical culture workers. Physical culture workers who have had higher training will be considered on an equal footing with specialists in the sciences and arts. In the universities, for instance, they get the same rights and privileges as other lecturers and assistant professors; and in the factories they are regarded as part of the technical personnel.
Tourism in the USSR is a form of cultural work, a method of bringing the broad masses nearer to the tremendous work of socialist construction going on in the country. It is also one of the socialist forms of life organisation, helping to educate the new man—member of classless society.

The task and purpose of the All-Union Society for Proletarian Tourism and Excursions (OPTE) is to assist every worker, every student, every scientist willing to see and to understand all the problems and achievements of the Five-Year Plan.

The first proletarian tourist excursions were organised only some years ago, yet OPTE has already become a powerful institution with 1 million members.

The mass tourist movement is growing with every year, as in 1930, 660 thousands took part in various branches of tourist work, against 130 thousands in 1929. In 1931—this number increased up to 2,120 thousands, and in 1932—10 million persons are expected to participate in tourist activities.

At present, OPTE has about 300 well equipped resting places for tourists, more than 200 well prepared itineraries for bicycle, automobile and walking tours as well as for water way travels.

The Society has its own factories, producing tourist equipment, its own shops and photograph offices and its own publications. The network of local branches of OPTE is spread all over the Soviet Union. You find such branches at various industrial enterprises, offices, State farms, collective farms and building places of the country.

Such a system of organisation greatly adds to the real mass character of Soviet tourism.

It happens quite often, that a particular group of workers chooses a definite itinerary and go on excursions by itself. Such groups are also entitled to all the facilities provided by the Society for Proletarian Tourism and Excursions, i. e. the right to stop at tourist resting places, to buy things of tourist equipment at reduced price, to enjoy the help of instructors and guides etc.

The main principle of proletarian tourism is to combine a healthy rest with a close study of socialist construction and with social cultural work. Soviet tourism develops a feeling of collectivism and a sense of organisation.

One of the pioneers in the organisation of OPTE and the present president of this Society is N. Krylenko, the People’s Commissary for Justice of the RSFSR.

In his speech at the All-Union Conference for Planning Public Health, Physical Culture and Tourism for the second Five-Year Plan, N. Krylenko said:

“...A rest home is all right for people with poor health, a sanatorium is good for invalids, but a healthy person needs first and foremost change in impressions, as well as in occupation. Who will assert, that one gets better rest remaining always on the same place, than travelling on bicycle, in a boat, on horseback or climbing the ice covered peaks of mountain ranges?

The institutions of Public Health Care should assist the proletarian tourist. Medicine must show us the way, how to investigate all corners of our immense country, at the same time improving our health. And we proletarian tourists shall tell you about various interesting places in Siberian forests, in Extreme North, in the Urals, in Patna and Altai.

The proletarian tourism is a form of mass movement towards improving the health of a man, and making him an active worker in the construction of the classless socialist society...”

OPTE participates in all social campaigns carried out in the USSR. Soviet tourists carry socialist culture to the far and wide corners of the country. They explain to local population the decisions of the Party and the Soviet Government, consolidate the union between the town and the village.

Soviet tourism is spreading all over the country, assuming various aspects. OPTE pays considerable attention to the development of local travels and excursions. It organises reciprocal visits between members of different collective farms, tours of agricultural workers from one State farm to another, excursions to scientific research and experimental institutions. Thus, workers in the field of agriculture come in touch with the reconstruction of socialist agriculture, acquire a knowledge of modern
technics, which is necessary for their successful work.

Extremely important is the role of the Soviet tourism as far as the problems of the natural wealth of the country are concerned.

Natural resources of the USSR are being systematically investigated and brought in the service of socialist construction. These are new supplies of fuel, iron, non-ferrous metals, chemical matters, all the tremendous wealth of water power, big forests, vast areas of land, different climatic conditions.

To come in close touch with all this natural wealth, to find new useful minerals, which will help the realisation of the second Five-Year Plan, to study the country building up socialism from Arkhangelsk to Vladivostok, from North Pole down to the hot regions of Transcaucasia — this is one of the main problems of Soviet culture.

Hundreds of thousands of proletarian tourists form important detachments of the huge army, investigating the natural wealth of the USSR.

In 1931 was organised the first All-Union Investigation Campaign of the proletarian tourists.

About 10 thousands tourists participated in this campaign. Deposits of coal, non-ferrous metals, iron and other minerals necessary for the development of socialist industry were discovered by such groups of tourists in various places of the Urals, North Caucasus, Azerbaijan, Altai, in Moscow region, Ivanovsk region, etc.

In 1932 hundreds of thousands of Soviet tourists will take part in the second investigation campaign. Through this campaign the broad working masses are actually participating in the preparation of the second Five-Year Plan.

OPTE organises tours and excursions not only for the workers of the USSR; the Society takes care of the foreign workers and specialists, residing and working in the Soviet Union.

The branches of the Society at various plants and offices, where foreigners are engaged, organise interesting tours in order to help a foreigner to understand different questions of socialist construction.

According to the decisions of the 1st Congress, the Central Board of Proletarian Tourism prepares the publication of tourist litterature in foreign languages.

Special itineraries have been worked out for foreign workers and specialists.

Those foreigners, who have been living in the USSR for a long time and are familiar with the Russian language and with the conditions of the country, can, also, organise individual tours, receiving advice and help from OPTE.

Many foreigners working in the USSR, are travelling together with Soviet workers and employees.

This work has just started, but OPTE has already accommodated several hundreds of foreign workers and specialists in Moscow alone. During this spring a tour on the Volga was organised for a large group of foreigners (300 people) and several tours to the Caucasus, the Crimea, and Ukraine, not to mention Leningrad and other big cities of the USSR.

A special attention is being devoted to the children's tourism. Tourist work among children is one of the means of communist education. It helps the general training of children, it brings them nearer to the socialist construction work, develops international solidarity and a sense of collectivism.

1 A special article on "Intourist" will be published in one of the next issues.
SOVIET TRADE

Last spring the highest authorities of the Soviet Union have passed important decisions on questions of agriculture and the furtherance of the exchange of goods in the USSR. The following decrees have been issued: “On the plan of forming a grain fund from the harvest of 1932 and on the development of the collective farm trade in grain” and “On the plan of forming a cattle fund and on the meat trade of the collective farms, the collective farmers and individual toiling peasants”.

The meaning of both decrees can only be understood in the light of the general social economic policy of the USSR which is determined by the tasks of socialist construction and the successes which have already been achieved in this construction. These achievements stated in the decrees on State funds and on the collective farm trade are expressed in very considerable figures. The most important of these go to prove that the USSR, owing to the victory of the collective farm and State farm system of rural economy, has increased its gross production of grain from 10.8 million tons in 1928 to 23 million tons in 1931.

In the process of the growth of the Soviet Government, in order to make use of the successes achieved so as to further the welfare of the workers, adopted a whole system of economic measures, in particular establishing closer economic relations between town and country.

In October of the 1931 the plenum of the Party passed a special decision on furthering Soviet trade which contains the following passage: “The continuous growth of light industry and the increasing possibilities of the creation of funds of agricultural products secure a wider development of Soviet trade and a more intense construction of a new network of stores.”

This policy of furthering the exchange of goods must now in view of the growth of the socialist construction be further developed during the period of the second Five-Year Plan.

The plan of the second Five-Year period (1932—1937) foresees such “development of the exchange of goods” which will “secure a further rapid improvement of the supply of the workers and toiling peasants with manufactured articles and agricultural produce. And to this end it is necessary to extend greatly the network of stores, shops, etc., along with a necessary technical reconstruction”. It is on this basis that the “system of centralised distribution must be replaced by a system of developed Soviet trade”.

The achievements of socialist construction during the third, decisive (1931) year of the Five-Year Plan and the progress of industry and agriculture during the present, final year of the Plan enabled us already in 1932 to raise the question of the realisation of the Plan in regard to the Soviet trade.

The dynamics of the economic growth of the USSR is clearly seen if we compare the state of trade during the initial period of the new economic policy with the system of Soviet trade, which is now being developed.

In 1921 we had individual farms scattered all over the country, there were many kulaks in the villages and private trade was flourishing in the cities. During the initial period of the New Economic Policy private trade was allowed and even encouraged. On the other hand Soviet trade was relatively weak and the sovhoz and kolkhoz movement was still in its infancy.

Even in 1927 the kulaks produced over 10 million tons of grain and exported to the market more than 2 million tons out of this amount. The collective and State farms at that time produced about 1.3 million tons out of which less than a half tons reached the grain market.

However in 1929 the leading role assumed by the Soviet farms and the example of the collective farms (of which there were then only few scores, but which by force of example proved the enormous advantages of collective farming) brought about a radical change among the masses of poor and middle peasants in favour of the collective farm construction.

In 1929 the production of grain in the collective and State farms amounted to not less than 5 million tons and the
system of collective and State farms yielded over 2.2 million tons of marketable grain, i.e., more than the kulaks in 1927. In 1930 the State collected already a fund of 22 million tons of grain, i.e. twice as much as during the previous year. The percentage of kulak grain in that item was infinitesimal, whereas the State and collective farms were responsible for over half the amount.

The system of collective and State farms won a decisive victory over individual farming. The kulaks were destroyed as a class on the basis of a 100% collectivisation.

In industry we have Magnitostroy, Dnieprstroy, the giant Stalingrad tractor works, the “Soviet Ford” in Nizhny-Novgorod, the enormous production of agricultural machinery. In the agriculture the State already obtains from the State farms millions of tons of marketable grain. These State farms have already become enormous grain factories which secure for the country a grain reserve increasing with every year; 70% of the huge area of the Soviet country is sowed by the big united farms — the collective farms, which with the aid of the machine and tractor stations are able to make the best use of the modern agricultural machinery, to extend the sowed area and to improve the technique of agriculture in general. The Soviet government is able to lean on the powerful socialist section of rural economy which is capable to bring to the market an enormous quantity of goods.

Enormous possibilities of extending the goods exchange are afforded owing to these conditions as well as of strengthening the economic ties between town and country, which possibilities are constantly increasing in the sense of the supply of manufactured articles both to collective farms and to the individual toiling peasants.

For a long period trade was the economic tie connecting socialist production with tens of millions of small agriculturists. At the present time trade has become mainly the connecting link between the socialist industry, which has assumed enormous proportions and the collective agriculture.

Such is the general economic background of the latest decrees on State funds of grain and cattle and on collective farm trade.

What is the direct meaning of the latest decree? In order to extend the exchange of goods between town and country the law provides that along with State trade there will be another method of trade by collective farms and by their individual members. Thus there will be a combination of the two methods. The State plan of collecting funds of the village produce will be reduced (as regards collective farms and individual farms), namely instead of 22.4 million tons in 1931, 18 million tons in 1932. At the same time there will be an increase in the funds collected from State farms: from 1.8 million tons in 1931 to 2.5 million tons in 1932.

The development of the collective farm trade has an enormous importance for cities, in the sense that it will give them an additional supply of food.

For the villages this means an improvement in the conditions of the toiling peasants, owing to the increase in the supply of manufactured articles. At the same time the masses of the collective farmers will become economically more independent and active.

An enormous surplus of grain will remain at the disposal of the collective farms and the collective farmers.

This surplus greatly exceeds the difference between the plans of the collection of the grain fund of 1931 and 1932, for in 1932 the State affords greater facilities for the increase in the grain production.

Under the new conditions the collective farms and their members are granted the right after the plan of the collection of the grain fund had been fulfilled, to sell grain either through collective farm store or in the markets.

The other decision concerning cattle and meat trade of collective farms and their members and the toiling peasants, is equally important.

By this decision the plan of collecting the cattle fund (as regards the collective farms, collective and individual toiling farmers), is reduced by one half for the remaining three quarter of 1932: 716,000 tons instead of 1,414,000 tons. In regard to State farms, their plan is increased to 138,000 tons, as against 90,000 which were actually raised last year. This will enable the collective farms and their members as well as in individual farmers to trade in cattle and meat.

These categories of toilers, once they delivered the necessary quota to the State will now be able to sell horned cattle pigs, sheep, fowls and meat produce on their farms in the markets and through collective farm stores. Such a method of trade, along with the centralised distribution carried out by the State, thus acquire tremendous importance.
The above decision also enables to give a wide sweep to the economic initiative of the collective farms, collective farmers and individual farmers. It will easily be understood, what great importance this measure will have for the speediest solution of the cattle-breeding problem.

The State farms succeeded in a short time to collect many heads of cattle and to create big State cattle-breeding ranches. They are now passing from a period when they were accumulating the live stock to the period, when they are able to sell their produce in the market.

The prices at which the collective farms will sell their produce will be the average prices of Soviet stores selling non-rationed products. Such policy was bound to have the effect of reducing prices. And prices are actually going down. The abundance of supplies naturally results in the lowering of prices.

The new stage in the development of the goods exchange opens up wide vistas before the Soviet State industries and the producers’ co-operation. This must particularly affect the production of commodities of everyday use. This is proved by the present state of things in the market. Suffice it to mention that the Ukrainian producers’ co-operation is in view of the latest decisions considerably extending the original plan of the production of goods— to 104 million rubles including leather goods to the value of 52 million rubles, textiles — 28 million rubles etc.

The “reply” of industry to the development of the collective farm trade secures the development of a powerful full-blooded exchange of goods, in keeping with the rapid growth of socialist construction.

The decrees on the development of the collective farm trade met with a wide response on the part of the toilers of the Soviet Union. At the present moment, i. e. about a month after the publication of the said decrees we are able to quote many data proving the practical development of trade by the collective farms and by the collective farmers, as well as by individual farmers.

Markets have been established in towns, villages, on the territory of works and new settlements, in which the collective farmers sell their produce. Sometimes hundreds of carts arrive to such markets. Thus 250 carts of the collective farms, collective farmers, and individual farmers arrived to the newly opened market in Nizhny-Novgorod from the neighbouring districts.

Thousands of workers, engineers and the families of workers and engineers, who live in the newly constructed socialist city visited that market. The State trading organisations and co-operatives were also selling there their goods.

In the very first days of the development of the collective trade such sights could be observed in many cities, villages and new settlements of the Soviet Union.

The strengthening of economic ties between town and country must at the present stage result also in a considerable cultural upheaval.

The trade carried on by collective farms and collective farmers concentrates huge masses of people in towns and villages and this will facilitate mass cultural work among them.

Lenin’s slogan about civilised trade means in our days also the creation of civilised conditions for the new commerce carried on by the labouring peasantry.

The popularisation of science and techniques necessary to the collective farmer, the setting up of a network of travelling cinemas, reading rooms, mass art — all these must become the concomitant features of Soviet trade.

Public organisations possessing a large number of collaborators are already taking an active part in introducing culture into collective farm trade.

The trade-union organisations of workers in art have advanced the slogan: “Art to assist the collective farm trade”, i. e. art must be provided for the labouring masses of the peasantry.

In the markets, bookstands of the Central House of Art are up which spread literature, textbooks, and plays for amateur theatricals.

A travelling cinema will function in market places.

Posters by the best artists such as Moor, Rotov and others will be exhibited at the market places.

The Houses of Art which exist in various regions of the Soviet Union transfer their theatres to the collective farm markets. Moreover various attractions have been organised there such as popular shows, merry-go-rounds etc. Cultural work is spread from these markets to the villages.

Thus the latest enactments of the Soviet authorities in regard to an increased exchange of goods will produce the greatest results both in the field of the economy of the Soviet Union and on the front of mass cultural work.
Soviet Art

CENTENARY OF THE FORMER ALEXANDRINSKY THEATRE

One hundred years ago, on August 31st (old style), 1832, a new theatre, called Alexandrinsky, was opened in St. Petersburg.

At that time in Russia the portents of social and economic change became already clearly discernible which found their reflections in all spheres of life.

Thadeus Bulgariin, a critic and journalist of that period who became noted not so much by the merit of his literary work as by his friendship with the secret police department and his services as an “informer”, had submitted to the Government in the twenties a memorandum on “Censorship in Russia and Book Printing generally” in which, among other things, he advised the Government “to turn the attention of truly enlightened people to objects chosen by the Government itself, while for the public in general some unimportant object should be provided, for instance the theatre, which in this country should take the place of arguments about Chambers and Ministers...”

The direct propaganda of the ideas necessary to the Government for the consolidation of the reactionary tsarist regime on the one hand, and empty amusement on the other hand, such was the unwritten “creative programme” of the new theatre that was then established.

The theatre's repertory during the first years of its existence fully corresponded to these tasks. It consisted mainly of “historic tragedies” which constituted gross and outspoken apologies of the autocracy and were written in heavy, indigestible, frequently nonsensical verses.

The theatre had no troupe of its own at the time. There was but one “court troupe” composed of singers and dancers, and also of Italian and Russian actors, who played in all the theatres.

However, in 1836 the troupe was split up, and the Alexandrinsky Theatre became the Russian dramatic theatre. This measure deprived it at once of the patronage of the aristocratic part of the public that was close to the court circles and preferred the ballet and the Italian opera to the native dramatic connections of the Kukolnicks, Kryukovskys, Polevoys, and Bakturins.

On the other hand, the cultured elements of the intelligentsia, who dreamed of a theatre as a social tribune, had scorned the activity of this theatre from the very outset.

Gradually the bulk of the theatre’s audience became composed of the petty bourgeoisie—merchants, petty officials, artisans, to whom the ballet and the Italian opera were strange, incomprehensible, and also fairly inaccessible, due to the high admission fees and the system of subscriptions which made the theatre the resort of a limited group of people. This audience began to influence both the repertory of the theatre and the general trend of its art activity.

The official “patriotic” tragedy, frequently produced by direct order from “high quarters”, no longer takes up the basic place in the theatre’s repertory. It becomes submerged in a stream of translated vaudevilles and melodramas the names of whose authors it is not even thought necessary to announce on the bill. The themes can be readily guessed from the mere titles: “Zoe, or a Lover on Hire”, “Neighbour’s Wife or Husband in a Trap”, and on the other hand: “Father’s Curse”, “The Terrible Castle”, “Chrisomania or Passion for Money”.

The vaudeville, having occupied almost the basic place in the theatre’s repertory, caused legitimate protests on the part of serious critics. Nevertheless, it had a certain positive significance in the evolution of the Alexandrinsky theatre. In spite of the exceedingly narrow range of themes with which it usually dealt, the vaudeville had perforce to touch upon the seamy sides of Russian life, and although its criticism merely scratched the surface of things, nevertheless, against a background of official patriotism and chauvinism, it introduced a social current into the theatre.

By this, and also by the attempts to give real presentation of Russian life on the stage, the vaudeville prepared the theatre for the works of the great playwright Ostrovsky who made social critique the basis of his creative work. In 1853 was produced
"Poverty no Crime", and thereafter the theatre's repertory was enriched almost every season by a new Ostrovskys' play.

Ostrovsky's plays conditioned the style of scenic realism which, in various forms (at times descending to naturalistic detail), remained the basic feature of the Alexandrinsky theatre down to the period of the Revolution.

During the last third of the XIXth century the theatre was considerably swayed by Western influences which emerged this time on the basis of the "naturalist school". And the examples were taken not from the superb Western classics who marched in the vanguard of the social movement, but frequently from second-rate European plays produced to entertain the wealthy conservative theatre-goer.

The repertory of the end of the XIXth century constituted an incredible jumble of names, themes, outlooks, and artistic trends. Tolstoy, Dostoyevsky, and Goethe were submerged by the turbid stream of trash turned out in abundance by professional play-makers.

In the sense of choosing the actors and generally of the quality of acting, the Alexandrinsky, in common with all the Imperial theatres, was built upon the principle of the provincial theatrical enterprises — with "stars" on whom the utmost attention was bestowed both by the spectators and the management, and an auxiliary personnel in whom no one took any interest.

The theatre had no producers in the modern sense of the term. The producer did not unify the work of the individual actors in order to create a harmonious art show, but carried out merely technical functions. Hence the incredible miscellany which prevailed in the Alexandrinsky down to the day of the Revolution, and the consequences of which the theatre had to combat for a long time after the October Revolution.

In the beginning of the XXth century the theatre was somewhat renovated. This was due more or less to competition. The rise of the new privately managed theatres (e.g. the Komissarzhevsky Theatre, the Moscow Art Theatre) caused the "Imperial" theatres to brace up, to rise to the esthetical demands of the progressive strata of the play-goers. Under the influence of these demands there were some innovations introduced in the Alexandrinsky and it began to produce on its boards some classical and really artistic contemporary plays (Chekhov, Andreyev, Hamsun, Ibsen). A number of prominent artists were attracted to the theatre from outside (first P. Gneditch, then A. Golovin, and K. Korovin); new producers appeared with a fairly clear-cut artistic platform (E. Karpov, V. Meyerhold) who, though powerless to change the whole nature of the theatre, nevertheless introduced a current of new, superior cultural aims and produced a certain differentiation in the troupe, consolidating the young elements in it. During this period the Alexandrinsky succeeded in giving a whole series of splendid productions which drastically differed from the old routine which could no longer hold undivided sway upon its stage. Plays like "Daughter of the Sea", "Tamtriss the Mountebank", "The Steadfast Prince", constituted real events in the theatre, while "The Tempest", "Don Juan", and "Masquerade" (all the three plays staged by V. Meyerhold) have since become incorporated in the history of the Russian theatre as distinctive landmarks.

The first performance of "Masquerade" was given on February 25th, 1917, when the first shots of the Revolution were fired on the Nevsky Prospect in St. Petersburg. This performance marked the close of the "imperial" phase in the evolution of the Alexandrinsky. Its new life began with the October Revolution.

* * *

During the first years after the Revolution the Alexandrinsky went through a period of organisational reconstruction. The art activity did not as yet represent anything new and interesting from the viewpoint of principles. The attempts to freshen up the repertory did not yield any
more or less palpable results. Those were either plays previously banned by the tsarist censorship (e.g. “Lower Depths” by Gorky, “Wilhelm Tell”), or reflecting liberal-intellectual views on the historic past (“Serfs”, “Decemberists”), or by Gnedich, or else reflecting more or less the tendencies of the surrounding realities (“Peter Khlebnik” by Tolstoy, “Luminous God” by Eisenman). Only “Faust and the City” by Lunacharsky (1920) and “Night” by Martinet (1921), both of them staged by N. Petrov, marked a real revolutionary departure on the stage.

With the beginning of the restoration period in the life of the country, the Alexandrinsky theatre revealed the existence of a policy and a principle, which already in itself constituted an achievement as compared with the pre-revolutionary period. However, the ideological positions of the theatre remained essentially the same. Estheticism played the leading role. The repertory was based on the classics and on scenic stylisation (“Anthony and Cleopatra”, “A Commoner among Nobles”, produced by A. Benoit; “Tsar Fedor Ioannovich”, produced in “iconographic” style by D. Stelletsky; “Sardanapal”, “King Oedipus”, etc.).

Nevertheless, the question of the ideological trend of the theatre was raised by life itself. By the side of the classics, the theatre began to show plays by the Soviet writers (Seifullina, Vs. Ivanov, Romashev, Bill-Belotserkovsky). The Soviet plays conditioned new principles of working, a re-grouping of the artistic forces, the beginning of relations with the broad working masses which had already become an organic necessity for the theatre.

The success of “The End of Krivyolsk” (1926), of “Armoured Train” (1927), and of “Roaring Rails” (1928), gave final consolidation to the victory of the Soviet plays on the “academic” stage and determined the further progress of the Alexandrinsky. It is true, these productions were but a preparatory phase, as the theme was mechanically interpreted by the troupe which was working on the old principles; nevertheless the very readiness of the actors to take up the new themes constituted a big step forward against the background of conservative academism, and it was the starting point for further progress.

1928, the first year of the Five-Year Plan, was the first year of decided reconstruction of the theatre. Soviet plays took up the basic place in its repertory. The theatre finally gave up its principles of “non-political” academism, art for art’s sake, and the non-critical attitude towards the heritage of the past. This necessitated in the first place the ideological readjustment of the creative staff of the theatre who had to become transformed from “priests of pure art” into active participants, by their art, in the socialist reconstruction of the country.

The first step in the remodelling of the outlook of the actor were the visits paid to workers’ clubs to read plays and show scenes from performances in preparation, which brought the actors into close touch with the public interests and activities out of the theatre. In this manner a certain contact was established with the public organisations of the workers, and what is even more important, worker-correspondents were attracted to take an interest in the theatre.

The movement of socialist competition which arose in the beginning of 1930, soon became widely spread among artists. This, along with the more and more frequent visits by theatrical brigades to collective farms and industrial undertakings, and, on the other hand, the growth of proletarian play-writing stimulated and deepened the ideological readjustment of the actors. A contributing factor in this respect was the attraction of young actors (graduates of the studio maintained by the Alexandrinsky) who brought with them into the theatre the enthusiasm of youth, the quest for new forms, and a certain background of social organisation.

During this period a whole series of plays were produced which were important to the theatre not only by reflecting certain changes and achievements, but also by raising a wave of social enthusiasm within the theatre for the new trend in the theatrical art. Among such plays should be mentioned: “Fury” (a play which dealt poignantly with the burning topic of collective farm construction), “The Orank-Enthusiast”, “Naphtha”, and “Sensation”.

Furthermore, the Alexandrinsky developed great activity in serving the industrial undertakings, sending out brigades to a number of works and factories in Leningrad and elsewhere. The Alexandrinsky was the headquarters for the organisation of art demonstrations on Shock-Brigaders’ Day (October 1, 1930). In recognition of these services the Alexandrinsky won the “traveling banner” of the Leningrad
Regional Section of Art Workers, which it keeps to this day.

Thus the foundation was laid for the new, profounder working out of the creative method, closely combining theoretical work with the daily productive practice.

New creative brigades arose in the theatre which set before themselves the task of finding by experimental-analytical means the basic principles of working on the production of plays, having theoretical principles and practical experiments discussed collectively by the whole troupe.

The wave of social enthusiasm pervaded all the elements of the theatre staff. The older forces, the eminent actors of long-established reputation, took part in the reconstruction of the theatre, at the same time "reconstructing" themselves.

The whole of this activity yielded concrete results in the performance of "Fear", a play which, by unanimous decision of the critics, showed for the first time in the Alexandrinsky Theatre the existence of a genuine collective creative body.

During the fifteen years of the revolutionary period, the Alexandrinsky Theatre has squarely approached the problem of creating a monolith artistic collective that is united by the unity of ideological aspirations, by the unity of outlook, and consequently, by the unity of creative method.

These are the results of the first century of the existence of the Alexandrinsky Theatre. In spite of numerous negative features, which were sharply pointed out in this survey, the theatre has played a big role in the cultural past of the country. The craftsmanship of its actors covered its drawbacks, it served as a model and a criterion for the work of the provincial theatres, and its activity re-echoed far beyond the limits of imperial St. Petersburg. Nevertheless, the basic significance of this theatre consists not in its past importance, but rather in the fact that in a short space of time it has succeeded in reconstructing itself, in critically overcoming the ballast of the "imperial" legacy while retaining the craftsmanship of the actors, in discarding pernicious survivals of old traditions, and in joining the ranks of the artistic forces who take active part in socialist construction.

EXHIBITION OF KUKRYNICS' WORKS

The reading public of the whole world which has always paid much attention and interest to Soviet caricature and caricaturists finds it rather difficult to unravel his strange combination of sounds: Kukrynics.

That this peculiar name should be the uncommon pseudonym chosen by three cartoonists for their collective artistic work, could occur until recently only to persons closely connected with the Soviet literary and artistic circles.

During five or six years the "Kukrynics" always armed with their albums or drawing-blocks have attended every literary meeting or dispute. It was there that they found their favourite "heroes" — in the person of the reporter, his opponents or some occasional "victim" picked out of the numerous audience.

In their gallery of satirical portraits thus created you can find the amicable caricatures of a number of Soviet poets, prose-writers and other persons connected with literature and art.

Everybody got so used to the strange name of "Kukrynics", that is seemed unnecessary to try to find out its secret or to make a distinction between the three bearers of this name. Their real names were almost forgotten.

Only recently after the exhibition under review, it became known to everybody that "Kukrynics" was the collective pseudonym of three artists: KUprianov, KRYlov and NIGolas Sokolov.

But in the history of their work this will no doubt remain only an insignificant biographical detail, as well as the fact that their friendship had begun in their school days ten years ago, that they have graduated from the painting and poly-graphic faculties of the Higher Art-and-Technics Institute and that all three put together — they are now 85 years old.

The most valuable thing is their experiment of collective artistic work, which proved highly successful and which found every facility for its realisation under Soviet conditions.
The "Kukrynics" have created their own collective style, an artistic manner peculiar only to them. Their drawings can be known among thousands.

The original sketches, made by each one separately and bearing the imprint of the artist's individual character, are afterwards put together, summarised, so that finally a synthetic image is created, where the observations of all the three have found expression. The same method is applied not only to portraits-caricatures, but also to drawings of a more complicated character.

The "Kukrynics" did not confine themselves to cartoon drawing, they have also touched other branches of art.

At the exhibition of their work are to be found propaganda posters and book illustrations, oil paintings and models of stage designs ("Alarm" at the Workers' Youth Theatre and "The Bug" at the Meyerhold Theatre).

As painters, the "Kukrynics" have appeared before the public at large for the first time, and their pictures, bearing witness to an outstanding artistic accomplishment, were an agreeable surprise to everybody. They reveal the thoughtful, attentive attitude of the "Kukrynics" towards the problems of colour and composition and show a considerable artistic culture. They recall to one's mind their own words: "It is true we studied in the Institute but our real teacher was Daumier."

The "Kukrynics" are young. A long way is open up before them, and no doubt they will progress along this way with still more considerable achievements.

Here is what Maxim Gorki wrote in an article specially devoted to the work of the "Kukrynics":

Maxim Gorki

Vsevolod Meyerhold

Lydia Seyfullina
"Their talent is recognised by everybody. Their gay and witty work during the last six years proved both the importance of what they have been doing and the constant development of their mastery. I am not going to pay them compliments; as far as I know them, they do not need it.

But the very fact must be laid special stress upon, the fact, which probably has no antecedents in the history of this capricious branch of a capricious art — to see the ridiculous and to give it a subtle interpretation; I mean the fact of collective work of three who act as a single person."

This is an exhaustive characteristic.

The most remarkable feature about the work of the "Kukryniks" is its purposefulness and rich political contents. The "Kukryniks" are not only artists but first and foremost ideological fighters who have chosen painting, designing, cartoon drawing as their means of active participation in socialist construction, in the struggle for a new culture.

They do not merely illustrate the current events, their drawings brand and lash, expressing their attitude towards this or that particular problem of literature and art. The titles and legends accompanying their drawings match them in witticism and sharpness, thus adding to the final effect.

Like all the best artists, writers, poets, scientists of the Soviet Union, the "Kukryniks" with their creative work serve the cause of socialist construction.

From left to right: Arkhangelsky, satirical poet, Krylov, M. Gorki, Kuprianov, Nicolas Sokolov, and the artist Telingator.
SOVIET CHESS PLAYERS ON CAPABLANCA'S ART

The magazine "Chess in the USSR" recently arranged for an interesting contest on "Capablanca's style, strategy and tactics": the contestants were asked to criticise and analyse in detail the art of this famous chess player. Here are some quotations out of their entries:

"The art of Capablanca, representative of the classical school, incarnated all that had been proclaimed 'chess verity'... a lot of new conceptions were introduced. The games played by Capablanca show his culture and the greatness of his ideals. It is a complete universalism combining the specific features of the styles peculiar to many masters of position."

"Capablanca is not especially fond of playing on the left or right flanks, or in the centre. He plays here and there, and everywhere, but doesn't diffuse the game, he makes it homogeneous, integral, leading to one definite aim."

The following striking thought is expressed by one of the contestants:

"An interesting, and beautiful feature of Capablanca's style is a deep and straightforward honesty. He does not indulge in detours. Cases, when someone hysterically cries out: 'We'll find it out later on', are quite unknown to him... A lack of conviction is the only drawback in Capablanca's style."

As evidence the author refers to Capablanca's game with Ilyin-Zhenevsky played in Moscow in 1925. "On the 26th move the whites win with the bishop (Cf 3). Capablanca's honesty could not admit any possibility of a dishonest attack: Capablanca could not freely create and gave in to Ilyin-Zhenevsky. In conclusion: the personality of Capablanca as a master in practice is unattainable for most of us. We can only be sorry for the last comparative defeats of Capablanca. During chess tournaments the winners are usually those who take risks and the sound draws of Capablanca are totally eclipsed by the unrighteous victories of the prize winner."

And another article:

"Capablanca's style has no clearly defined character; there is no fiery temperament apparent, which would involve him into risky and acute positions, he has no capricious vanity in the carrying on of dishonest plans. His games progress smoothly and logically, at times they are a little dry but quite integral, full of harmony, and remarkably stable."

"His clear and dignified style, whilst a great merit is at the same time a drawback in this respect that it enables his adversaries to see through him much easier and to guess his intentions—a circumstance which, in my opinion, was the main reason of his 'overthrow from the chess throne'.

Out of the articles which deserve praise the best belongs to M. Prasetsky, as, in the opinion of this Soviet magazine, it represents the first attempt to approach the subject of chess playing styles in a new way.

LATEST NEWS

Soon will come out of the press a Collection of Chess Problems by three Soviet composers: Barulin, Guiliayev, and Issayev containing 300 problems with solutions and comments.

The book will also carry an article by L. D. Katzenelenbogen on the "Creative Work of Three Soviet Composers", in which the development of chess composition during the last ten years is reviewed.

During the summer there will be held in Moscow an International Workers' Chess Tournament in which no less than 10 European countries will take part. It is being organised by the Chess Section of the Red Sport International in conjunction with the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions.
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SECOND YEAR OF PUBLICATION

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A specimen copy is posted on demand.
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STRUGGLE AND VICTORIES

15 years... From the point of view of great historical periods this is an insignificant space of time. However, in the course of these 15 years the appearance of an enormous country has altered so as to render it irrecognisable, a radical change has been effected in the conditions of work and existence of one hundred and sixty million men and women inhabiting the enormous territory of the former empire of the tsars.

For the first time in the history of mankind there has been established a social regime not based on private property in the means of production, without exploitation, without industrial anarchy, crises and unemployment, which are firmly holding the masses in capitalist countries in their grip and keeping them on the verge of starvation and destitution.

A free Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has been formed, a union uniting on the basis of full equality and fraternal cooperation many nations, which hitherto formed an object of the worst colonial oppression by the reigning clique of landlords and capitalists.

The regime of proletarian dictatorship was won in the battles of October. It became consolidated and justified itself in a historical sense before the face of all the toilers of the world. It is now a genuine democracy for millions of people and has brought the country to the eve of a classless society.

These enormous changes in economics, politics and culture are the result of a fifteen-year ceaseless strenuous struggle, conducted under the guidance of the Party of Lenin and Stalin. This was a struggle against the resistance of the old capitalist world, against the corrupting habits of petty-bourgeois individualism, against the patriarchal system and uncivilised methods of work, in short, against the painful historical heritage, bequeathed to the proletariat and to its Party by many years of predatory methods of management practised by the landlords and capitalists. This struggle was conducted for a new labour culture, for creative competition in labour, for collectivism in everyday life, for the introduction of the latest technique in all branches of economy, for the triumph of the planning principle in economics, for the raising of the material wellbeing and for the genuine freedom of individual spiritual growth of every toiler.

On the fifteenth anniversary the great results of the October Revolution stand out with special clarity. This Revolution opened a new period in the history of human development. Eleven years ago Lenin described in the following words the economic state of Soviet Russia: "Look at the map of the RSFSR. Boundless spaces are stretching to the north of Vologda, to the south-east of Rostov-on-Don, to the south of Orenburg and of Omsk and to the north of Tomsk. And throughout these vast spaces there reigns patriarchal system of economy, semi-savagery and downright savagery..." Lenin asked: "Is it conceivable to pass on from this patriarchalism, from these pre-capitalist economic regimes to socialism?" and replied: "Yes, it is conceivable, but only provided one condition is observed — provided there is electrification, the re-establishment and development of heavy industries, which are the foundation of socialist construction."

Lenin's plan, the plan of a genius, is being carried out with the hands of millions of toilers.

For the first time in history the reconstruction of the economic and cultural regime of an enormous country, inhabited by numerous nations, which formerly differed enormously as regards the level of their economic development, is being carried out according to a scientific plan, in which millions of people are called upon to take part.

On the fifteenth anniversary of the October Revolution the workers have to their credit such a historic victory as the starting of the Dnieper Power Station — one of the gigantic constructions which crown Lenin's plan of the electrification of the
country. During the last few years the total electric power of the Soviet Union has increased by several million kilowatts: in 1928 — by 200,000 kilowatts, in 1930 — by 600,000 kilowatts, in 1931 — by 1,100,000 kilowatts.

The lights of Dnieproges (the Dnieper Power Station) now illuminate a large number of gigantic industrial works which are either completed or in construction. To the north of the city of Lenin, in regions plunged in the darkness of polar nights, apatites are being extracted in Khibiny, minerals fertilising the fields of collective and State farms. To the east of Moscow, near the city of Gorky (Nizhny-Novgorod), the former capital of the merchants' barbarism, the buildings of the automobile giant plant are stretching, and further to the east in the Ural mountains the blast furnaces of Magnitogorsk — the second metallurgical base of the country — are blazing. To the south of Saratov, out of the gates of the Stalingrad plant come tractors which together with the tractors of the Kharkov and the Putilov works and the agricultural machines of the Rostov plant are mechanising primitive Russia, breaking the back of patriarchalism and savagery, referred to by Lenin. To the south of Orenburg and of Omsk a new industrial Kazakhstan is arising. Only yesterday it was inhabited by backward nomads, now it has constructed Turksib, Karaganda and other strongholds of socialism.

The fundamental assets of socialist industries have more than doubled during the first Five-Year Plan — from 5.7 milliard in 1928 to 13.1 milliard on January 1, 1932. The Soviet Union has established many new industries which in the domain of technique play a decisive role in securing our economic independence: Soviet electric turbines, Soviet Diesels and high voltage transformers, Soviet bloomings, Soviet crackings etc.

In the sphere of agriculture we now have an absolute preponderance of the socialist sector — collective and State farms — over the individual sector. A considerable quantitative extension of the sown area in comparison with the pre-war period has been achieved. The technical reconstruction of agriculture has already placed on socialist fields over 100,000 tractors.

Thus a foundation of socialist economics has been constructed, and a new technical basis has been created for the completion of the reconstruction of the entire socialist economy during the second Five-Year Plan.

The ranks of the working class have grown in numbers and in strength. In 1928 there were 11,552,000 workers and employees, in 1931 their number increased to 18,590,000. The successes of industrialisation and of the reconstruction of agriculture have finally put an end to unemployment, the accursed heritage of the past. In 1928, at the beginning of the Five-Year Plan, there were 10,994,000 members of trade unions, in 1932, the last year of the Five-Year Plan, their number increased to 16,504,000. These figures clearly show the improvement in the organisation of the working class, headed by the Communist Party, which embodies "the best, the most vigorous intelligence of the toiling people of the Union of Soviets" (M. Gorky).

The successes in the development of the national economy and the improvement in the material wellbeing of the toiling masses have brought about enormous achievements in the field of cultural construction. The growth of literacy and the introduction of compulsory education, the wide spread of polytechnical schools, the increasing number of students from among the workers and the collective farmers, the rapid development of the press, the development and strengthening of the socialist forms of labour (four million shock-workers in 1932), the drawing of the masses into State administration, into the work of the Soviets, etc., finally the reconstruction of everyday life — such are those enormous changes which in the words of Lenin constitute the cultural revolution.

The mass campaign of the toilers for the mastering of technique, for the creation of their own technical intelligentsia, capable of coping with the tasks of present-day science and technique, a campaign inaugurated in response to J. Stalin, the leader of the working class, is one of the most important moments of the cultural revolution, of the construction of socialist culture.

Indeed, socialism means an extraordinarily high development of science and technique, which actually becomes the patrimony of all the toilers. The first phase of the socialism creates all the necessary prerequisites for the solution of the problem of destroying the contrasts between physical and brain work. In order to illustrate that process we can cite, for instance, the increase in the number of mass workers' inventions in the Soviet Union — 700,000 workers are members of the All-Union Society of Inventors.
All the best scientists and scholars are beginning to collaborate with the working class. Science is becoming stronger and develops itself on the basis of an organic connection with the tasks of socialist construction.

Let us quote only one figure for purposes of comparison: under tsarism the Chief Geological Board had 12 geologists on its staff. Now this institution forming part of the People's Commissariat of Heavy Industry has under its control dozens of specialists of world reputation and tens of thousands of geologists carrying exploration work.

In the single year of 1931 the number of industrial scientific research institutions (institutes and branches in industrial areas) has increased from 141 to 205; the number of scientists working in industries increased from 6,000 to 12,500, the latter figures containing a larger proportion of workers. The latest decision concerning the secondary and higher schools as well as the organisation of higher agricultural schools means an important step forward in the matter of training cadres. "We have already carried out most important tasks from the point of view of construction — little remains for us to be done — to study technique, to master science."

The cultural revolution is a whole epoch including a manysided work of reconstruction of economics and of the consciousness of human beings. In this sense the importance of the second Five-Year Period cannot be overestimated, since its task is "the final elimination of capitalist elements and classes in general, the overcoming of the remains of capitalism in the economics and the consciousness of human beings, the transformation of the entire working population of the country into class conscious and active builders of a classless socialist society" (theses of the second Five-Year Plan).

On the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution it is not only the working masses of the USSR that will look back on the past period. A new mankind is being born before the whole world covering one sixth of its area. Therefore it is difficult to imagine another country, another section of the globe, which could attract to itself such attention as does the Soviet Union.

It is not only the toiling masses of the whole world naturally leaning towards the Land of the Soviets as the fatherland of the working humanity, who are the faithful friends of our country. The greatest representatives of the present age, men who are the foremost representatives of culture and civilisation, are turning more and more into resolute and open sympathisers and assistants of the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics. This is proved by the speeches and writings of such prominent men as Romain Rolland, Henri Barbusse, Theodore Dreiser, Bernard Shaw, Martin Andersen Nexø, Upton Sinclair, André Gide and many others. Ever larger numbers of intellectuals are becoming aware of the fact that the socialist construction of the USSR opens up unlimited possibilities to art and technique at the present time and still grander prospects in the near future.

On the other hand it is well known that the light of socialist construction attracting to the Soviet Union the sympathies of the best minds of the present age is at the same time hateful to all the dark forces who imagine that the salvation from the world economic crisis in capitalist countries lies in a new war, and above all in an attack on the Soviet Union, "that country which prevents a new war to be engineered" (Stalin). Maxim Gorky wrote recently of the economics of the Soviet Union: "The enemy's strength lies in human stupidity, which for centuries the enemy has knocked into the heads of the working people."

However the enemy relies also on the strength of munitions, worships and airplanes, which the fog of "imperialist pacifism" (Stalin) constantly rising over the lake of Geneva can neither conceal, nor destroy.

Therefore on the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution the slogan of all friends of peace, of all friends of the Soviet Union is the campaign for the spread of true information to the whole of toiling mankind to all the best sections of the intellectuals about the achievements of the Soviet Country, about the justice of its cause and its great cultural power. This is the best means of combating that "stupidity" with which the enemy is operating when influencing public opinion. This struggle is conducted in order that the country in which new mankind is arising could quietly continue its gigantic work and should not be forced to turn the mighty forces of millions of people from peaceful persistent work to fights in defence of these peaceful conquests from foreign attacks.

Long live the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution!

Long live the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics — the fatherland of the workers of the whole world, the centre of new life and culture of new humanity!
THE STRUGGLE FOR PEACE AND THE FIRST FIVE-YEAR PLAN

By G. Z a n d

In the light of the international events which have taken place in the last few years, the enormous importance of the policy of peace of the Soviet Union stands out with striking clearness. The well-known French newspaper "Le Temps" almost in each issue since the signing of the Versailles Peace Treaty has treated its readers to a column of data of international life under the significant heading "L'organisation de la paix" (The organisation of peace). If we examine closely the essence of these facts which are treated under that head we find that the "organisation of peace" is understood by the organ of French imperialism to mean the consolidating of the inequality between nations, the securing for some powers of all political and economic means at the expense of others, the relentless race in armaments, the creation of material pre-requisites for a recrudescence of imperialist expansions. The organisation of peace has in fact come to mean the opposite of what the term implies — namely the organisation of war.

The Soviet government pursuing its policy of peace has always been persistently and consistently fighting and is still fighting against this attitude so typical of militant imperialism.

A great deal has been said and written in the world press about the policy of peace of the Soviet government. Most of the statements made in this connection were unfavourable to the Soviets. Enemies of our country and of socialist construction have tried to insinuate that the policy of peace of the Soviet Union is dictated by the desire to overthrow the capitalist regime and that all the manifestations of this policy are mere propaganda which ignores entirely the practical realisation of peace.

Soviet public opinion which expresses the view of the millions of toilers of the USSR and the Soviet government itself has never concealed its deep conviction that the capitalist system harbours in itself the root causes of armed conflicts.

At the same time it is fully conscious of the fact that the masses of the people in all countries, who have suffered from the hardships of imperialist war, are most anxious to fight against the possibility of future wars and for the preservation of peace. While fighting for peace the Soviet government was fully aware that in this struggle it enjoyed the sympathy, and found support not only among the toilers of the USSR but also among the exploited masses of the population of the capitalist countries and their colonies. The consciousness of this support and the certainty of the historic justice of the cause of socialist construction enabled Soviet diplomacy to overcome the greatest difficulties, which were placed in its path, and if this alleged propaganda consists in the desire to weld together all forces of present-day society who are sincerely desirous for peace in struggle against militarist bedaubes, then the Soviet Union is quite prepared to take up this challenge and declare that no force on earth will be able to divert it from such "propaganda".

And no one has so decisively and clearly outlined the path which must be followed by all governments in order at least to lessen the danger of new wars, as did the representatives of the Soviet Union.

As early as 1927, i.e. immediately after the Soviet Union was enabled to take part in the preliminary commission for disarmament called in Geneva, the Soviet government introduced a programme of complete and all-embracing disarmament. The fate of the Soviet proposal is known to all. The inspirers and leaders of the League of Nations, who in their declarations appear as champions of peace, unanimously rejected this plan of disarmament. During the years 1927—1932 many people gained an insight as to just where the obstacles to peace were to be found, and who had prompted the actions capable of subjecting humanity to the tragic test of new bloody wars and slaughters.

The struggle of the Soviets for disarmament, which is an important item in the

We don't want to be a hammer for weak nations or an anvil for the strong.—We are striving for peace.

Stalin.
struggle for peace, was of decisive importance in this connection. By introducing a supplementary plan of partial disarmament the Soviet government has shown that it proposes to take advantage of every possible opportunity to remove one of the most formidable factors of the war menace—the existence of huge armaments, and the tendency of their constant increase. Every attempt made by Soviet diplomacy to raise the question of disarmament and of reduction of armaments in a concrete fashion has resulted in failure, owing to resistance by the representatives of the capitalist governments. But though in Geneva the upper hand was gained by forces which threaten to involve the nations in new catastrophes, the speeches of the Soviet representatives stiffened the resistance to the adventurous policy of the ruling sections of the capitalist class on the part of the broad masses of the toilers.

With regard to relations between the USSR and bourgeois countries, Soviet foreign policy has always maintained the standpoint that in spite of the inevitable antagonism between the capitalist and socialist systems nothing should stand in the way of establishing and preserving normal and businesslike relations between the USSR and the rest of the world. From the time the famous thesis was advanced at the International Economic Conference in 1927 about "a peaceful co-existence" of both systems—capitalist and socialist—and down to the proposal made at the end of 1931 by the People's Commissary for Foreign Affairs, M. Litvinov, for concluding a pact of economic non-aggression, Soviet policy has consistently laid stress on the fact that the basic interests of the domestic creative activities of the Soviet Union demand the preservation and strengthening of peace.

There has not taken place a single event in the domain of international policy capable, even if only morally, of strengthening peace tendencies at the expense of militarist inclinations which did not call forth from the Soviet Union the expression of readiness to support the initiative in that direction. Everyone knows the practical value of the so-called Kellogg Pact, about giving up war as an instrument of national policy. In our days people are especially struck by the utopianism of those who imagine that such a pact would be able to relegate to the past one of the sharpest forms of imperialist policy, one of the mightiest weapons of the expansion of monopoly capital. No one had a better understanding of the purely declaratory nature of this pact than the Soviet Union. Yet the USSR was one of the first States which recognised the provisions of the Kellogg Pact as binding on itself. The reservations made by the Soviet government when endorsing the Paris Pact, unlike those made by the other governments were intended to widen the scope of the pact and to extend it to all possible cases of hostile activities which would thus be outlawed. Thus the Soviet government expressed itself in favour of prohibiting all kinds of wars, all military occupations, all blockades and interventions. The very breaking off of diplomatic relations, which hampers the settlement of disputes in a peaceful way and which increases the danger of armed conflicts, should in the opinion of the Soviet government have been prohibited under the Kellogg Pact.

Developing its peaceful "offensive", the Soviet government took upon itself the initiative of immediately carrying the Kellogg Pact into effect. Without waiting for this pact to come into force after its ratification by all the participants, the Soviet government proposed to its immediate neighbours to recognise at once its binding nature. The so-called Litvinov protocol was signed on February 9, 1929. However, it took more than a month before the full acceptance of the offer made by USSR an offer which had for its object only that of obtaining the signatures which had already been affixed to the pact, prohibiting wars, could be secured.

With a number of countries, (Turkey, Persia, Afghanistan) and also with Germany and Lithuania, the Soviet Union had previously to this signed treaties of neutrality and non-aggression. Unlike the treaties of "friendship" which became so fashionable among capitalist States in the post-war period, the Soviet type of agreement did not harbour any secret coalitions or secret military alliances and served the genuine purpose of strengthening peace, for it did not contain any obligations to support one State against another. On the contrary, these treaties are framed in such a way as to cast the obligation on each of the contracting parties to abstain from hostile activities—political and economic—in regard to the other and preserve neutrality in case one of the parties is attacked by a third party. These treaties do not contain a single clause, which provides for any assistance to be given in case of diplomatic
or military complications and which would therefore facilitate a party to the agreement taking such decisions as would entail military conflicts. It goes without saying that in spite of the repeated declarations of the Soviet government about its readiness to conclude such treaties with any State maintaining diplomatic relations with it, none of the imperialist countries or States that are virtually their vassals responded to this appeal by the Soviet government. Only those governments assumed a policy of an agreement with the Soviet government, which set as their task the defence of their territorial integrity and of the economic independence of their country and which realised that it is to their own advantage to consolidate peace and to conduct a struggle for its preservation. The official endorsement of the peace policy of the Soviet government by the corresponding countries not only increased the importance of the peace aspirations of the USSR in international relations, but proved conclusively that the main champion of peace was the USSR, with which every government interested for one reason or another in the preservation of general peace, should seek an understanding.

From 1929 the capitalist world has entered on an era of deepening cataclysms. The era of "prosperity", of a relative stabilisation of capitalism gave way at first to depression, then to economic crisis. Developing on the basis of a universal crisis of the capitalist system the industrial crisis of overproduction and the world agrarian crisis produced far reaching changes within that system. The growth of social contradictions within capitalism found its reflection in international relations. The decrease of purchases in the home market as a result of the destitution of the masses of consumers, compelled the ruling class to seek foreign markets. At its own frontiers it was met by the stream of commodities coming from other countries whose markets were exhausted by the crisis. Conflicts of interests are growing and these constitute the primary cause of political complications. In this ever-increasing tangle of contradictions, political jobbers of all kinds find fruitful soil for international combinations that contain in themselves the threats of new wars—in this manner are the bourgeoisie trying to find a way out of the crisis.

1929 was the first year of the Five-Year Plan in the USSR. After developing a tremendous enthusiasm for construction, the Soviet Union began to refashion its backward economy, to transform the USSR from an agrarian appendage into a powerful socialist industrial world. Social changes were organically bound up with the construction of socialism. The stamping out of the remnants of capitalist elements in cities, the elimination of the kulaks as a class, on the basis of the all-round collectivisation of the village, and from this arising, the sharpening of the class struggle against the remnants of the exploiting classes, secured enormous successes in socialist construction, being at the same time the consequence of these successes.

During the period of crisis, the capitalist world more than ever before felt the absence in its system of the territory now occupied by the Soviet Union. This huge market of consumption with a population of 160 millions, the enormous natural wealth, the inexhaustible potential resources of the Soviet country, were missed by the bankrupt bourgeoisie. Even formerly the capitalist class could not very well reconcile itself to the existence of an independent socialist State and organised intervention against the USSR. Now with the gradual disappearance of their last ally within the USSR, the interventionist circles of bourgeois countries began to prepare with special favour for the forcible annexation of the Soviet Union to the fold of capitalism.

The Soviet policy of peace was confronted with a truly gigantic task of fighting for peace in conditions of increased danger of the capitalist bloc attacking the USSR. The aggressive activity of the ruling circles of the capitalist world used all kinds of methods in order to create a favourable political situation capable of furthering the realisation of schemes of invasion against the Soviet Union. It became necessary at all costs to make the USSR appear as though undermining the economic well-being of capitalism. To make it appear responsible for all the sufferings which are experienced by the toiling masses of the capitalist world resulting from the ever increasing economic crisis. To make it appear in the eyes of the petty-bourgeois masses and the backward sections of the working class as a traducer of religious feelings and in that way to instil anti-Soviet feelings among the masses of the population abroad. The dirtiest methods of agents-provocateurs played an important role in the arsenal used by politicians in their anti-Soviet
campaigns. The notorious campaigns of alleged Soviet "dumping", "forced labour", "religious persecutions", were only one of the forms of preparation for the rupture of peaceful relations between the capitalist and the socialist systems.

Not a single international conference was held, such as were particularly plentiful at the height of the economic crisis, which in one aspect or another was not directed against the Soviet Union. Everyone remembers the attempt made by French imperialism to exclude the USSR from nations invited to take part in the pan-European Commission. France explained its viewpoint by the consideration that the presence of the USSR could not fail to handicap the plan of an economic boycott of the Soviet Union, which was engaging, the attention of the ruling circles of France, which country at that time headed the anti-Soviet elements of world capitalism. The boycott was to serve as a preliminary stage for the preparation of a military attack on the USSR. The seizure of the Chinese Eastern Railway by Chinese generals carried out with the blessing of the imperialists was a provoking action against the USSR, which if successful, would have plunged the world into war. The USSR had to fulfil one of the most difficult of tasks — the preservation of universal peace.

An enormous amount of self-control and iron logic was necessary in order, in the face of numerous provocative actions, to be able ceaselessly to expose the real essence of the anti-Soviet slanders and actions, and also to be able to preserve peace. The shots fired by Stern and Gorgulov at the official representatives of capitalist States prove that the imperialists and their agents were losing all hope of provoking the Soviet Union to action or to cause it to surrender peaceful relations. They pursued the object of inciting the other party to assume a more hostile attitude in its relations with the USSR. It is not their fault that the desired results were not attained.

Everything possible was done by elements hostile to the USSR and the cause of peace to bring about these results. It is owing only to the ceaseless and active work on the part of the Soviet Union to preserve peace and owing to its exposure of the anti-Soviet plots of the imperialists and their agents, both in the USSR itself and abroad, that peace was not broken. The trial of the "Industrial Party" could not but alarm the widest masses of the toilers in capitalist countries. From past experience they well know what are the results of the activities of general staffs. They could not fail to see — the struggles of the Soviets for peace helped them in this — that the ruling circles of the bourgeoisie were preparing a new, a second intervention.

The crisis forced the bourgeoisie to seek a smoke screen for its militant activity. 1931 witnessed a number of appeals issued to the USSR by various countries, including France, proposing to resume the negotiations concerning the non-aggression pacts which had made no headway since 1926. True to its policy of peace, the Soviet Union accepted these proposals. The course of the negotiations proved that only the pressure of the changed political situation prompted the ruling groups of the bourgeoisie to make a show of its "peaceful" tendencies. They kept their daggers concealed but in readiness. Only three States — Finland, Latvia and Estonia — fully ratified their treaties with the USSR. With other border countries and with France the agreements have not yet been signed owing to some pretext or other advanced by them.

The international situation is still extremely tense. Peace has been broken in several localities, and armed struggle proceeds at the very frontiers of the Soviet Union. Soviet policy is today even more than before a most important factor in the preservation of peace, so necessary for toiling humanity. Having achieved enormous successes in the building of socialism, standing on the threshold of the second Five-Year Plan, which pursues the task of building a classless society, the toilers of the Soviet Union know how to value the importance of peace. But they are not less able to value the conquests of the October Revolution, which has overthrown the oppression of capitalists and which has opened up before the exploited classes new historic perspectives. But if anyone tries to attack the cause of the working class, if anyone tries to wrest away the even "an inch of ground" of Soviet territory, to restore on it the domination of the bourgeoisie, if in spite of the peaceful policy of the USSR, peace will be broken by the imperialists — the toilers of the Soviet Union will know how to protect their cause against any attempts made by the class enemy. Let the imperialists blame no one but themselves if their interventionist adventure will turn out to be a stick which in the end hits him who takes it up.
"The attempts of the capitalist world for the last decades to solve the problem of nationalities by means of combining the free development of nations with a system of exploitation of man by man proved fruitless" (from the declaration on the formation of the USSR).

This has been very strikingly illustrated by the many years' practice of the League of Nations. Even the congress of bourgeois representatives of the national minorities of Europe, which was held in 1928, was compelled to admit that "the confidence of the forty millions, belonging to the national minorities, in the League of Nations as a guarantor of the minority rights, has been thoroughly undermined. Hitherto the League of Nations, owing to the methods it used to follow, did nothing serious in regard to the solution of the national minority problem".

At the present time, just the same as before, the world war, numerous colonies supply raw material for the industries of capitalist countries; they are the sources of surplus profits, enormous markets for the sale of manufactured articles... At the present time, as before, an altogether brazen national oppression prevails in capitalist countries along with class oppression and the least manifestations of protest on the part of the toilers of the oppressed nations are cruelly and pitilessly quelled.

A totally different state of things we witness in the USSR, the only country in the world where the national problem has been settled not partially or formally, but completely and in point of substance. This is explained by the fact, that "the Soviet rule is a new form of State organisation, different in principle from the old bourgeois-democratic and parliamentary form, a new type of State, adapted not to the tasks of exploiting and oppressing the toiling masses, but to the task of their complete emancipation from all kinds of oppression and exploitation, to the task of the dictatorship of the proletariat" (J. Stalin).

The radical solution of the national problem in the USSR constitutes one of the most brilliant victories of Leninism—the militant programme of revolutionary struggle and socialist construction.

As far back as 1894, in his book entitled 'Who are the friends of the people', V. Lenin indicated the main lines of those methods which later were practically followed in order to solve the national problem on the territory of the former tsarist Russia. At the second Congress of Russian Social-Democratic Labour Party held in 1903, "the right to self-determination for all nations making part of the State" was recognised in a special paragraph of the Party programme.

After the October Revolution this programme began to be put into effect.

In tsarist Russia, which comprised a great number of nationalities speaking different languages, national oppression was so strong that Russia was justly termed "the great prison of nations".

The national policy of tsarism was only serving its imperialist aspirations. The seizure of the best land in the conquered borderlands, the reckless exploitation of the most accessible natural wealth, such as fuel, mineral ore, and various kinds of raw material; the colonisation of the outlying districts by "reliable" people from among the Russian Cossacks, kulaks and high officials; the enlisting of the native exploiters, the nobles and the clergy to the side of the oppressor—such was the practice of Russian imperialism. At that period the policy was to effect such measures as would kill "any beginnings of national movement among non-Russian peoples, to suppress their national culture, to restrict the use of their language, to maintain their inferior status, and finally to russify them as far as possible".

The colonial regime of tsarism left a painful heritage in the shape of an extraordinary economic and cultural backwardness of these numerous peoples and of very hostile relations between the various national minorities. This backwardness and national hostilities were purposely fostered by the exploiting classes in order to cloud the class-consciousness of the toilers belonging to different nationalities and to prevent their unification for the purpose of fighting their oppressors.

After destroying the regime of the tsar and of the landlords, the proletariat destroyed also its economic, social and juridical
M. Kalinin, President of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR

V. Molotov, President of the Council of People's Commissaries of the USSR

I. Voroshilov, People's Commissary for Army and Navy

M. Litvinov, People's Commissary for Foreign Affairs
THE OPENING OF THE LENIN Dnieper Project

The new city and the...
Grozny. Boring towers

Textile factory in Ashkhabad

Magnitostroy
base. Instead of the tsarist "single and indivisible" prison of nations, a powerful and free Union of the Socialist Soviet Republics was formed.

The main lines of the policy of the Soviet rule in regard to the national question amount to the following: a) the absolute abolition of all privileges hitherto enjoyed by some of the national groups; equal rights of all nations; colonies and subject nations are granted the right to complete self-determination, including even secession; b) a thorough abolition of the remains of national inequality in all spheres of social and economic life, and above all, a planned spread of industries in the outlying districts; in this connection, it is proposed to develop the economic and cultural life of backward nations at a more rapid rate than of other nations; c) giving the utmost assistance to the labouring masses of nations other than the Great-Russians — in the first place, in the matter of developing and strengthening of the Soviet regime in forms which are in harmony with national habits and customs of these nations; secondly, in furthering courts, administration, and economic bodies, using the native language and composed of local people familiar with the life and customs of the native population; thirdly, in furthering the national press, schools, theatres, and other cultural and educational institutions using the vernacular. Thus the nations of the Soviet Union are now able to build up their own culture "national in form and socialist in content" (J. Stalin). Apart from this, the policy of the Soviet government is directed towards the training of skilled workers, Party functionaries, Soviet officials, business managers and educationalists from among the national minorities.

The Party and the Soviet government are in every way promoting a rapprochement between the proletarians and semi-proletarians of the various nationalities, but at the same time they are waging a ruthless war on national deviations and especially on the chauvinist deviation, which constitutes the main danger. The resolute and consistent carrying out of such a national policy explains the fact that the USSR is the only country in the world where national or race problems do not exist. The importance of these successes is the more remarkable, since they have been achieved on the territory of an enormous country inhabited by hundreds of big and small nations, which not only differ from each other by their racial characteristics but which are on most diverse levels of economic and cultural development.

The USSR comprises seven allied republics, which in their turn include fifteen autonomous soviet socialist republics, one Soviet Socialist Republic founded by special treaty, seventeen autonomous regions and thirteen national districts.

The Soviet government, the moment it came into power, stated before the whole world in a special declaration issued on November 3, 1917 and signed by V. Lenin and J. Stalin: "There is no return, nor can there be a return to the shameful policy of tsarism; henceforward it must be replaced by a policy of voluntary and honest alliance between the nations of Russia."

The first political union of the nations inhabiting the former Russian Empire was formed immediately after the October Revolution, under the title of "Russian Socialist Federative Soviet Republic". This alliance of separate Soviet States and autonomous regions existed in its original form for over four years. During these years the Soviet Republics had to hold their own in a long and steady struggle against all the counter-revolutionary forces, which fought the Soviet country with the full assistance of world capital, that found its expression in the blockade, in arming and supplying the White-Guardist armies and in the direct intervention from north, west, south and east. Most of the national Republics and regions took final shape only after the termination of the civil war, i. e. twelve years ago.

In December 1922, at the Constituent Congress of Soviets in Moscow, the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics was formed. J. Stalin, in his speech at the Congress said:

"This is the day of an important change; it marks a boundary line between the old, past period when the Soviet Republics, though acting together, went each its own way, and the new period, which has already begun, when an end is put to the separate existence of the Soviet Republics, when the Republics are united in a single federal State."

According to the Constitution of the USSR, the equality in rights and duties of the separate republics, both Union republics and autonomous ones, is fully guaranteed. For this purpose, a council of nationalities is set up in the Soviet system, a special political body representing all the autonomous units without exception.
"Since the formation of the Soviet Republics the States of the world have split up into two camps: the camp of capitalism and the camp of socialism. There, in the camp of capitalism, you find national hatred and inequality, colonial slavery and chauvinism, national oppression and pogroms, imperialist brutalities and wars. Here, in the camp of socialism, you find mutual trust and peace, national liberty and equality, a peaceful co-existence and fraternal co-operation of nations" (from the declaration on the formation of the USSR).

At the present time, the USSR comprises the RSFSR, the Transcaucasian Federation, the Ukraine, White Russia, Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Tadjikistan. The original treaty of 1922 was concluded only between the first four of the above named republics: the remaining four joined the Union later.

The largest of the above mentioned seven Union republics, the RSFSR, comprises 12 autonomous soviet socialist republics, and 14 autonomous regions: Bashkiria, Buryato-Mongolia, Daghestan, Kazakhstan, Kirghizia, Karakalpakia, Karelia, Crimea, the Republic of the Volga Germans, Tataria, Chuvashia, and Yakutia; moreover, the Checheu, Ingush, North Osset, Kabardino-Balkar, Karachay, Tcherkess, Adyguei, Kalmuck, Mari, Udmurt, Mordovian, Oyrot, Khakass, Komi regions etc.

The RSFSR is the largest and the most populated of all the Union republics and comprises also a larger number of nations than any other. The 26 autonomous units of the RSFSR comprise over a hundred large and small nationalities. This circumstance naturally made it enormously difficult to carry out a correct national policy. However, enormous successes were achieved in the economic and cultural life of even the most backward nations and these successes were strikingly illustrated by the results of the first Five-Year Plan. This is the more remarkable, since an overwhelming majority of the national autonomous republics and regions emerged from the state of civil war much later than the purely Russian districts.

If we turn now to the figures and facts in the domain of the economic and cultural construction of the nations of the RSFSR we will find the following:

In 16 autonomous units, the total sum of investments during the past 4 years of the Five-Year Plan reach approximately 445 million rubles. Of these, the greater amount was directed to the leading industries — metallurgical, chemical and fuel-producing industries. The gross output in these autonomous units during the past period reached about 1,250 million rubles.

According to the control figures for 1932, the investments in the national economy and the social and cultural construction of the RSFSR will amount to 10,826 million rubles. Out of this sum, the share of the autonomous republics and autonomous regions is 1,650 million rubles or over 15% of the total. The expenditure on new industrial plants and on electrification in the autonomous republics and regions reached last year 217 million rubles.

The national policy of the Soviet government is well illustrated by the following figures. The increase in the appropriations for the regions of the RSFSR in 1931 was 18.9%, in regard to the autonomous republics it was 24.8%, and in regard to the autonomous regions 26.4%. According the 1932 plan, the increase for the regions of the RSFSR will be 19.2% for the autonomous republics 21.1%, and for the autonomous regions 34.1%.

From the point of view of a proper realisation of the leninist national policy it is characteristic that the backward nations are favoured so as to bring them as soon as possible into line with the progressive ones. Therefore, the tempo for the economic growth in the national republics and regions is planned to be more rapid than for other regions. The following table illustrates this preposition (in %):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RSFSR National autonomous units</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General increase of investments in 1932</td>
<td>134 148.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in sown area for 1932</td>
<td>104.6 108.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in expenditure on transport during the first 3½ years of the Five-Year Plan</td>
<td>142 196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in the appropriation for the cultural construction in 1932</td>
<td>27 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in number of hospitals in 1932</td>
<td>14 31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Very great attention is being paid to the socialist reconstruction of agriculture in the autonomous republics and regions. Thus, in 1931 alone 180 million rubles were appropriated to that end, and this radically altered the very nature and tendencies of agriculture in a number of formerly backward districts.
A vast country like Kazakhstan has been transformed already by the end of the third year of the Plan into a most important region possessing many State and collective farms: suffice it to mention that by August 1, 1931, there were 130 State farms on the territory of Kazakhstan, possessing 23.5 million hectares, and that 60% of farms belonging to poor and middle peasants were collectivised.

And as regards the growth of industries, the third all-Union coal base is being worked there—Karaganda, which exceeds the Donets basin in point of quantity and quality of coal extracted. In the near future Karaganda will yield 2.5 million tons of high-grade coking coal. In one year and a half an important railway line Turksib—was constructed cutting through the whole of Kazakhstan from north to south, and stretching for 1,500 kilometres.

The tempo of industrialisation in other republics of the RSFSR is equally rapid, even in those which suffered most from the colonial régime of tsarism.

In Bashkiria the powerful Komarozigazin combinat is growing. In Daghestan a new glass works has been erected which is the last word in technics, the best in the USSR both as regards technics and capacity. In Crimea the Kerch metallurgical giant plant is being completed. In Karakia an enormous paper factory, the Kondopoga factory, has been completed.

Equally great successes were achieved in the domain of culture in the autonomous republics and regions.

In Chuvashia nearly 100% of children attend the primary schools, in Bashkiria over 76%, in Tataria nearly 100%, in the Crimean Republic 97%, in the Adygyeh region 100%, in the Kabardino-Balkar region over 98%, in North Ossetia 100%, in the Udmurt region about 100%, in the Mordva region 97%, in the Komi region 99%, etc. In the past year alone about 2 million persons in the autonomous units learned how to read and to write and about 1—1\(\frac{1}{2}\) million were taught in special schools for illiterates.

The republic which ranks next in importance after the RSFSR is the Ukranian Soviet Socialist Republic.

Before the Revolution, the Ukraine was in fact a colony of tsarist Russia. The degree to which its national economy was exploited is incidentally shown by the fact that from 1898 to 1910 tsarist Russia took from the Ukraine on an average 45% of its revenue. On the other hand, the Ukraine was also exploited by foreign capital which took the lion’s share in the metallurgical and coal industries of the country.

The realisation of the Leninist national policy secured a full utilisation of the enormous potential wealth of the Ukraine. In 1913, the total production of metal was 2,600,000 tons, in 1932 it reaches 5,500,000 tons. The reconstruction of the mines of the Donets basin will already, by the end of the first Five-Year Plan, enable us to exceed two and a half times the pre-war level of coal production. In a relatively short period, the Ukraine was covered by industrial giant plants: Dnieprostroy, the Kharkov tractor plant, and a number of most important enterprises for agricultural machine building, etc.

The Ukraine has become collectivised to the extent of 100%. At the same time we observe an increase of mechanisation in agriculture. In 1930, there were only 47 machine and tractor stations in the Soviet Ukraine, and these were covering an area of 952,000 hectares. In the summer of 1932, 418 machine and tractor stations were working in the Ukrainian fields and were covering an area of 13.5 million hectares.

The rapid economic development of the Ukraine brought in its train a considerable cultural revival of the republic. In a country where, before the Revolution, the teaching in the native language was forbidden, there were 18,430 Ukrainian schools in 1931. In 1914 there were only 1,648,000 persons attending all the schools in the Ukraine, in 1931 this number increased to 4,071,000. In 1913, 22,533 persons were studying in the higher schools of the Ukraine, they were mainly sons of capitalists, landlords and kulaks; in 1931, out of the 92,493 students of the higher schools of the Ukraine, the majority were sons and daughters of working men and peasants. In 1923/24, there were 430 scientists and 256 aspirants in the Ukraine, in 1931 the corresponding figures were 4,792 and 5,454.

A similar attention is paid to the education of the national minorities of the Ukraine. In 3,328 schools for the children of these nationalities, tuition is given in their native languages. In 1931, there were 347 Polish schools, 579 German schools, 495 Jewish schools etc. Special higher schools, technicums and scientific research institutes were founded.
Prior to the Revolution, the Ukrainian press and Ukrainian books were banned. Even in 1921 there existed only one newspaper in the Ukrainian language, with a circulation of a few thousand copies. At the present time 336 Ukrainian newspapers are published, with a daily circulation of over 7 million copies. The total output of school text books in the Ukrainian language has reached 35 million copies in 1932. The output of the industrial-technical literature in the Ukraine will reach by the end of 1932 19 million copies.

In 1923 only one art and literature magazine was published in the Ukrainian language, at the present time there are twelve of them. Many talented authors made their mark. There is now a large number of literary men from among the workers and peasants.

The successes attained by the Ukrainian literature, theatre, painting and other arts, are known far beyond the boundaries of the Soviet Union. In particular, many Ukrainian painters achieved fame by their works of art exhibited abroad.

Equally striking are the successes attained by the White-Russian Republic, which before the Revolution was one of the most backward outlying regions of tsarist Russia (in 1917 80% of the population of White Russia was illiterate). Last year's investments in industrial construction of that country form a sum which is twice the amount which was spent on industries in pre-revolutionary White Russia in the course of a whole century. About 100 million rubles were assigned to cultural needs during the present year, whereas only 15 million rubles were spent in 1914—1915 on the people's education in the territory of the present White-Russian republic. In 1929/30, the corresponding figure was 50 million, and in 1931, 99 million rubles.

Illiteracy has almost entirely been eliminated in White Russia. Universal primary education has been introduced, for which purpose hundreds of new schools were built and thousands of teachers trained. A country which did not possess a single university, has now 12 universities and 60 technicums of various specialities in which 40 thousand persons are studying.

Moreover, White Russia possesses a large number of scientific research institutes for various branches of economy and culture. Four years ago, the White-Russian Academy of Sciences was founded. In all these institutions there are about 350 aspirants, most of them workers and peasants by origin.

The White-Russian State Publishing House, together with the publishing departments of the various scientific institutions, has in the course of six years (1925 to 1930) published about 4,000 books, with a total of 20 million copies.

After the Revolution, the toilers of White Russia had to create anew their art-culture and White Russia at the present time possesses a number of theatres, among them a Jewish theatre and a Polish theatre. Last year an operatic studio was opened and this year a White-Russian conservatory will be founded.

Nowhere in the Soviet Union do we observe such variety of nations on a relatively small territory, as in Transcaucasus. This circumstance was cleverly taken advantage of by the tsar's government, which found it to its advantage to incite national hatred between various races and tribes. It is only under the dictatorship of the proletariat that this hostility has ceased, and at the present time Soviet Transcaucasus represents a fraternal union of three republics and is the model of a peaceful co-operation of nations. During the ten years of its existence (the Transcaucasian Federation was formed in 1922), the republics of Transcaucasus achieved great successes in the domain of economics and culture. Such constructions as Zages, Dzorages, Riones and other power stations are known not only in the USSR but also abroad. The reconstruction of agriculture is progressing with gigantic strides. 260 million rubles this year, as against 174.4 million spent last year. The following figures will illustrate the cultural development of Transcaucasus.

The Transcaucasian Federation consists of three republics: Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaidjan (for further details about Soviet Transcaucasus see the 'VOKS' magazine No. 1, 1932).

Prior to the October Revolution, the average percentage of literacy among the nations of Transcaucasus did not exceed 35%. In 1930 it was 52%.

In 1928/29 the Transcaucasian Federation disposed of 11 higher schools and 9 workers' faculties; in 1930 the number of higher schools reached 32 and of work-
ers’ faculties — 31. Already in 1932 Georgia and Armenia were able to introduce universal primary education; next year it will be introduced in Azerbaidjan.

One of the most important reforms is the introduction of the new latinised script among the Turkic nations of the USSR in place of the Arabic script. By means of these measures, the bourgeoisie and the clergy of the Eastern nations inhabiting our country were deprived of the monopoly of learning and culture, which they used in order to oppress the common people. The broad masses of the toilers are now able to proceed along the path leading to the greatest conquests of culture. Lenin called this reform “the greatest revolution in the East”.

* * *

From the standpoint of the practical realisation of the Leninist national policy, an exceptional interest is attached to the economic and cultural revival of the Asian and Central-Asiatic republics, the ones which under tsarism were treated as colonies or semi-colonies.

The decisive factor in this connection was the land and irrigation reforms, which undermined the economic base of the exploitation of natives. At the same time, far-reaching land-improvement schemes were effected, viz gigantic irrigation construction, such as the Tadjent dam and a number of canals and water-routes. The local machine and tractor stations were supplied with special dredges, and this relieved the local peasants from the slavish labour of cleaning irrigation canals by hand labour.

Another measure of historic importance was the transformation of nomads and semi-nomads into settlers. This was effected first by means of collective and State farms and secondly by developing local industries, and attracting to them the native population, e. g. in two-and-a-half years in Kazakhstan alone, 145 thousand families abandoned their nomadic mode of life and became members of collective farms and of cattle-breeding associations. It is interesting to note that the former nomads have to such an extent mastered the art of agriculture that in 1931 they produced 2.5 million centners of grain and over 630 thousand tons of hay for the market, and in the spring of 1932 they have cultivated over 5,000 hectares in their collective farms. The socialistic system of agriculture has introduced the latest technical improvement into the farms of the backward Asiatic regions. In the fields of Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Tadjikistan and Karakalpakia, where the primeval “omach” (a very primitive plough) was the only agricultural implement used, there are now thousands of tractors and other machines at work, and machine and tractor stations are growing in number. A revolution is being effected in agriculture.

The natural resources of these republics make it possible to develop their industries by feeding them with local raw material. Since the Soviet rule has been established in the former tsarist colonies of Central Asia, the following new important branches of industry have been introduced there: cement, sulphur, the bulk of which is now produced in Central Asia, the chemical industry, the textile industry — a number of big factories in Fergana, Ashkhabad, Khodjent, Stalinabad and Chardjuy, — and finally the sugar industry in Kirghizia. The metallurgical, chemical and fuel-producing industries have been firmly established and there is every reason to expect that they will be of enormous importance.

A wide development of scientific research and geological exploration work supplies an enormous impetus to the industrialisation of the Central-Asiatic republics.

The total investments in the economic and cultural construction of the Central-Asiatic republics are growing from year to year and have reached this year 1,178 million rubles. The total investments for the four years of the first Five-Year Plan throughout the Union reached the colossal figure of 2,500 million rubles.

The following figures show the exceptionally rapid tempo of economic growth of the Central-Asiatic republics:

The area under cotton: 1914 — 643.6 thousand hectares, 1932 — 1,529 thousand hectares.

The cost of industrial production: 1914 — 219.3 million rubles, 1932 — 950 million rubles.

The total power of electrical plants: 1914 — 3.6 thousand kilowatts, 1932 — 45 thousand kilowatts.

The sum total of investments in industries of Central Asia for the four years of the Five-Year Plan is over 640 million rubles and for educational purposes about 95 million rubles.

In the second Five-Year Plan the sum total of capital invested in the industries of Central Asia will be 5,500 million rubles. The capacity of the electric power
stations in the Central-Asiatic republics will reach the level of the most progressive industrial districts of the Union.

The cultural revolution in the Soviet East is characterised above all by the spread of universal education. By the end of the first Five-Year Plan, the number of pupils in the primary schools of the Central-Asiatic republics will reach 1 million and the number of students in the higher schools will be at least 25 thousand. In this connection it is noteworthy that women are now entering the schools, in spite of the difficulties that beset them, owing to the customs and habits of the East. Among the students who graduated in 1931, 18.5% were native women.

The number of newspapers has trebled and of journals doubled during the first three years of the Five-Year Plan. At the present time, 71 newspapers and 40 journals are published in Central Asia, most of them in the vernacular. The output of the national publishing departments has increased from 587 to 3,000 different books.

During the second Five-Year Plan, 500 million rubles will be spent on cultural construction: 257 million in Uzbekistan, 72 million in Turkmenistan, 80 million in Tadzhikistan, 70 million in Kirghizia and 21 million in Karakalpakia.

The instance of the socialist transformation of the former tsarist colonies in Central Asia fully bears out Lenin's thesis, that 'with the aid of the proletariat of the most progressive countries, the backward countries will be able to pass on to the Soviet regime and after passing certain stages of development they will arrive at communism, missing the capitalist stage of development'.

The officials in national regions are mostly drawn from the native population, familiar with the language, customs and habits of the corresponding nations. At the present time, there exist 12,700 native village Soviets, of which 93.5% consist of one nationality only.

Such are the most important data and facts enabling us to judge of the achievements of the policy in regard to various nationalities followed by the Soviet Union for the last 15 years.

The October Revolution has secured for the toilers of all the nations of the USSR not only a formal right but also an actual possibility of taking an active part in the great construction work of the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics.

FIFTEEN YEARS OF CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE USSR

By D. Skomorovsky

The October Revolution has solved in a new way the problem of culture, for it has blasted the foundation upon which the power of landlords and capitalists reposed in tsarist Russia.

October opened such tremendous sources of creative cultural power that none of the social orders could even conjecture their existence. For the first time in the history of humanity, in the place of the privileged social stratum which monopolised culture, millions of souls have come freely forward as the creators of new values not only material, but intellectual as well.

October has made public education truly the business of the masses. From the first years of the Revolution there began to appear in all quarters of the immense territory of the USSR new cultural institutions from kindergartens to universities. The educational enthusiasm of the masses was so great that even the collapse of national economy caused by the imperialist war, the civil war and intervention could not hinder the creation of the many new cultural organisations and institutions.

It was the period of the most chaotic collapse — the years 1918—1920 — that witnessed the first wave of the building of new pre-school institutions and universities. A second such cultural wave on a far greater scale than the first coincides with the period of socialist reconstruction of industry and agriculture. The first successes of socialist industrialisation and agricultural collectivisation have created a concrete basis for the solution of the problems of cultural development.

The particularly rapid tempo of cultural evolution during the years of the first Five-Year Plan was logically brought about by the necessity to put an end to this lagging behind the tempo of economic construction.
And in fact the Five-Year Plan, which gave the USSR victories on the fronts of industry and agriculture, is characterised at the same time by successes in revolutionising culturally tens of millions of toilers, active participants in the new order. Compulsory elementary education for children and adults has been introduced on a national scale; a system of pre-school academies and institutes for mass political education have been organised on a nationwide scale. In the sphere of preparing qualified specialists for national economy, not only were the existing literary and scientific institutions enlarged, but a whole system of new universities and technicums was created.

As a result of these all-important measures the Soviet Union shall have placed 50% of the entire population in some educational institution or other by the end of the first Five-Year Plan, which is being fulfilled in four years,—1928—1932. At the present time every second person in the country is studying. Prior to the Revolution only a mere 8 or 9 million persons attended university. This number had increased to between 15 and 16 millions during the first year of the Five-Year Plan, and is expected during 1932 to exceed 75 millions. This data conclusively demonstrates to what extent the Soviet Union has progressed along cultural lines compared to tsarist Russia. We are well aware that the cultural advancement of the toiling masses has gone onward at a rate never before heard of.

**Preschool education**

The October Revolution has brought about a complete emancipation of the working woman in the Soviet Union. The organising of a system of social institutions and pre-school preparatory courses has set free the woman from the burden of housework so that now she is able to live the active life of a builder of socialist society. In tsarist Russia the pre-school system was of course unknown; here and there some pre-school institution, mostly kindergartens, were opened as a result of private or public initiative. These schools, however, served exclusively the well-to-do-strata of the population. The Department of Public Education of tsarist Russia did not deal at all with the problems of pre-school education. It is only under the Soviet government that pre-school institutions became an inalienable component of the whole system of education. Despite the difficulties of the first few years after the Revolution, more than 200 thousand children were organised in pre-school institutions.

The system of pre-school instruction grew concomitantly with the restoration and reconstruction of national economy, and to such an extent that by the beginning of the first Five-Year Plan it embraced about 400 thousand children.

The immense work—entailed both in magnitude and building tempo—made the Soviet Union not only the one country in the world where unemployment is liquidated but it likewise demanded thousands of new qualified specialists, and labour power in tremendous quantities. Thus it became imperative that women be drawn into industrial work.

In order to permit millions of women to study and to work, it was of utmost necessity to organise new pre-school training. Economic institutions, Soviet farms, and collective farms, all of which are vitally interested in obtaining women workers, now offer considerable pecuniary assistance to pre-schools. Especially during the last few years have these conditions, together with the drawing of the toiling women themselves into the work of the pre-school organisations, contributed to the speedy expansion of the new system.

According to the Plan the contingent of pre-school institutions must enrol during 1933 1 million children, but in reality already in 1932 10 million children are embraced by them. A little more than 3 million pupils are from towns and the rest from villages. At the present time the Soviet Union is introducing general compulsory education throughout the land.

**General compulsory education**

Ever since the October Revolution the central problem of cultural development has been general compulsory education. For the first few years the Soviet government was unable to solve this problem for reasons already mentioned, e. g. civil war, internation and economic collapse. In 1923 it was decided to introduce general compulsory education within the following ten years. In the first stages of this work it was difficult even to foresee what speedy rates of cultural development would be required. The initial plan provided for the complete introduction of compulsory education throughout the country during the second Five-Year Plan. It is evident that the early decisions turned out to be
too slow for the rapidly increasing tempo of socialist construction. That is why, at
the suggestion of the XVth Congress of the All-Union Communist Party (1930), it was decided to introduce immediately the general compulsory education.

The carrying out of this programme was declared an immediate task of the succeeding period. Mass work has been developed, into which not only educational organisations were drawn, but also social groups; the Party, Komsomol (Young Communist League) and trade-union organisations as well as economic and co-operative bodies. Millions of workers throughout the country began an earnest struggle for the realisation of this most important cultural measure. In a single year the plan was fulfilled in its principal features throughout the territory of the USSR, with the exception of the most remote and culturally backward nationalities. By the end of the first Five-Year Plan, in 1932, the general compulsory education of children had been introduced in every region of the country. In the central regions and districts, as well as in some republics, such as for instance the Ukraine, White Russia, the seven-year compulsory school is now functioning. With regard to large industrial centres, the seven-year schools have now been reorganised into eight-year schools, with the ninth and tenth groups to be added within the next few years. Thus the second Five-Year Plan will see the realisation of the compulsory general polytechnical education for children up to 17 years of age, according to the decisions laid down by the Communist Party.

The actual carrying out of the general education, according to J. Stalin, is a tremendous victory not only on the cultural front, but also on the political and economic fronts.

The October Revolution has effected a complete change in all educational institutions. Prior to the Revolution there had been two types of schools: one for the “populace” — for workers and peasants, and another for the privileged strata of the population. Both systems were characterised by an excessive variety in their internal structure. The children of workers and peasants, if they had at all the opportunity to study, attended the city and village primary schools, industrial schools which trained handicraftsmen, parish schools, and vocational institutions. For the privileged there were public schools or gymnasiums for boys and girls, commercial schools, and others. A fee had to be paid at all these educational institutions. There were separate schools for boys and girls. The curriculum included religion subjects. The school in the hands of the ruling classes in former Russia served as a means of poisoning the minds of the youth. By strengthening class divisions, these schools prepared the future objects of exploitation to obey the dominating classes and made of them either virtual slaves or slave-overseers.

A decree of the Soviet government published in 1918 abolished all class privileges in the sphere of public education. This decree is one of the most important of all existing documents, for it demonstrates the struggle of the masses for enlightenment. Principles of the Soviet school as set forth in this decree, remain of tremendous significance up to the present day.

Instead of the former scholastic verbal school which prepared submissive and prompt servants, a school of dull discipline, — a new unified labour school has been created on the co-educational plan, which is secular and internationalistic in spirit. The Soviet school is free of charge, compulsory in attendance and polytechnical in training. This new type of school educates a truly new generation, a generation capable of realising the establishment of communism.

Polytechnical education comprises: the sciences as physics, chemistry, mathematics, native language, geography, etc. The student is taught to become familiar with both theoretical and practical aspects of the main branches of industry and given an understanding of the scientific principles of the major industrial processes. The students even develop skill in handling the more common tools of modern labour. The combination of education with productive work is carried out in order to subordinate all productive and social work of the students to the educational aims of the school.

The polytechnisation of the Soviet school is being realised both by creating workshops, work-rooms and laboratories and by attaching schools to factories, State farms, machine and tractor stations etc.

The polytechnical schools of the USSR must turn out conscious, active builders of a classless socialist society, persons of all-round knowledge, able to link up theory with practice. By this the school aims to eventually abolish the difference between manual and mental labour.
Under fifteen years of Soviet rule, the school has achieved considerable success not only with regard to a "root and branch" improvement of the substance matter and quality of its work, but also as to quantity. The growth of the mass school can easily be seen by the following table:

**Primary Schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1914</th>
<th>1927/28</th>
<th>1932</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total students</td>
<td>7,200,000</td>
<td>10,503,000</td>
<td>19,001,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Town</td>
<td>2,139,000</td>
<td>3,250,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village</td>
<td>8,564,000</td>
<td>15,751,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**High Schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1914</th>
<th>1927/28</th>
<th>1932</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total students</td>
<td>564,000</td>
<td>1,399,000</td>
<td>4,675,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Town</td>
<td>1,048,000</td>
<td>1,630,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village</td>
<td>351,000</td>
<td>3,045,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We observe here the dynamic tempo not only of the mass school, but also of its rapid development in the village, particularly with regard to institutions of higher education. This is indeed truly remarkable. In tsarist Russia the secondary schools were located largely in towns: now under the Soviet educational system, which considers the abolishing of the cultural backwardness of the village, as one of the most important tasks, the main bulk of the more advanced schools are being developed in the village.

Before the Revolution the mass school hardly embraced one forth of children of school age. In the USSR by the end of the Five-Year Plan almost 100% of the children will be attending school. It is extremely important to note the stability of these contingents. Instances of children leaving school prematurely prior to the Revolution were known to reach to more than 50%. Now the number of pupils who drop out of school is too insignificant to matter. At the same time the cases of pupils repeating the year of studies due to deficient scholarship is being rapidly eliminated. In the Soviet school, which is really accessible to the toiling masses, the majority of the students consists of children of workers, of collective farmers and of individual peasants.

The institutions of learning for national minorities are entirely a creation of the Revolution. Where fifteen years ago the adherents of russification banished the native language from the schools, today children are being instructed in 72 different dialects. The opening of national schools has been continued for the past few years and today is progressing at a remarkable tempo.

It is only natural under these conditions that the number of teachers has steadily increased. During the first year following the introduction of compulsory general education: the number of primary and secondary school teachers was increased by over 100,000; 1931, the third year of the Five-Year Plan, witnessed an increase of from 480,000 to 653,000 teachers and 1932 has so far required another 200,000. During the second Five-Year Plan with the introduction of the seven-year general education school and with the formation of the third concentric circle in the nine-year school, hundreds of thousands of new teachers will be required.

With regard to their material well-being, teachers have now been placed on a par with industrial workers, and their wages are systematically increased. In accordance with a recent decree, a number of new homes, sanatoriums and rest-homes are to be built in the south of Russia for the exclusive use of the employees of the board of education. The terrible scourge of unemployment is unknown to the Soviet teacher.

In the Soviet Union great attention is being given to mass political educational work among adults, and particularly among women. In the present stage of this work all efforts are being devoted to the liquidation of illiteracy and semi-illiteracy. The importance of this task will be realised if we remember that tsarist Russia was one of the most backward countries of the world, not only economically but also culturally. More than two thirds of the population were illiterate in a land, the government of which regarded the ignorance of the people as one of the guarantees against even the slightest possibility of Revolution. The Soviet government had already in the period of the most trying struggle against counter-revolution and intervention issued a decree calling for liquidation of illiteracy for people between the ages of 8 to 50 years. The Five-Year Plan also covers this branch of socialist work. The diminishing of illiteracy is being carried out in accordance with the struggle for mastering technique and for furthering communist education. The masses have mobilised themselves to create an army of cultural workers amounting to many millions; they have conceived the most varied means of combating illiteracy: cultural campaigns, cultural relay races and other methods.

In August 1931 a decree was published calling for the general compulsory education
of illiterate adults and it is expected that by the end of the first Five-Year Plan the USSR will become a country of almost entire literacy, since already more than 90% of the entire population from 8 to 50 years of age have received a primary education. Significant progress has indeed been realised during the past few years. Up to the year 1928 merely 10 millions had been taught to read and write, while in a single year, 1929/30, this number amounted to 10.5 millions. During 1930/31 15 millions more were given primary instruction and during 1932 over 25 million workers and peasants are being instructed. The Soviet Union is becoming one of the most advanced countries from the standpoint of its level of literacy.

Alongside the tremendous cultural growth of the masses is the wide development of the press. The press in the USSR is one of the most important weapons of the cultural revolution. The output of the press in spite of its immense growth over preceding years is still insufficient to satisfy the demands of the toiling masses for printed matter. This phenomenon one can rightly consider as a proof of the unusually rapid economic and cultural development of the Soviet Union. The active participation of the most diverse strata of the population in the socio-political life of the country is ample testimony of this fact. During the fifteen years of the existence of the Soviet government, the Soviet Union has not only equaled in the amount of printed matter produced, but far surpassed the most advanced countries.

**Number of titles**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1929</th>
<th>1930</th>
<th>1931</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>49,900</td>
<td>56,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>28,000</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>10,027</td>
<td>10,312</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>15,393</td>
<td>14,688</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>11,542</td>
<td>9,829</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to these figures the USSR even as early as 1929 had far surpassed the press output of Germany and the United States of America. In 1930 we had almost doubled the printed production of Germany, about five times that of the United States and France, and three-and-one-half times as much as England. The Soviet Union has attained the first place in the world not only in number of issued titles but also in point of copies. Thus Germany which occupied first place among Western countries and America in this regard issued in 1930 70 million copies of new books. The USSR during the same year published more than 400 millions of copies.

The following table reveals the growth of the book and magazine output for the last few years (in millions of printed sheets):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1929</th>
<th>1930</th>
<th>1931</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,240</td>
<td>3,950</td>
<td>5,242</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For two years there was an increase of two-and-one-half times.

The book in the USSR is a powerful means of diffusing the Marxist-Leninist theory and technical education among the masses; it is a means of enlightening the toilers and mobilising them for the task of economic and cultural construction.

In accordance with these tasks mass literature occupies the first place in book output. In 1927/28 mass literature constituted 209% of the entire production; it leapt to over 50% in 1930. Some books of a mass character were distributed in unheard-of numbers of copies. Such were the pamphlets by J. Stalin, “Giddiness from Success” and “The Tasks of our Business Managers” of which 18 millions and 7 million copies respectively were sold. The fulfilment of J. Stalin’s motto of mastering technique found its expression in the production of the technical book. In 1930 we had 153 million sheets of new technical subjects, during 1931, 310 millions, and in 1932 we must print 578 millions of printed sheets.

During the fifteen years of the Soviet government there has been issued approximately 4 billion book copies. This data certainly indicates the tempo of our cultural growth.

The introduction of general compulsory education for children and adults, the tremendous network of factory schools, the higher technical schools, universities, and technical institutes and the organisation of a system of education for workers and collective farm peasants were directly responsible for the unbelievable increase in educational literature.

The supply of textbooks is still behind the demand, for they are being consumed three times much as before. The limited production of printed matter is caused mainly by the conditions existing in the paper industry which is developing slower than other branches of industry. This is why the improvement of paper manufacture is receiving so much attention.
There is yet another indication of the rise of culture and of the political consciousness of the toiling masses. This is the increase in the number of Soviet newspapers. We occupy second place in the world after the United States in regard to the number of newspaper copy, and at the present moment are beginning to leave America behind.

The number of dailies issued was the following (in million of copies):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>U.S.A.</th>
<th>USSR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1929</td>
<td>39,423,615</td>
<td>12,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>39,589,172</td>
<td>22,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>38,761,187</td>
<td>32,000,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1932 the number of copies of our newspapers is approaching 40 million. In two years our circulation has increased more than two-and-one-half times. The number of issues of our central newspapers, “Pravda” and “Izvestia”, have been growing particularly rapidly. In 1929 “Pravda” published 661,000 copies. By 1932 the number had reached 2,350,000. For “Izvestia” the respective figures are 426,000 and 1,500,000.

Tsarist Russia couldn’t even dream of such accomplishments, of such figures.

The tasks of the second cultural Five-Year Plan

The fifteenth anniversary of the October Revolution coincides with the completion of the first Five-Year Plan and the preparation for the second Five-Year Plan.

The programme of cultural construction for the first Five-Year Plan has been exceeded. However the conditions of life demand an even more rapid rate of advance on the cultural front. This is necessitated by those grandiose tasks, which the USSR sets itself during the second five-year period.

These tasks are: in the field of politics the final elimination of the capitalist elements and classes in general; a complete elimination of conditions producing class differences and exploitation; the abolition of the remnants of capitalism in the economic system, and in the consciousness of men; the transformation of the entire working population of the country into conscientious and active builders of a classless socialist society. In the sphere of economics: the completion of the reconstruction of the entire national economy, the creation of a new technical base for all branches of national economy.

These two fundamental tasks determine the character and content of the second cultural Five-Year Plan, in so far as the re-education of the entire toiling population of the country and the training of a huge army of highly skilled technicians requires a gigantic cultural work.

The creation of an intelligentsia of engineers and technicians recruited from among the workers and peasants is the most important element in the cultural revolution and in the successful construction of socialism in the USSR.

The growth of big State-owned agricultural enterprises and the equipment of the State and collective farms with the most up-to-date mechanical devices are transforming agricultural labour into a branch of industrial labour, they create conditions for the complete elimination of all the contrasts between town and country. In this connection the tempo of cultural development in villages and in separate national districts must be especially accelerated in order to bring them into line with the cultural level of the industrial centres.

These fundamental tasks determine the programme of the cultural revolution in the second Five-Year Plan. During the first Five-Year Plan the two crucial problems of cultural work were the elimination of illiteracy and universal school education. During the second Five-Year Plan the following problems arise: pre-school education and the training of cadres. Universal pre-school education will be fully realised and in this connection it will become necessary to establish an enormous network of pre-school institutions to provide for 25 million children (from the age of three to the age of seven).

The first Five-Year Plan settled the question of universal primary instruction and partially also of the seven-year school. The second Five-Year Plan will bring about the universal introduction of seven-year school throughout the whole country. This measure affects particularly the villages and the backward national areas. In industrial centres, cities and big State farms two to three years will be added to the seven-year schools.

During the first Five-Year Plan principal attention was turned to the maximum development of school construction: the task was to embrace the maximum number of children of school age.
The new Five-Year Plan will enable us to build up the polytechnical school on a new technical basis and to improve it qualitatively. The struggle for quality will be the main issue. At the same time the decision of the programme of the Communist Party concerning universal compulsory polytechnical instruction of children up to 17 years of age will in the main be realised.

In view of the task of abolishing the contrasts between town and country the programmes of village and town schools will be made uniform.

Mass political-educational work will occupy a particularly important place in the programme of the second cultural Five-Year Plan. The strengthening of the material basis will enable us to develop this work on an enormous scale.

The educational level of the adult population in the cities will be raised to that acquired at the seven-year school, and in the villages to that acquired in the primary school.

This task is closely connected with that of mastering technique. The network of institutions such as libraries, clubs, houses of socialist culture, huts-reading rooms, red corners, theatres, cinema and radio sets must be expanded so as to extend political and educational work to the whole of the adult population.

Circulation of daily newspapers will be so increased as to enable each citizen having a copy. The question of the personnel will constitute the main problem in the second Five-Year Plan. Until the final working out of the second Five-Year Plan, it will be difficult to give even an approximate figure of the skilled workers needed in all branches of the national economy. In order to carry into effect the second cultural Five-Year Plan an additional personnel of several million new workers will be required. This will involve the creation of numerous new educational establishments, Communist Universities, Soviet-Party schools and courses.

The total expenditure on cultural construction in the first Five-Year Plan amounted to 15,514 million rubles. In the second Five-Year Plan the sum appropriated will be several times larger than this enormous figure. In the second Five-Year Plan the Soviet Union will increase its construction of cultural institutions to such an extent as to render it unparalleled in the whole world.
Maxim Gorky’s Fortieth Literary Anniversary

TO MAXIM GORKY

Dear Alexey Maximovitch!

I greet you heartily, and firmly grasp your hand. I wish you long years of life and active work to the joy of the toiling masses, and to the fear of the enemies of the working class.

J. Stalin.

Dear Alexey Maximovitch!

On the occasion of your glorious literary and militant-revolutionary activity we send you our heartiest comradely bolshevik greetings.

We hope that for long years yet to come you will raise millions of masses in struggle for the complete triumph of communism.


GREETINGS FROM VOKS

Dear Alexey Maximovitch!

The All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries sends you, our great writer and revolutionary, our warmest greetings.

May your revolutionary pen, which has created great cultural treasures, continue for many years in the future to serve as a mighty weapon lifting the enthusiasm of the toiling masses for socialist construction.

May the might of your written word continue to pierce all enemies of the USSR and mercilessly expose all those that hide behind the lying mask as defenders of “culture” from bolshevik “barbarians”.

May the name of Gorky be a call to all those in foreign countries who hold as dear the real genuine culture of mankind, — the socialistic culture, which today has already achieved gigantic success in the USSR under the leadership of the All-Union Communist Party.

VOKS wishes you for long years yet to come to serve as a flaming example of literary perfection and youthful vigourousness in social and political activity, and of socialistic culture in your literary creations.

May the fiery voice of yours, our great artist and revolutionary-proletarian fighter, resound as a bugle-call throughout the entire world.

Board of Directors VOKS.

On the occasion of the 40th anniversary of the literary debut of Maxim Gorky whose first story “Makar Choudra” appeared in September 1892 we are happy to join our voice to the innumerable congratulations and greetings that were addressed to him on September 25th not only in the USSR but throughout the whole world.

The great proletarian writer of the USSR, one of the most sincere and affectionate friends and defenders of the inter-

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national proletariat, as well as one of the most irreconcilable enemies of the imperialists and capitalists of all countries, Maxim Gorky is a man of genius whose intellectual force, revolutionary spirit and infinite devotion to the cause of all toilers could not and cannot be affected by any reactionary attacks of hateful demonstrations.

To the great proletarian fighter, to the great literary genius, to the indefatigable teacher of new generations of proletarian writers, we express our most deep and cordial wishes, that he remain for many years to come in the front line of socialist construction as invincible and unyielding as ever.

Editors of VOKS publications.

THE GREAT PROLETARIAN WRITER

By A. Khalatov

Gorky's life is extraordinarily colourful and rich in events. Therefore his works contain much that is autobiographical and renders his books so fascinating. The autobiographical novels: "Childhood", "In Service", "My Universities", will forever remain the important documents of the period and will appeal to toilers by their high qualities of artistic truth.

The various and important social events connected with Gorky's books always found a truthful reflection both in his works and in his life. The literary activities and the biography of the author reveal the incessant growth both of his personality and of his creative talent.

In 1910, at the time when Gorky wrote "Mother" and "Enemies" Lenin wrote: "M. Gorky is undoubtedly the greatest representative of proletarian art, who has done much for it and is able to do still more."

Such is the evaluation made by Lenin.

Gorky is not only a great artist, he is also a revolutionary fighter.

Everyone knows of the events of past years, illustrating the revolutionary activities of Gorky both in Russia and abroad. We quote here the words of Lenin about Gorky's connection with the revolutionary movement. In 1909, when the bourgeois press circulated the lie about Gorky being expelled from the social-democratic party and about his having broken with the revolutionary movement, Lenin wrote the following in the "Proletari": "It is in vain that the bourgeois newspapers are giving themselves so much trouble. By his great art productions Comrade Gorky has bound himself up too closely with the labour movement in Russia and throughout the world, to reply to this imputation otherwise than by contempt."

Today Gorky is an active participant in the great socialist construction in the land of the Soviets, a participant in the great struggle, for the USSR is still surrounded by enemies. Gorky is fighting in the ranks of the proletariat and is castigating the enemies and traitors both at home and abroad. Gorky's words about our construction, about new life and about the grandiose achievements of the first Five-Year Plan, brush aside lies and slanders and find a ready response in the hearts of the workers and of the toiling masses of the whole world.

Gorky was one of the initiators of the World Anti-War Congress which assembled in Amsterdam in August 1932. He was unable to deliver his speech at the Congress, because the scared reactionaries did their best to prevent the arrival of the Soviet delegates. However, his speech, though it was not delivered at the Congress, will reach the toilers of the West.

Gorky's faith that there is no power on earth capable of turning backwards the wheel of history is unshakeable: "We are now passing through the beginning of a hurricane which will destroy the old world, and this hurricane has been set in motion by your energy, Comrades."

Gorky on his forty years' jubilee is displaying enthusiastic energy. His work proceeds along three lines: art productions, literary criticism, and publicist activity.

The last mentioned is not new to Gorky. He is a past master in it and wielded this weapon on former occasions, — suffice it to recall his propaganda in Western Europe against tsarist loans and the article "On Cynicism" published as early as 1908,
which was quoted recently by Gorky himself.

Gorky reacts very rapidly on the various burning questions of social life from the most important problems to such which at first sight appear quite insignificant. Rich material is opened to him by his sharp power of observation as a writer and by letters sent to him by an enormous number of workers from every corner of the Union. They all regard him as "their" Gorky. Gorky's activity as a publicist is very varied, it is always full of a militant appeal to work and is imbued with hatred for the old world and its monstrosities, for everything that is hostile to the victorious proletariat. A ruthless struggle must be conducted against all these evils.

It is to such ruthless and persistent struggle that he appealed in his article "If the enemy does not surrender, he must be destroyed", — an article of immense forcefulness. "We are opposed by everything that is obsolete and has lived beyond the period assigned to it by history. This gives us the right to regard ourselves in a state of civil war. Hence follows the natural conclusion: if the enemy does not surrender, he must be destroyed."

Gorky regards himself as being connected by strongest bonds with the toiling masses, which are full of the militant energy of builders. He wrote the following in a letter addressed to the educationalists of Orekhovo-Zuyev: "It is easy to work when you know that your work is being esteemed by the energetic builders of a new life and a new culture", — and in the end he laid special stress, that he himself serves as an "echo of the victorious march of the workers and peasants in the USSR — a march to the great aim which they set themselves".

During the 15 years following the October Revolution, Gorky gave us a number of new art productions. "The Artamonov Case" and "Klim Samgin" are most important literary achievements. The third volume of "Klim Samgin" appeared this year. Now Gorky is working on the fourth volume. "Klim Samgin" is a majestic epic, a grandiose summary of Gorky's forty year literary life, a picture of the epoch lived through by the author.

Gorky's creative work was always rich in initiative, when creating new literary values, which rallied the best forces in art and science around the burning questions of contemporary life. Suffice it to recall a series of journal and other publications issued under his guidance.

This initiative of Gorky's extended enormously under Soviet conditions, especially during the period of general socialist construction.

As early as 1928 a magazine entitled "Our Achievements" was founded by Gorky. He took a very active part in the founding of "The USSR in Construction" and "Abroad". Gorky's idea of the necessity of an everyday struggle for the raising of the literary mastery of new authors was expressed in founding "Literary Study", a journal published under his editorship.

It is almost impossible to enumerate all his activities in this field. Foremost among them are "The History of Civil War" and "The History of Factories and Works".

It is difficult as yet fully to estimate the importance of Gorky in our present-day literature, his importance in training new authors and in directing their work. He is the progenitor of proletarian art. For many years past Gorky has been corresponding with young and budding authors, with writers from among the people, never failing to respond to any of their letters or appeals. Many of the most prominent Soviet authors have openly stated that "Gorky helped them immensely" and that "they owed everything to their interviews with Alexey Maximovich".

The forty years jubilee of Gorky's literary activity, which is now being celebrated by the wide masses of the Soviet Union and by the toilers of foreign countries, is an instance of the closest communion between the revolutionary fighter and his audience, which includes many million people. This communion constitutes an inexhaustible source of Gorky's future work.
SOVIET ACHIEVEMENTS IN THE FIELD
OF PUBLIC HEALTH DURING THE PAST FIFTEEN YEARS

The legacy of the tsarist regime

The achievements of the USSR in the care of public health are usually considered in comparison with the care given to public health in tsarist Russia just prior to the World War. This is not quite just, for Soviet medicine has sprung up under conditions immeasurably worse than the wretched state of public health under tsarism. It was born in a country exhausted by four years of sanghinary imperialist carnage, panting in the clutches of post-war disorder, famine and fatigue. Epidemics, breaking out as a result of all this, rolled like waves over the country. The intervention, blockade, and Civil War required new sacrifices from the toilers who had overturned the yoke of tsarist oppression and the power of capitalists and landlords.

What then were the means at the disposal of Soviet government for fighting epidemics, for developing the work of public health? The material basis left from tsarism was insignificant and was as much destroyed by war as any other branch of industry or national economy.

In order to appreciate the accomplishments of the Soviet Union in this field during the past fifteen years we must review, however very briefly, the principal historical stages of its development.

The care of public health under tsarism lay in the hands of more than twenty different departments, the work of which was directed by the class interests of the bourgeois and landlord regime. A police bureaucracy dominated everyone of these departments.

In the village there was a very insignificant network of medical centres organised by the "Zemstvos", or elective district councils of pre-revolutionary Russia. With the impassable Russian roads and with the lack of means of transportation this system was hardly accessible to the widely scattered peasant masses, and furthermore, it was quite unobtainable for the poor, who had no means of transportation to convey them to the hospitals often located at a distance of twenty, thirty, or even forty kilometres. The investigations of the "Zemstvo" or country doctors showed that even a distance of ten kilometres very greatly reduced the attendance of the population of a given district.

Medical attention for workers in towns was in an embryonic state. The social insurance law was passed in 1912, only five years before the Revolution. The hospital budgets provided miserly sums for medical service of the insured.

Only in large industrial centres such as Moscow, Leningrad and Kharkov, existed a few workers' insurance medical centres. To this may be added primitive little dispensaries set-up by proprietors to conform with the requirements of the law.

Institutions of a prophylactic character — sanatoriums, special hygiene centres, hospitals for tuberculosis, for venereal diseases and narcotism, maternity institutions and nurseries, — all these, both in town and country, were either non-existent or very few.

Such was the material basis with which the Soviet government began the reconstruction of medical organisation.

The Civil War period

The gigantic tasks which confronted the working class of Soviet Russia from the first days when it took power, required immediate measures against epidemics, measures for public health and for the strengthening of fighting capacity of the Red Army.

The People's Commissariat for Public Health was organised in July 1918, after a short preparatory period, which lasted but a few months. Its work was carried out under extremely difficult conditions.

Having inscribed on its banners: "The care of the health of the toilers is in their own hands", the Commissariat for Public Health started its organisation with an
Henri Barbusse arriving to Moscow. From left: President of VOKS H. Lerner, H. Barbusse, Head of VOKS L. Cherntiavsky.
A kitchen-factory in Moscow

Home for painters in Moscow

Palace of Culture in Sormovo

New public library in Voznesensk

Radio-station of the Trade-Union
Newspaper at a collective farm (Welt-Schmertz)

Soviet and foreign combines on the collective farm of a Simferopol Sovina (Crimea)

Woman shock brigade of a collective farm (Central Black Earth region)
extensive hygienic campaign among the broadest masses of workers, peasants and Red Army men. In factories, dwellings and in the Red Army they created "health nuclei", sanitary commissions, workers' commissions for promoting cleanliness, etc. "Cleanliness weeks", "Bathhouse weeks", "Water-supply weeks" were organised throughout the country.

Instruction on matters of hygiene were furthered on a large scale. In the mean time, even in that early period, the foundation was being laid for a new network of institutions unknown to old Russia: public dispensaries, infant consultations, free nurseries and other prophylactic agencies.

The restoration period and the beginning of the reconstruction era

With the victorious termination of the Civil War and the strengthening of the Soviet government, a new period began in the field of public health. The epidemics were greatly reduced at once; the death-rate decreased, and the working class began to heal their battle wounds and to direct their energies to the economic front.

Upon the new economic basis, which became more firm as time went on, the care of public health rapidly developed; it expanded qualitatively establishing more indubitably the predominant prophylactic tendencies through new methods of work and modern types of institutions.

The Party programme formulated this problem of public health in following: "As a foundation of its activity in the field of public health the Party holds the development of wide sanitary and prophylactic measures paramount."

The following table gives an idea of the wonderful growth of public health work during this period:

Growth of the system of public health institutions in the RSFSR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>1913</th>
<th>1927</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bacteriological institutions</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bacteriological laboratories</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lice stations</td>
<td></td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasteur stations</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuberculosis dispensaries</td>
<td></td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venereal disease dispensaries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venereal disease stations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultations for children in towns</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultations for children in villages</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lying in homes (number of beds)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitals excluding military</td>
<td>5,280</td>
<td>12,910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(number of beds)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stations for emergency help</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First-aid stations</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stations for home attendance</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physio-therapeutic institutions</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village medical stations</td>
<td>2,732</td>
<td>4,397</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925</td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here we must point out that the care of public health in the Soviet Union is a function of the new social-economic and political relations; it is a result of the entire socialist construction. Therefore, in order to understand the work of these health organisations, it is necessary to take into consideration those social upheavals in the Soviet Union which play a decisive role in improving of sanitary conditions.

In this sense Soviet labour legislation is of the utmost importance: the full non-contributory insurance for every hired worker; the introduction of the eight-hour working day, and later of the seven-hour working day; the graning of two-week holidays with full pay; women receiving four months' holidays during childbirth (two months before and two months after); the abolition of child-labour and the limiting of working hours for youths, etc. The sociocultural construction has a no less favourable influence on the health of the toiling masses: new houses, the development of communal kitchens, the growth of cultural institutions; the organisation of rest for the toilers, and a widespread "physical culture" movement. In the plan of socialist construction, the public health organisations occupy a particularly important place.

Victories of the Five-Year Plan

We are unable to present in this article a resume, however brief, of the achievements of the first Five-Year Plan in the field of economic progress in relation to the workers and peasants of the Soviet Union.

25
The rapid rate of national industrialisation: the fulfilment of the Plan in four, three, and even in two-and-a-half years in the most important branches of national economy; the speedy growth of the collectivisation of the village and the liquidation and suppression of the kulaks as a class on the basis of all-round collectivisation: the introduction of the five-day week and the seven-hour day in industry; the improvement of the material and housing conditions of the workers (the liquidation of unemployment, the increased number of employed persons within the family, housing, communal kitchens and cultural accommodations etc.) — such is the foundation influencing tremendously the active efforts to improve the sanitary conditions of the population. We have also achieved a further lessening of diseases and mortality, the disappearance of prostitution, a decided diminishing of the so-called "social diseases"—tuberculosis, venereal diseases etc.

On the background of the economic successes of the Soviet Union, which have already earned world-wide recognition and are of tremendous historical significance, outstanding in the history of mankind, let us consider the achievements of Soviet public health work during the first Five-Year period:

Sanitary organisations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1927/28</th>
<th>1932/33</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beds for contagious diseases</td>
<td>19,500</td>
<td>32,000</td>
<td>32,650</td>
<td>40,554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laboratories</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disinfection stations</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disinfection points</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanitation doctors</td>
<td>1,289</td>
<td>1,954</td>
<td>1,989</td>
<td>3,846</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The speedy development of medical organisations is stipulated by the task placed before these organisations by the Soviet government: in the near future many infectious diseases shall be entirely eliminated while others shall be sharply lessened.

Number of inoculations estimated for the year 1932

Vaccinations: 52,000,000
For enteric fever: 8,159,000
For scarlet fever: 2,426,000
For diphtheria: 2,628,000

The participation of large masses of workers in the task of public health has recently taken the form of social sanitary inspection. Workers who take this job do not leave their jobs in the factories. This form of social work is known as "socialistic plurality of offices", that is holding two or more positions. According to the very insufficient figures for the 1st of May, 1932, there existed more than 9,000 such "social sanitary inspectors".

Hospital statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1927/28</th>
<th>1932/33</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beds:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) in towns</td>
<td>111,095</td>
<td>142,845</td>
<td>139,594</td>
<td>162,366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) in villages</td>
<td>43,590</td>
<td>63,440</td>
<td>67,908</td>
<td>82,009</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From this table we see that the estimates of the Five-Year Plan with regard to hospital accommodations have already been fulfilled during the fourth year. In reality hospital facilities for workers have been considerably improved due to a more rational use of the number of available beds. The increase in the number of beds is considerably greater in villages than in towns.

Non-hospital forms of medical attention in town and in industrial centres

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1927/28</th>
<th>1932/33</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of doctors</td>
<td>9,823</td>
<td>12,943</td>
<td>19,885</td>
<td>22,610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>receptions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical stations</td>
<td>1,120</td>
<td>2,280</td>
<td>1,775</td>
<td>3,980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctors for home help</td>
<td>1,330</td>
<td>2,080</td>
<td>2,801</td>
<td>3,582</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Non-hospital forms of assistance in towns and industrial centres have more than fulfilled the quota called for by the Plan. We must particularly point out the rapid rate of increase of medical points in factories. The care of workers, the decrease of forced absences, the decrease of the sick list, and of the industrial accidents, are attained

3 In all tables given below we give data the RSFSR: for 1927/28 — figures of actual achievements; for 1932/33 — the figures given by the Plan; for 1931 — preliminary figures of fulfilment, and for 1932 — estimated figures. The Five-Year Plan is calculated according to the budget year, from October to October. The figures of actual completion relate to the calendar year beginning from January, which is now used for all planning and calculations.
through the active participation of the workers themselves in striving for the improvement of the working conditions, also through a rationalisation of industrial processes and the development of sanitary-cultural endeavours.

Together with emergency assistance, the medical points are carrying an enormous amount of prophylactical work in factories. According to the data of insurance statistics the decrease in the sick rate of workers can be shown by the following figures:

The number of days of illness for 100 insured workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1925/26</th>
<th>1926</th>
<th>1930</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cases</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Days</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following table indicates the decrease of tuberculosis among workers. In the Moscow district, from nine branches of industry, the number of cases and days of temporary disability because of tuberculosis per 100 workers has decreased as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1925</th>
<th>1928</th>
<th>1931</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cases</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Days</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The leading industries are equipped almost 100% with medical stations.

The tremendous development of State farms and the collectivisation of peasants have brought before public health organisations the task of increasing the medical and sanitary system in the village. The figures below illustrate the activities of the People’s Commissariat of Health in this field:

Medical accommodations in rural districts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1927/28</th>
<th>1932/33</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of hospital beds in villages .</td>
<td>43,590</td>
<td>63,440</td>
<td>67,908</td>
<td>82,009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of medical districts . . . .</td>
<td>4,667</td>
<td>6,012</td>
<td>7,125</td>
<td>7,962</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The greatest tempo, quite exceptional and unprecedented not only in the practical work of the public health organisations, but also in the practical work of a wider range of Soviet institutions, are shown by the growth of the number of beds in permanent and seasonal creches.

The creche system (in thousands of beds)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1927/28</th>
<th>1932/33</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beds in town creches . . .</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>128.7</td>
<td>263.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beds in village creches:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) permanent</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>102.8</td>
<td>329.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) seasonal</td>
<td>100.5</td>
<td>225.4</td>
<td>1,426.3</td>
<td>3,501.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The absorbing of women into industry and the mass collectivisation of agriculture have caused a considerable need for creches. It is only the participation of the widely scattered masses, particularly of women themselves, that has enabled us to satisfy the demand on such a large scale. We have already pointed out that in the Soviet Union the whole system of socialist construction is a powerful factor in the improvement of the health of the population. This condition is particularly well illustrated by the growth of the number of village creches in connection with collectivisation. The following will give an idea of the increase in the number of beds:

Growth of beds in villages (taking 1927 as 100)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1927</th>
<th>1928</th>
<th>1929</th>
<th>1930</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Permanent creches</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>88.8</td>
<td>144.4</td>
<td>972.7</td>
<td>3,803.7</td>
<td>12,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seasonal creches</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>368.3</td>
<td>582.3</td>
<td>1,533.3</td>
<td>3,100.0</td>
<td>11,686.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The facilities for child and youth care have been greatly developed. The number of beds for children has increased from 5,800 in 1927/28 to 13,315 in 1931, and will reach 23,540 in 1932. The number of doctors for these years are respectively: 1,730, 2,166 and 3,223.

Health resorts before the Revolution were absolutely inaccessible to workers and peasants; but now the Soviet govern-
ment has organised a wide network of health resorts for the workers. The number of patients and the number of beds in the health resort sanatoriums are steadily increasing with each year.

**Health resort statistics**

Number of beds in sanatoriums, excluding those of Social Insurance and other departments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1927/28</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Of all-Union importance</td>
<td>11,277</td>
<td>13,500</td>
<td>18,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of local importance</td>
<td>8,887</td>
<td>13,336</td>
<td>14,763</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The supply of medicine has been improved quantitatively as well as qualitatively. There has been a complete revision of pharmacy methods on a new technical basis. Many pharmaceutical factories have been opened in principal cities. The general growth of this line of activity reveals the following figures: 1927/28 --- 1,641; 1931 --- 3,047; 1932 --- 3,881.

The wide and rapid development of the medical-sanitation system requires a considerable medical staff, doctors as well as assisting personnel. A wide system of medical institutes has been organised for the training of these specialists. In 1927/28 there were only 16 medical institutes with an enrollment of 14,750 students. By the 15th of April, 1932, we had already 27 institutes with 96 faculties, including 40 therapeutic prophylactic faculties, 4 stomatology, 25 for the care of mother and child, 23 sanitary prophylactic, 4 pharmaceutical and 2 for physical culture. 34,000 students are embraced, in all these faculties. Medical and pharmaceutical technicums have increased form 71 in 1928 to 140 in 1932, with a student-body augmented from 18,500 to 51,000, --- an increase of about 200%. There has been a wide development of system of raising one’s medical qualification. During 1932 about 20% of all doctors will pass various courses of raising their medical standards.

The medical system of the national republics is making great strides. The growth of the public health organisations is expressed here in figures which surpass on the whole the average figures of the RSFSR and those for other regions and districts. Thus the national areas, which existed in tsarist Russia as colonies and had an extremely low level of culture, are now being raised with regard to medical service to the average figures of some of the principal republics and perhaps even to surpass these.

The following shows the relative growth of the medical system in the national republics as compared to the regions in the RSFSR:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1927/28</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Towns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital beds:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>120.1</td>
<td>143.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) in national republics</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>143.6</td>
<td>174.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctors’ receptions:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200.1</td>
<td>212.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) in national republics</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>223.8</td>
<td>270.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical stations:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>240.0</td>
<td>335.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) in national republics</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>385.0</td>
<td>650.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursery beds:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>372.6</td>
<td>672.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) in national republics</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>463.6</td>
<td>781.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Villages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital beds:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>151.1</td>
<td>186.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) in national republics</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>153.6</td>
<td>195.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambulatories:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>149.6</td>
<td>167.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) in national republics</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>159.4</td>
<td>188.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beds in permanent creches:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1443</td>
<td>12,934.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) in national republics</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3,700</td>
<td>15,950.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This brilliantly reflects the national policy of the Soviet Government which is prompting and helping the economic and
cultural development of the previously oppressed nationalities.

Of extremely far reaching development is the method of scientific research institutes in the field of public health. The Commissariat for Public Health directly controls 35 scientific institutes covering every phase of medical research. 106 more work under the supervision of local public health departments.

In conclusion, let us consider the budget of the public health organisations. This fund consists of State grants, appropriations from local budgets, social insurance funds, and other sums including grants from industries. In connection with the rapid growth of the working population, the social insurance funds in the budgets of the public health centres have already in 1932 surpassed the funds planned by three and a half times. Thus, according to the Five-Year Plan the grants from industries should be 17 million rubles in 1932/33, when in reality they will be 41.4 million rubles in 1932. The Plan provides no appropriations from funds of State or collective farms, but already in 1932 11.7 million rubles have been allotted from the State farm balance, and 15.3 million from the cultural funds of collective farms.

The per capital average expenditures of public health departments has increased by three times during the years of the first Five-Year Plan.

The second Five-Year Plan will bring to the Soviet Union new victories and achievements and will raise even further the level of the workers and of the peasant masses. Public health service will be confronted by even more difficult tasks in the future that will be fulfilled with merit.

HOUSING AND MUNICIPAL CONSTRUCTION IN THE USSR FOR THE LAST FIFTEEN YEARS

By S. Hart

The living conditions of the working masses in pre-revolutionary Russia deprived millions of workers of any opportunity to lead a cultured or even simple humane existence.

According to the 1912 census, 327,000 men were living in 24,500 apartments of a dormitory type on the outskirts of Moscow. This figure represents 20% of the total population of the city at that time.

In St. Petersburg in 1912 the number of so-called "corner-letters" occupying only a part in the room exceeded 150,000, while 63,000 persons were living in cellars. 1½ to 2 square metres — such used to be the average space occupied per person in the cellars of the capital.

However, even these figures fade into insignificance when compared with those illustrating the housing conditions of the workers in the Donbass coal district.

There is data which show that in a single district of Donets Basin — Bakhmut (now Artymovsk) — out of 1,638 workers' houses 30% were without a ceiling and 70% had earthen floors. 40% of the workers' dwellings in these districts consisted of dilapidated mud huts.

Even the bourgeois statistician, Werner, describing in the "News of the Moscow Duma" of 1902 the conditions of life in houses where cots were let, could not conceal the terrible state in which the workers were compelled to live. He wrote: "In spite of unattractive conditions of life of the cot-tenants, especially those who occupy only half a cot, there exists a group of persons who are in even worse conditions. That are those who, though they pay rent, have no fixed place to live, but nightly occupy any place, at the dictates of the landlord: today on the oven, tomorrow in a vacant single cot, then on the floor in the corridor, or sharing a cot with some one. Such boarders usually receive no bed linen, no change of underwear or other garments, and sleep in their clothes.'

Workers' dwellings were usually wretchedly dirty. They lacked light, water and sewerage. The unpaved streets of the workers' suburbs were bare of lighting.

Such were the conditions under which the workers had to live in tsarist Russia.

It was only the October Revolution that transformed municipal economy from a means of supplementary exploitation of the workers into an organisation catering to their material and cultural needs.

During the years of imperialist war, intervention and civil war, the municipal
economy of landlord-bourgeois Russia, which had always been very backward even apart from these factors, sank into still lower depths.

The losses sustained by the municipal economy during these years are estimated at over 2 milliard rubles—20% of the total number of dwelling houses were destroyed or made entirely unfit for habitation.

In 1916 the housing fund of Moscow reached about 14 million square metres; in 1924 it was only 9.8 million. A decrease by over 30%. Similar losses were incurred in the principal cities of Ukraine—Odessa, Kiev, etc.

For almost seven years from the beginning of the imperialist war to the end of the civil war, no new houses were built in any of the towns of the Soviet Union.

However, even after the civil war, and intervention for some years the country was unable to start the restoration of its municipal economy.

The Soviet government had first of all to restore its industries and agriculture in order to build thereon the socialist reconstruction of the entire national economy.

L. Kaganovich, in his speech at the plenum of the Central Committee of the All-Union Communist Party in June, 1931, quoted a few instances which show clearly what the October Revolution has done to improve the housing conditions of the workers:

"Here is a case which was investigated by us. Mikhail Yakovlevich Bubentsov, a carpenter and shock-worker of the "Geo-physica" works, age 36; formerly he used to shift from cellar to cellar. Since 1920 he has, settled down in an aristocratic house in Khlebny pereulok. Before the Revolution this house was inhabited by a retired general—Vassiliev, the British Consul Lockhart, a mining engineer Penin and other capitalists and idle rich. Now it is wholly inhabited by workers."

Statistical data show that in Moscow alone, during the first years after the Revolution, more than half a million workers moved from working class quarters and suburbs, from cots and miserable rooms, into well-appointed houses which had formerly belonged to a handful of money-bags.

Until 1926, the Soviet government had to strain all its energies and resources to restore the ruined industries. In the subsequent years the task of constructing the foundation of the socialist economy required special attention particularly to the development of heavy industry, producing the means of production.

During the first years of the Five-Year Plan, when industry was in the process of thorough reconstruction, municipal economy was only just being restored.

Municipal, and in particular housing construction entered its real building period only in 1931. In the first Five-Year Plan special attention was paid to the development of housing construction. According to Five-Year Plan estimates, the expenditure on housing construction in the socialised sector of the national economy of the country was fixed at 4 milliard rubles. However, already, in the first three years of that period about 2 milliard were invested, and so the proposed sum of investment has been more than fulfilled.

Taking into consideration the control figures of investments for 1932, we find that during the four years of the Plan 3,876 million rubles are being invested in housing construction, i.e. the Five-Year Plan is being almost entirely fulfilled (96%) in four years.

In order to illustrate the increase in expenditure on housing construction during the first Five-Year Period, it is necessary to compare the above facts with the figures illustrating the expenditure on housing construction during the year preceding the Five-Year Plan.

In 1923 only 136 million rubles were invested in new constructions, for restoration and reorganisation, for current and capital repairs to dwelling houses. In the next year—1924—the expenditure reached 280 million rubles; in 1925—423 million, and in 1926—520 million rubles.

During all these years 5 million square metres of living space had been built and repaired, while during the first three years of the Five-Year Plan 16.2 million square metres of living space has been newly built. And in 1932 alone a similar spaceage, i.e. 16.1 million square metres, will be constructed.

The main item of expenditure is the building of new houses in the principal working class areas, located in the regions of the key-industries—the Ural-Kuznetsk Combined Enterprises, the Donets Basin, Moscow, Leningrad, Baku, etc.

It is interesting to note that by 1932 3.9 million square metres of living space will be built in the Ural-Kuznetsk Combined Enterprises alone, making 16% more than was built in 1929 for the whole of the Soviet Union.
715 thousand square metres of living space was built for the workers of the coal areas in 1926. In 1931 these same coal workers received 2,379 thousand square metres of newly built housing space.

Along with the construction of new houses, there proceeds also the development of the municipal economy, the founding of new cultural institutions, such as creches, day-nurseries, mechanised laundries, public dining rooms, workers' clubs, cinemas, theatres, libraries, etc.

1,108 million rubles have been invested in the municipal economy during the first three years of the Plan. The corresponding sum invested in 1932 will be 950 million rubles, i.e. a 120% increase over the 1931 figure.

The greatest sums were appropriated to the municipal economy of Moscow, Leningrad and Nizhny-Novgorod. In these three cities the increase in the sums invested in 1932, in comparison with 1931, is approximately 355%. In Moscow 250 million rubles have been assigned for municipal economy construction in 1932, and 150 million rubles for Leningrad.

How are these sums expended? What improvements in workers' housing conditions are we able to note on the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution?

In 1911, out of 1,063 cities each with a population of over 10 thousand, only 210 had a public water supply.

The existing system of water pipes mainly served the central bourgeois residence quarters of the city; the factory, districts, the outskirts of the city and the working class suburbs were without even this elementary necessity.

By 1926 283 cities of the USSR had their public water supply and by the end of 1931 this number increased to 335. In 1932 water supply will be extended in those towns where it already exists while piping will be laid in 25 cities more.

The consumption of water per head of population has accordingly increased very considerably,—from 61 litres of water before the Revolution to 120 litres at the present time.

There is an equally rapid progress in regard to sewerage.

In 1917 there were only 18 cities with sewerage; in 1931 50 cities of the USSR possessed sewerage, while in 1932 there will be 70. Moscow, which before the Revolution had only 316 kilometres of sewerage pipes, increased this length by 600 kilometres during the first three years of the Plan.

In 1932 three times more was spent on the laying of new sewerage than in 1930.

Before the Revolution, of the cities which are situated in the present territory of the USSR, only 61 were electrified: now there are 393 cities electrified.

The working class suburbs, which formerly in the evening were plunged in darkness, are now brilliantly illuminated. Suffice it to glance at the figures representing the expenditure for lighting and electrification during the last few years. In 1930 only 2.5 million rubles were spent on street lighting, in 1931 — 5.6 million, in 1932 — 10.4 million rubles.

Although baths and laundries are somewhat lagging behind in comparison with other aspects of municipal construction, still even here there is marked progress. Thus, 29 million rubles were appropriated in 1930 for the construction of baths for the whole of the Union, in 1932 the corresponding figure is 50 million. The same in regard to laundries: appropriations have increased from 8 million in 1930 to 27 million rubles in 1932.

During the second Five-Year Plan period it is proposed that State laundries will cater to not less than 50 to 60% of all the requirements of the population. In 1932 125 new mechanised laundries and about 300 new baths will be built.

More and more money is being invested each year in planting trees and shrubs in industrial towns and in the workers' settlements. 4.5 million rubles were assigned under that head in 1930, and in the last year of the Plan 18 million rubles is to be appropriated for this purpose.

Prior to the Revolution, trees and shrubs were planted only in the central city districts. In 1931 in Moscow alone such planting was carried out at 77 factories and works, in 218 streets, on 108 boulevards and squares, in the summer and autumn of the present year (1932) 1 million shrubs and 30 thousand trees were planted in Moscow. The corresponding figures for the pre-revolutionary years average 20 thousand and 5 to 6 thousand.

Because of lacking space we are unable here to give an account of the exceptional successes achieved in the sphere of city transportation and in the improvements of roads, construction of heat and gas pipes, etc.

The cities of the Soviet Union are changing their appearance.
The industrialisation of the country entails an exceptionally rapid growth of the urban population. In pre-revolutionary Russia the total population in all the cities of the empire amounted to 20.7 million. In 1926, by the end of the period of industrial reconstruction, the urban population increased to 26.3 million. Now on the eve of the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution the urban population has increased to 35 million.

It is natural that the increase in the number of town dwellers requires a corresponding development in the municipal services, improving the living conditions of the toilers. This task has been recognised as one of the most urgent and important in the second Five-Year Plan.

PUBLIC FEEDING IN THE SOVIET UNION

By S. Ginevsky

Lenin regarded public feeding as one of the most important necessities for passing from individual petty household economy to big collective economy.

Public feeding has no pre-revolutionary history. It was newly created after October and has now become a powerful factor in raising the productivity of labour, in carrying out the economic plan of the Union, in refreshing everyday life on new socialist principles.

In the complex of measures passed by the Soviet government,—measures directed towards a steady improvement in the wellbeing of the toilers,—the strengthening and development of the system of public feeding takes a most important place.

J. Stalin in his directives referring to the improvements in the living conditions of the toilers assigns a very important role to the development of public feeding.

In August 1931 a decision was passed on the setting up of a system of public feeding. This decision lays down a definite programme of reconstruction in this most important branch of the food industry.

"The decisive successes in the field of the economic construction of the USSR, the cultural growth of the masses and the attraction of members of workers families to industries, in connection with the complete elimination of unemployment, sets before the consumers' co-operatives the task of a gradual shifting of the food supply from the forms of individual consumption to public feeding" (resolution of the Plenum of the Central Committee of the CPSU, December 1931).

5 million workers, 3,880 thousand other toilers in the cities, 3 million school children represent the total number of consumers covered by the system of public feeding in 1931.

13,400 enterprises are served by this system. In the last 3 years the Soviet Union has spent 200 million rubles on capital construction in this field. Though these achievements are considerable, they are, of course, inadequate in view of the enormous increase in the requirements of the toilers. The need of the day is a gigantic development of the system of public feeding. According to the plan, within the next two or three years the number of workers, office employees, and their dependents covered by the system, will be doubled. 25,000,000 — such is the number of the toilers who at that period will be served by the various institutions in the system of public feeding. Moreover, the plan foresees hot meals to school children and to children in pre-school institutions.

The social idea underlying this system, which takes care of the material and living conditions of the toilers, is exceptionally profound. Public feeding takes a prominent place in this system.

Both as regards its idea and its structure, the Soviet system of public feeding is unequalled anywhere else in the world.

At the first stage of its development the main type of the system was a dining room to which hot food was delivered cooked from a distributing centre.

The enterprises of the public feeding system did not yet use complicated machinery, they possessed no transport of their own and their methods of production were primitive.

Now, in view of the great extension of new enterprises, the methods are changed and food is no longer brought from distributing centres.

At the present time the system is based on a factory producing semi-manufactured articles and delivering them to a network
of dining rooms at enterprises (factories, offices, etc.), thus securing the supply of warm and tasty food.

The plan for 1932/33foresees the construction of not less than 250 to 300 such factories with a network of 3,000 dining rooms at factories and works.

Great results have been achieved by the system since its reconstruction in 1931.

The most important industrial areas are served by a special association attached to the People’s Commissariat for Supply of the USSR, called “Soyuznarpit”, (Chief Department of public feeding).

This association was formed a year ago and now embraces 11 trusts. Since January 1, 1932, 1,437 enterprises were added to Soyuznarpit, in other words, the total number of enterprises increased 20.4%.

9 kitchens-factories, 427 dining rooms, 173 distributors, 701 buffets, 28 restaurants and 99 cafés and tea rooms illustrate the growth of Soyuznarpit in a very short period.

The number of consumers grows correspondingly. On January 1, 1932, Soyuznarpit catered to 3,900,000 toilers, of which 2,248,000 were industrial workers. By August this number had increased to 4,768,000.

Soyuznarpit fulfilled its yearly plan by 105%.

It is possible to differentiate these total figures. Thus, the number of students served by Soyuznarpit in 1931 was 276,000, in 1932 it is 357,000. 636,000 school children were served with meals in 1931, now — 652,000. Special dietetic meals were given last year to 20,000 persons, now to 57,000.

Public feeding of engineers and technicians was inadequate last year. At the present time special dining rooms serve meals to 168,000 engineers and technicians.

How are the industrial workers served? The first place is assigned to the chief detachment of the workers in a country which is rapidly becoming industrialised, — the machine-builders; then follow workers in building trades, coal miners, workers in ferrous metallurgy, workers in chemical trades.

The above refers only to the system of Soyuznarpit.

There is another important network of enterprises fo public feeding controlled by the consumers' co-operatives, namely “Vsekoopit” (the All-Union co-operative society of public feeding).

Great success was achieved by this association.

For example in the Northern Region where last year there were only 48 enterprises of public feeding, there are now 148. In the Western Region the corresponding figures are 152 and 317, in the Central Black-Earth region 231 and 332, in the Urals 131 and 417. This great growth of the system of public feeding of course of had its effect on the fulfilment of the economic plan of the Union, on raising the productivity of labour, on improving the material wellbeing of the toilers, on hastening the refashioning of everyday life.

It is in the national republics that the role of public feeding as a powerful lever for collectivisation in everyday life is particularly striking. Public feeding contributes to a rapid industrialisation of distant national districts and to their cultural development.

Owing to the “reconstruction” of everyday life, woman is able to become a full participant in socialist construction. In the Tadjik republic alone, where last year there were only 64 dining rooms, there are now as many as 281. In the Transcaucasian Federation the number of dining rooms increased three times. Public feeding relieves woman from petty cares in the kitchen and household, allows her to devote her time to study, so as to master the elements of culture and technique, and thereby enrols as new labour in industries and agriculture.

The system of public feeding takes into account the specific interests and conditions of separate groups of consumers. Public feeding is extended first of all to the leading enterprises and constructions. Workers in dangerous trades are given preference. Every branch of economy is served in accordance with its industrial peculiarities. We can cite as an instance the organisation of public feeding in transport. In order to secure the efficient working of transport, especially the fulfilment of the traffic schedule, the leading groups of railwaymen, engine-drivers and repair workers, are served first.

The increase in the network of public feeding in transport — the most important of national economy — proves that this task has been successfully carried out. This year 1,460,000 transport workers are served by the system of public feeding, as against 1,140,000 in 1931.

Food departments have become an integral part of the industrial enterprises. They assist in carrying out the industrial tasks.
At a number of giant works of socialist construction, big kitchens-factories have been set up with a network of branches in departments, with hundreds of buffets spread throughout the works or construction sites.

Public feeding plays an enormous part in raising Soviet industries and in speeding up the tempo of construction.

Exceptionally interesting new forms of catering were introduced in this domain. The workers' cafés in the departments of the Kharkov Tractor Works and the Kharkov Locomotive Works, in the departments of the Ball-Bearing Plant, of "Red Proletarian", "Trekhgornaya Manufaktura" (Moscow), the workers' cafés at kitchens-factories — such are examples of the new forms of organisation for communal feeding. It is easy to perceive that this catering is of immense importance not only to industry but also as regards culture.

The task that is being pursued is to satisfy the requirements of the toilers which have become infinitely greater than they were before, to enable them to live and work under decent conditions, to enjoy the advantages of an organised rest.

The level which the Soviet Union has set itself to reach in this domain is so high, the requirements grow so rapidly, that we naturally can not be satisfied with the results obtained. In spite of considerable successes, they will appear small in the next few years when the gigantic construction of the second Five-Year Plan will be developed. However, every impartial observer is struck by what has been achieved so far.

The Belgian workers' delegation which visited the First kitchen-factory in Moscow gave the following appraisal of its work: "It was with the greatest interest that we inspected the kitchen-factory, which, we believe, is the best enterprise of the kind in the whole world."

It is natural that foreigners not only appraise but try to understand the reasons for the success of public feeding in the USSR.

Therefore, the opinion of Professor Max Seipel of Magdeburg is of special interest: "Russians were able to establish such enterprises only owing to new social conditions which further the development of new living conditions."

This is quite correct. The USSR has in fact created a new type of an enormous and genuinely industrial enterprise of public feeding.

Thus at the above mentioned kitchen-factory 45,000 persons are served with meals. Apart from these, over 25,000 dinners are served by the branches of the factory. A simple calculation will show that such a factory can fully serve a fairly large city and relieve its entire population from the kitchen smell, of pots and primuses. Such a factory consumes daily 4 tons of meat, 5 tons of fish, and over 15 tons of vegetables. 150 machines of various kinds are used in the factory.

In the evening two workers' cafés are open at the factory, which constitute genuine cultural centres of the district.

The kitchen-factory at the Kharkov Tractor Works is the largest enterprise for public feeding in the whole of the USSR. The entire equipment: electrical vegetable peelers, machines for stone fruit, machines for cleaning fish, etc., has been manufactured in the USSR. This giant factory works on a conveyor system. An enormous system of transportation within the factory has been established: noiseless autorears, etc. 2 million rubles have already been spent on this construction.

Such giant factories will become the main factors of the whole system. Today there are dozens of them, tomorrow they will be reckoned by the hundred.

Special forms of public feeding are being set up specially for agricultural areas: dining places in the open fields, etc.

New cultural and everyday conditions are being created for the toilers engaged in field work.

It is interesting to note also the "voluntary" form of public feeding organisation: dining rooms at the workers settlements, at co-operative organisations, at housing co-operatives, — they all serve the same purpose.

Let us point finally to such forms of public feeding as floating dining rooms for fishermen when they are trawling, etc.

The Soviet system of public feeding is becoming more and more industrialised. The toilers become more and more aware of its part in construction work and in private life, its enormous importance for the socialist reconstruction of everyday life.
Public Education

15 YEARS OF POLITICO-EDUCATIONAL WORK RSFSR

By G. Romanov

An insignificant number of libraries, people’s homes and Sunday schools for adults and a few “people’s universities” — such was the heritage obtained from tsarism by the Soviet system of mass education.

After the October Revolution work among adults was entrusted to the special extra-school Department of the People’s Commissariat for Education, which from the very first set itself the task of making educational work serve ideological aims and of developing it as widely as possible through the activity of the masses themselves.

Then civil war broke out. The front required live agitational cultural activity. The number of Red Army clubs grew rapidly. Propaganda leaflets and slogans were distributed in hundreds of thousands. Exhibitions and travelling orchestras were organised, the network of travelling libraries was developed and detachment after detachment of agitators and cultural workers were formed.

In cities and villages away from the front went on the process of the accumulation of new cultural values. Clubs, universities, libraries, reading rooms, musical, art and dramatic studios, schools, etc. were founded all over the country, some of them quite spontaneously. Agitational trains and steamers were created, which at one time played a very important role. Such was the origin of the politico-educational institutions of all types. After the termination of the civil war the centre of growth of educational work was shifted to study methods. The latter was centered in libraries and schools, but at the same time this did not stop the growth of clubs, reading rooms, people’s homes and theatres. In one of her articles N. Krupskaya wrote: “At that time (1920—21) there were more theatres in the Yaroslavl Province alone, than in the whole of France.”

The entire educational work was deepened and systematised in the years 1923—1927. If we examine the work of the congresses and conferences one would be instantly struck by the amount of attention devoted to the content and methods of work in all fields of mass political education. N. Krupskaya in her article “On the Sixth Anniversary” wrote: “The principal task in the period of restoration has become the imbuing of the entire work by a new content, by new methods which bring it into close contact with the requirements of today.”

The following plan of politico-educational work was laid down at the 10th anniversary of the October Revolution:

1. The elimination of illiteracy among the adult population — in villages of all inhabitants under 30, in towns of all under 35.
2. The creation of mass elementary schools to give reading and writing instruction to all not proficient in these.
3. The creation of mass literature: “By the 10th anniversary we must create a solid kernel of popular literature for workers and peasants”.
4. The working out of a plan and methods of making books more accessible to the mass of the readers.
5. The organisation of a big network of travelling libraries.
6. The transformation of reading rooms into centres around which there should be grouped schools of literacy, primary schools for adults and travelling schools.

This plan advanced as one of the most important tasks the training of a corresponding staff.

The struggle for the quality of mass educational work, its organic connection with the current economic and political tasks meant a new and decisive advance in this sphere.

As the country became economically stronger the network of politico-educational institutions began to steadily grow. By the 10th anniversary of the October Revolution we had already: 32,560 schools for illiterates, 537 schools for adults, 213 Soviet and Party schools, 13,228 libraries, 14,188 reading rooms, 3,861 clubs, 1,213 peoples’ homes and 25,525 “red corners”.

The politico-educational work proceeded in the following directions: an explanation of all questions dealing with the interna-
tional situation, war danger and the spread of military sciences, the organisation of sanitary education, agricultural propaganda, assistance extended by reading-room huts to libraries and other cultural institutions, assistance to public organisations (voluntary societies etc.), the explaining to the broad masses of all the principal measures adopted by the Party and by the Soviet government (the industrialisation of the country, socialist construction), the winning over of farm labourers and poor an middle peasants to colhoz, co-operative and other circles. The politico-education institutions play an active part in the socio-political and economic campaigns, (elections to the Soviets, sowing campaigns, grain collections), in organising revolutionary festivals etc. One of the main tasks of this work has been and still is the struggle against antiquated ideas and habits, a struggle for new forms of life. Already on the 10th anniversary of the October Revolution very many facts in the field of economics and of everyday life were proving the efficacy of the work of political education. Suffice it to mention the growth of various politico-educational circles, the opening of new schools, of reading rooms, of people's homes, of libraries. Ever increasing masses are drawn into the activity of the politico-educational institutions.

The enormous experience gained during the first ten years after the October Revolution made it possible for the politico-educational workers to tackle the tasks of the period of reconstruction. The industrialisation of the country, the collectivisation of agriculture, made it imperative to raise the socio-political and cultural level of the broad masses of the toilers, to render them more familiar with technique. During the period of reconstruction on the basis of the decisions of the XVth Party Congress there developed a wide movement embracing millions of toilers for the carrying through of the cultural revolution, for the reconstruction of everyday life. One of the most brilliant forms of this movement was the "cultural campaigns" organised upon the initiative of the Young Communist League, which were carried out on a huge scale according to plans worked out beforehand. The results soon made themselves felt. In 1927, 28 only a little over a million illiterates were taught to read and write, in 1928, 29 this number increased to 2 1/2 million and in the following years 1929, 30 and 1930, 31 to tens of millions (over 10 million in 1930/31 alone).

The results of the "cultural campaigns" show that during this period almost twice as many people were taught to read and write as during the whole of the preceding period following the October Revolution.

The movement extended also to other kinds of mass education. Thus the propaganda of agriculture sciences assumed the form of a mass movement of so-called "agro-campaigns". Hundreds of thousands of collective farmers entered the circles for agricultural literacy, mastered agricultural technique and applied their knowledge in the actual reconstruction of their own holdings. It is easy to grasp the importance of this movement for the socialist reconstruction of the village. The cultural army is growing with extraordinary rapidity. It consists of voluntary workers who give their free time gratis to the cause of mass political education.

Formerly only paid teachers (the so-called liquidators) were working on the anti-illiteracy front. There were only a few thousands of them. Now, since 1929/30, a body of voluntary workers has been formed who have taken up enthusiastically the work of stamping out illiteracy, and who thereby are carrying out Lenin's precept: "He who can read and write must teach one who cannot."

These enthusiasts are numbered by hundreds of thousands in various regions. In the whole Union there are 4 million such voluntary workers engaged in the various spheres of cultural construction.

Thus by the 15th anniversary an enormous body of individuals is fighting on the front of cultural revolution, fighting for the spread of general and political literacy and also for technique, culture and a new life.

By the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution we shall have about 40 thousand village reading rooms and colhoz clubs and over 20 thousand libraries in cities and villages.

The results of mass work of political education in national regions and republics are particularly striking.

The Kalmuck Region, whose population before the October Revolution numbered only 5% of literates, will on the 15th anniversary be well on the way towards a 100% literacy.

Adygea, where previous to the October Revolution literacy did not exceed 3 to 4%, has now become one of the most progressive national regions which already by the beginning of 1932 has introduced
100% literacy. In this region, which quite recently was utterly uncivilised and backward, we observe the growth of a network of schools in the sovhozes and kolhozes. New libraries are being founded, the native press is growing.

In the North, in the remote regions among the most backward nationalities there is now a written language for each of them, universal instruction is being gradually introduced for children, illiteracy among adults is being eliminated, travelling politico-educational institutions are being organised. These nationalities are taking active part in the general construction of socialism.

At places where there were no schools and no libraries, big centres of socialist culture have been built, centres which serve entire regions; in a number of autonomous regions and republics some districts have been fully electrified and radios installed, the number of radio sets is growing very rapidly, new national theatres are being built, self-activity theatres, orchestras, choirs, etc. are being created. At the same time the network of special schools training the personnel of various trades from among the native collective farmers is being extended.

Summing up the results achieved on the eve of the 15th anniversary, it is possible to state: the land of the Soviets is becoming a country of all-round literacy.

The Soviet Union for the first time in the history of mankind has created a voluntary cultural army consisting of 4 million fighters for culture.

In the Soviet Union a network of primary cultural institutions (red corners) has been established which extend their influence to tens of millions of toilers.

There have been also created centres of socialist culture in towns, in the national regions and republics, worker's clubs, excellently equipped, fully enabling a worker to rest, and to develop culturally.

In the columns of the district papers, on the screens of cinemas, both stationary and travelling, the culture and technique of socialism is now penetrating to the most remote corners of the land covering one sixth of the earth. There is a mighty development in the network of schools in which millions of industrial and sovhoz workers, and collective farmers without abandoning their employment are raising their qualifications and becoming highly skilled workers. The number of books published is increasing by leaps and bounds. Pamphlet written in popular style and classical authors, scientific and socio-political literature in all languages reach to the remotest corners of the Soviet Union.

And at the same time, as a result of this enormous cultural development, even the huge circulation of newspapers and books is proving inadequate. Such is the present demand for culture, such is the great thirst for learning shown by the broad masses of the toilers in the Soviet Union.

THE SYSTEM OF WORKERS' EDUCATION

By E. Linkevich

Alongside with the factory apprentice-ship schools which represent the principle means of preparing industrial workers, a great importance is attached to the system of training specialists without their leaving the factory. This method has the twofold purpose:

1) To prepare workers of varied qualifications, to communicate to them a definite amount of polytechnical knowledge and to raise their socio-political level.

2) To raise the standard of technical qualification, and so develop the polytechnical, social, and political level of the technical personnel.

This system enables the worker to study his native language, mathematics, physics and chemistry, the elementaries of Marxism and Leninism, and to better his technical abilities without leaving his job.

The different parts of this whole programme are linked together so as to enable the worker to raise systematically both his cultural level and his industrial qualification. Thus he may, beginning with the preparatory courses, without leaving his factory complete his education in the most advanced technical schools and eventually become an engineer. These preparatory courses are the first link in the workers' factory educational system. They are obligatory for every factory newcomer, whether worker or employee. They initiate him into the technical,
economic, social and political life of his factory, and acquaint him with the tools and methods of production. In the classes the worker becomes familiar with the history of his factory, with the role it plays in the revolutionary movement, and with those problems that are placed before it by the general plan of socialist construction.

In conjunction with this the courses assist the worker in understanding the inner life of the factory, they further his acquaintance with the production-financial plan, the activities of shock-brigades and with social competition, and they teach him to realise his own role in the industry, the workshop and at the workbench.

The preparatory course includes from six to twenty lessons. The next step in the system comprises polytechnical courses which are designed for those workers whose general education level is below that offered by the four-year school, and for those who have no industrial qualification.

These courses are divided into three parts:

Part "A" embraces persons who can read and write but who have no industrial qualification. Its aim is to increase their practical aptitudes;

Part "B" consists of semi-literate workers who happen to be technically qualified. It liquidates the semi-illiteracy (to provide training equal to that of the four-year elementary school) and at the same time furthers the industrial qualification.

Part "C" is for qualified workers who are semi-literate. It aims to abolish semi-illiteracy (raise the cultural level).

Thus the production-polytechnical courses graduate a contingent of students rather equal as to knowledge. These are workers of mass-qualification with training on a par with that of the four-year basic school.

The next educational link built on the foundation of the workers' knowledge acquired from the industrial-polytechnical courses, is the labour polytechnic school and analogous to this the school for working youth, the latter organised where there is a large number of young people. These schools prepare the lower technical personnel: brigaders, workers who are in charge of repair work, assistant foremen and foremen. The course is from two to two-and-one-half years and offers general training equal to the seven-year school.

The highest links of the system are the following:

1) Technicum, for preparing the middle technical personnel from among highly qualified workers and practical experts holding medium technical posts and who have a general educational rating equal to that of the seven-year-school;

2) Highest school for training engineers and raising the theoretical qualification of practical workers, occupying the posts of engineers. Attached to this institution is a workers faculty for workers who require general education.

All the links of this factory-educational system constitute the so-called "educational combine".

Only two years have elapsed since the introduction of this system of training specialists without their leaving the factory.

In the work of the educational system there are many difficulties. Many of the educational combines are not adequately provided with housing facilities, nor with workshops, laboratories, necessary textbooks or paraphernalia of vital importance. This shoptage, naturally, is reflected in the quality and tempo of the instruction received. At the present time many factories are building specially equipped houses with workshops and study rooms.

That considerable progress has been made is acknowledged by factory management, by the workers themselves and the general public.

The phenomenal growth of the student-body in all of the schools for workers may serve as sound proof that the method is successful. Thus in the school-year 1930/31 the workers' universities, schools for adults and schools for young workers throughout the RSFSR had an enrollment of 101,444 students, while in 1931/32 128,000 students were embraced in Ivanovsky District alone. In the North-Caucasian region 118,000 students took advantage of the new system, and in the city of Moscow, excluding the outlaying districts, 120,000 were entered. In the Lenin District of Moscow the system of workers' education includes 25% of the workers. The Molotov factory in Leningrad boasts 50%.

In many of the industrial centres, and in factories now in the process of reconstruction, a considerable portion of the personnel (tens of thousands of workers) were trained without their leaving the factory. For example the educational combine of the Stalin motor-car factory, and "The Hammer and Sickie factory", "Dynamo", and many others.

In many factories the educational system functions on the shift system with the same
number of shifts that exist in the factory proper. Thus workers of every shift are enabled to study. Classes function 18 days each month, with four academic hours (of fifty minutes each) per day.

Thanks to this educational system the worker receives not only productive skill necessary for limited qualification, but also a Marxist-Leninist outlook and theoretical knowledge to further his study. Students make excellent progress in their factories; in the “Dinamo” factory 80% of the students have been promoted, while at the Putilov factory out of 812 workers 600 were advanced. In the textile factories of the Ivanovsky District it was possible to promote many students even before they had completed the course. Thus they became assistants, foremen, workers in charge of repair and efficiency experts.

Lenin said: “We must endeavour to make of every factory, of every power plant — a place of education.” Most of our Soviet factories have already begun the realisation of those words.

During the second Five-Year Plan the system of preparing specialists without their leaving the factory will embrace millions of workers.

The raising of the technical and cultural level of the toiling masses which facilitates the growth of new productional-technical intelligentsia will create ideal conditions for a still more powerful development of the national economy and culture of the Soviet Union.

THE TEACHERS OF THE USSR FIFTEEN YEARS AFTER THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION

By A. Gilenson

“The people’s teacher must be placed in our country on such a level as he has never attained in the present or past and never can attain in bourgeois society. We must work for it systematically, undeviatingly and persistently, work on his spiritual uplifting, and on his general training for his truly lofty vocation” (Lenin).

The importance of the role of a Soviet teacher is due to the enormous proportions which the cultural work among masses is assuming in the Soviet Union. If the school is the most important factor in the cultural uplifting of the country and in its socialist transformation, the teacher becomes the principal factor in scholastic life. The President of the Council of People’s Commissaries of the RSFSR stated the following at the second session of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee: “The further growth of our schools and also the growth of our culture is largely dependent on the teacher. This we must note in order to place the teacher in most favourable conditions.”

And indeed, throughout the fifteen years of construction in the domain of education, the teacher has always been the object of constant care on the part of the Soviet government and of all the social organisations of the USSR. From the very first years of the Revolution, a number of measures were taken to raise the authority of the teacher, to heighten his cultural level, and to facilitate his responsible and highly grateful task: “to further work, to awaken thought, to fight against prejudices, which still persist among the masses” (Lenin).

What is the total number of teachers in the USSR? Who are these teachers? Is we take the last three years, we can judge of the increase in the number of teachers in the Soviet Union. In 1929 there were 391,000 teachers, in 1930 their number reached 479,000, and the corresponding figure for 1932 was already 652,000.

About 60% of teachers are women; the overwhelming majority of teachers are proletarians and peasants by birth.

Not only is there absolutely no unemployment among the teachers, but there is a great shortage of them, in spite of a very rapid increase in their numbers. The country lacks at least 70,000 teachers.

The teachers are trained in the numerous secondary and higher normal schools, at various courses, etc.

The following are the figures illustrating the increase in salaries of teachers during the last few years (this refers to teachers in the elementary schools only): 1928 — 51 rubles, 1929 — 58, 1931 — 71, 1932 — 90 rubles.

The salaries of the teachers in secondary schools increased from 100 rubles in 1928
to 130 rubles in 1931. The salary of a headmaster is now 170 rubles. It is necessary to bear in mind, however, that the actual earnings of a teacher are much higher, for teachers usually work simultaneously in several schools. Relatively few hours of work — 4 hours in the elementary schools and 3 hours in the secondary schools — make it possible for the teachers to work in two or more schools at the same time. In order to determine the actual earnings, it is also necessary to take into consideration other factors affecting the wellbeing of a Soviet teacher. These include bonuses from a special fund, which in all amounts to 8 million rubles, the supplying with manufactured articles and food stuffs on the same basis as the industrial workers, a wide use of the sanatoria and health resorts, both through the trade union of educational workers and the social insurance and public health departments, free medical service, etc. Thus the actual wages of a teacher are considerably higher than the nominal figures quoted above.

When mentioning the salaries of the Soviet teachers, it is necessary to bear in mind also the law on periodical increases in wages of July 11, 1927, by virtue of which teachers, in respect of every 5 years of service, obtain an increase amounting to from 60 to 150 rubles a year, in accordance with the education they received and the type of school in which they teach. According to a special scheme drawn up for this purpose teachers with a 20 years' experience will get by 1936/37 four periodic increases. In other words teachers of 20 years' standing will be in receipt of very considerable increases, — 600 rubles a year. Additional privileges have been granted to teachers working in rural districts. The law of June 10, 1930, lays down that at least once in every three years every teacher must be sent to special courses so as to improve his qualifications. He is to be paid his full salary during that period. A certain number of beds in sanatoria and health resorts are reserved for village teachers. They are given free medical aid in the nearest city. Finally they obtain at the place of their service a free apartment with light and heating.

The decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party published on August 31, 1932, deals with "the improvement of the housing conditions of teachers in elementary and secondary schools and securing them rest and cure". This decision provides special credits for the construction of houses for teachers and confers the same privileges on the housing cooperatives of teachers as on the co-operatives in which workers form a majority. It proposes to organise by 1933 on the southern shores of the Crimea houses of rest and sanatoria exclusively for teachers and provides that the teachers are to be sent there on the same basis as the industrial workers.

Labour legislation fully applies to the teachers. A number of supplementary guarantees are laid down for them in accordance with the specific nature of their work. This refers to special rules governing the dismissal and transfer of teachers and the rules concerning their leaves of absense.

Under the law of July 15, 1929, the teacher may be transferred from one place to another only at the end of the school year. Dismissal on account of unfittedness may take place only if there is a report by a competent commission to the effect that the teacher is professionally unfit. Such a commission must include a specialist in the particular subject of the teacher. The term 'unfittedness' has been defined with the greatest precision.

The duration of leave, which usually coincides with the vacations, may not be less than two months on full pay, paid in advance, when leave is granted. The period of leave granted to pregnant school mistresses is four months — two before and two after childbirth.

We must also dwell here on the question of pensions. According to the law of April 23, 1931, 25 years' work entitles a teacher to a life pension. This period of 25 years includes not only the actual work as teacher, but also the time spent in prison or in exile for political offences prior to the October Revolution, and also the periods when the teacher is holding an elective office or is ill or unemployed. Owing to this favourable interpretation of the 25 years required for a pension, there is a very considerable number of pensioners. A pension in no way precludes a teacher from continuing his work.

It is obvious that teachers who have become incapacitated, either through vocational conditions of work, or owing to general causes, are entitled to pensions under the general laws applicable to all the toilers.

Such are the main characteristics and the practical working of the laws which for the last 15 years have governed the
Evening courses for workers

Student of a factory university

Agricultural institute in Georgia

The school-combine at the new ball-bearing plant in Moscow
Creche in the agricultural commune "The Beacon of Communism" (North Caucasus)

Top left to right: School biologica cabinet, A new playground. Bottom: Northern
Workshop at a house-commune attached to a factory (Kiev)

Children making posters for the school in Moscow. Children in a room at the Moscow railway Station.
Red Army men at study

A performance at a Red Army club

A red mariner at the parade
status of teachers in the USSR. Apart from legislation and administrative measures calculated to improve the conditions of teachers, the Soviet public organisations have always taken a very keen interest in this matter. Many articles have appeared in the press, many pamphlets have been published and meetings and conferences held on the question of teachers, as the principal factors in introducing general education, people who perform their work creditably, of whom the country may be proud.

The historic decisions of the Central Committee of the Party, dated September 5, 1931, and August 25, 1932, mark a definite improvement in the organisation of primary and polytechnical schools and indicate a series of new measures for the improvement of the status of teachers in regard to daily life and rights. The decision lays stress on the ever-increasing role of the teacher as a fighter for communist education of the new generation. And, indeed, the Soviet teacher is an active citizen of the country, a class conscious participant in political and economic campaigns, a professional educationalist, who, however, is free from those elements of formalism and scholasticism which formed the characteristic traits of the narrow-minded pedantic teachers who belonged to the old pre-revolutionary "classical schools."

On the 15th Anniversary of the October Revolution, the teacher, in common with all the toilers of the USSR, can say with confidence: "Fifteen years of work in the field of culture and enlightenment have not been spent in vain." An incredible thirst for knowledge, an enormous growth in the network of cultural and educational institutions, the elimination of the remains of illiteracy, the final abandonment of the old ways of life by many millions — such are the successes in which the teacher occupies the foremost place of honour."

It would of course be an exaggeration to say that the enormous tasks confronting the teachers of the USSR, have been fully realised. In the future they will have to do a colossal work, both in the school itself and in its social environment, and they will also have to work as before towards the raising of their own level.

FIFTEEN YEARS OF STRUGGLE FOR CADRES

By M. Bordukhov

The building of a socialist economy demanded imperatively the development of scientific and technical knowledge in the country. In the degree as industry progressed in the USSR there arose an ever growing need for education in general, for professional-technical instruction, for the training of new cadres of specialists and the raising of the qualification of the workers, already engaged in industry.

The plan for developing the people's education thus became an integral and organic part of the general plan of industrialisation.

But the rate, at which the new cadres were being prepared, was much too slow for the actual requirements of the national economy, the position becoming especially acute after the termination of the reconstruction period and the passing to the period of construction, i.e. to the fulfilment of the first Five-Year Plan.

1928—1929 marked the turning point when a carefully thought out plan for the education of new technical cadres was drawn up. The work of training cadres was then put on an entirely new basis, and went along at a speed unheard-of until then.

Just recently — in September 1932 — the Central Executive Committee of the USSR passed a decree specially dealing with the qualitative preparation of training cadres.

This decree will no doubt have the desired effect and ensure the complete solution of the problem of cadres, which at the present time is the central problem of socialist construction.

Let us consider for a moment what had been done before the Revolution for the training of scientific and technical workers.

The number of technical schools in tsarist Russia was insignificant, being strictly limited by the general state of backwardness of the country and the weak development of industry. The technical and professional schools catered for not more than 267,000 and 125,000 students respectively. Only a very small percentage of children, belonging to the privileged
classes, sons of lords, bourgeois, of the higher and middle State officials, and of the clergy were admitted to the higher educational institutions.

The October Revolution has brought about a complete change in the sphere of professional-technical education which is now based on strict planning and is closely linked up with the requirements of socialist construction. Industrialisation and its development called into life the most varied methods of training workers — apprentices' brigades, factory schools, courses for raising the professional standard of workers, evening classes of every kind. Politically conscious workers, the active participants in the socialist up-building of the country, are being trained in these institutions. Of great and special importance are the factory schools which are the basic channel for training skilled workers for industry.

The preparation of workers of medium qualification is taking place in technicums, in the universities and in the higher technical schools.

Even before the end of the civil war, at a special meeting on matters pertaining to public education, the question of the reorganisation of the universities and the establishment of workers' faculties was discussed.

The workers' faculties, attached to the universities, have become the basic channel for preparing young workers and peasants for the higher educational institutions. This form of preparatory work, which is carried on inside the university, has become extremely popular. On September 15, 1919, the Commissariat for Education issued a decree ordering the establishment of workers' faculties in all universities and higher technical schools.

The re-organisation of professional-technical education in accordance with the basic tasks of socialist construction necessarily led to a radical re-organisation of the educational plans, methods of instruction, of the whole structure of technicum and university education.

As a result of the reconstruction, the number both of technical schools and of their students has considerably increased. In 1920, for instance, in the whole of the Soviet Union the number of technicum did not exceed 585 with a total of 70,000 students, whereas in 1927/28 the respective figures were 1,038 and 185,000. A considerable increase is also to be noted in the number of universities. Prior to the Revolution there were 91 universities with 125,000 students; in 1927/28 there were 129 universities with 158,000 students. The network of institutions for the mass training of cadres embraced by that time 4,954 schools catering for 448,000 students. But even this rate of development did not correspond in any way with the tremendous pace of economic construction, the resulting difference causing a considerable disproportion between the requirements of national economy on available skilled labour capable of satisfying them.

The socialist reconstruction of the country imposed upon the whole system of professional-technical education entirely new tasks and demands.

In 1928, the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union considered the question of the complete re-organisation of the universities, higher technical schools and workers' faculties on to specialised branches of study, and their transfer to the various People's Commissariats and respective industrial bodies, subject to a unified programme and administration. The question of cadres was discussed in detail at the XVIIth Congress of the Party and at the XVIIIth Party Conference. In its resolutions on the second Five-Year Plan, the XVIIth Party Conference pointed out that the realisation of the tasks for the complete technical reconstruction of national economy demanded of our industrial cadres the mastery of technique, it furthermore demanded the creation of large cadres of our own technical intelligentsia from among the workers and peasants, and also the raising of the cultural standard of the broad masses of workers.

In the very significant resolutions of the Central Committee of the Communist Party on primary and secondary schools, special attention is paid to the question of cadres. Of no less importance are the decisions on the question of cadres contained in a number of recent documents: the decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of August 25, 1932, on educational programmes and on the regime in elementary and secondary schools, and the decision of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR of September 19th on educational programmes and the regime in the universities and technicums.

1 A special article on this question will be printed in an early issue of our review.
It is pointed out in the latter decision that as a result of certain measures "the training of specialists has reached the standard required by the ever growing socialist economy". In the higher technical schools the number of students in 1929 was 166,000, in 1931 — 394,000, in 1932 — 548,000. In the technicums for the same years: 303,000, 855,000 and 970,000. In the workers' faculties there were 229,000 students in 1930, 325,000 in 1931, 450,000 in 1932. In the factory schools during same years: 514,000, 1,099,000 and the 1,680,000.

In comparison with 1928 the number of students in the universities and higher technical schools has risen more than threefold, and in the technicums more than fourfold. The total number of students in the universities and higher technical schools in 1932 exceeds 1,500,000.

The number of specialists in the national economy of the USSR has increased to a very appreciable extent. In 1929 the Soviet Union counted 57,000 specialists whose professional education was fully completed, and 55,000 who had not yet completed their education, while in 1932 there are already 216,000 and 288,000 such specialists respectively. The composition of the students in the higher schools and in the technicums has drastically changed: in the industrial higher technical schools the number of worker-students reaches 70%, and in some instances even 90%. The universities, higher technical schools, technicums and workers' faculties are attended by many thousands of the best Party workers, young communists, and trade-union workers.

Of great importance for the training of economic workers are the industrial academies and the courses for factory and works directors. At the present time there are 14 of these academies, and in addition 8 academies are attached to the various State departments, with a total attendance of 5,955 in 1931, and 10,130 in 1932.

Worthy of mention is last year's re-organisation of the State universities for the training of scientific and pedagogical workers in mathematics and natural sciences. This re-organisation, as pointed out in the resolution of the plenum of the university section of the State Pedagogical Council, "is directly called for by the great interest towards scientific thought caused by the general technical reconstruction of the whole of our national economy".

"The re-organised universities" — we read further in the resolution — "by training scientific cadres on a mass scale are standing in the first ranks of the fighters for the rebuilding of science, for the technical revolution. Their work should consist in deep theoretical analyses and scientific experiments in order to find ways and means for the technical reconstruction of socialist industry, agriculture and the defence of the country. The work of the universities is directly connected with, and dependent on the training of cadres, which should possess a wide and all-embracing scientific outlook and an university education."

By their re-organisation, the universities have ceased to be many-faculty institutes, they are no longer separated from industry, no longer are they bereft of a unified guiding principle. The universities have been converted into higher educational institutions for the training of scientific research workers and university teachers of the highest qualification, along strictly specialised lines in a given industry.

The basic difference between the new universities and the higher technical schools lies in the fact that whereas specialisation in the latter is founded on the study of a given technical branch, specialisation in the former rests on the study of the main scientific problems connected with the essential demands of technique. Apart from this, specialisation in the higher technical schools is chiefly obtained in factory shops and factory laboratories, in the universities it is obtained, in scientific-research laboratories. The higher technical schools train technical managers and organisers of industry, the universities — research workers of the highest qualification.

The quantitative growth of the network of educational institutions and the increase in the number of students is naturally accompanied by corresponding qualitative changes.

The higher technical institutions are closely linked up with industry.

The brilliant successes of socialist construction have led to a decisive change in the attitude of the large professorial circles of specialists towards active participation in the grandiose creative work of the Soviet Union.

The solution of the problem of cadres proceeds not only along increased attendances. The rapid growth of the number of workers engaged in industry (21 million in 1932 as against 18.6 million in 1931) has
called into life new forms for raising the qualifications of the workers. A real mass movement for mastering technique is developing. In this connection great stress must be laid on the so-called "workers' educational combines", where students are trained without being taken away from industry. These schools are organised in large factories and works and provide all phases of education, from the elementary to special departments which train highly qualified specialists in definite branches of industry.

In a number of large factories almost all the workers are engaged in some form or other of study, mostly of a technical nature.

7 million industrial workers and 10 million collective farmers are studying technique in the USSR, be it in schools, correspondence courses, special circles, etc. A powerful incentive to this movement has been given by J. Stalin at the first All-Union conference of industrial workers, when he said: "The bolsheviks must master technique". This slogan addressed by J. Stalin to the vanguard of the toiling masses has been enthusiastically taken up in the USSR by many millions of workers, collective farmers, young people, the new Soviet intelligentsia.

The USSR is the land of such masterpieces of contemporary technique as Dneprostroy, Kusnetskstroy, Magnitostroy and other giants of socialist construction. The USSR is the land which is creating a "Magnitostroy of Art", the land which is striving toward the unlimited development of all the spheres of human creative endeavour.

By educating new cadres, the Soviet Union is educating new men and women, the conscious builders of a classless society.

The type of a Soviet specialist is determined not only by the knowledge he has acquired, but also by his active participation in the social and political life of the country, by the application in his work of the new socialist forms of labour (socialist competition, shock brigades).

Work imbued with ideas, planning, width and clearness of perspective, characterises the activities of the Soviet specialists, not only of the younger ones, but also of those, who belong to the older generation.

Such then are the conditions in which new cadres are formed in the Soviet Union.

The history of the struggle for socialism during the last 15 years has attracted the deep interest of the whole world. And the pages of that history, relating to the struggle for cadres, are, undoubtedly, among the most interesting and instructive.
Masses Building Socialist Culture

AUTHORS FROM THE FACTORY BENCH

By P. Bankov

One of the most striking indications of the cultural growth of the working class is the participation of the industrial workers in literature, a phenomenon which hitherto has not been observed in any other country, and which has become possible only under conditions of Soviet life.

1930 will go down in the history of proletarian literature as a year in which, for the first time, numerous books appeared written by authors direct from the factory benches.

This date is not accidental. The rapid development of socialist competition and of shock-brigades was reflected likewise in the sphere of literature. Socialist construction demanded and demands a wide exchange of experience between its builders. In a country where socialism is being built up, in which private property in the means of production and the attendant competition and industrial secrets have been abolished, the exhibition of the best examples of work by the greatest heroes of labour assumes a colossal importance.

The first books by worker authors originated as an expression of the desire of the exemplary workers to share their experience with others, to help them to master the most rational and productive methods of work.

"This pamphlet is my first creative effort on the front of proletarian literature. In writing it I set myself the task of passing on to the workers of the Soviet Union the experience of the shock-workers of the Communist Department of the "Krasny Putilovets' Works". This is how the fitter Naumov in the preface to his first book "The Heart of the mill" describes the motives which prompted him to enter the field of literature. A similar explanation is given by other worker authors who are grouped around the Publishing Department of the All-Union Council of the Trade Unions, the initiator of the appeal to shock-brigaders to take up literature.

The task of overtaking and outstripping countries which are more progressive in point of technique and economics, the appeal of J. Stalin, the leader of the working masses of the USSR, to master technique urged the industrial workers of the USSR to give more thought to technique. The increase in the workers' proposals for the improvement of socialist production, the greater activity of the production conferences at various works, the increase in the workers' inventions, the wide development of mass organisations for technical education were all portrayed in literature by these worker authors.

The old and skilled industrial workers are helping to train new strata. Not only do they train new workers in the process of work, but they sum up their experience and pass it on, through their pamphlets, to thousands of workers in the Soviet Union.

A worker-inventor who is living and working in the Soviet Union makes no secret of his invention. On the contrary, after testing it at his enterprise, at the production conference, he hastens to pass it on to all the workers in his trade, he writes a book about it in order to make his achievements the common property of the entire mass of workers, technicians and specialists.

Cement-layer Kashkin, on the basis of his personal experience, gives in his book a description of the best methods of cement work.

The foreman of the "Dvigatel" works, Malygin, and a moulder in the same factory Alexandrov, have written a book on moulding for workers of medium qualification. In the preface to his book, Malygin writes as follows: "With the development of our industry, many more moulders will be required and it will be useful for them to learn the methods of their trade. I tried to expound as clearly as possible, in the simple language of a worker, the most essential problems of my speciality, so important in our trade. I hope that the items of information supplied by me will prove useful for the growing generation of workers and will contribute to raising their qualification."

These words aptly describe the tasks which the workers, the authors of technical books, have set themselves.
The first books of worker authors served as an impetus to a mass movement of the workers not only in the field of technical but also art literature.

Thousands of worker authors are entering the field of Soviet literature. Their creative efforts summarise the revolutionary experience and the industrial achievements of the best workers. Their works have an enormous stirring effect on the masses.

Metal workers, founders, engine-drivers, miners, shepherds, are taking up the pen. There arises a new type of author hitherto unknown in the history of literature. A worker author, a shock-brigader, is above all an active participant in the everyday world struggle for the victories of the working class. Mikhailov, the author of the book “In the Fight for Metal”, paper-layer at the “Hammer and Sickle” works; Orovetsky, carpenter of the Panyutinsky railway-carriage repair works, the author of “By Force of Example”; Kotenko, worker of “Selmash”, author of “The Brigader of the Hot Department”; the poet Biryukov, concrete worker of “Selmash-stroy”; Vodolazko, tractor-driver, author of “Meat Factories”, and thousands of others are shock-workers, i.e. most active and progressive workers. They are members of the best brigades, they are in the front ranks of socialist competition, and shock work. All their writings are clinched with hammer blows, every line is born of the enthusiasm of free labour.

The success of the worker authors is the most striking proof that in the course of socialist construction boundaries between mental and physical work are swept away. The live incarnation of these changes is the Soviet worker, the worker author, he who after a hard day’s work at his factory begins to write a technical book, fiction or poem.

A worker author is not a lonely individual afraid of competition, he is above all a member of the collective. The habits of collective work, which he acquires at the works, he transfers to his literary productions. None of the worker writers and poets dispense with the discussion of their work with their mates and fellow-members of the literary circle. They all read their manuscripts at general meetings of their mates.

The new worker writer, the new poet has introduced new subjects and new themes.

The freed and joyous labour which has now become “a matter of honour, of glory, of valour, and of heroism” (J. Stalin), such is the “leitmotif” in the works of the new writers.

New socialist relations between individuals, the newly created psychology, which prompts people to solve the vital problems in a new way, such is the main content of these books.

This is shown even by their titles: “Rebirth” by Alfeyev, turner of the “Bolshevik” works in Leningrad; “The Fight for Metal” and “Steel, Brand M” by Mikhailov, of the “Hammer and Sickle” works in Moscow; “We are catching up” by Tarassevich, worker at the Moscow Stalin works; “A Matter of Honour” by a locksmith in the combine assembly shop of the “Selmash”; “Foreman of Coal Barge No. 69” by Sagaidak, worker in a metallurgical works; “Every Oil Gusher taken in Battle” by Zinin, worker of the Grozny oil-fields, and others.

While actively taking part in their social organisation and keeping up their connection with industry, these new authors are persistently working on the improvement of their literary productions. Mikhailov has already published three books (“The Fight for Metal”, “The Seventh Battery” and “Steel, Brand M”), of which the first named ran into three editions, with a total circulation of 300,000.

Ryezchikov, a worker of the “Kauchuk” factory, has published a whole collection of poems.

The worker authors are gradually passing from small sketches and poems to big novels and long poems. It stands to reason that most of the shock-brigaders who have entered the field of art literature are still in the process of formation as artists. The overwhelming majority of them are beginners who must go through a long period of training. The common defects of many productions by worker-writers and poets is the addiction to standardised forms, inability to handle the material. The Soviet Publishing Houses pursue the task of raising the political and literary qualification of these young authors, to help them master literary technique.

Many Publishing Houses have set up literary consultations or bureaux of worker authors. The beginner may obtain there the advice of a specialist, a trained writer or poet, he can also obtain special liter-
nature which will help him to work on a definite theme. The literary bureaux organise various courses, seminars, evenings, group consultations for authors, special stationery, and travelling exhibitions, showing to the worker author how to draw up the plan of his book, how to gather material, how to work out a theme, etc.

Literary evenings, held once in ten days, specially for the worker authors, are of great importance in training the new authors. The reading of manuscripts in literary circles, at the meetings of the worker editors of Publishing Houses make the authors more critical and train them to evaluate more justly their own and other people's production.

The shock-brigaders who are authors of fiction are most of them connected with the Association of Soviet Authors. At all the important enterprises of the USSR there exist literary circles consisting of worker writers and poets. These circles guided by the social organisations of the factory, and assisted by the Association of Authors, organise systematic courses for the new authors, helping them to improve their work, to connect it with the entire cycle of tasks of socialist construction, to enrol their creative efforts for the solution of tasks confronting the given enterprise, as well as the entire working class. The creative efforts of our worker writers are indissolubly connected with the life of their respective factories: the slogans, poems, satire, are all mobilised in the struggle for the Plan, for the tempo and for the quality of work.

The large publishing houses possess their own staffs of writers from among the workers. Thus the Publishing Department of the All-Union Council of the Trade-Unions ("Profizdat") attracts worker authors and essay writers, the Association of Worker-Authors of Technical Literature ("Marat") is closely connected with the Technical Publishing House and Red Army authors are connected with the Literary Association of the Red Army and Navy ("Lokat").

In spite of its youth, the mass literary movement has already drawn to itself several thousand writers and poets. Thus more than 800 authors are connected with the "Profizdat".

It is difficult to estimate the enormous number of publications put out by worker writers and poets, spread over thousands of local factory papers and wall-newspapers, in the pages of the numerous magazines for literature, art and technics.

Fifteen years of Soviet rule have transformed a backward country into a country of powerful industry and the biggest agricultural production in the world. From ruin to Magnitostroy — such has been the path of socialist reconstruction in our country. From illiteracy to the Magnitostrois of literature — such is the path of the cultural revolution.

THE WORKERS ARE WRITING
THE HISTORY OF THEIR FACTORIES AND WORKS

By P. Novliansky

The compilation of the "History of Factories and Works", which has been started all over the Soviet Union on the initiative of Maxim Gorky, is regarded as one of the most striking manifestations of the cultural revolution. Its significance lies in the fact that it is being written not only by scholars, writers or individual participants in the various events, but by the broad masses themselves.

The compilation of that "History" as a mass movement of the toilers began at the end of 1931, when the Central Editorial Board of the "History of Factories and Works" was appointed under the editorship of Maxim Gorky. This board comprised, along with the most prominent men in politics, literature and science, also the representatives of the biggest Soviet factories and works.

The appeal to the workers issued by Maxim Gorky and the Editorial Board found immediately a ready response, which shows that there existed already a desire among the masses to use the events familiar to them as material for writing the history of the revolutionary movement and of the struggle for socialism in the USSR.

In the course of the first few months editorial boards were formed at more than a hundred big enterprises of the USSR. They drew to themselves writers from
among the works, contributors to the factory newspapers, members of literary circles. Tens of thousands of old and young workers started to write the history of their works, of their lives, of their revolutionary struggle, of their participation in the construction of socialism.

This movement is daily extending to new and most diverse enterprises — works, factories, power stations, mines, railways. The work is assisted by historians, writers, economists, engineers, journalists, artists. Plans of books are being worked out, enormous archives are being examined. The workers taking part in the compilation of this "History" converse with the old bolsheviks, study the material in the museums, the pre-revolutionary press, etc. At the "Red Putilovs' works in Leningrad, a society has been founded to assist the compilation of the "History". It comprises three hundred of the oldest workers, whose average period of work in industry is twenty five years. A Moscow Society of old Putilov workers has also been founded; similar societies exist at other enterprises (the Moscow "Trekhgornaya Manufaktura", the Izhora Works, etc.). At the Lenin Works in Leningrad, a cell of the society of Marxain historians has been set up and the workers are working out in a seminar the material referring to the various periods in the history of their works.

At a large number of enterprises (the Dzerzhinsky works in the Ukraine, the Liubertsy and Izhora works, the "Trekhgornaya Manufaktura" in Moscow and others) an exhibition of historical documents has been organised, as well as consultations on questions of the history of the labour movement, the Communist Party and of the given works. Mass excursions are being organised to those places where militant gatherings of workers took place in the pre-October period ("Electrozavod", "Trekhgornaya Manufaktura"). An historical section was founded at the Cabinet of Party Work in the "Hammer and Sickle' factory in Kharkov. At the Moscow "Hammer and Sickle" a special "Victorina" was organised. A collection of diaries, letters and photos referring to the history of the works and of the labour movement, to the everyday life of the workers etc., was arranged.

Many works practice talks with the workers and their families at home, make lists of old workers, collect proposals on the questions of methods of compiling the history of the works.

Finally, socialist competition was inaugurated for the composition of the best volume on the history of the works. Entire factories are competing, as well as the brigades working on the "History" and the individual workers writing their memoirs.

Such are the diverse forms assumed by the mass movement for the creation of the "History of Factories and Works". This has now become the concern of the whole working class and is particularly well expressed in the letter of the Nadezhodinsky workers (in the Urals) addressed to Maxim Gorky:

"Today at the Nadezhodinsky works hundred oldest workers gathered at a family evening organised in connection with the task of compiling a history of our works. Our total age is 5,237 years and we have a total of 3,117 years of trade experience. Our oldest member is 80; thirty six are over 60. Many of us came here to the Northern Urals at the end of last century, when the place occupied now by the works was all covered with woods and bogs and thousands of men lived in huts dug in the earth, when thousands of them died of scurvy, various epidemics, and underfeeding. The greater part of our lives were spent under conditions of capitalist oppression, of humiliation of human dignity, of monstrous exploitation. Many of us fought, rifle in hand, in the field of revolutionary battles. We remember our comrades, killed in the struggle, tortured to death in the torture chambers of the tsar and Kolchak. We are happy that many of those gathered here to-night continue to work at the mill, holding the most important posts at the blast furnaces, open hearth furnaces, and rolling benches, at a time when these aggregates work for socialism, for a happy future of mankind... At the present time we are all of us working together on the compilation of the history of our works. We are all of us taking active part in this work, pensioners as well as members of the Young Communist League. Let the new generations of the working class know how the working class has grown in size and strength, how the Bolshevik Party was growing, how the edifice of capitalism was broken into pieces."

Many other facts illustrate the activity of the workers, their enthusiastic response
to the appeal to write the history of the workers. Thus 220 of the oldest workers of the Moscow ‘Hammer and Sickle’ factory took an active part in gathering recollections of 1905; 300 old workers of the ‘Red Putilovetz’ are working on the 2nd volume of the history of their works. Along with old men, young workers and above all Young Communists are enthusiastically participating in this work.

The task of writing the ‘History of Factories and Works’ has thus become a method of study which trains the new generation of workers-intellectuals, the future sociologists, writers, historians.

‘The History of Works’ gives a political education to new strata of the working class” (M. Gorky).

“The History of Works” is not a dull academic chronicle of events, treated independently of the tasks of socialist construction and of contemporary life. The creation of this “History mobilises the masses for a further struggle for socialism, serving “the cause of the development of the revolutionary class-consciousness of the proletariat, the cause of helping the masses to assimilate the ideas of Marx and Lenin” (M. Gorky).

The masses of the workers have found concrete forms of work linking up their participation in the writing of the “History” with the industrial and cultural life of the works. Thus the history of the Moscow Tool factory is written under the slogan of mastering technique. “Our principal aim is to show how the bolsheviks master technique.” With this purpose in view social evenings are organised at the works in order to acquaint the young workers with the industrial methods of the old evenings devoted to the development of technique at the works in the past and at the present time. At the Trekhgornyaya Manufaktura the general meetings of the workers investigated the material of the archives and other material describing the role of labour discipline in the factory at various historical periods — this will help the new workers, unacquainted with the conditions of the pre-revolutionary factory regime, to grasp the importance, from the point of view of class, of labour discipline at a socialist enterprise, in a country where work has become a “matter of honour”.

The main idea underlying the history of the Moscow “Electrozavod” is “the factory as the initiator”. The Zinc Works in Rostov-on-Don, in connection with the history of the works, has announced a campaign for overfulfilment of the production-financial plan.

An important part is played by the meetings of the workers dealing with the history of the works. These meetings take place under the sign of the assimilation by the younger generation of bolshevik traditions and the revolutionary experience of the old workers.

Already at the present time reminiscences of the workers have been put down in writing and the historical material has been collected and classified. This means that the period of organisation is over, and that the creative work on books has begun. The following manuscripts have already been finished, and sent to the Central Editorial Board: the history of the Lenin (Neva) machine building works (about 200,000 words); the history of the Moscow-Kazan railway (about 200,000 words); the history of the Kolomna works in 1905 (about 100,000 words); the second volume of the history of the “Red Putilovetz” works, under the general heading “Putilovets in three revolutions” (200,000 words); the history of the Volodarsky sewing factory in Leningrad (40,000 words). Moreover, material has been gathered for separate chapters, and some of them have already been written on the history of the Moscow “Hammer and Sickle” factory; of the “Trekhgornyaya Manufaktura” of the Izhora works; of “Krasny Eugolnik” (The Red Triangle); of the Nadezhinsk works in the Urals; of the Moscow tool works; of the “Skorokhod” factory; of the Kharkov “Hammer and Sickle” works; of the Kharkov locomotive building works; of Stalingrad tractor works; and also a collection of articles on the history of the Lena goldfields.

The first history of the series — the history of the Lenin (Neva) machine building works, will be printed on the 15th Anniversary of the October Revolution.

The present progress of work of the Editorial Board allows us to expect that three more volumes will appear in the near future; the history of the Moscow Kazan railway, of the Stalingrad tractor works, and the Volodarsky sewing factory.

What will the history of each individual enterprise look like? The resolution of the Central Editorial Board states the following on this score:

“The gist of the programme must be a comparison and a concrete juxtaposition of the two systems — the capitalist and the socialist.”
The fundamental themes of the history of each works are the social-economic and the industrial-technical description of the works; the history of the labour and revolutionary movement at the works; and the history of the Bolshevik Party; the questions of culture and of daily-life conditions.

The section referring to the last named question must show up those conditions in which the factory workers were forced to live before the October Revolution and also the life and customs of their masters — the capitalists.

In the post-October history of the works, there will be a detailed description of the cultural revolution, of the growth of the working class, of the creation of the workers' intelligentsia in the course of the elimination of the contrasts between physical and brain work, new forms of everyday and family life, new forms of social relations, the physical culture movement, the elimination of illiteracy, the linking up of factories and schools.

The "History" will describe the organisation and the reconstruction of the works on new socialist principles, new forms of administration and control, workers' inventions, the growth of the communist forms of work (shock-brigades, socialist competition), the heroes of labour, the participation of the masses in planning.

The abundant and colorful material makes it possible to render the narrative of the "History" both exhaustive in point of substance and accomplished in point of literary style.

HOW THE HISTORY OF CIVIL WAR IS BEING WRITTEN

By I. Danilov

The Civil War through which the Soviet Union went in the years 1917—1922 is a great period in the history of the heroic defence of the conquests of October from foreign and domestic foes. It settled the historic destinies of the country. The working class and all the toilers of the Soviet Union acquired in the Civil War enormous political, strategical and operative experience.

The study of the Civil War, its investigation from the point of view of science and art, the summing up of its experience, and the transmission of the latter to new generations of the toilers of the USSR is therefore of extremely great importance. The publication of the "History of the Civil War" which was undertaken simultaneously with the "History of Factories and Works" and likewise on the initiative of Maxim Gorky — is attempting to solve this problem.

The "History" covers all the most important events of Civil War from the February Revolution 1917 down to the suppression of the last uprisings against the Soviet government in 1922. The plan of publication published in the periodical press and in a separate pamphlet shows how fully and thoroughly the events will be covered.

It embraces the following volumes: October; the first stage of Civil War; the first steps of the intervention and the break-up of the "respite" period; the Cossack Vendée; Civil War in the Ukraine and in Crimea; Kolchak; Denikin; the fight for Petrograd and the intervention in the North; war on the western frontiers; Wrangel; Civil War in Transcaucasia; Civil War in Central Asia; Civil War in the Far East; Anti-Soviet uprisings and mutinies towards the end of the Civil War; Intervention and its international importance; the Party in the Civil War.

The above mentioned 16 main volumes of the "History" will give a comprehensive, a strictly scholarly and consistent exposition and description of the armed struggle against the background of economic and political events. The foremost historians and economists will work on these volumes.

Though the exposition will be strictly scientific, these volumes will be written in popular style intelligible to the broadest masses of readers.

In addition to the basic volumes the editors will publish a series under the general title "Collections of material on the history of Civil War". The collections will consist of documents and manuscripts by the immediate participants in the Civil War (diaries, memoirs, chronicles, sketches etc.) which in very large numbers were delivered to the editors by former Red Guards, by guerilla fighters, Red Army men, command- ers, political functionaries of the Red Army and of the works of the best Soviet authors dealing with Civil War. Just as in the basic volumes of the "History" the material
published in the collections will be arranged according to periods, regions, fronts; their publication will proceed simultaneously with that of the main volumes.

It is proposed to supply the "History" with abundant illustrations, photographs (100 ordinary and 8 colored illustrations in each volume), schedules and maps. Each volume will contain an index of subjects, names and geographical places as well as a list of books dealing with the events described in the volume. Fine-grade paper and binding, clear type, convenient form — all this will render "History" highly accomplished from a technical standpoint. Moreover, the price for the whole "History" will be so low that it will be within easy reach of every worker and peasant.

The great social importance of this publication, the fact that it can easily be acquired by the broad masses and the enormous interest shown to the "History of Civil War" by the whole of the Soviet public forced the editors to issue it in an enormous number of copies (half a million copies of each of the main volumes).

The publication of the "History" evoked a lively response in the whole country. Workers, collective farmers, intellectuals declare their willingness to take active part in the creation of the history of the heroic struggle of the workers and are sending in a large number of manuscripts, etc.

All these facts enable us to assert that the publication of the "History of Civil War" will be an outstanding event in the scientific and art literature of the USSR.

The first volumes of the "History" will appear in 1933 and it will be completed in 1937.

At the present time a large amount of preparatory work is being completed.

The greatest event was the elaboration of the plan of work. This plan will not only form the foundation of all the work in connection with the "History" but is in itself most important as a document, which establishes the methodological principles of the study of Civil War, its division into periods, etc. The plan thereby assists most materially the work of investigation and education dealing with the Civil War subjects.

The "History" will be a work on a level with present-day Marxian-Leninist theoretical thought. Everyone of the numerous authors in working out his theme or chapter must include in the scope of his investigation the entire literature available — art, science, history — books and periodicals on the subject of the Civil War. For this purpose, an annotated bibliographical index of Soviet and foreign literature on Civil War is being compiled as one of the forms of preliminary work. Not only well known capital works are being carefully taken note of in the index, but also the various publications which are in various regions, districts, national republics and separate military units. Thanks to this the authors of the "History" will be able to investigate everything contained in literature dealing with the themes they are investigating.

The enormous wealth of information contained in the archives both central and local will be worked out and used for the purpose of writing the "History". In the archives the material dealing with Civil War is examined and revised; documents are being selected which are of interest to the "History" and a card index is being compiled so as to fit in with the plan.

Copies of some of the documents of the archives will be sent to the editors to be used for the "History". However, the bulk of the documents will be studied in the archives personally by the members of the staff and the authors contributing to the "History", where they will be able to use the card index and documents referring to separate volumes and chapters. Under the terms of an agreement between the Central Archives Department and the Secretariat of the Editorial Board the archives have already started their preliminary work which is now drawing to a close.

Finally the participants in and witnesses of Civil War are invited to take part in the preliminary work for the "History". They write their memoirs, historical novels and sketches, chronicles and supply separate items of information, describing certain events. Oral tales of Civil War are also being recorded. The editors are likewise collecting such works as diaries, documents, photographs which are in possession of individual persons. At the present time nearly 2,000 such manuscripts have been collected. They have all been examined and have been given a preliminary scientific historical appraisal. The authors of the manuscripts are mainly redguards, guerrilla fighters, Red Army men, commanders, political workers. Their works abound with most interesting political military, psychological and other facts,
characterising life in those days. Some of these, after being worked up by the editors, will be published separately, many will form one of the series of literature and art magazines, the remaining sections will be used as material in working up the "History".

A very important task is to select a numerous and capable staff of authors. Nearly every chapter and every big theme in the "History" demand investigation by an individual scholar. The authors for the first three volumes have in the main been selected. Conferences are already being held of authors working on the same volume, a division of labour is planned between them, also the connection between various themes and chapters, and the order in which they are to follow. The methods of individual and collective work of the authors writing in the same volume are being drawn up.

In the nearest future the authors will start work on the "History" itself.

The "History of Civil War" will be not only an outstanding production of science, history and art literature, but also a specimen of collective authorship. And indeed it is being written by the very masses, who have made history.
BOOK PUBLISHING DURING THE PAST 15 YEARS

By A. Kolbanovsky

The high aims pursued by the press in the Soviet Union secure an unparalleled development for the publication of books. The Soviet Union inherited from the bourgeois landlord regime few printing works, a poor paper industry and a book-production industry reduced to one half of the pre-war level (13,144 titles in 1913).

26,069 books published in 1913 were registered in the "Book Annals", with 99,879,000 copies. The pre-war books were chauvinistic in content, full of the great-nation obsession; out of the 26,069 books only 2,154 were in languages other than Russian (Church-Slavonic, Arabic, Hebrew and others) and even these were chiefly monarchist propaganda and reactionary. The victorious proletariat, from the very first days, made it its task to familiarise the workers and peasants with literature and culture. However, the existing conditions rendered it very difficult to carry out this task for which is needed considerable publishing activity. This was the time of economic ruin, of civil war, of intervention: the ravages of the world war was still evident. In spite of the efforts of the workers' State the absence of metals, of fuel, of paper, etc. greatly hampered the development of publishing activities.

Printing shops had to reduce their work and each year turned out a smaller and smaller number of books: in 1918 — 6,052 books, 77.7 million copies; 1919 — 3,739 and 54.6 million; 1920 — 3,326 and 28.3 million 1921 — 1,130 and 28.3 million.

However, though in the grip of civil war, under the attacks of international intervention, the Soviet State published the works of Russian and world classics, text-books and literature of a popular scientific character, social-political literature etc.

Publishing Houses were established for Party, Soviet and co-operative publications. The publication of classical authors was regularised by the decree nationalising the works of classical authors. A State institution for furthering the circulation of printed works ("Tsentropechat") has been created.

In 1919 was founded the State Publishing House of the RSFSR ("Gosizdat"). It was entrusted not only with publication activities, but also with distribution of paper, regulating of the publishing activities of the various Peoples Commissariats etc.

The first Director of the Gosizdat was a tried revolutionary and distinguished man of letters — V. Vorovsky (mURdered in Lausanne in 1922, while representing the Soviet Union in a diplomatic capacity).

At this period the prevailing type of literature was propaganda publications, leaflets, agitational posters. They struck at the principal enemy, the white bandits, the kulaks and the counter-revolutionaries. The Soviet book, along with the rifle and machine-gun, served the cause of the working class, the defence of the country from counter-revolution and intervention.

The period of restoration

The victories of the Red Army over the interventionists and the white-guardist counter-revolution enabled the USSR to turn to peaceful economic and cultural construction. The rapid economic restoration of the country, the consistent national policy, the energetic measures for the raising of the cultural level of the nations of the USSR — all this gave an impetus to the exceptionally rapid tempo of development of book publishing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of books</th>
<th>Number of copies</th>
<th>Percentage of copies with 1913</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1922</td>
<td>7,843</td>
<td>37.9 million</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1923</td>
<td>10,810</td>
<td>67.0</td>
<td>69.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924</td>
<td>13,126</td>
<td>110.0</td>
<td>110.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925</td>
<td>26,320</td>
<td>278.0</td>
<td>278.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td>28,100</td>
<td>206.0</td>
<td>206.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927</td>
<td>32,604</td>
<td>221.0</td>
<td>221.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 We take for 1913 99,870,000 copies, although this figure is exaggerated if taken for purposes of comparison with the data supplied by the book chambers: we should have deducted from it all the numerous calendars, music and plans, which are not registered by the Soviet "Book Annals".
If we bear in mind that in 1921 only 4,130 titles were published, we will observe that in 6 years the book publication in the USSR has increased almost 8 times.

The pre-war level of circulations was exceeded already in 1924. This is explained by the fact that Soviet books are adapted to the needs of the masses and do not appeal only to the select. However, even in point of the number of titles the Soviet book has rapidly exceeded the pre-war figures. In 1925 the pre-war level was surpassed with regard to variety and from 1926 both the circulation and the number of titles have been steadily increasing. There is a greater variety in themes and a greater differentiation in the demand for books on the part of the millioned readers.

During that period the book trade developed along two lines. On the one hand the State publishing houses (Gosizdats) of the individual republics rapidly developed especially those of the RSFSR (which represents 45–50% of the total number) and of the Ukrainian Republic. On the other hand we observe a deeper intensification of work on the part of special State publishing organisations serving special branches of science, culture and economics. Of these special publishing houses the following are of particular importance: the State Technical Publishing House (putting out books on all branches of mechanics and economics), the State Publishing House of Agricultural Literature, the Publishing House of the People's Commissariat of Public Health (medical literature), the Law Publishing House (books on the theory and practice of Soviet law), "Transpechat" (books on questions referring to all kinds of transport) and a number of other publishing houses.

Of the other big publishing houses the following are of special importance: "Moskovskiy Rabochy" ("The Moscow Worker"), "Priboy" (Leningrad) and "Proletary" (Ukraine). These publishing enterprises issue not only social and political literature but also popular books on science, fiction and special literature for children.

Important work is also done by the "Young Guard" Publishing House. It puts out text books, the current political and art literature for youth, popular literature on natural science, technics and agriculture and also books for children.

Of the public organisations engaged in book publication we may cite the trade-union publishing departments, the most important of them being "The Educationalist" ("Rabotnik Prosveshchena"), which issues a considerable number of school and pedagogical literature.

The Publishing House "Down with Illiteracy", attached to the society of the same name, is doing splendid work in the elimination of illiteracy.

The Publishing House "Land and Factory" has specialised mainly in the publication of fiction and is increasing its production of books both by Soviet and foreign authors.

During this period there existed also co-operative and private publishing houses. The co-operative and some of the other publishing houses specialised in fiction and literature of a highly technical character. As the State publishing houses grew in strength and number, the private firms were gradually ousted from the book market.

The leading role in the RSFSR is played by Gosizdat. Gosizdat issues the bulk of the school books, also literature covering all branches of science, classics and contemporary writers, fiction, books for children, socio-political literature etc. In 1927 Gosizdat published 549 titles for a total amount of 108.8 million rubles. Gosizdat is also the biggest publisher of magazines (44 magazines in 1927 for a total value of 9.6 million rubles).

Gosizdat already at this period published an enormous amount of works by the most important representatives of socio-political thought and art. In 1929 it published 13 million copies of Lenin's works, 3.8 million copies of Stalin's works, 700,000 copies of the works of Marx and Engels, etc. The works of classical authors of fiction are published in millions of copies: Pushkin, Tolstoy (4 million copies), Chekhov, Korolenko, Saltykov-Shchedrin, Gogol, Nekrassov, Gorky (4 million copies) and the latest authors.

Mass literature was published by Gosizdat in an enormous number of copies (as much as 70% of the entire production including text books). At the same time books on science by the most important Soviet and world scientists and scholars were published with great care. A series of art monographs on the problems of art was also published by Gosizdat.

The transition to the New Economic Policy caused the reconstruction of the entire book trade. In place of an organ of distribution ("Tsentropechat") commercial sections were set up in the publishing
houses and co-operatives began to engage in book distribution.

The Soviet book trade had almost no foundation in the past because the old book trade was entirely ruined in 1917. During the war the book business ceased to be a paying concern and this had its effect on the number of bookshops even prior the Revolution.

Gosizdat played the principal role in setting up a system of bookshops. In 1924 the USSR already possessed 871 bookshops, in 1925 their number increased to 1,590, and in 1927 there were about 1,700 of them (not counting book-stands). Before the Revolution, in 1913, there were 1,183 shops or 69% of those that existed in 1927. The qualitative advantages of the Soviet book business are still more important. Instead of the former concentration of the book business in big centres, there is a tendency to develop the network of bookshops in the villages, many book-stands were constructed at factories and works, which makes the books more accessible, to the new reader, one who is of greater importance from the social standpoint.

The first Five-Year Plan in the book trade of the USSR

The fulfilling of the enormous tasks of the Five-Year Plan required a corresponding tempo of development of the book trade. The demand for books grew enormously. Even the rapidly increasing book production proved inadequate. It became necessary to reconstruct the book trade which no longer satisfied the new requirements either from the point of view of organisation or of technique.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of titles</th>
<th>Number of copies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>34,165</td>
<td>366.4 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929</td>
<td>40,871</td>
<td>395.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>49,218</td>
<td>853.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>53,848</td>
<td>845.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Such an enormous increase in production entailed an increase in the number of bookshops. By 1931 there were 4,705 bookshops (four times as many as in 1913) and 37,302 book-stands at factories, works and collective farms (three times as many as in 1927).

The very structure of the publishing trade has changed. In 1930 in place of separate publishing houses an United Publishing House of the RSFSR (OGIZ) was founded, 20 publishing shops were turned over to this new concern divided into a number of publishing sections. In place of separate commercial enterprises a single centre of book distribution — "Knigotsentr" — was set up. A similar system of the book trade was introduced in the Ukraine and in the other republics.

The new structure enabled us to improve the mass organisational work on the books as well as to organise the training of the personnel: an Editorial-Publishing Institute, the educational-publishing technicum, courses and circles to improve the efficiency of the workers have been established.

As regards the commercial end of the book trade there exist a number of technicums, schools for apprentices, a correspondence technicum and many courses and circles.

The carrying through of the Five-Year Plan in regard to books is illustrated by the following table (in millions of copies):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Plan</th>
<th>Fulfilment</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Plan</th>
<th>Fulfilment</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1927</td>
<td>1,450</td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>2,230</td>
<td>3,640.0</td>
<td>136.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929</td>
<td>1,853.2</td>
<td>3,474.6</td>
<td>125.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus the rate of development of book production has exceeded the figures laid down by the Five-Year Plan. However, even though the Plan has been exceeded, still the demand for books in the USSR exceeds the supply.

In 1931 to ensure greater efficiency two publishing houses were made independent of the OGIZ of the RSFSR — the Association of Scientific-Technical Publishing Houses and the Party Publishing House.

Books are sold in the Soviet Union with unprecedented rapidity. The circulation of books is considerably greater than in 1927, yet does not meet the demand. Text books for universities which used to be printed in 3 to 4 thousand copies are now sold in tens of thousands of copies. Books on agriculture are distributed in hundreds of thousands of copies. Books on technics have a circulation two to three times greater than in 1927 and covering separate problems (metallurgy, machine building, mining and geological literature). A circulation of 15 to 25 thousand copies are usually sold out in a very short space of time.

The enormous growth of book publication is particularly noticeable in the nation-
The extension of book publishing activities in languages other than Russian is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Languages</th>
<th>Number of Titles</th>
<th>Number of Copies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>7,598</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,44,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>7,598</td>
<td>31,995,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>19,530</td>
<td>191,427,700</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

New publishing centres have arisen. In place of jingoistic and chauvinistic literature the toilers of each nation are now turning out in their own languages text-books, books on science and art, popular books and books for children, all of which serve as a means of the international education of the masses.

The programme of the second Five-Year Plan, which aims at the construction of a classless society in the USSR, presents to the book trade of the USSR a task of immense importance.

It is to turn out at least three times as many books, since the demand is at least for five times the number produced at the present time.

In order not to lag behind any longer in point of material technique we have also been given the task during the next few years to produce our own machines for the press and the paper industry.

The first successes have already been achieved: Soviet printing presses, Soviet linotype machines, Soviet binding machines and Soviet rotary presses are already in use.

Thus Soviet books are being turned out at the rate which is required by the needs of the cultural revolution.

**Literature and press of the nations of the USSR**

Literature in the native tongues of the nations in the USSR is the offspring of the October Revolution.

The publishing of literature in the national languages was originally done by the Western and Eastern Publishing Houses, established at the People's Commissariat for Nationalities under the guidance of J. Stalin. At the beginning of 1924 both these publishing houses were merged under the name of Centroizdat (Central Publishing House).

Centroizdat was the leading organisation of its kind, the output of books published by this house in different native languages comprising approximately 60—70% of all those published in the entire RSFSR. By the nature of its work and its content Centroizdat was perhaps the only one of its kind existing that dealt with such a great variety of subjects in diverse languages. The existence of such an organisation is possible only under the conditions arising from Lenin's national policy as practiced in the USSR.

Until 1932 Centroizdat published literature in 68 different languages:


Besides Centroizdat literature was also published locally, so altogether about a hundred different nationalities were covered in this vast publishing activity.

From 1932, with the reorganisation of the publishing system the national press was further developed. It was proposed to embrace the most backward nations.

To be able to judge the depth and dimensions of this work it will be necessary to take into consideration all the difficulties which must be met. Chief of these are: absence and imperfection of scripts among a number of nationalities and absence of established orthography.

Together with the creating of scripts it is important to pay attention to the introducing of the Latin alphabet among the many millions of the USSR population speaking Turkic-Tartar languages.
Rest home for workers in a former monastery

Physical-culturi parading on the Square

Physylactorium in Dniepropetrovsk (Ukraine)

Rest home for workers in a former landowner's estate
"The Woman". Director: Dzigan

"Kikos". Director: Barkhudarian

The film "The Woman". Director: Dzigan
Poster of a Soviet film demonstrated in Japan

A working moment of the film: "The trial must continue". Director: Dzigan
Inauguration of German architecture exhibition in Moscow

Building of the Sport club of the stadium of metal workers in Leningrad

Palace of Culture in Leningrad

Stadium of metal trades workers in Leningrad
At present the literature in the Turkic-Tartar languages is published only in Latin characters. In 1932/33 it is proposed to adopt the Latin alphabet for publishing purposes likewise for the other groups of nationalities.

The development of the local printing industry together with the general growth and stabilisation of the national publishing houses, have increased the scope for further development of publishing work which the result that today we have in the USSR up to 40 national publishing houses.

The rapidly growing demand for native literature well portrays the growth of the national press. During the existence of Centroizdat 7,738 titles were published with a total of 51 million copies and 258 million impressions. The annual publication of this huge output during the past 9 years is shown by the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of titles (in units)</th>
<th>Number of printed folios (in units)</th>
<th>Number of copies (in thousands)</th>
<th>Number of impressions (in thousands)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1923</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>1,612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1,419</td>
<td>1,299</td>
<td>6,173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td>567</td>
<td>2,296</td>
<td>2,796</td>
<td>11,235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927</td>
<td>633</td>
<td>3,068</td>
<td>2,665</td>
<td>15,172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>683</td>
<td>3,515</td>
<td>3,147</td>
<td>19,374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929</td>
<td>699</td>
<td>3,199</td>
<td>3,922</td>
<td>24,256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>2,458</td>
<td>8,041</td>
<td>17,824</td>
<td>88,50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>2,243</td>
<td>8,639</td>
<td>18,878</td>
<td>91,245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7,738</td>
<td>30,635</td>
<td>50,932</td>
<td>257,956</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above figures illustrate the rate of growth in books written in native languages, published by the Central Publishing Houses.

Particularly characteristic is the fact that in 1930 the book output was greater than that of the combined preceding years.

The editorial and publishing plan for 1932 provides for a considerable increase of many hundreds percent in comparison with 1931. In the publishing centre (Moscow) the following growth in 1932 is anticipated: titles — 424%, printed folios — 219% copies — 267% and impressions — 149%. The general national press is expected to show a growth of 69.2%. With regard to the type of books the plan for 1932 estimates the growth of text-books for schools to reach 79.2%, agriculture — 70%, technical — 100%, communistic literature and social economics — over 79%.

The national publishing industry has far exceeded the task and tempo set by the Five-Year Plan. But even this is not satisfying the ever growing cultural demands.

In working out those main lines which go to make up the essence of the second Five-Year Plan, the task is set whereby through the steady growth of the national press in the earliest possible period to do away with the differences existing between the cultural levels of nationalities of the Soviet Union.

During the second Five-Year Plan publishing work must embrace the languages of all the nationalities of the USSR. This task is truly immense.

**LATINISATION AND UNIFICATION OF ALPHABETS IN THE USSR**

By N. Yako\v\l e\v

In point of the number of nationalities, and the variety of its ethnic composition the USSR occupies one of the first places among all the countries of the world. The number of languages spoken by these nationalities is equally large. The inhabitants of the Soviet Union speak no fewer than 150 different languages. A considerable proportion of these nationalities inhabit the Soviet territory, living as permanent settlers. This applies to most Turko-Tartar languages and nationalities, to most Ugro-Finnish, Japhetic (in the Caucasus), Tungus-Manchu and pale-asatic languages and nationalities. On the other hand, some of the nationalities which inhabit the USSR in large numbers, especially in the republics adjoining foreign States, live
Likewise in those adjoining States and speak either the same or similar languages. Such for instance is the case with the Azerbaijanians, Persians and Assyrians in Persia, Kurds, Lazies and Turks in Turkey, Arabs, Kurds and Assyrians in Irak, Tadjikis, Beludjes and a number of small Iranian and Tiurkic-Tartar tribes in Afghanistan, Kalnucks, Uigurs, and Dungans in Western China; Kalnucks and Mongols in Mongolia; Chinese and Koreans in China and Korea; Aleats and Esquimaux in the United States (Alaska, Aleutian Islands), Lapps in Norway, Karelians and Finns in Finland. We do not mention here such western nationalities as Esthonians, Letts, Poles, Germans and others.

The variety in nationality and language which prevail in the USSR is intensified by the diverse historical, socio-economical and living conditions under which these nationalities lived before the Revolution. This variety in socio-economical conditions was naturally reflected on the state of culture of each individual nationality and in particular was apt to hamper the development of its alphabet and written language.

Prior to the Revolution all the eastern nationalities which inhabited the present territory of the USSR, apart from a few exceptions, had practically no written languages of their own and in fact there were very few people among them who could read and write in their own language. It is true, many of them possessed the rudiments of missionary religious literature, based on the Russian alphabet, the rudiments of Mahomedan literature in Arabic script, Llamaist literature in Mongolian script, etc. However, missionary literature, which was forcibly planted among these nations, had on the whole no success and met with a violent resistance on the part of the masses. Literature in Arabic and other complicated scripts, owing to its difficulty, usually remained the privilege of the clergy, bureaucracy and the bourgeois intelligentsia. Prior to the Revolution the masses of the people and the national proletariat were illiterate. In order to illustrate this state of things suffice it to recall that most of the small nationalities of North Caucasus and Daghestan not only had no written language but only 1 or 2% of them could read and write in Russian. Such a numerous-populated nationality as Azerbaijanians, which already before the Revolution possessed their own national literature, had approximately $1^{1/2}$% of the population that could read and write in their own language. Most of the Turkie-Tartar nations were either in a similar or in a worse position: there were less than 1% literates among the Karakalpaks, .85%, among the Turkmens, and none at all among the Kazaks, Bashkirs, and Kirghizes. The Uzbekks were in a somewhat better position, but even among them the average number of people who could read and write did not exceed 3%. The average level of literacy both in their own and in the Russian languages among the national minorities of pre-revolutionary Russia, which are now inhabiting the Soviet East, probably did not exceed 3 to 4%.

Today the USSR is probably the only country in the world in which every nationality, irrespective of its size or cultural level, enjoys an indisputable right to develop its written language and literature and schools in its own language. Unlike other States, the nationalities of the USSR enjoy not only an abstract right, but the real possibility to be taught in their own language and to cultivate a national literature, and what is more—with the political and financial assistance of the State. Thanks to the Revolution, for the first time in history there has arisen in the USSR a mighty movement of the national masses of the toilers for the creation of national literary languages. "The socialist Revolution did not diminish but increased the number of languages", says J. Stalin (attacking Kautsky's theory concerning "the creation of a single language common to all humanity, the others dying off during the period of socialism"), "for this Revolution, shaking up the profoundest depths of humanity and thrusting them on to the political arena, calls to life a large number of new nationalities which formerly were either little or unknown. Who could have imagined that old tsarist Russia consisted of more than 50 nationalities and ethnographic groups? However the October Revolution, having broken the old chains and thrust to the fore a large number of forgotten nations and nationalities, gave them new life and new development" (J. Stalin, "Questions of Leninism") 1.

Thus the development of literary languages among the nationalities of the Soviet

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1 The figure of 50 nationalities refers to the year 1925. With the growth of national construction, new national groups have been developed. At present, the total number of such nationalities has reached 130.
Union is one of the proofs of the general success of the Revolution and of socialist construction.

At the present time we are able to quote facts and figures which are still more striking. In 1931 out of a total of 131 Eastern nationalities of the USSR 84 nationalities possessed their own written language and schools. Of these one half for the first time acquired a written language only after the October Revolution. The remaining 47 nationalities, mostly small ones, used the written language of the more progressive of their neighbors who were most akin to them both in culture and language. However, even these nations are gradually obtaining a written language of their own. Thus in 1932 the following nationalities have acquired or are acquiring their own written language: the Tabassarianians in Daghestan, the Abazians in North Caucasus, the Beludjies in Turkmenia, Kumandianians in Western Siberia, Vepsians and Izhorians in the Leningrad region and others.

There is no doubt that before the end of the second Five-Year Plan all the nations of the Soviet Union will possess a written language of their own.

In order to obtain a clear idea of the successes achieved by the national policy in the USSR, especially as regards the reation of written language, it is necessary to compare the conditions of the minorities in the Soviet Union with that of the national minorities in the progressive countries of Western Europe and in their colonies.

In Central Africa, on an enormous tract of land occupied by the so-called Sudanese Negroes, the population numbers 45 to 0 million and speaks 435 different languages. Of this enormous number of languages only 5 or 6 have a more or less fixed written language. Thus the Sudanese nationalities, which on an average number 100,000 inhabitants each tribe, possess a written language of more than 1.38% of the total number of nationalities and languages.

For purposes of comparison it should be added that 26 nationalities of the Soviet North, who speak the dialects of twenty languages and live on a territory which is not smaller than the one inhabited by the Sudanese Negroes, and whose total number is 135,237 (i.e., on an average of more than 6 to 7 thousand for each nation and language), already possess a written language for 16 of these nations, thus the nations of the North, formerly one of the most backward and exploited colonies of Russian imperialism, now possess written languages to the extent of 80%. This achievement of the October Revolution is all the more significant, when we take into consideration the fact that the USSR obtained as a legacy from tsarist Russia the smallest and most oppressed and backward nations, which possessed no written language at all and spoke a variety of languages almost unknown to the scholars of olden days.

If we take Soviet Central Asia, we find that there are 41 nationalities, of whom 30 have a written language and only 11 without it (the latter include several Iranian dialects, which can easily be served by the Persian literary language and script).

In India 87% of the nationalities possess no written language of their own. In Soviet Central Asia we find the opposite: 7/8 of the minorities possess their own written language. It is necessary to add that this situation in Soviet Central Asia is rapidly bettering—more and more nations are creating their own written language (for instance this year the Beludjies, Kurds, Yakkianians and others). Soon all nations inhabiting Soviet Central Asia will have their own written language.

These successes in the USSR have proved possible only owing to the existence of the Soviet regime and to the introduction of Latinisation and unification. Only Latinisation, which is closely linked up with the unification of the alphabets in the Soviet East, supplied the backward nationalities with a technical instrument fully adapted for national mass education.

Therefore the success of the movement for Latinisation and the unification of alphabets is most important in bringing about the introduction of national written languages and national literacy. That is why Lenin described Latinisation as the great Revolution in the East.

The movement for Latinisation in the USSR began immediately after the October Revolution. In Yakutia already in 1917 the question was raised of replacing the alphabet based on the Russian script which was used prior to the Revolution and which served mainly as a weapon of the missionary, of Russification propaganda, by the Latin script. The Yakut Latinised alphabet was only definitely introduced, however, in 1922, after the final consolidation of Soviet rule in this region. This alphabet was not yet unified and was a mere adaptation to the Yakut language.

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by means of international phonetic transcription. In 1921 work was started for the adaptation simultaneously of the Latin alphabet for Ingushes, Ossetians, and Kabardinians in North Caucasus, and for Azerbaidjanians in the Azerbaidjan Republic. The Ossetians adopted the Latin alphabet, discarding the Russian script (despite the fact that as a result of missionary propaganda the Ossetian written language in Russian characters was widely used before the Revolution), and in Azerbaidjan the Latin script became a weapon wherewith to combat the reactionary Mahomedan literature written in the Arabic script. In 1923 was held the first educational conference of the mountain tribes of North Caucasus, which approved a project for introducing the Latin alphabet for the afore-mentioned three nations and also for the Karachais. From that year onward Latin script began to be used by a section of the mountain tribes inhabiting the North Caucasus. Finally in 1925, the Abkhazian alphabet based on the Russian script and introduced by the tsarist government for missionary and colonising purposes, was upon the initiative of the Abkhazians themselves replaced by a script, which in the main was based on Latin, and is called japhetidological script (or the so-called analytical alphabet) worked out by the Academician N. Marr.

At this first stage of development of national written languages in the USSR, Latinisation, as we observe, used to be introduced sporadically and among relatively few nationalities. The question of unification was not discussed fully. The Latin alphabet in its various forms which practically have not yet been thoroughly tested (the international transcription, the japhetidological one, the alphabets of the mountain tribes, the original project of the Azerbaidjan alphabet) served mostly for the purpose of creating a written language for nations which lacked it altogether (the Ingushes, Kabardinians) and at the same time served as a tool for combating the missionary activities as represented by the Russian script. It is only among the Azerbaidjanis that the Latin alphabet was for the first time used as a weapon for combating the more or less established Arabic script. The experience gained in the struggle by Azerbaidjan against the reactionary Mahomedan script and schools became subsequently a great factor in the struggle for the development of national culture among the nations of the Soviet East. That is why Azerbaidjan is justly regarded as the pioneer of Latinisation in the USSR.

The example of Azerbaidjan rapidly had its effect on other nationalities which had hitherto used Arabic script. In 1923-1924 work was started for the introduction of the Latin alphabet among Turkic-Tartar nations with a weakly developed national literature (the Kazaks, the Kazan Tartars, the Bashkirs, the Uzbeks and others). At the same time preparatory work was being carried on for the holding of the All-Union Congress for Latinisation which later on was called the first All-Union Turkological Congress. In the North Caucasus the second educational conference of mountain tribes held in 1925 at Rostov-on-Don finally introduced Latinisation among a number of these tribes. The Latinisation of the minority languages inhabiting the former Mountaineers' Republic was in the main completed by 1926.

The first Turkological Congress met in the city of Baku (Azerbaidjan) in February—March 1926. It was attended by representatives of all the most important Turkic-Tartar minorities of the Soviet Union, and likewise by many of North Caucasus, Daghestan, and Trancaucasus (Kurds).

The Congress passed a resolution recommending to the representatives of all the republics of the Soviet East to take into consideration the experiments in Latinisation of Azerbaidjan. As a result of this Congress there was formed a voluntary society for the spreading of Latinisation consisting of representatives of the various nationalities of the USSR. This society was called the All-Union Central Committee of the new Turkic alphabet. It first met a Plenum at Baku in February—March 1927. Here, the latinised alphabets of the Turkic-Tartar nations were for the first time actually unified. Thus the years 1926—1927 mark the second stage of Latinisation. At this period, unlike the sporadic attempts made by the various republics during the first years, Latinisation becomes a wide international movement among nations, particularly the Turkic-Tartar ones, which used the Arabic alphabet and which had served as a battle-ground and of age-long propaganda by reactionary Mohammedan mullahs. The unification of alphabets means the international graphic and phonetic unification of national alphabets. The movement for Latinisation becomes a revolutionary struggle by the masses of toilers of Eastern nationalities
for enlightenment and science against the mediaeval obscurantism of the Mohomedan reactionaries, the clergy, the local feudal lords and the bourgeoisie. The class and educational nature of this struggle becomes strikingly manifest. The latinised script, as a popular weapon of mass literacy of the toilers, replaces the caste literacy of small privileged sections of the population.

By the end of this period the unified Latin alphabet (which was then called the new Turkic alphabet) was already being used by 17 Turkic-Tartar, 10 Japhetic, 7 Iranian, 2 Mongolian, and 1 Chinese (Dungan) nations, 37 in all, inhabiting the Soviet Union (1930). Of this number 28 nationalities passed on to the new unified Turkic alphabet (as it was then called) and 9 nations (including Azerbaidjan) preserved for the time being their separate non-unified Latin alphabet. This latter number, as we shall see later on, became gradually reduced with the progress of unification.

The third and last stage of latinisation in the USSR began in 1930. The latinisation and unification of alphabets used by the Turkic-Tartar nationalities, as well as of alphabets of other nations, formerly using the Arabic script, may in the main be regarded as technically complete in 1930.

At that time the overwhelming majority of Turkic-Tartar nationalities, as well as of other nationalities inhabiting the USSR, which formerly used the Arabic script, passed on to the Latin alphabet. Subsequent work in the domain of latinisation consists in developing the literary language, in laying down the rules of orthography and settling the questions of terminology. At the same time latinisation is advancing further and covering new fronts.

Nationalities using other forms of alphabets which are mediaeval and backward in technique and reactionary in content (the Syrian and Mongolian scripts, the Chinese hieroglyphics) and also those using scripts based on the Russian alphabet introduced by the missionaries, are now beginning to join the movement for latinisation. This applies to Mongolian, Senitic, Ugro-Finnish, Chinese and other nationalities. However, a specially important feature is that Latin script is used by nations which formerly had no written language at all, and who therefore could only write in a language foreign to them. Latinisation in the second stage was a struggle against mediaeval backwardness and for a script and printed language accessible to the broad masses. In its third stage latinisation is becoming also a struggle for education and the development of literature of the small nations.

In 1928—1929 the following nationalities obtained for the first time a written language: Dungane (Western Chinese—Maho-nedans), Nogays, Talyshes, Khakasses; in 1931—Tabassaranians (Daghestan), Southern Karelians, Vepsians, Izhorians, and 16 nationalities of the Soviet North (Aleutians, Voguls, Golds, Gilyaks, Intelmens, Kamchadals, Kets, Koryaks, Lamuts, Lapps, Samoyeds, Ostyak-Samoyeds, Ostyaks, Tun-guses, Udeys, Chukchei, Esquimaux. In 1932 the alphabets for the following nationalities are being worked out: Beludjes, Abazes (North Caucasus), Uds(Azerbaidjan), Kurds (for the Central-Asiatic Kurds), Kumands (Western Siberia). The question is likewise being raised of creating a special written languages for the small Iranian peoples of Tadjikistan (the Vakhanians, Yagzuliamians, Yaegnoians), for the tribes inhabiting Dagestan and Azerbaidjan (the Aukhovians, Kaitagians, Tsakhirans, and others), and finally for the backward peoples of the North—Yukagirians, Yenissey-Samo-yeds, Tavgians and Karagas.

The unified alphabet consists of 33 basic letters (to the 25 letters of the Latin alphabet 8 more are added which are modified latin letters). Apart from these there are also the so-called additional letters representing sounds peculiar to each language. In all there are 58 such letters for all nations using the new alphabet. No doubt the further work of unification will reduce their number to the minimum of 45—46 letters. However even now the 91 letters (in all) contained in the new alphabet constitute only a small proportion of the total number of the very complicated letters of all alphabets, which are now replaced by the new one. The alphabet, with which we are most familiar—the Abkhasian—has 52 letters, the smallest alphabet of all,—the Kazak alphabet,—consists of 29 letters.

All the additional letters are based on Latin script.

The degree of literacy as regards persons using the new alphabet proves that it is widely used. In 6 republics—the Tartar, Turkmens, Azerbaidjan, Uzbek, Kazak, and Tadjik republics—the total number of persons who can read and write (between the ages of 8 and 65) has been 8,500,000 in 1931, of which 5,696,000 use the new alphabet, when writing in their own lan-
guage. For the first time in history the masses of Eastern nations began to read and to write.

The success of the latinised and unified alphabet is entirely due to those social and political conditions in which the new system of alphabet is being introduced in the Soviet Union.

The spread of literacy among all the nations of the USSR, even the most backward ones, the founding of schools where they teach in vernacular, the development of native publishing houses, of the native press, fiction and poetry, render the new alphabet a mighty factor in the greatest cultural revolution.

The success of latinisation in the USSR could not fail to have its effect outside the Soviet Union. The Eastern States adjoining the USSR, especially those which by arms had to defend their independence against the attacks of the imperialists, quickly grasped that latinisation is one of the means of strengthening and developing cultural independence. In view of the success of latinisation and the educational strides in Soviet Azerbaijan and in other Turkic-Tartar republics the Turkish Republic officially adopted the latin script in 1928. The Tuvi Republic which had no script of its own adopted the unified latin alphabet in 1929 and in 1930 the Mongolian Republic followed suit discarding its Mongolian script and adopting the latin one. The question of latinisation has since 1928—1929 also been discussed in Persia.

THE ORGANISATION OF LIBRARIES IN THE USSR

By P. Gurov

The organisation of libraries in pre-war Russia was the most backward section of national education. The tsarist government employed the most varied means—direct prohibition, a complicated system of permits for opening libraries, limitation in the choice of books, war against politically 'unreliable' librarians—to hamper the existence of these cultural centres.

All the libraries were divided into two categories: free "national" libraries, and the so-called "public" subscription libraries. In the case of the latter the subscription fee prevented the workers, particularly manual labourers, from having access to them. All books published in Russia were admitted into the "public" libraries with the exception of those which had been put on a special list. The selection of books for the free libraries was controlled even more severely.

Free national libraries conducted by organs of local self-government, voluntary societies, etc., could be opened only with the permission of the district governor, and were subjected to the vigilant supervision of a special official who not only censored the choice of books, but also saw to it that the library did not become a centre for any social work or the place for social gatherings.

Among the books permitted in reading libraries—this especially in the case of free national libraries—the majority were works of a religious nature, patriotic histories, geography, and a large proportion of fiction. Scientific books constituted only 1%, books on logic, psychology, pedagogics—1.5%.

Only occasionally, thanks, apparently, to the ignorance of the librarian, were works of a progressive nature included, but they were swallowed up in a sea of reactionary and jingoist rubbish recommended by the catalogue.

And yet there were libraries where social and political work was carried on although on a small scale. The librarians in touch with underground revolutionary organisations selected the best of political and sociological-scientific literature, and sometimes even distributed illegal books. Of course the number of theses libraries was small, and this sort of work was exceptional.

The Revolution of 1905 somewhat altered the state of things. Free libraries were put on an equal status with "public". All books on sale began to be admitted into the library. But after 1905 an unheard-of number of books were prohibited, confiscated, and burnt by tsarist officials.

As before, the government took up an antagonistic position towards these public institutions of cultural and political work.

One must note, as a characteristic feature of pre-war libraries, that all attention was concentrated on the dominant nationality; national minorities were hardly taken into account.
The October Revolution posed the problems of mastering the cultural heritage and the fundamentals of science and techniques. Hence the exceptional attention which the Soviet authorities gave and give to the organisation of libraries.

The decisions of the congresses on extra-school education and political education, and the decrees of the Council of People's Commissaries gave concrete instructions as to the content, direction and methods of work in libraries.

After the Revolution the libraries began to grow with fabulous rapidity, three kinds of library being founded simultaneously: those connected with the bodies of people's education, with the trade unions, and with the Red Army. This threefold development of libraries continues up to the present. On the first of January, 1920, the number of libraries conducted by the People's Commissariat for Education amounted to more than 50,000; those conducted by the trade unions to more than 10,000, those by the Red Army — 10,000.

By 1930 there were already 30,000 public libraries in the USSR; reckoning travelling libraries and book centres — about 144,000. The number of books in them by 1930 amounted to 105 millions as compared with 57 million in 1926, and 50 million in 1920.

The average book fund of a library in 1930 was about 3,500 volumes. Whereas in tsarist Russia the number of books was increased very slowly, in the Soviet Union we witness the doubling of catalogues over a period of five years.

The disposition of books in Soviet libraries for 1930 was as follows (in %): fiction — 28.7, anti-religious — 2.2, sociology — 19.5, history and geography — 6.5, natural sciences — 4.6, applied sciences — 6.2, agriculture — 5.1, miscellaneous — 27.2.

Much attention is paid in the USSR to the training of library workers. Before the Revolution librarians (from 1913) received only a short training at the national Shanyavsky university in Moscow, or at short courses attached to the zemstvos. Now a network of institutions for the training of library workers has been developed.

The institutes of library science prepare teachers for the higher schools of librarianship, and highly-qualified specialists for the leading libraries. Higher schools for librarians, — that is librarianship institutes, librarianship sections in pedagogical institutes and the pedagogical faculties of the universities, — prepare organisers for district libraries, and for the libraries of important industrial centres, and also teachers for technical schools of librarianship. The high schools for librarians (technicums), and special departments in pedagogical technicums, prepare librarians for the vast network of libraries for the masses. The huge majority of library workers have passed either through correspondence courses of the higher schools, or through technicums attached to libraries or else through courses for improving the qualification of librarians (courses lasting one, three, or six months, with or without exemption from work in the factory).

Library workers are paid at the same rate as teachers. The following statistics apply to library workers: 76.3% with high school or university education, 51% who have been librarians for more than three years. This shows that serious attention is paid to the preparation of librarians.

Around the libraries are grouped a mass of organised readers already amounting to hundreds of thousands. This mass consists of teachers, workers, students, actively participating in library work.

The distinctive features of Soviet organisation of libraries are: 1) a definite political standpoint — libraries to serve socialist construction, the cultural revolution and the dictatorship of the proletariat; 2) a definite plan as the main principle of library work; 3) the conducting of work amongst the masses.

The new theory of library work is based on the teaching of Marx and Lenin, in particular on Lenin's teaching on the press and culture.

The ordered planning, which is the principle underlying the organisation of all work in the USSR, is to be found also in the organisation of libraries. The work of every individual library is carefully planned. The plan regulates for the organisation of acquisitions for the current year, the organisation of readers — what groups and how many — a library service — travelling libraries and book-hawker centres; the amount of book lending; work among the masses.

The libraries draw up their working plan taking at their basis established norms of labour (special processes of library work are being subjected to detailed study), budget allowances, the decrees, plans, and
work of the Soviets, colhozes, trade unions, and other organisations, also taking into consideration the work of preceding years. The plan which reflects the possibilities of the library, the concrete demands of the organs of Soviet government, and also those of the trade unions, factories, colhozes, etc., constitutes a detailed programme for the year's work. Experience has shown that it is possible to plan not only work among the masses and the acquisition of books, but also the growth and composition of readers and the lending of books.

The plan, in its fundamentals, is frequently over-fulfilled. The actuality of the plan is due to the comprehensive work of the libraries in recruiting readers and distributing books. The libraries work among the masses is new for the USSR. The libraries are concerned not only with the popularisation of books in definite branches of knowledge, but also strive to connect the distribution of books with definite decrees of the Party, the government and the trade unions (the fulfilment of the production and financial plan on the enterprise; the furtherance of political education; the sowing and harvest campaigns; the election of Soviets, etc.).

The methods of work among the masses are extremely varied; readings and discussions, lectures, addresses, literary soirees, literary trials, evenings devoted to special books such as anti-religious, military, political, and those devoted to factory production. There are also competitions for the best study of a book, reference work, the popularisation of definite books and placards in connection with the various political, cultural, and agricultural campaigns within the country.

Work among the masses is carried on not only within the walls of the library; on the contrary, chiefly outside them—in factories, colhozes, in the fields during work, at meetings. Libraries help in electing the Soviets and factory committees, help to compose the mandates etc., and take part in socialist competition and shock-brigade work. Libraries organise disputes, exhibitions, propagandise books and give necessary reference material. We must note the growing use of wireless by the libraries.

A vast number of documents, decrees of town Soviets, of district committees and colhozes bear testimony to the direct participation of the libraries in socialist construction. But in their effort to satisfy current cultural and economic interests the libraries do not forget the fundamental problem of communist education, the re-fashioning of the workers psychology, the education of conscious builders of socialism. The popularisation of books on questions of theory is one of the chief problems of the libraries' work. Work for current campaigns is closely connected with the basic problems of communist education.

A characteristic feature of the work of Soviet libraries is that they serve all nationalities. Statistics show the tempestuous growth of libraries in the Ukraine, White Russia and the Asiatic republics, where formerly there were practically no libraries.

For example let us look at the organisation of libraries in the Turkoman republic. In the past Turkmenistan had not a single library for the masses. Nobody knows what libraries existed there formerly apart from those attached to different officers clubs and similar institutions. Now there is a comparatively well-developed network of libraries. There is a central book fund conducted by the Commissariat for Education, 48 trade-union libraries, 15 district libraries. In 1930 there were 292 travelling libraries.

A lasting foundation has been laid for the organisation of libraries in the national minority republics. Library work is already a definite factor helping to build socialism in formerly backward districts.

The growth in the number of readers, the necessity for making the most of the books, make exchange between the libraries an urgent necessity. As yet only the first steps have been taken in this direction. This is one of the weak points of our library work.

At the present time, as distinct from the pre-revolutionary period, library work is distinguished by carefully planned organisation firmly based on a government budget and partly on that of the trade unions.

Library work in the USSR is undoubtedly developing and accomplishing a great work. But it still lags behind the speed of economic reconstruction. To rival this demands greater effort, a more comprehensive mobilisation of all forces and possibilities. The activity of the libraries should go hand in hand with the growing cultural demands of the masses, for in the USSR, more than anywhere, are conditions secured for the progress of cultural work among the toiling masses.
October and the Art

VOICE OF THE SOVIET ARTISTS

LEONID LEONOV

Soviet writer, author of many works of considerable importance as for instance "The Badgers", "The Thief", "River Sot" and a new novel "Skutarevsky".

Soviet literature is mustered for a parade. Its achievements seem especially considerable if we bear in mind the situation of some years ago, when many old writers had left the country and new ones had not yet appeared. It was a time when reactionary and petty-bourgeois tendencies tried to hold sway in literature.

And yet, within the short period of 15 years an entirely new literature has been created, whose achievements are widely known throughout the entire world, whose works are being translated into all languages. What are the reasons of such success?

First and foremost the Revolution has stirred up new vast strata of people, from among which new and remarkable writers have come. Secondly, contemporary life places at the disposal of the writer a lot of rich material from which he can draw the content of his work. A third factor that helped Soviet literature to surmount its many difficulties was its attention to the best part of the legacy left by the old literature.

Western literature — with the exception of a few names — is living through a period of decay. The struggle with the general scantiness of ideas — this it is that gives birth to literature in capitalist States. Whereas in the USSR literature is inspired by the great work of construction and the abundance of ideas. It would be only just to say that Soviet literature has every chance of becoming the leading power in world literature.

N. OGNEV

Soviet writer, author of the "Diary of Kotia Riabtsev" and other novels

During 15 years Soviet literature has created many works of world-wide fame. This relates not only to Russian literature, but also to the literatures of national minorities. No doubt, the time is soon to come when the national writers of the peoples of the USSR will give us chefs-d'oeuvre on a still greater scale. One must bear in mind that in some of the republics the written language as well as the free press first were introduced with the Revolution, i.e. no more than 15 years ago.

Why then such a confidence in chefs-d'oeuvre? The reasons are simple. The liberated peoples forming part of the Soviet Union have now an opportunity to realise their dearest ideals; powerful national sources flow into a single united stream, from which new forces are drawn: the purpose of creative work is clear and near: the different cultures are responsible for the variety of creative forms united by one common idea. Hence the tremendous growth of the national theatres we have been witnessing in the USSR; similar achievements in the field of national literature will, no doubt, follow in the nearest future.

The very conditions of life in the Soviet Union are most favourable for creative
Stagnancy, inertia are made impossible by the intense process of growth going on throughout the country.

Unlike Western Europe or U.S.A., the Soviet Union takes great care of the welfare and material conditions of its writers: special houses are being built for them, as well as new sanatoria and rest houses.

I mention it here because I personally have experienced it. Though 44 years old I still see great perspectives opened up before me as a writer.

I have just finished the novel "Three dimensions" exposing the individualism of the old Russian intelligentsia and showing its collapse. Now I am working on a big novel which I am calling "Inventors". The majority of inventors portrayed in the novel comes from among the working youth. Their inventions are limited not only to technical devices, but cover likewise the creation of new forms of life in all its manifestations. The subject is treated in several aspects (combination of different schemes, and creation of human documents are the favourite methods of my literary technique). One aspect shows the modern Soviet school in its turn towards polytechnisation in our. Soviet meaning of the word. The other aspect is connected with the school abroad. Finally a part of the novel is devoted to Soviet tourism.

I made it my purpose to make the two worlds—old and new—crash and to observe the results of it. And I see already that the old world is stagnant, inert, dull and unable to develop. Whereas in this country, alongside with difficulties connected with growth, we witness creative victories in all corners of life.

P. PAVLENKO

Soviet writer, author of 'Turfmenistan' and other works, Vice-president of the organisational committee of the Union of Soviet writers

The high level of revolutionary consciousness of the Soviet writer, and the organic fusion of our literature with life of the country is responsible for the fact that now we are making preparations for the October anniversary with so passionate a zeal, as if we'd staked our life on it.

The tournament of ideas and creative efforts which already has begun amongst us writers, and will assume a final shape during the October days, is an event that cannot be reckoned in mere monetary units and consequently could only be possible under Soviet conditions. It never was before.

We started a gigantic roll-call of talents in order to check and evaluate our cadres in the light of the tremendous growth of the USSR, in the light of all difficulties
it had coped with, and on the eve of the creation of a classless society.

The books which are to appear at the October days will bear witness to the fact that we have grown without confining ourselves to the narrow limits of our problems, that we have found a new approach to history, examining the methods and means of capitalism, observing the changes undergone by Westerns living in the USSR and noting the exciting events that shake the East.

We are perfectly aware of the war clouds which are becoming ever denser here and there over the world. We never forget that our mother country reaches beyond its geographical boundaries, and that all those who wish to repeat our social experiment in any corner of the world are our countrymen. We want to make all the 15th anniversary of our Revolution a literary feast as well.

All my work during this year was carried on in view of preparation for this October feast. I wrote a novel of the Paris Commune linking up the success of October with the revolutionary heritage left us by history. I tried to trace and to describe the development of class struggle in the past.

My next book will deal with the influence of our mode of life upon people from the West, who in some way or other get in touch with socialist construction in the USSR.

ANNA KARAVAYEVA

Soviet writer, author of "Sawmill", "Courtyard", "Steep Tread" etc.

For us Soviet writers the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution is not merely the date of a national jubilee. Each writer of the Soviet Union is closely connected with October in his creative work. Many representatives of the old pre-revolutionary literature having joined the proletarian Revolution entered upon a higher and entirely new stage of their creative development. But for the new generation of writers to which I belong, to the writers of our proletarian land building up socialism, the role of the October Revolution is especially important. Every line we have written is due to October, — the October Revolution gave birth to this literature as well as to all of us. Haven't we a great many writers, especially from amongst the petty-bourgeois intellectuals, who first began to write under the influence of the turbulent upheaval that shook the wearisome dullness of pre-revolutionary days? The changing world, the crash of the age old exploitation system, the evolving of a new socialist culture — all this has stirred up thoughts and feelings and stimulated action. The joyful shock suffered by our conscience when grasping suddenly the real meaning of things — this it is that made writers of many of us.

Soviet literature has still many difficult problems to solve. We have to overcome with in ourselves the elements of old individualistic tendencies in art, elements of formalism, of bourgeois estheticism which has nothing in common with the proletarian notion of beauty.

The decision of the Central Committee of the Union Communist Party on the reorganisation of all art bodies begins a new historic stage in the development of literature and art in the USSR, opening up wide perspectives to all writers who sincerely wish to participate in socialist construction.

There is not a single writer who could forget about the war danger threatening the Soviet Union. The greater the hatred that inspires our enemies, the dearer our love for our country, the steadier our belief in the justness of our chosen way, and in the impotence of our class work for the whole of toiling and exploited humanity. And all of us writers will if needed come
to the defence of our country, the only State of free socialist labour, free thought and tremendous, unheard-of constructive energy.

S. EISENSTEIN

Producer of "Potemkin", "October", "The General Line"

Since the October Revolution — fifteen years, my work as an artist — twelve.

Family traditions, upbringing and education prepared me for quite a different career.

I was destined to be an engineer.

But a subconscious and unformed striving towards art led me, even in engineering, not towards its mechanical and technical aspects but towards that which bordered most closely on the arts, — towards architecture.

However it needed the whirlwind onslaught of the Revolution to set me free from the inertia of a set course of action and to follow an inclination which by itself would never have struggled to the surface.

This is my first debt to the Revolution.

It needed the shattering of all foundations, a complete revolution in the outlook and principles of society, and, finally, two years of technical engineering on the northern and western red fronts, to enable a timid student to cast off the shackles of a plan marked out for him from the cradle by devoted parents, and sacrifice an almost completed education and assured future in order to throw himself into the uncharted seas of the arts.

From the front I return not to my unfinished career in Petrograd, but to Moscow to begin a new one.

And, although already the first distant thunders of approaching revolutionary art are raging all around, I, having wrung myself free for art, am completely taken up by art "in general".

At first my tie with the Revolution is purely external. But, armed with technical methods, I try with avidity to penetrate deeper and deeper into the first principles of art and creation, where I instinctively anticipate the same sphere of exact sciences for which my short apprenticeship as an engineer had given me so ardent an inclination.

The teachings of Pavlov, Freud, a season with Meyerhold, a disorderly and feverish filling up of the gaps in my knowledge in this new sphere, excessive reading and the first steps of independent "decorative" work as a regisseur in the theatre of the "Proletkult" — such is my struggle with the windmills of mysticism constructed by sycophants on the threshold of a technical mastery of art for those who wish to master the secrets of its laws by common sense.

The attack is less don-quixotic than it seemed at first. The arms of the windmill soon break, and gradually I begin to feel even in this mysterious region the one true dialectic, that of materialism.

I had long been a materialist in my natural bent.

At this stage something in common suddenly arises between what had been absorbing me in the process of analytical work and what is going on all around.

My pupils, not a little to my astonishment, call my attention to the fact that in expounding the arts I use the same methods as the teacher of political principles is using next door in expounding political and sociological problems.

This outward spur resulted in the aestheticians on my work-table being replaced by the dialecticians of materialism.

Warring 1922. A decade ago.

By means of philosophical study of the basic principles of Marxism, the experience acquired in individual experimental-creative work in a particular sphere of human activity is united with the experience of the human race in all aspects of its social activity.

But it doesn't end there. The Revolution, in the precepts of its inspired teachers,
already permeates my work in a different manner. The tie with the Revolution becomes a blood tie and organic. In creative work this is reflected in a transition from the completely rationalised but almost abstract theatrical eccentricities of "The Sage" — an adaptation of Ostrovsky's play "Every wise man is something of a fool" — through the propaganda placard-plays "Do you hear, Moscow?" and "Gas-masks", to the revolutionary film epics "Strikes" and "Potemkin". The striving towards a closer contact with the Revolution brings with it a tendency towards a still more profound inculcation of the methods of militant dialectical materialism into the arts. The following films as well as responding to immediate social problems are attempts at practical experiment in "giving immediate actuality to the secrets of the creative process and the possibilities of the cinema." This is the path necessary for mastering the most effective methods in revolutionary art, and for equipping with knowledge the generation of young bolsheviks destined to replace the film producers of the first five-years periods of the Revolution. The centre of gravity of my films "October" and "The General Line" is in their experimental-research work. With individual creation there is continuously interwoven practical work, mathematical, scientific, and pedagogical (the State Institute of cinematography). I am also writing a theoretical work on the fundamental principles of cinema art. My outlook on life may be considered as formed. The Revolution is accepted. My activity is devoted entirely to its interests. At this stage I went abroad. The outside world is the supreme test to which a Soviet citizen can be subjected by his biography. The test of free choice. The outside world is the supreme test for a man in the sense of being a conscious verification of what he is for and against. The outside world is the supreme test for a creative worker: can he, in general, create apart from the Revolution and continue to exist apart from it. Face to face with the golden mountains of Hollywood I too was subjected to this test. And I underwent it not in an attitude of haughty refusal of worldly delights and benefits, but by the modest organic refusal of my creative and constructive faculties to create in the conditions of a different social organisation and in the interests of a different class. In the impossibility of creating on the other side of the demarcation line dividing the classes was all the mighty strength and force of the proletarian Revolution, like a whirlwind annihilating all those who oppose it, and like an even more powerful whirlwind dominating those who once choose to throw their lot in with it. So acts, feels, and thinks every member of the pleiad of Soviet artists: many of us coming through Revolution to art, and all of us calling through art to Revolution. NATALIE SATZ Director and Art Supervisor of the Moscow Children's Theatre The October Revolution has opened up before the workers of art new horizons, wonderful in their grandiosity. Art which before the Revolution was accessible only to the chosen few, now called to the wide masses of the people. New peculiar flowers of creative genius grew on the new soil tilled by the October. If formerly the artist's initiative often had to struggle against insurmountable obstacles, then now every constructive manifestation of such initiative met with full support on the part of the State. I remember how 14 years ago as a girl I took passionately to the idea of creating
a new theatre, a theatre especially for children. There never had been such a theatre before. Sometimes, on holidays, performances for children were given, but these as a rule were rare and very poor. There were also theatrical companies, the enterprising managers of which exploited young child-artists. But one does not even want to mention all this when one comes to think about real art.

My idea was to create a special theatre which would carry great art to its little spectators, a theatre where the best playwrights, musicians and artists would create a new art—an art for children.

The performances in this theatre would be given daily and the young audience would come to it as to its new home—a home of joy.

And what at first seemed an unrealisable dream has come true. The opening of the Moscow Children’s Theatre was soon followed by the organisation of similar theatres in other cities of the Soviet Union. And now these theatres have become so tightly interwoven with the life of Soviet children that in the near future there will be not a single big city in the USSR without its own theatre for children.

One must bear in mind that these theatres require not only moral but also the material support of the State, as children pay only 40 copeks for a seat and part of the tickets are distributed free. Where, except the Soviet Union, could such a scale of organisation be possible?

I should also like to dwell upon the opportunities which the October Revolution has given to us women. There is now no field of activity, no leading post where a capable woman could not work as an equal of man.

I was not even fifteen, when the October Revolution enabled me to work on my favourite job. And now if I am the director, art supervisor and producer of the theatre I have created, could I ever separate all this from the soil which made my work possible?

A. GOLDENVEISER,
Professor of music at the Moscow Conservatory, Honourary Worker of Art

The art of music, one of the most powerful means for uniting the working masses, which can so easily do away with national and racial frontiers, has up to the present day served almost exclusively the privileged classes of society, and still remains inaccessible to the wide worker and peasant masses.

Only in the USSR has there been set before us musicians the task to acquaint the labouring masses with the finest examples of the musical heritage, and above all to create such music and to train such musicians and pedagogues who would be able to serve not only a small privileged group, but all the toilers both in the USSR and in the whole world.

A. KRAVCHENKO
Painter

In my studio, among easels and tools, I make pictures, woodcuts, engravings portraying revolutionary struggle and construction work, agitating for definite political ideas.

I think and feel sure that in my own way—with paint-brush and chisel—I help to build up socialism in the Soviet Union.

The tasks of Soviet art, tremendous as they are in their scope, demand from me first and foremost a true representation of contemporary life; therefore I must go personally to the building sites in order to witness everythings with my own eyes and to become imbued by the real enthusiasm and greatness of the construction.
I went to Dnieprostroy (a large series of my woodcuts are devoted to this huge project), visited many factories, and now I am thinking of spending some time in the Red Navy. Everywhere I find new themes, wonderful in their sharpness and artistic pathos.

I recall how the October days and the civil war inspired us artists. The Revolution poured new life into the senescent, formally-esthetic art of old Russia.

The Revolution gave entirely new themes to plastic arts. The enthusiasm, the pathos of struggle and construction proved a real source of inspiration for artists. Instead of pandering to the desires of the aristocracy and the bourgeoisie, the painter's work can now satisfy the demands of the working masses. We receive numerous orders from the Red Army, from our national galleries and museums, worker clubs, rest homes etc.

If in capitalist countries art is dying under pressure of the crisis, in the Soviet Union art lives an extremely intense and vigorous life. The artist fully realises his responsibility before the country and gives of his best in order to create works of the highest quality, with regard both to theme and technique.

We are not isolated from life. We stand in its very core. Ours is a militant art organisation and we are wholly confident that our work is as necessary for the Soviet Union as any other in the front of cultural revolution.
The opening of Dnieproges

J. Stalin's Message

To the chief of Dnieprostroy construction — Comrade Winter,
To the secretary of the Kichkas District Party Committee — Comrade Leibenson,
To the chairman of the District Committee of the Builders Union — Comrade Brovko.

I am sorry I could not comply with your request to be present at the opening of the Dnieper station. I could not possibly leave Moscow, on account of pressing business.

I warmly greet and congratulate the workers and the administration of Dnieprostroy on their successful completion of this great historical edifice.

I firmly shake hands with the shock-brigaders of Dnieprostroy, the glorious heroes of socialist construction.

J. Stalin.

Greeting from the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Ukraine to the Builders of the Dnieper Power Station

By their shock work the proletarians of Dnieprostroy under the guidance of the Party ensured the bolshevist tempo of construction of the largest hydro-electric station in the world and made the greatest contribution towards the realisation of the Leninist plan of electrification of the USSR.

The staff of workers and the guiding staff, the bolshevik and young communist organisations of Dnieprostroy furnished brilliant examples of the struggle for industrialisation and for the establishment of a new electric base for the socialist industries. The Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Ukraine heartily welcomes the advance detachment of the army of socialist builders — the workers, technicians, engineers, communists and young communists of Dnieprostroy — on the day the world giant power station is set into operation.

The Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Ukraine.

Dnieproges — The Lenin Dnieper Hydro-Electric Station — Is Operating

(From the report of the builders of Dnieprostroy)

Dnieproges has started. The Leninist plan of electrification, the plan of a genius, is now embodied in the gigantic constructions on the Dnieper. The offspring of the first Five-Year Plan — Dnieproges — is driving along the high-voltage transmission line — 450,000 H. P. — the cheapest electric power in the world. The greatest dam in the world — 760 metres long, 60 metres high, containing 720,000 cubic metres of concrete — has now cut across the powerful Dnieper.

Today the electric smelter for high-grade steel and the mechanical repair works 'Zaporozhstal' are being set into operation.

The current has been turned on. Dnieper is now working for socialism. We are confronted with the task of erecting the socialist works of the Dnieper industrial combine within the period fixed by the Party and the Government. Our task is to give the country in the nearest future cast iron, high-grade steel, rolled steel and Soviet aluminium. We shall complete the construction of the giant works of the Dnieper combine at the same speed as Dnieprostroy was erected, taking advantage of the experience gained in its construction.

Long live the Party of the bolsheviks and its Leninist militant Central Committee! Long live Comrade Stalin, the leader of the Party and of the working class!

Head of the combined Dnieper construction A. V. Winter.

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E. Gabriilovich. "1930".
On the Borderline of the Two Five-Year Plans

1932—1933. The completion of the first and the beginning of the second Five-Year Plan.

The idea of the Five-Year Plan—i.e., the socialist development of the USSR planned according to five-year periods—has now become a solid fact. The numerous theories, from the most "learned" to the most vulgar, which attempted to represent the plan as some fantastic invention, in their turn become utopian and visionary. The "engineering romance" turned out in fact to be a grandiose epopee of the birth of a new humanity on one sixth of the globe.

The first landmark in planned socialist construction, a landmark of historic significance, was Lenin's plan of electrification, the so-called "GOELRO" (the State electrification of Russia) plan. Lenin advanced this plan as one which would definitely transform backward tsarist Russia into a country of big socialist industry and mechanised agriculture. In a prophetic manner he determined the subsequent industrial development of Soviet Republics. The following is the draft of Lenin's plan which he outlined in his letter to G. Krzhizhanovsky: "Approximately: in 10 (5) years we shall build 20 to 30 (30 to 50) stations, so as to stud the whole country with power stations each with a power radius of 400 versts; they will be run on peat, water, slate, coal, oil. Let us immediately start purchasing the necessary machines and models. In 10 (20) years we shall make Russia an 'electrical' country."

At the present time the Soviet Union, the country of Dnieproges, Volkhov, Shterovka and other hydroelectric stations can put a new meaning into Lenin's words, said in 1921 in reply to those who were scoffing at the 12,000 odd kilowatts of the Soviet electric stations of those days: "He laughs best who laughs last."

From the GOELRO plan, through the first "control figures" of construction, through the first Five-Year Plan the USSR has arrived at the second Five-Year period, the period of building-up a classless society in the USSR.

Even the first year of the Five-Year Plan was described by J. Stalin as "a year of great changes". This was a year when the basic problems of building socialism in the USSR were solved. There took place "a resolute change as regards the productivity of labour", "the development of the creative initiative and powerful labour revival on the part of millions of workers". In the villages "we were successful in diverting the bulk of the peasants from the old capitalist path of development to a new socialist one" (J. Stalin, "The Year of Great Changes").

In the subsequent years (1930—1931) the problem "who will defeat whom" was finally settled in favour of socialism.

In this sense 1931 was the decisive year of the first Five-Year period just as 1932 marks the completion of the Five-Year Plan, when as a result of the industrialisation and the socialist reconstruction of agriculture "the industries were firmly established and thereby our own base for completing the reconstruction of the whole national economy has been created, a base of big socialist mechanised industry" (from the resolution of the XVIIth Conference of the All-Union Communist Party).

The fundamental aim of the first Five-Year Plan, its most important task has been realised. The agrarian country is being transformed into an industrial-agrarian one, and is developing the most important branches of heavy industry—electricity, metallurgy, machine building.

The Five-Year Plan of machine building provided for 1932/33 an output of production estimated at 4,351,000,000 rubles. Already in 1931 this plan was exceeded and the output of the machine building industries amounted to 4,700,000,000 rubles as against 350,000,000 rubles in 1912.

1 V. Lenin in his speech at the second Congress of the political-education committees definitely set the question "who will eat whom" in the struggle between socialist principles and the old capitalist order in the Soviet Republic.
The oil industry fulfilled its Five-Year Plan in two and a half years. Its output at the present time reaches 26.5 million tons, making the USSR the second largest producer of oil in the world.

The GOELRO plan estimated the building of power stations with a general capacity of 1,755,000 kilowatts within 10 years. Yet in 1932 alone we are setting into operation new stations having a total capacity almost equal to the entire GOELRO plan.

Some branches of industry have exceeded the figures laid down by the Five-Year Plan, as for instance coal, peat, chemical products, etc.

The following table shows how far the USSR is ahead in comparison with the industries of tsarist Russia:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>1913</th>
<th>1921</th>
<th>1922</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Power stations</td>
<td>590.6</td>
<td>777.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coal industry</td>
<td>196.7</td>
<td>296.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil industry</td>
<td>298.4</td>
<td>375.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machine building</td>
<td>679.7</td>
<td>1,141.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical engineering</td>
<td>870.9</td>
<td>1,903.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textile industry</td>
<td>146.8</td>
<td>176.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food industry</td>
<td>205.9</td>
<td>282.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the period of the first Five-Year Plan the USSR was constantly enriched by new material values, by new branches of industry, by new production. The following branches were developed in the course of the first Five-Year Plan on the basis of the reorganisation of the old factories and the construction of new ones: the production of mining and metallurgical equipment, manufacture of lathes, automobile and tractor production, small tool production, electrical engineering industry, chemical machine building, textile machine building, production of equipment for the oil industry, etc.

As regards the construction of lathes, there were no factories exclusively engaged in producing lathes both in the pre-revolutionary period and during the period of reconstruction. At the beginning of the first Five-Year Plan there were only three plants engaged in this work. In 1932 the output of lathes in those factories which form part of the "Stankobiedienie" (Lathes Association) exceeds the output of 1927-28 by almost 10 times.

The produce of the electrical engineering industry in 1932 exceeds by more than 5 times that of 1927-28.

The automobile and tractor industry was practically non-existent prior to the first Five-Year Plan. The entire automobile industry consisted of the "AMO" works in Moscow and the automobile repair workshops in Yaroslavl. In the first Five-Year Plan the "AMO" works was entirely reconstructed and is now capable of turning out 70,000 machines annually. A new automobile works was built in Gorky (Nizhny-Novgorod) which turns out 110,000 automobiles a year.

Tractor works, which formerly did not exist here at all, produced in 1927-28 1,332 tractors (the Putilov and the Kharkov locomotive plants). In the first Five-Year Plan an enormous tractor department at the Putilov works and two giant tractor works in Stalingrad and Kharkov were constructed. These last named have an annual production capacity of 50,000 tractors each.

The giant works in Soviet industries have become world famous. However, people do not always clearly realise what amount of material values, what store of human and technical energy, what immense changes in economies and in the consciousness of the workers as well as in their everyday life are implied in the words: Magnitostroy, Kuznetskstroy, Dnieproges, Karaganda.

Each of these industrial giants possesses its heroic biography, the main stages of
which are: the appearance in distant steppes and deserts of tens, hundreds and thousands of men who only yesterday were colonial slaves of labourers — Kazaks, Tatars, Ukrainians, Russians.

In the course of this great reconstruction process shepherds, labourers, earth-diggers are transformed into skilled workers, technicians, engineers. Their work in conditions of collective labour refashions their ideology, and enables them to study and to raise their cultural level. Instead of a slaughter between various nations, which typified the former contact between them in the days of tsarist Russia, fraternal relations are now established at the socialist construction, which unite all the nations of the Soviet Union.

It is only if we grasp the meaning of these day-to-day events that we will understand Stalin's words about labour, which in the USSR has become 'a matter of honour, of glory, of valour and of heroism'.

The most difficult task of the first Five-Year Plan, which however is successfully carried out, is that of the socialist reconstruction of agriculture in a backward agrarian country, in a country where the landlords exploited the peasants to the utmost and where the peasant masses were down-trodden and culturally backward. The relations between the big socialist industry and agriculture, between town and country, between the working class and the working peasants, such are the problems which the Five-Year Plan has solved in the course of collectivisation and liquidation of the capitalist elements during the period of transition from a small peasant economy to big mechanised socialist agriculture.

All-round collectivisation has changed not only the social form of agricultural production in the USSR but also its technical basis. In 1928 only 45,000 homesteads, or 18% of their total number, used mechanically-propelled machines. In 1932 over 6 million collectivised farmers, or about 25% of the total peasant population, have adopted large-scale agricultural production through the medium of machine and tractor stations.

The number of tractors used in agriculture increased during the Five-Year Plan from 24,000 to 167,000 and today has an energy of 2 million H.P. Of great significance is the fact that during the present year all the tractors used in agriculture as well as the new agricultural machines are made in the USSR.

The socialist reform of agriculture created a new type of industrial worker in agriculture. In place of the 1,675,000 agricultural workers and employees in 1928, there were 2,060,000 in 1931.

The Five-Year Plan has very rapidly increased the sown area in the Soviet
evaluating the conditions of the Soviet worker it is also necessary to take into consideration the fact that by January 1, 1932, 83% of the workers in Soviet industry enjoyed a seven-hour working day. Their cultural needs are catered for and they receive various benefits from the "funds for the improvement of the conditions of the workers", especially assigned for this purpose by each enterprise (not to mention social insurance). At the beginning of the Five-Year Plan it was estimated that the social insurance fund should reach 1,950,000,000 rubles by 1933. Yet it had already reached 2.5 milliard rubles by 1931.

We shall not dwell here on questions of cultural development during the first Five-Year Plan. We shall only mention the following facts. 1931 was a decisive year for the realization of the Five-Year Plan in industry and agriculture. In that year was likewise effected a decisive change in the attitude of the majority of our scientists and of the whole network of scientific research institutions toward the needs of socialist construction. During the whole period of the Five-Year Plan the number of scientists increased from 20,000 to 47,000, the number of aspirants from 7,000 to 24,000.

These figures show the enormous work done in moulding the new socialist worker. We must lay special stress on the raising of the cultural level in the national republics and regions.

The successes in carrying through the first Five-Year Plan created the possibility of a further considerable growth of socialism in the USSR.

Without going into the details of the second Five-Year Plan, which will be examined in special articles, we may indicate here only the main historical tasks of this Plan.

"The main political task of the second Five-Year Plan is the final liquidation of capitalist elements and classes in general, the final elimination of the causes giving rise to class differences and exploitation, and the overcoming of the survivals of capitalism in the economic sphere and in the consciousness of the people, the transformation of the whole working population of the country into active and conscious of their tasks builders of a classless social-

1 They are dealt with in a series of articles published in the preceding issue of our review.
decisive single literary it was a firmness the vanguard of everyday the of their workers improved immensely organisationally, rallying round the Communist Party, the vanguard of the revolutionary working class.

The achievements of the Five-Year Plan, attained thanks the enormous enthusiasm of all the toilers of the USSR, from the workers and collective farmers to the scientists and technicians, and, on the other hand, the rout of the capitalist forces and their allies within the Soviet Union played a decisive part in the passing over of the bulk of the intellectuals to the side of the revolutionary proletariat.

The active participation of the most prominent scholars, scientists and of the majority of the engineers, technicians, teachers, etc. in the construction of economics and culture, the reform of the All-Union Academy of Sciences, which has closely bound up its work with the plan of socialist construction, the creation of a mass organisation of Soviet intellectuals ("VARNITSO"), headed by the most prominent representatives of science and technique, the reconstruction of literary and art organisations which brought about the creation of a united Union of Soviet Authors, a single front of art embracing old and young proletarian artists, born of the Revolution — all these events are the result of the passing over of the best forces of the intelligentsia into the camp of the socialist Revolution.

The development of these events beyond the boundaries of the Soviet Union are likewise of the greatest importance. Suffice it to mention the Amsterdam Anti-War Congress, which has rallied the best section of the intelligentsia and of the working class of the West to the cause of the defence of the Soviet Union against the menace of war.
It is obvious that all this does not yet remove the danger of war, which is being planned against the land of the Soviets. "The first home of socialism" is surrounded by "an ocean of imperialist countries" (J. Stalin). The USSR is a country which is "hampering the organisation of a new war" (J. Stalin), i.e. a country preventing the capitalists from finding a way out of the crisis, such as in their opinion is most advantageous for them.

Lenin used to write about "the great mystery" which surrounds the birth of imperialist war. He demanded that this mysterious mechanism of war be ruthlessly exposed before the masses of the people. At the present time the exposure of the preparations for war, the welding of all forces for the struggle against the war menace, is the first duty of all the friends of the Soviet Union.

Henri Barbusse wrote recently: "When I arrived in the USSR I felt that it was worth living and that there is something worth fighting for."

Yes, there is something worth fighting for on the part of 160 million people, who at the price of great sacrifices and by means of great heroism have come to the threshold of a classless socialist society, to the realisation of the second Five-Year Plan. There is something worth fighting for as regards all the workers of the world, all the representatives of the intelligentsia, who become more and more convinced that capitalism, which is undergoing a crisis and suffering failures in every walk of life, is unable to find a way out of the impasse, for history has laid down that this new path can only be the one elected by the USSR, the first proletarian State in the world.

DEATH OF D. I. KURSKY

Dmitri Ivanovich Kursky, former People's Commissary of Justice of the RSFSR and Soviet Ambassador to Italy, died in the Kremlin hospital of Moscow of blood poisoning at 9 p. m. December 20, 1932.

D. Kursky was one of the oldest revolutionists of Russia. Already in the nineteenth, as a student of the Law school of the Moscow University, he joined the labour movement. He took part in the armed uprising in Moscow in 1905, and was chairman of the Soviet of Soldiers' Deputies in February 1917 and member of the Odessa Revolutionary Committee during the October days.

After the Revolution D. Kursky devoted himself to the field of Soviet jurisprudence. He was the one to organise the first People's Courts in Moscow. While directing the practical work of the organs of Justice, he devoted much attention to the theoretical problems of law and of the State. He was the director of the Institute of Soviet Law, editor of a number of journals and periodicals, and author of important scientific works. From 1918 to 1928 he held the post of People's Commissary of Justice of the RSFSR. In the latter year he was appointed Ambassador of the USSR to Italy, on which post he remained until October 1932."

"A Marxian education and devotion to the cause of labour enabled D. I. Kursky to carry out with honour the duties of organising the organs of Justice and develop the Soviet legislation where his role in socialist construction was especially significant and where he was the closest and truest assistant of Lenin. The memory of D. Kursky will live for many years among the working class and the great toiling masses" — so ends the letter signed by Stalin, Molotov, Kalinin, Kuibyshev, Voroshilov, Kaganovich, Ordjonikidze, Rudzutak, Andreev and Mikoyan, and published in the Moscow "Izvestia".
The 15th Anniversary of the October Revolution

NOVEMBER 7, 1932, IN THE USSR

MOSCOW

The Red Square, the heart of the old capital, was for ten hours the central point of the festival. Here the troops paraded in fine order, here from all parts of the city the columns of demonstrators were converging—an endless procession studded with red posters and flags. One and a half million this day marched the streets of the capital, one and a half million past through the flag decorated square, past the building of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR, on the wall of which hung gigantic portraits of Lenin and Stalin. The central streets, through which the procession passed, were transformed into colourful exhibitions. Photographs, diagrams, posters in the shop windows, tableaux and entire constructions on squares, street crossings, boulevards. In the windows of the shops in Gorky Street works of Soviet painters were exhibited. A huge steamer built so as to cover the whole length of the former Hunters' Row symbolises the construction of the Volga—Moscow River Canal.

The procession was headed by the heroes of socialist construction, the best mills: "Electric Plant", "Three Mountains Factory", "Dynamo". On the left wing of the Mausoleum, there appeared Stalin, Kalinin, Molotov, Yenukidze, Ordjonikidze, Postyshev, Andreyev.

A voice from the tribune rings out: "Greetings to the fighters for the Five-Year Plan!" A great "hurrah" is the reply. Over a sea of human heads there are clouds of flags, posters, red streamers bearing revolutionary slogans, portraits of the best shock brigaders, caricatures, carnival masks, trophies of industrial victories: models and diagrams. 15 big rubber balloons held by strings soar over the column of the "Kauchuk" (Rubber) works. The first one, bearing the inscription "1917", approaches the Mausoleum. There it is released and rises high up in the air. It is followed by a second, marked "1918", and so on, until the last one with the inscription 1932 is released.

In the evening the city was flooded with electric light. Gigantic electric slogans and silhouettes of revolutionary leaders glittered high in the air. Blue rays of search lights glided through the sky. Rockets, shot from aeroplanes, flew high into the heavens.

A fleet of boats spread fountains of fireworks on the Moscow River. The streets and squares were crowded. Until the morning hours the capital was full of life.

LENINGRAD

Exactly at 10 a.m. a fifteen volley salute announcing the beginning of the military parade was fired from the towers of the Peter-and-Paul fortress. An orderly line of troops stretched over the Uritsky square. At 1 p.m. the troops were replaced by columns of civilian demonstrators. The huge square was swamped under the endless flow of people. All eight districts of the city of Lenin pass simultaneously past the tribune, where greeting them are members of the government, delegates from all corners of the Union and from abroad.

At the head of the column from the Vyborg district the figure of Lenin towers on an armoured car,—a counterpart of the monument erected at the Finland Station. Factories and works report on their achievements by means of figures, diagrams, models.

The festive columns do not contain a single enterprise which by the XVth anniversary of the October Revolution did not enrich the country by new achievements, by new machines. The workers of the "Electric" plant carry a model of the first Soviet electric smelting bloomers which they have just manufactured. A blast engine, the first to be manufactured in the USSR, has been produced at the Lenin Works. The Leningrad wharves have completed by the XVth anniversary new ocean liners. The endless lines of the October procession relate of all these achievements.
November 7, 1932, in Moscow. On the Red Square

The straight avenues and wide squares of Leningrad were decorated by thousands of flags, posters, portraits of leaders and heroes of the Revolution. Streets which 15 years ago witnessed the march of the first shock detachments of the October uprising are now the scene of a picturesque and victorious march of the Revolution from the storming of the Winter Palace to the setting into operation of the Dnieper power station.

KHARKOV

November 7th was a sunny day in the Ukrainian capital. There is an abundance of slogans, flags and posters. Demonstrations are moving along the Dzerzhinsky Square, which was built this year. The detachments of the Red Army are followed by tens of thousands of working men and women, students, scholars, professors, engineers. From the tribune of the government, Petrovsky, President of the Central Executive Committee of Ukraine, Kossior, General Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Ukraine, and others greet the workers and collective farmers of Soviet Ukraine—the bulwark of creative socialist labour.

MAGNITOGORSK

The XVth anniversary of the October Revolution is only the third anniversary which has been celebrated at the Red Square of Magnitogorsk. By the XVth anniversary of the October Revolution two coking furnaces were set into operation at the three years old Magnitostroy and have already exceeded their estimated capacity. Rolling mills and blast furnaces are in construction. The chemical works has been completed. The workers of Magnitostroy reported these victories to J. Stalin, the leader of the proletariat of the Soviet Union.

The procession was headed by the workers of the blast furnaces, who, during the days preceding the celebration, attained a record figure in the smelting of cast iron, and by the workers of the coking ovens, who also reached record figures in their production.

KICHKAS

Over 1,000 of the best shock brigaders from the biggest industrial centres of the USSR as well as numerous delegations of foreign workers came here to celebrate the XVth anniversary, together with Dnieprostroy workers. A festive plenum of the town Soviet was held, attended by Party, trade union and social organisations, and by shock workers. The plenum pledged itself to carry out the directives of the government and of the Party and to set into operation one after the other all the sections of the Dnieper Combinat within the shortest possible period.

500 delegates of the Mendeleyev Congress, who visited the Dnieper power station, sent a letter to the builders of the Combinat, in which they promised to apply all their efforts for the successful completion of the construction of socialism.

TASHKENT

Here, after a military parade, there took place a demonstration of the Tashkent proletariat in which 200,000 workers took part.

A contingent representing the Selmasli plant carried an agricultural machine whose work was demonstrated on the spot. The demonstration was attended by an enormous number of native collective farmers. They marched under the music of their national Uzbek instruments.

The demonstration was attended by the Kirghizes, Turkomen, Afghans, Persians and by guests—the representatives of the West-European proletariat.
ONWARD TO NEW VICTORIES!

(From the speech delivered by M. Kalinin, President of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR, at a solemn sitting of the Moscow Soviet in honour of the October anniversary)

Fifteen years ago Lenin stated in the Petrograd Soviet: "Henceforward a new period begins in the history of Russia, the third Revolution in the final analysis is bound to lead to the victory of socialism."

The enormous majority of people all over the world regarded this idea at the time as a phantasy, as a groundless prophecy. Only the revolutionary Marxists could discern in it a profound analysis of the relations of class forces. They understood the historic duty of the revolutionary party before the world proletariat to fulfil its task. And the party led by Lenin began its war with the old world for socialism.

On the fourth anniversary, Lenin wrote as follows: "We are about to graduate from the kindergarten as regards the new science. Well and consistently learning, checking by practical experience everyone of our steps, without being afraid to refashion that which was started, repeatedly correcting our mistakes, carefully examining their significance, we shall pass on to higher forms."

Since these words were uttered we have been studying for eleven years. This path of self-education has not been strewn with roses. Every victory demanded enormous efforts and enormous will power. As a result, we have now achieved considerable successes in this strenuous work.

We observe in our country an exceptional growth and perfection of heavy industry and of the means of production. The victories on this front are enormous, however hard our enemies try to minimise them. Every sensible man will understand that the construction of the Magnitogorsk and Kuznetsk plants are important not only on account of their material values but also on account of the enormous accumulation of experience in organisation, of technical knowledge, and on account of the rapid growth in the number of industrial workers, all of which was of course lacking and could not but be lacking in old Russia.

It is impossible to pass over in silence our achievements in the industry of mass production: tractor works are releasing hundreds of tractors every day; the technique of the automobile industry has been fully mastered; the electrical industry has increased manifold and has improved in point of quality; agricultural machine building has for the first time been organised. I do not mention here the hydroelectric stations. The completion of Dnieprostroy and the early completion of Svirstroy and Rionges by the end of the year, these speak for themselves.

In agriculture we have to overcome age-long superstitions and ignorance. Apart from agriculture proper we had to lift up the poorest and middle peasants who are overwhelmed by everyday needs. The liquidation of the kulaks as a class, the collectivisation of the bulk of the peasantry, such are the tasks, the solution of which is in itself an enormous achievement.

Our demands on agriculture have increased enormously.

We observe an exceptional growth of industrial cities. Cities with a population of hundreds of thousands are transformed into cities with a population running into millions. New cities with a population of hundreds of thousands have been founded.

It is obvious that the old industrial sector in agriculture, in spite of its great

M. Kalinin, president of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR.
achievements, could not satisfy the increased demands made on it. Only big industry could cope with it.

The associations of peasants, the collective farms, lead to larger economies, and it is they in common with the State farms which are capable of satisfying the daily growing requirements of the ever-increasing city population.

Striking figures illustrate the development of our culture. In this respect we were inferior to all other European countries. Suffice it to mention that according to the old-Russian census of 1897 only 22.3% of the population could read and write. At the present time we are well on the way to achieving a 100% literacy. We can state with full assurance that in two or three years this will be attained. The magnitude of this task is exemplified by the fact that the USSR possesses nations which until recently possessed a literacy of only 2 or 3%.

The growth of culture is likewise exemplified by the increased circulation of newspapers. In 1913 the total circulation of newspapers amounted approximately to 2.5 million copies, in 1932 — to 33 million copies. Our political education system embraces tens of millions of people. Only a workers' government can allow itself the luxury of teaching political science to millions of people. Only a government of this nature can find it to its advantage to possess a politically educated population, for the more that education is spread the stronger will be the Soviet regime.

It is impossible to pass over in silence the development of national cultures, national in point of form but socialist in content. The toiling nations inhabiting the Soviet Union are not only free from the terror of imperialist oppression and dissensions but have become the actual builders of their future.

The Soviet Union has achieved definite and concrete results in the struggle for peace: the conclusion of a number of pacts of non-aggression — with Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Poland and other States. There is hope of concluding such a pact with France.

Our policy remains unchanged — with all available means we shall struggle for peace among nations and in the words of J. Stalin “we do not covet one inch of foreign soil, but neither shall we give up one inch of our own”.

When summing up everything that has been done we see that we can boldly face the future. If we want to win the final victory we must in future keep Lenin's flag flying, and keep it pure and immaculate. Under this flag, under the guidance of J. Stalin, onward to new victories!

November 7, 1932, in Moscow. The meeting in the Grand Theatre. In the front row fourth from left K. Voroshilov, next to him V. Molotov and J. Stalin
WE SHALL CONTINUE OUR POLICY OF PEACE

(From the speech of K. Voroshilov, People's Commissary for Army and Navy, USSR, delivered at the Red Square, Moscow, November 7, 1932)

Fifteen years ago the working class, together with the peasantry under the tried leadership of the Communist Party, and guided by the greatest of men, Lenin, proved victorious in the struggle for the cause of labour, for socialism.

No doubt, if a miracle had taken place and our brave working class would have afforded a possibility immediately after the October Revolution to embark on the construction of socialism — and the struggle has been conducted precisely for that purpose — our successes would have been many times greater. We would by now have not only completed the foundation of our great socialist structure, but would now perhaps be erecting more storeys of that wonderful unparalleled socialist construction. However, in spite of the enormous sacrifices, in spite of rivers of blood shed in the struggle for the right to socialist labour, in spite of the fact that in this struggle we have lost many of the best men from among the working class, in spite of the fact that our country, which had already been ruined by war and badly organised, has been still further ruined, — in spite of all this the results of our fifteen years' creative work are truly colossal.

At the same time everything that we are now observing in the capitalist world goes to prove that the old world has outlived its usefulness, that it is no longer capable of coping with inner contradictions, necessitated by the course of history, and that it is incapable of overcoming them.

The leaders and guiding spirits of the bourgeoisie are unable to offer a single efficacious means, which could point out to the capitalists even a temporary way out of the impasse. The only panacea they envisage is a new war, a new redistribution of the world.

We can once more state today that the peaceful policy of our State, which has been proved by deeds every day throughout the fifteen years of our rule, remains the same.

None of the States big or small can assert that the Soviet government has made any attempts either on its independence or on the integrity of its territory.

The Red Army, the armed stronghold of the workers and peasants, which is vigilantly protecting the frontiers of the Soviet country, is a trusty pledge of the integrity, strength and safety of the cause of the workers and peasants. Its strength consists not only in its iron organisation, not only in its arms, — its strength consists in that it is flesh and blood of the workers and peasants themselves, that its interests are identical with those of the country of the victorious proletariat and that its gospel is Marxism-Leninism. The Red Army is the only army in the world which knows what it is fighting for. It knows that its ideals are those of the whole of mankind.

Let the adventurous organisers of future wars always bear this in mind! Let them not provoke the proletarian State and its workers' and peasants' Red Army! We do not propose to go to war, but we shall never allow anyone to make an attempt on the integrity of our territory. Our frontiers are sacred and inviolable. They have been won by the blood of our workers and peasants, and we shall never, under any circumstances allow anyone to invade them.
Topics of the Day

ANGLO-SOVIET TRADE

By A. Kudriavtsev

Throughout the period of their development extending over more than ten years the economic relations between the Soviet Union and Great Britain have been affected by two factors which are diametrically opposed to each other.

On the one hand the business groups of England, particularly the industrial ones, are directly interested in consolidating and extending their connection with the Soviet market. The number of industrial enterprises interested in Soviet orders has greatly increased during the last three years. The resumption in 1929 of diplomatic relations between the USSR and Great Britain and the conclusion of the Anglo-Soviet trade agreement soon after, in 1930, favourably affected the trade relations. But it is quite obvious that the real factor which determined the notable growth of Anglo-Soviet trade in the course of the last three years has been the powerful economic development of our country, particularly the successful fulfillment of the industrialisation programme which caused an increase of orders for industrial equipment.

On the other hand the development of trade relations between England and the USSR has been constantly meeting with opposition on the part of certain political groups in England which are making every effort to disrupt Anglo-Soviet trade by one means or another. These circles rallied around the most irreconcilable section of the conservative party, the “diehards”, and readily sacrifice the immediate economic interests of Great Britain itself in the name of those political aims by which they are guided. These consist of a programme calling for the economic and political isolation of the Soviet Union with a view to the organisation subsequently of an anti-Soviet blockade and armed intervention.

The diehards not only sacrifice the vital economic interests of England which demand the utmost extension of trade relations with the USSR, but in the very consolidation of these trade relations see something contradicting their political plans. They realise that the consolidation and development of the economic connections between the USSR and the capitalist world strengthen the USSR, whose sworn enemies they are. They are also aware of the fact that the extension of the economic connections between the Soviet Union and the capitalist world leads to the strengthening of peace, which is again contrary to the plans of these inciters of new wars.

That is why in 1924 the diehards came out with their notorious fabrication which has entered history under the name of the “Zinoviev letter”. That is also why in 1927, while in power, through the instrumentality of the famous Joyson Hicks and Ousten Chamberlain they caused the rupture of diplomatic relations with the USSR at the very moment when Anglo-Soviet trade relations reached their highest point of development. And that is also why in 1932 the diehards brought about the denunciation of the Anglo-Soviet trade agreement of 1930.

It is the object of this article to give a brief review of Anglo-Soviet trade during the last period. It will be readily seen from it that the latest blow at Anglo-Soviet trade, expressed in the British government’s communication of October 17th denouncing the trade agreement, coincides also this time with a notable growth of Anglo-Soviet trade, a growth which is the more striking since it is taking place on a background of a general disastrous decline of the world trade.

It will be remembered that the national economy of Great Britain has been in a state of continuous depression ever since the end of the war. The world crisis only aggravated and sharpened to the highest degree the phenomena of permanent depression which could have been observed in England earlier as well. Thus the huge army of unemployed has become something immanent, as it were, to British economics. During 1921 and 1927, the “best” years in England, unemployment never fell below the million mark. In 1930 the unemployment figure rose to 1,900,000 and in 1931
to 2,700,000, while at the present time, despite the so-called "means test" rigidly enforced by the "National Government", the number of unemployed is close to 3 million, a record figure even for England.

Another indication of the grave crisis of British economic life is the continual decline of British exports testifying to the serious degradation of the position of British industry. This has resulted in a growing deficit of foreign trade year in and year out. In 1930 England had an adverse trade balance of 386,000,000 pounds sterling, and in 1931 this deficit reached the monstrous sum of 411,000,000 pounds.

Up to 1931 this enormous deficit was made up by revenues from the export of capital as well as from the invisible export. Thus in 1929 the net revenue of British capitalists from foreign investments amounted to 250 million pounds. The net revenue of British shipping companies amounted to 130 million pounds, etc. However, already in 1930 these items of national revenue sharply declined. This resulted in a phenomenon quite unprecedented in the economic history of Great Britain: in 1931 the country for the first time not only had an adverse trade balance but also an adverse payment balance. The deficit of the payment balance in 1931 reached the impressive sum of 75,000,000 pounds sterling. A tremendous role in the reduction of the revenues of British banks from foreign investments has been played by the general crisis of world finance, particularly by the condition of practical bankruptcy in which the Latin-American countries and a number of Central-European States have found themselves, with enormous British investments frozen there.

The condition of British industry is particularly grave. The output of many of the key industries has sharply declined and is far behind the pre-war level. Thus the average monthly production of coal in 1931 amounted to 19,000 tons against 24,000 tons in 1913. The figures for steel are 430,000 and 640,000 respectively, and for iron 313,000 and 855,000. The textile industry too is in desperate straits. While in 1913 British textile mills used 167,000,000 pounds of cotton per month, in 1931 the figure dropped to 81,000,000. The ocean tonnage launched in 1931 amounted to \( \frac{1}{4} \) of the 1913 tonnage, the decline continuing in 1932 at the same rate.

Under these conditions England's economic interests imperatively demanded an extension of trade relations with the Soviet Union which, on the background of the general decline of the world trade, is the only country whose trade with England has continued to grow even during these crisis years. In contrast to a number of other countries with which England is trading, the trade with the Soviet Union presents a number of specific advantages to England. The British national economy is not only interested in the USSR as an important customer who keeps a number of British industries working at a higher level, especially engineering; British economy, if we take into consideration not merely the narrow interests of capitalist groupings but those of the great masses, is interested likewise in the development of Soviet export to England. Indeed, if for instance French export to England has a purely consumptive character and largely consists of luxury goods—expensive wines, fruit, flowers, perfume, etc.,—which are consumed by the parasitic classes, the export of the USSR to England consists solely of industrial raw materials and fuel (oil, wood, fur) and some foodstuffs (wheat and other grain products). The competition of Soviet grain products with American and Argentine grain which previously monopolised the British market leads to the cheapening of these products, which is entirely in the interests of the British toiling masses.

Therefore it is not in the least surprising that Soviet exports to England have grown in recent years. To be more exact, the share of the USSR in the general British imports has increased. Indeed, while in 1929 British imports from the USSR amounted to a total of 26,500,000 pounds sterling, in 1930 it reached 34,250,000 pounds sterling and in 1931—32,200,000 pounds. Thus, in absolute figures the import for 1931 even declined somewhat. To be sure, this was due to the general absolute reduction of British imports which amounted in 1931 to 862,000,000 pounds sterling against 1,044,000,000 pounds in 1930. But while in 1929 Soviet imports to England constituted 2.17% of the total British imports, in 1930 it amounted to 3.28% and in 1931 to 3.77%.

As regards British exports to the USSR, here we have a growth both as regards its proportion to the export from other countries and as regards its absolute value. Thus, in 1929 British exports to the USSR, according to the figures of the British Board of Trade, amounted to 3,750,000 pounds sterling, in 1930 to 6,772,000, and in 1931
to 7,120,000 pounds sterling. The share of British export taken by the USSR amounted to .51% in 1929, 1.18% in 1930 and 1.83% in 1931.

The principal articles of Soviet export to England are grain, which accounted for about 28% of the total value of the Soviet export to England in 1931, timber, which holds the second place in Soviet export to England, oil and furs.

As regards Soviet import from England, the USSR, as already indicated above, distributed chiefly in England orders for industrial machinery as well as some grades of industrial raw materials and semi-finished products. Between 1929 and 1931 the value of Soviet orders for industrial machinery in England mounted considerably. While in 1929 these orders were valued at 2,300,000 pounds sterling, in 1930 they rose to 3,600,000 and in 1931 reached 9,000,000 pounds.

To give an idea of the importance which Soviet orders have gained to the different leading British industries, it is sufficient to state that in 1931 the export of lathes to the USSR constituted 61.6% of the entire British export of these machines. Most of the large British lathe building companies in 1931 worked almost exclusively on Soviet orders. Had it not been for this custom this industry would have experienced the gravest crisis.

Of no small importance were our orders also to British electrical and boiler industries. The Soviet share of the British export of electrical equipment in 1931 amounted to 21.1%, and of the British boiler export to 23%.

Big orders were placed also with the British engineering industry (mining, transport, power, mechanical and metallurgical equipment). The Soviet import of British machines of these nomenclatures grew from 87,000 pounds sterling in 1929 to 2,300,000 pounds in 1930.

Among the industrial raw materials the main articles of Soviet import from England are non-ferrous metals, rubber, raw textiles (wool and jute).

This brief and entirely incomplete review of Soviet-British trade furnishes however sufficient material for the conclusion that if the development of this trade corresponds to the economic interests of the USSR which is successfully carrying out its programme of socialist industrialisation, no less obvious is it that the economic interests of England, whose industries are operating far below capacity and which is suffering from huge unemployment, imperatively dictate the development of trade with the USSR.

In England a vigorous struggle is taking place between the two tendencies mentioned at the beginning of this article, a struggle between the dichards who seek to renovate the old tales about Soviet dumping, forced labour, etc., and who dream of the organisation of an international bloc for an economic struggle against the Soviet Union, — and the business groups which are anxious to conclude a trade agreement with the USSR in place of the treaty recently abrogated by the British government, and secure a considerable extension of the system of long term credits for the trade with the USSR.

The further development of the Anglo-Soviet economic relations will depend upon the outcome of the struggle between these two tendencies.
The Soviet State, from the very first days of its existence, had proclaimed as its historic task the creation of the new school, the "transformation of the school from a weapon of class rule into a weapon for the total abolition of the division of society into classes, into a weapon for the communist regeneration of society".

Lenin — with his habitual lucidity and sharpness — defined in a number of statements the social and ideological nature of the old school. He vigorously assailed those who maintain that within the framework of the class society the school can keep "outside of politics", declaring such views to be false and hypocritical.

In full conformity with the Leninist conception, the Soviet school had to destroy the old school system which had for its purpose — to use Lenin's expression — "to furnish willing slaves to capitalism". On the other hand, the Soviet school, in common with other branches of cultural construction, must be guided by what Lenin said as regards the mastery of the cultural heritage of the past, critically utilising all the stores of knowledge accumulated by mankind.

The declaration of the Soviet Government on popular education that was published soon after the October Revolution, and the subsequent decree on the separation of the church from the State and the establishment of the uniform labour school, laid down the basic principles of the new Soviet system of popular education.

Its basic principles are: the Soviet school is a labour school of two degrees with the free promotion of the pupil graduating from the first degree into the second. This school is uniform in its programme of tuition, with co-education for boys and girls throughout the educational system. The organisation of the school, in contradistinction to the harsh discipline of the tsarist school, is based upon cultivating in the children a conscious attitude to their work, especially along the line of self-government by the children. Such are the basic principles concerning the school that were laid down by the Soviets immediately after October.

The chief task of the Soviet system of popular education is to carry into effect the idea of the polytechnical school.

It is necessary to dwell somewhat on the very concept of the polytechnical school. This idea, as is known, was first formulated by Karl Marx and it was evolved as the result of a scientific analysis of English legislation on child labour (in the first half of the XIXth century). Having pointed
out already in the "Communist Manifesto" the importance of "combining education with material production, Marx dealt more fully with this proposition in the first volume of "Capital", where he drew the following conclusions: "Out of the factory system, as it may be traced from the work of Robert Owen, there grew the embryo of the education of the future, which will combine for all children, beginning with a certain age, productive labour with teaching and gymnastics, while this will be not only a method for increasing social production, but also the only method of promoting an all-round education for the people". In the resolution of the 1st Congress of the First International, Marx gave a complete outline of the school of the future "under a rational order of society". We give below a quotation from this exceedingly interesting resolution, which was jointly drawn up by Marx and Engels:

"By education we understand three things: 1) mental training; 2) physical development which is given by gymnastic and military exercises; 3) technical education, which introduces one to the general scientific principles of all processes of production and at the same time imbues the child and the adolescent with practical knowledge in the handling of elementary tools in all processes of production."

These ideas of the founders of Marxism were the basis of the corresponding part of the programme of the Communist Party drawn up by Lenin, in which the demands are formulated for "the introduction of free and compulsory, universal and technical education (imparting both theoretical and practical training in the principal processes) for all children of either sex up to the age of seventeen". The programme lays down the principles for a school which "closely combines teaching with socially productive labour, which gives all-round training to future members of the communist society".

Lenin repeatedly dealt with this question in his speeches and written articles. In 1920, in his comments on the theses of N. Krupskaya on polytechnical education, Lenin emphasised that the aim of the polytechnical system is "to pass on to the education, teaching, and training of people of all-round skill who can do everything".

In these comments Lenin explains the substance of the polytechnical school, pointing out that it should give the children systematic knowledge in the fundamentals of science, acquaint them with the chief branches of socialist construction, and teach them to apply the knowledge gained to any branch of construction.

Such are the ideas of Marx, Engels, and Lenin, by which the building up of the school system in the Soviet Union is being guided.

The results of 15 years of cultural work, and especially the development of the school in the USSR, indicate that regardless of all difficulties, regardless of the entire novelty of the Soviet school system, which is carried out moreover in a country with a barbaric heritage, the Soviet school has attained huge successes.

There was newly built up a system of pre-school education which did not exist to any appreciable degree in tsarist Russia. Universal education in the mother tongue was introduced. Professional technical schools were established on a large scale. Let us recall the fact that whereas before the Revolution, in 1914/15, the school system covered 7.8 million children, in 1932 the Soviet schools were already attended by upwards of 20 million children. The number of students in the universities and technical schools during the same period has risen from 390,000 to 3.5 million.

The new, young generation of the Revolution takes energetic part in the creation of the new school. It suffices to point to the active part played in the building up of the school by the young pioneers and Komsomol organisations.

The development of the Soviet school through all its stages harbours within itself tremendously important social and cultural processes. A new intelligentsia is emerging and growing from the ranks of the working class and the toiling peasantry. The Revolution has given them the facilities to learn, to raise their cultural level, to acquire the knowledge necessary to conscious builders of a new society. It suffices to refer to the system of workers' faculties which originated upon the initiative of one of our leading revolutionary savants, the late academician M. Pokrovsky, which opened the doors of higher education to tens of thousands of the working class.

The intelligentsia of the old school, realising more and more clearly the world-historic significance of the successes of socialism in the USSR, are joining more and more widely the ranks of the active workers of the Soviet Union. In the USSR, for the first time in the history of mankind, science, emancipated from the necessity
of subordinating creative work to the interests of human exploitation, has been entirely placed at the service of the working class, at the service of socialism.

The representatives of the highest seat of science in the country, the members of the USSR Academy of Sciences have become familiar figures on all the fronts of socialist construction. Academicians are attending all the important new constructions on the Dniepr, in the steppes of the Volga, in the Urals, and in the extreme subpolar regions. In the course of four years the number of scientific workers has doubled, and the budget of the USSR Academy of Sciences has increased five times.

It is generally known that in all the capitalist countries, under the destructive crisis with its 40 million unemployed, the development of science and technics has been arrested. Technical retrogression is now becoming the watchword of capitalism. Research institutes and laboratories are being shut down together with factories and plants. Scientists and intellectuals are swelling more and more the ranks of the unemployed.

A different picture obtains in the country of Soviets whose supreme endeavour is to promote the further development of knowledge. The USSR, a country of flourishing forces of production, a country that is re-equipping its entire economy upon the basis of new technique, opens such vistas before science, before scientific workers, engineers and technicians, such opportunities for creative work as were never known in human history.

It stands to reason that the demands made upon scientific and technical workers are growing tremendously in a country that is upon the threshold of building up a society without social classes. New scales and new quality of scientific work are dictated by the building of gigantic industrial combines, by the necessity of mastering the technique of latest machinery and tools in industry and in agriculture. In no lesser degree are these demands raised by our cultural construction, by the task of socialist education for the millions. The struggle for cadres implies the struggle for training such people as would be "all-round educated builders of the new society", as Lenin said.

Such are the vistas of practical work in the USSR as regards the practical training of cadres.

It is not surprising, therefore, that the XVIIth Conference of the Communist
Party of the USSR, in drawing up the basic outline of the second Five-Year Plan, laid such emphasis upon the problem of quality in the training of cadres. "The quantitative growth of technical cadres in the Soviet Union, says the resolution of the XVIth Conference, "should in no way minimise the importance of the question as to their scientific qualification, as to the obligatory study by them of all the basic achievements of world science and technics. The solving of the problem of technical cadres is the most essential element of the bolshevist fulfilment of the tasks of the cultural revolution and the successful building up of socialism. The quickest possible achievement of universal literacy, the quickest raising of the whole level of technical education, and the strongest material support by the State to the development of science in the USSR — these are the immediate tasks of socialist construction in our country.

Now that the country has entered into the second Piatiletka, the struggle for the quality of cadres, and especially for the quality of school work in all its stages, has been put on the order of the day by the leading organs in the Soviet Union.

During the last year a number of decisions were made on school matters: the decision of the Central Committee of the CPSU on September 5th, 1931, "On elementary and secondary schools", the decision of the same body on August 25th, 1932, "On school programmes and regime in elementary and secondary schools", and lastly, the decision of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR on September 19th, 1932, "On school programmes and regime in higher schools and technicums".

All these decisions have recorded tremendous successes in the extension and reorganisation of the school system: radical change in the social composition of the pupils, the development of teaching in the mother tongue (education in the USSR is being conducted in 70 languages), and lastly, imbuing with new ideological content the whole system of school work. The school gives to the children an infinitely wider socio-political outlook, as well as general development, than was given by the prerevolutionary school.

Similar successes were achieved also by the higher schools and technicums both in regard to social composition and development and specialisation of the higher schools. In a number of essential branches of national economy, such as light and heavy industry, timber industry, agriculture, and railways, the number of higher technical schools has increased five times during the last four years. Thus, the higher school has obtained a mighty basis for the training of such specialists as would be equal to the level of the tasks of technical reconstruction of the entire national economy under the second Five-Year Plan.

The recent decisions, in outlining the new tasks that are dictated by the growth of national economy and culture, criticise at the same time the defects which our schools must eliminate in order to cope successfully with the complex demands made by the present stage in socialist construction.

In the decision of the Central Committee of the CPSU on September 6th, 1931, on the elementary and secondary schools, referring to Lenin's thesis that "one can become a communist only after having
enriched his memory with the knowledge of all those rich values that were worked out by mankind, stress was laid on the fundamental defect of our school, despite all the successes achieved in recent years. "School does not give a sufficient grasp of general science", it is pointed out in the resolution, "nor train students for the higher school and technicums possessing a fair knowledge of fundamentals of science (physics, chemistry, mathematics, language, geography, etc.)".

Proceeding to analyse the origin and nature of these defects, the decision points out two tendencies which are fraught with danger to the Soviet school. First, the tendency which might lead to the detachment of the school from practical life, from the tasks of socialist construction, to the crudescence of the old methods of the tsarist school (excessive memorising, etc.). Another, and even more dangerous tendency is represented by those who advocate the "passing away of the school", asserting that the children should be taught directly at work in the factory. Such "theories" unquestionably betray an undiscriminating adoption of the American "project method", of "business enterprises" whose ideal is to create a narrow practical businessman who has "ability" but no "knowledge". It was urged by exponents of these theories that the basis of school education should be work in the factory or on the field. Consequently, teaching should be carried out only by the way. Clearly, such a system of school work has nothing in common with the ideas of Lenin and of the Leninist Party which urge the mastery of all the cultural wealth of mankind, which urge that in the polytechnical school labour should be subordinated to the teaching and educational aims of the school. This was the reason why such a firm stand against these vulgarising theories was made by the Communist Party and press, and by the whole of Soviet public opinion.

A year has passed since the above decision was published. School work has considerably improved during this period. This improvement is directly recorded in the latest resolution of the Central Committee of the CPSU "On the school", where it stated that during the last year considerable changes have developed in the elementary and secondary schools in connection with the realisation of universal compulsory education and the transition to systematic assimilation of science upon the basis of definite school plans, programmes and schedules".

Nevertheless, the new decision continues the criticism of defects that was contained in last year's decision. Thus, it is pointed out that the school programmes, although more systematically and more comprehensively drawn up, are suffering from the defect of being too crowded, of a lack of connection between the separate programmes. In the teaching of social sciences is to be observed a rather vulgarising method of undue simplification, a lack of sufficiently profound historical approach. The decision calls particular attention to the inadmissibility of methodical "projecting", notably the abuse of the brigade and laboratory method of work. Some sorry practitioners of this method contented themselves with merely handing out independent tasks to a brigade of pupils, charging the teacher with the task only of subsequent checking up, instead of securing organic work of the teacher with the children. As a result of such irregular methods there was not a sufficient mastery of the fundamentals of science, while the teacher became detached from the pupils. Finally, the irregular organisation of the work was bound to be...
detrimental to general discipline in the school.

This analysis of the defects which took place in the preceding stages of development of the Soviet school may serve as an example of bolshevik self-criticism, of the ability boldly to raise and handle new problems, eliminating casual survivals of old methods, of irregularities and mistakes that are inevitable in connection with fundamentally new constructive work.

The latest decision "On the elementary and secondary school" places in the hands of Soviet teachers and the public at large a programme of action that may serve as a model by its concreteness: improved and remodelled programmes, firm discipline in the school, based upon systematic educational activities in which part must be taken by the public, by the parents, and by the Komsomol and pioneer organisations. The decision urges the proper organisation of the pedagogical process, applying the most diverse methods of teaching. The basic form of teaching should be the lesson. The Soviet school is developing the collective forms of school work and devotes special attention to the checking up of lessons and results. The role and importance of the teacher should be raised even higher (a higher level of political and ideological development in the teacher, material assistance to the latter, etc.). A number of suggestions of this kind are developed in detail in the last decision of the Central Committee of the CPSU "On the elementary and secondary school".

The decision of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR deals especially with the system of higher education which has already been referred to above. The CEC, while noting the achievements of the higher school, deals also fully with its defects and its new tasks. It urges stability of the teaching process (during the preceding period there were frequent revisions of plans and programmes). On the basis of the same principles as the XVIIth Party Conference, this decision suggests building up the programme so that it might reflect the latest achievements in science and techniques. The higher school should be emancipated from an excessive multitude of subjects and from artificial splitting up of scientific disciplines. The work of teaching should be built up as an organic process which includes also practical production. There should be abolished the so-called "conveyor system", i.e. the studying of separate subjects at short notice without any graduated procedure. The Soviet school, which has done a good deal of study on problems concerning the "profile" of the specialist, should also attain greater clearness on questions relating to the character and scope of training for new cadres in one or another branch of construction.

Constant production practice for students has become in the USSR an essential element of the entire educational work of the higher schools and technicums. While recording the unquestionable achievements of production practice, especially the existence of close contact between theoretical study and practice, the decision suggests a series of concrete measures for improving the practical activities of the students as an integral part of their studies (excursions of teachers with student groups to the place of practice, attaching students to specified enterprises, etc.).

Great attention is given in the decision of the CEC to the methodology of teaching, increasing the role and responsibility of professors and teachers, organising the pedagogical process on the basis of precise plans, with a rigid schedule of lessons and a firm discipline among students and teachers. In this connection, higher demands are made upon both students and teachers of higher schools and technicums. There shall be no graduation before the completion of the terms. The scheme of the educational year is to be unified for all the schools. There is to be rigid control of attendance and work, in order to wage a struggle against violation of school discipline, with penalties reaching up to suspension for a period of five years. A system of very thorough examinations is to be established. Provision is made for the decisive realisation of the principle of the single authority,
with the participation of properly organised public control.
This militant programme is remarkable for its concreteness as well as for its profound approach to reality, being organically linked to the present stage in socialist construction. We have here the practical embodiment of the creative ideas given to mankind by Karl Marx, Engels, Lenin, and by Stalin who ably continues their work.

As on the other fronts of socialist construction, the Soviet State will continue and carry out to the end the struggle for the training of socialist cadres. Naturally, this struggle may evoke and does evoke the resistance of the class enemies, of the enemies of the new socialist culture — of a culture that is not the monopoly of a few at the top, but is the heritage of the large masses of the people that are spiritually growing. As an example of absurd insinuations might be mentioned the "canards" which appeared in the anti-Soviet press alleging a complete restoration of the "pre-revolutionary regime in the Soviet school", etc.

The best answer to the calumniators is given by a simple acquaintance with the facts which characterise school construction in the USSR and its achievements during 15 years.

This socialist country, growing stronger materially and technically, is passing on to the next, higher stage in the struggle for quality in education and in the scientific and technical training of the builders of classless society.

SOVIET SCIENCE AND THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION
Views of Soviet scientists

A. Karpinsky,
President of the All-Union Academy of Sciences

SCIENCE IN THE USSR SERVES THE INTERESTS OF THE ENTIRE COUNTRY

The basic difference between Soviet science and that of other countries lies in the method of advancing scientific achievements and their utilisation. All progress and achievements gained in science in the USSR are turned to the general benefit of the entire country. Problems of personal benefit of private individuals or enterprises under the existing conditions in our country do not and cannot in any way negatively affect scientific discoveries. Competition between institutions conducting similar scientific research is entirely excluded and in cases of identical work the respective institutions sign an agreement on the basis of socialist competition.

Contrary to this in other countries, where the social system existing is entirely different, there are existing, besides State research institutions, also private research institutes, laboratories and bureaus serving the interests of private individuals and enterprises. All these often serve as a hindrance to the popularisation of scientific achievements. Instead, such achieve-ments more often are used in the benefit of private individuals to the detriment of the community as a whole.

The characteristic trait of Soviet science lies in the fact that it freed itself from serving individual interests devoting instead all its efforts toward making science accessible to all and turning over all achievements and accomplishments gained in all branches of science to the benefit and welfare of the entire country.
We are entering upon the second Five-Year Plan.

At this historical point the principal outlines and general character of the development of a new socialist science are quite clear to us.

Our gigantic socialist construction puts very big demands to science. Nowhere in the world is science as highly appreciated as it is in the USSR.

Socialist science means science planned. Planning affords the possibility of solving some of the most complicated problems which are approached by strong and numerous units of scientific workers engaged in various specialities.

At the present moment science in our country penetrates into our vast territory reaching the factories, the kolhoz and sovhoz fields, the broadest masses engaged in various inventions, etc.

The October Revolution revealed the unlimited sources of a golden mine of human talent and capabilities. The USSR is the only country in the world where the development of science constitutes a vital daily demand of the many millions belonging to all the various nationalities of the USSR.

This is why science in the Union of Socialist Republics enjoys great perspectives for its further and extensive development.

From the very first days of its existence the Soviet government has always displayed great interest in science emphasizing its important role in the matter of socialist construction. During the 15 years of its existence, the Soviet government has founded hundreds of scientific research institutions which have advanced Soviet science to an enormously high level.

Science in the USSR is closely interwoven with the entire system of the upbuilding of a new life and therefore differs fundamentally from the methods of scientific work conducted in capitalist countries which reflect the anarchistic system of capitalist production.

The social standard of the people engaged in scientific research work in our country also differs entirely from those working in the same field in capitalist countries. Thousands of young men and women who have come from the rank and file are constantly adding to the big army of research workers. These youths carry with them new habits approaching scientific work from new angles. This new army of scientific workers, which grows by leaps and bounds, will raise socialist science to a level which no capitalist country can even dream of.

Last but not last, scientific research in the USSR differs from that in other countries in its method of organisation. In the scientific laboratories in the capitalist countries research workers are not only not being encouraged to grasp and acquaint themselves widely with all the elements studied in the respective laboratories, but are even forbidden to do thus. This fact undoubtedly tends to hinder progress and possibilities for the research worker to attain higher skill, thus deteriorating his work.
Contrary to capitalist countries, we in the USSR are using our best efforts to turn productive labour into socialistic-collective forms. Similar collectivisation of scientific labour is systematically conducted also in our scientific research institutes. Reports on scientific work that has already been completed, as well as on future plans, are made and discussed at the production conferences. Every department in each research institution holds its own production conferences, reports, study classes etc. Every collaborator of the respective institution takes part in the general work of the entire problem treated at his institution and independently conducts part of the general scientific work.

This method of collective scientific research constantly helps to improve the character of the work, raises the skill of the workers and provides the possibility for the gradual advancement of the most able collaborators in the field of science.

THE USSR ACADEMY OF SCIENCES ON THE 15th ANNIVERSARY OF THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION

By Academician V. V o l g h i n, Permanent Secretary of the All-Union Academy of Sciences

The Academy of Sciences has traversed a difficult path during the 15 years which have passed since the great October Revolution.

The speeding of the eliminating process in the Academy, which had began before that period, the election to the Academy of new scientists devoted to the cause of socialism, such were the conditions which have rendered possible those achievements of the Academy made during the last few years. Since 1919 the Academy has been fundamentally reorganised both outwardly and as regards the content of its work.

The Academy was the first of the scientific institutions of the Union to publish its production plan for 1931. It took a most active part in the first conference on the planning of scientific work convoked by the scientific research section of the Supreme Council of National Economy and the State Planning Commission. It became the centre of planned scientific work and organised a number of conferences dealing with various branches of science.

The inclusion of scientific activity in the plan of socialist construction raises theoretical thought to an unprecedented height.

Contributing to the creation of a single scientific plan, the Academy at the same time sought to establish immediate practical contact with socialist construction and direct ties with the broad proletarian masses of the USSR. It offered full scientific assistance to the different People's Commissariats. At the request of these latter the Academy of Sciences conducts a considerable amount of work in their institutions and an even greater work by way of expeditions and explorations in Khibiny, Mountainous Shoria, Kulunda, Angara, Trans-Volga, etc. At the same time the Academy held a number of sessions (an entirely new form of activity) devoted to various groups of local problems of socialist construction.

A special and entirely new method of work by the Academy is the setting up of branches and bases in regions where big
construction works are located (the Urals, Transcaucasia, Kazakhstan, Tadjikistan).

The Academy is thus spreading a new network of institutions scattered all over the USSR—from Khibinogorsk to Tiflis and Stalinabad, from Leningrad to La-
divostok. The Academy of Sciences is
becoming an All-Union institution even
from a geographical standpoint.

The new aims of the Academy logically
necessitated the extension of its personnel.
The old Academy did not have in its midst
representatives of technical sciences. The
whole field of applied science was in fact
foreign to it. The new Academy began to
organise technical chairs and now it pos-
sesses a powerful technical group. It in-
cludes now the directors of our biggest
construction jobs — Winter, Vedeneev,
Graftio, Bardin.

The Academy of Sciences has during the
last few years absorbed the most highly
qualified scientists of the land. The di-
rectors of the biggest scientific institu-
tions are fully-pledged members of the Academy
and participate in the deliberations of
its special groups. It is precisely these
groups which were and are the organisers
of a series of special conferences on plan-
ning the respective branches of science.

The Academy of Sciences has all the pos-
sibilities of becoming such a scientific
institute which is able, both on account
of the variety of sciences represented in it
and on account of the high qualifications
of its personnel, to take upon itself the
complicated and difficult task of compil-
ing a single plan of scientific work,

THE JUBILEE SESSION OF THE USSR ACADEMY OF SCIENCES

The latest session of the All-Union Aca-
demy of Sciences was held in honour of the
XVth anniversary of the October Revolu-
tion.

The opening of the session was preceded
by the great work of drafting the second
Five-Year Plan of the Academy.

The plan of the Academy of Sciences
for the second Five-Year period provides
for a number of most important works
in all branches of knowledge. One of its
most important tasks is the study of the
natural and productive resources of the
country. All the main problems of natu-
ral sciences will be dealt with exhaustively
and particular attention will be paid to
energetics, physics, chemistry and geo-
chemistry. The branches and institutes
of the Academy will organise during the
second Five-Year Plan an extensive net-
work of scientific research institutions,

According to preliminary data the total
expenditure of the Academy during the
second Five-Year Plan on the study of
national productive forces will exceed
400 million rubles.

22 million rubles will be assigned to
the social sciences section, which will
extend its work very widely. Along with
the existing Institute of Russian Litera-
ture, a new Institute of World Literature
will be founded.

The second Five-Year Plan of the
Academy will finally be adopted at a
conference for the planning of scientific
work at the State Planning Commis-

The opening of the session coincided
with the opening of a great exhibition
"15 Years of Soviet Science". Most inter-
esting material has been collected at the
exhibition, which describes the work of
Soviet scientific institutions during the years following the October Revolution.

The session lasted a week. The link between the academicians and the social organisations, the masses of workers, has now become a standing feature in the work of the highest scientific institution of the Union. Some of the sittings of the jubilee session were arranged in the enormous halls of the district Houses of Culture in Leningrad — those of the Moscow-Narva, Vyborg and Volodarsky districts. The workers of the Leningrad factories and workers who filled the halls listened attentively to the reports of the representatives of the vanguard of sciences on its latest achievements.

The third and fourth days of the session were mainly taken up with excursions to a number of large factories. 10 brigades were formed, consisting in all of 40 academicians, as well as the directors of scientific institutions of the Academy, aspirants and young scholars. The factory workers looked forward to meeting these brigades. In various works and departments explanations were given about the importance of the session, and also the questions raised at the session. The academicians were met at the works-gates in festive manner. On their arrival at the factories the scientific workers acquainted themselves with the production-financial plan, inspected the departments, talked to the workers and read papers in workers clubs on subjects pertaining to the given enterprise. Academician Lebedev, author of many articles and books on synthetic rubber, read a paper at the “Red Triangle” rubber plant. Academician Mitkevich delivered an address at “Electrosila”. The workers of the optical-mechanical works listened with tremendous interest to the lecture of Academician Grebenshchikov on the new methods of polishing glass worked out by the State Optical Institute.

Many interesting papers were read at the session on various branches of science. Great interest was aroused by the paper Academician Bach read at the House of Culture of the textile workers on the progress of ensimology during the 15 years of Soviet rule (the ensimes are a kind of catalysers in organic substances contributing to the quickening of the life process). The speaker quoted a number of cases illustrating the practical importance of the ensimes. Apart from the role it plays in the progress of medicine, ensimology constitutes one of the main problems of technical bio-chemistry, which is called upon to play a great role in many branches of industry.

A special sitting of the session was devoted to questions of Soviet energetics. Among the reporters were such authorities as Academicians Krzhizhanovskiy, Alexandrov (“The classification of hydro-electric plants”), Chernyshov (“Vacuum and the latest progress of electrotechnics”). Academician Baikov dealt very exhaustively with the problem of ferrous metallurgy. He dealt in detail with one of the most important themes — the obtaining of iron directly from the ore.

Academician Gubkin quoted in his paper many interesting facts on the successful exploration of the mineral resources of the USSR.

Even in the best of years under tsarist Russia the geological committee had only 50 geologists and never more than 250,000 rubles assigned for its work. Now we have a colossal army of 6,000 scientists and 200 million rubles are yearly spent on exploration.

The fifth day of the session was taken up by four most interesting papers. Academician Yoffe informed the audience of the results of his investigation of the electrical properties of solid bodies. This work is directly connected with the practical tasks set by modern electrotechnics,

Academicians Oldenburg (le.t) and Bukharin (right)
in particular by the cable works. G. Gamov, a young Soviet scholar who has already gained a European reputation, spoke of the structure of the kernel of the atom, one of the most debatable themes in modern physics.

Professor Nikiforov, head of the Seismological Institute of the Academy, drew in his paper a picture of the great scientific results attained in the domain of the investigation of earthquakes; he related the setting up of a network of seismic stations organised by the Soviet Government.

The paper of Academician Lazarev "The present-day problems of bio-physics and their practical importance" dealt with an entirely new branch of science, the influence which the physical factors exercise on the functioning of the human nervous system. A series of interesting reports was read at the sittings of the physical-mathematical, technical and chemical groups.

As regards social sciences the most important papers were those read by Academician Marr — "Changes in the technique of language and of thought"; by Academician Oldenburg — "Soviet orientology for the past fifteen years", and by Professor Tomsinsky — "On the achievements of Soviet historiography".

Academician Marr pointed out the enormous progress of Soviet science in the field of linguistics and laid stress on the fact that it became possible owing to the application of the Marxist-Leninist method to the work of the Institute of Language and Ethnology.

Academician Oldenburg drew a picture of the activities of the Academy of Sciences as regards the working out and the propagation of the latinised alphabet and the creation of literary languages in the Soviet East.

Academician Oldenburg stated that the compilation of encyclopedic dictionaries in the languages of the various nationalities rendered possible the translation of the works of Darwin, Marx and Engels. The masterpieces of Eastern literatures are being rapidly translated into Russian as well as the works of Russian and Western literature into the languages of the East. The bibliography of Eastern literatures is carefully being kept up.

Professor Tomsinsky stated in his paper that the publication of documents taken from tsarist archives yielded rich material for the study of the nationalities of the USSR and of the revolutionary movement of the proletariat. A series of documents referring to the war of 1914—
1918 has attracted the attention of the whole world.

Important information was supplied by Academician Alexeyev—"The evolution and revolution of the Chinese language and literature" and by Academician Perets—"The national policy of the USSR and the revival of Ukrainian literary studies".

At its concluding plenary meeting the session worked out the text of an appeal to all the scholars of the world, which we print below in abridged form.

To All Scholars, Scientists and Technicians of the World

The Academy of Sciences of the USSR at its solemn session devoted to the XVth anniversary of the October Revolution addresses to you a fervent appeal to march alongside all manual workers.

The whole experience of the great Revolution in our country has proved to us that it is only along that path that it is possible to find a way out of the overwhelming crisis through which the whole of humanity is now passing.

The course of world historic events, which took place in our country, spectacularly proved that the only force capable of crossing the great historical threshold and lead behind it the entire mass of people is the proletariat, that heroic class, capable of making enormous sacrifices, a class which is creating, building up and organising.

Whole regions of enormous deposits of ferrous and non-ferrous metals, coal, oil and potassium salts are being discovered. Innumerable new cultural centres are being rapidly founded in the extreme North. A number of expeditions to the arctic regions have become famous throughout the world. Of late the entire economic situation has changed beyond recognition.

Enormous psychological changes has taken place among the masses; the refashioning of human beings proceeded on an unprecedented scale, whole armies of builders of new society have been formed. Culture has made decisive conquests.

This gigantic sweep of construction demanded a rapid growth of scientific research institutions. A whole network of these has been founded since the Revolution and their importance has increased enormously. The practical trend of their scientific work stimulated their theoretical successes.

We are working on the raising of the standard of living of the masses. We have no intention of building up a soulless civilisation, in which the toiler would be a mere appendage of the mechanised system. On the contrary, we are building up the most perfect technical basis of a society in which man will become the master of that system, not its slave; this system will serve to satisfy the growing requirements of the toiling masses and become the weapon of emancipation from excessive labour and the basis of the future cultural progress of a brotherly commune.

The Academy of Sciences, the highest scientific institution of the USSR, proudly states that our country is the backbone of a new socialist world. It regards it to be a matter of honour to give up its forces to the cause of socialist construction.

We call you to active defence of the USSR.

We call you to fight against reaction which is looming over the countries of capitalism.

We call you to join the ranks of fighters for socialism.

We, on our part, undertake to fulfil everything the proletariat will demand from us as regards the solution of the tasks of construction for the second Five-Year Plan.

We assure the Central Committee of the Party, its leader Comrade Stalin and the Soviet Government that we shall not retreat one step from the solution of the tasks connected with the whole heroic epoch of the great work of socialism.

A. Karpinsky—President of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

N. Marr, G. Krzhizhanovsky—Vice-Presidents.

V. Volghin—Permanent Secretary of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

Chemistry was one of those sciences doomed of necessity to eke out a miserable existence in reactionary tsarist Russia. No better evidence need be adduced than the fate of the great genius Mendeleev. The society of bourgeoisie and nobility, unable and unwilling to appreciate the great contributions of a Mendeleev, could at best bestow upon him official honours of doubtful value. The tsarist government found no better way than to make of Mendeleev an administrator and appointed him a director of the Chamber of Measures and Weights.

The progress of chemistry since the October Revolution may be taken as one of the striking evidences of the transformation of science by the Revolution.

The October which converted tsarist Russia into a land of industrialisation created for chemistry the situation which the science properly requires in a State building its entire social and economic life on the basis of a scientific socialist plan and applying the latest achievements of theoretical thought in every field of construction.

It is precisely in the development of chemistry, a science which calls for the coordination of a variety of industries, for plan and experiment on a vast scale, that the superiority of the Soviet economic system could make itself manifest.

Among the industrial giants erected during the first Five-Year Plan are huge chemical plants: the Berezniki, Voskressevsk and Neva chemical combines, the synthetic rubber mills, the Leningrad and Dniepr aluminium factories, coke and chemical plants and scores of other works. The number of trained persons engaged in the chemical industry grows annually by thousands. The amount and extent of chemical research is astonishing.

Soviet chemistry commemorated the XVth anniversary of the October Revolution by calling the VIth All-Union Mendeleev Congress on theoretical and applied chemistry.

The Congress was held in Kharkov, the capital of the Soviet Ukraine.

Two thousand delegates were expected but over three thousand came; not only from all the Soviet republics but from

Academician Zatonsky delivering his report at the VIth Mendeleev Chemical Congress
foreign countries. Among foreign chemists of note were Professors Klages (Berlin), Hess (Königsberg), Liesegang (Frankfort-on-Main), Pitsch (Berlin) and Greenwood (Australia).

Two generations of chemists met and exchanged experience at the Congress. Among those who read papers were many young Soviet academicians, professors, their assistants and engineers. The papers read by Academician Semionov, Prof. Syrkin, Rummer, Academician Frumkin, Balandin, etc., dealt with the problems of chemistry on the plane of advanced theory. The proceedings were marked throughout by an interweaving of theoretical with practical problems.

What problems?
The growth of the national economy, the necessity of creating new products to meet the growing demands of the toilers dictate new speeds in chemistry. The speed of chemical advance and the production of ever greater quantities of new products constitute primary practical problems which the chemical industry must solve. This explains the attention paid by the Congress to problems of catalysis. Catalysts, it will be recalled, quicken the speed of chemical reaction and determine the volume of the product formed. Academician Semionov told the Congress that “the creation of a science of chemical dynamics is one of the main physico-chemical problems of our time”.

The improvement and increase of agricultural crops make ever growing demands upon chemistry and getting more yield from socialist fields has become a paramount task of Soviet agricultural chemists.

Nitrogen fertilisers are now being made in the USSR. The world’s richest potash deposits have been discovered in the Northern Urals. Soviet chemistry has advanced the slogan “every coke plant—a fertiliser factory”, utilising its by-products to produce nitrogen. Recent successful experiments have enabled the country to produce blast-furnace gases suited for ammonia synthesis. This opens up new vistas for development of the productive forces of the country.

Application of chemistry in the food and light industries to produce articles of general consumption also was an important part of the agenda.

Among its foremost problems Soviet chemistry regards machine building for the chemical industry, the production of materials for such an industry, control of the production and of the quality of product and electro-chemistry.

Scores of important lines of production have been developed and created on the basis of electro-chemical processes. Electro-chemistry therefore necessarily plays a great and ever growing role in the national economy of the USSR. A great future for electro-chemistry is assured by the electrification of the USSR, which is to raise power output in the country to 100 milliard kilowatt-hours.

Such were the main subjects taken up at the Congress.

“Soviet chemistry grapples with death and struggles for bread, for fodder, for meat, for new raw materials, for rendering labour easier and raising labour productivity. Soviet chemistry fights for the creation of new material values, for a flourishing culture” (“Pravda”).

The Mendeleev Congress endorsed the resolutions of the Amsterdam Anti-War Congress and issued an appeal to the chemists of the world to “war upon war”.

The Congress agreed to call the VIIth Mendeleev Congress in Leningrad in 1934, the 100th anniversary of Mendeleev’s birth. The creation of an All-Union Chemical Society was also voted. Academician Bach was elected chairman of the committee to organise the Society.

Academician Zatonsky, summing up the results of the Congress, described them as tremendous.
TO THE CHEMICAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD

(From the appeal of the VIth Mendeleev Congress)

The VI Mendeleev Congress, attended by over 3 thousand delegates from among the chemical workers of the Soviet Union, raises its voice in appeal to the chemical workers of the whole world.

The danger of a new world war hangs menacingly over the world. It grows out of irreconcilable contradictions, out of the deepest crisis of the whole capitalist system.

Capitalism is preparing a new war against humanity and, in the first place, against the Soviet Union, where a new socialist society is being successfully built.

Men of science, accustomed to analyse, haven't the right to close their eyes to the numerous signs of the coming war, which are more evident today than before the imperialist war of 1914—1918.

Europe is already living in an atmosphere of poisoned gases, chauvinism and militarist frenzy, so memorable to our new generation after the slaughter of 1914—1918 which destroyed tens of millions of human lives.

The bloody monster of war, making use of the most powerful weapons of science and technique, is preparing a new murder of millions of men and women, old people and children, destruction of towns, enslavement of peoples.

At the time when the capitalist world is seized by chaos and anarchy, by poverty side by side with riches, the capitalist world with its 40 million of unemployed, with mass suicides, with social, political, mental and cultural reaction, with suppression of human dignity, with the stagnation of scientific and technical progress, with its obscurantism — the USSR is building a new socialist world.

The growth of scientific cadres and institutions never seen before shows that the creative power of scientific-theoretical thought, the full appliance of forces by a mental worker to the development of a new, genuinely human culture, are possible only under socialism.

This is proved by the fact that the best, most thoughtful and creative part of the scientific-technical intelligentsia of the West is beginning to turn towards the Soviet Union.

The firm, steady and consistent peace policy carried on by the Soviet Government, not giving way to any provocation, is known to everyone as is also well known the sabotage of the Soviet proposals of real and general disarmament at the Geneva "disarmament" Conference. From its peace policy, from the tremendous successes of socialist construction the USSR will get invincible forces of enthusiasm and self-sacrifice to defend from barbarous destruction all that has been built, with heroic efforts, by the united ranks of manual and mental workers under the leadership of Lenin's Party.

The scientific workers of the Soviet Union heartily greet the Amsterdam Anti-War Congress, summoned by the best elements of the Western intelligentsia.

Exposing the hypocrisy of the pacifist phrases of the organisers of new wars and their agents, the chemical workers must hinder the preparation of a new crime against humanity — the fire of a world's war.

But, if notwithstanding war does break out, then the duty of all chemical workers will be not to let chemistry — a powerful lever of progress — be turned into a weapon of barbarous destruction of human lives, of labour and cultural attainments. War against war!

Chemical workers of the world, form a united scientific and working front to lead an active struggle against the impending war, to defend the first country in the world, victoriously constructing socialism!

Our policy is the policy of peace... We shall continue to follow this peace policy with all our might, with all the means at our disposal...

J. Stalin.
The XIVth International Congress of Physiologists took place in Rome. The attention of the Congress was concentrated on the problems of the energetics of nervo-muscular processes, of endoerinology, of the physiology and chemistry of vitamins. A series of reports were devoted to the questions of the central nervous system and its relation to the processes of psychic order.

Among the reports made by the Soviet scientists we should point out, in the first place, that of Academician I. Pavlov, who gave an extremely clear summary of his most important works on the questions of the study of the superior nervous activity of the animals by the method of conditional reflexes. The report was closely followed and received by stormy cheers.

A well-known physiologist, Prof. V. Zavadovsky devoted his report to the principal problems of physiology and the interchange of gormons in the organism.

Prof. Zbarsky, the Director of the Nutrition Institute, called the attention of the Congress to a series of interesting facts concerning the problems of social nutrition in the Soviet Union.

Finally, we should mention the reports of Prof. Rozenkov "On the nervo-humoral nature of emulation", and of Prof. Kashiyants "On the physiological characteristic of the muscular cell of different species of animals in different stages of their development".

The reports of the representatives of the Soviet delegation were met with the highest approval.

"We can state with satisfaction", writes Prof. Zavadovsky, one of the Soviet delegates to the Congress, "that the specific particularities of our methods, their being penetrated by social ideas and their connection with the actual tasks of socialist construction were sufficiently understood and pointed out by, at least, the most serious foreign scientists".

On the conclusive plenary sitting of the Congress Academician I. Pavlov, speaking in behalf of the Soviet delegation and the Soviet government, moved the proposal to hold the next Congress in the Soviet Union. This proposal was accepted unanimously by the International Organisational Committee.

Academician I. Pavlov, illustre Soviet scientist, director of the Physiological Institute in Leningrad. Acad. I. Pavlov was a member of the Soviet delegation to the International Physiological Congress

The foreign scientists' impression of the character of scientific work in the Soviet Union found its expression in the words of Prof. Yordan, one of the most important Dutch scientists. Conversing with the USSR representatives, Prof. Yordan pointed out that, in his opinion, the work of the Soviet delegates are subordinated to a certain general principal standpoint, that they are full of a deep principal sense extending beyond the framework of the immediate empiric of facts.

Professor Yordan expressed his deep content at the possibility of a visit to the Soviet Union and said that only there he hopes to find a full comprehension of the general conceptions, which he considers indispensable for the carrying out of any kind of scientific-investigatory work.

The numerous unofficial meetings of the Soviet delegates with other delegates at the Congress also gave witness of the very lively interest towards the USSR and of the deep respect held for the methods of development of Soviet science.
In the heart of Moscow, on Gorky street, stands an old artistic building of "empire style", now occupied by the Museum of Revolution. At the beginning of the XIXth century this building was the private residence of one of the biggest aristocrats of former feudal Russia — Count Razumovsky. Some time later this residential palace was turned into a club for noblemen, known as the "English Club", which was frequented not only by the idle rich, but also by some of the most notable men of the time, such as the famous poet Pushkin, Chaadaev and many others.

Following the October Revolution, this former palace became the property of the State and was placed at the disposal of the Museum which has since become known as the Central Museum of Revolution of the USSR. This Museum is the centre of attraction of hundreds of thousands of visitors — of factory workers, kolkhoznits (members of collective farms), school pupils, students, teachers, research and scientific workers, scholars, as well as of great numbers of foreign workers' delegations and tourists from different parts of Europe and America. Large crowds of visitors constantly fill the many spacious halls of the Museum, decorated with some of the finest bas-reliefs, pictures and other artistic masterpieces so different in form and content from any exhibits usually seen at expositions on general historical or social subjects. The Museum of Revolution is the real product of the triumphant October Revolution.

In studying the contents of the 37 halls of the Museum, some of the richest pages of the history of the struggle of the Russian workers and peasants are revealed. There are to be found some of the rarest data of precious historical material portraying scenes of mass rebellion of peasants — serfs of the feudal lords, heroic, but fruitless revolutionary gestures on the part of single individuals, representatives of the intelligentsia in their attempts to raise upheavals, the strenuous and persistent work of the bolshevik organisations, the gradual development of workers' strikes and demonstrations, the first upheaval of 1905.

Historical documents and exhibits on the most outstanding events covering a period of the last decade and a half, add to the great interest of the visitor, before whom is revealed some of the richest pages in history: the dethronement of the tsar, intense struggle of the various political parties, the development of the mass movement against the war, the provisional bourgeois government, the glorious days of the October Revolution in Petrograd, Moscow, Ukraine, as well as in other principal parts of the country that was beginning to liberate itself from the yoke of oppression. Following these there is a display of material showing the hard struggle against foreign intervention and civil war — a period of immeasurable deprivation and unprecedented revolutionary enthusiasm. On this background rises the striking figure of Lenin — the genius — and the organising creative part played by the bolsheviks led by him. This wealthy collection of exhibits closes with the section dealing with the contemporary international proletarian revolutionary movement.

Such are the contents of the Museum of Revolution which presents in a most vivid manner the history of the class struggle, arouses proletarian class consciousness, invokes hatred for the old system and inspires with bright hopes for the future of socialism.

The very character of the material displayed differs much in style from any other collection and presents quite an unusual sight. Samples of explosive shells prepared in the underground chemical laboratories of the old revolutionaries lay side by side with home-made weapons of revolutionary partisans, party banners, that were carried through severe battles of revolutionary fights. There are on display gifts made and presented by groups of workers in commemoration of some revolutionary event as well as many other relics of historical significance. Pre-war illegal revolutionary literature presents another very interesting feature of the Museum's collection. Here are to be found copies of proclamations, pamphlets etc., published illegally in tsarist days by revolutionaries and on account of which hundreds of them had suffered penal servitude and exile for long years. The pictures and sculptures of contemporary artists, as well as the works of some of their predecessors, depict in
a general way the most vital and outstanding episodes of the Revolution. A gallery of portraits and documentary illustrations form an impressive sight that helps to revive in the imagination of the visitor many of the revolutionary events, as well as the portraits of revolutionary heroes.

All of this divergent material is exhibited according to a strictly laid out plan and system. Scientific research constitutes an important part of the Museum's work in the matter of a proper interpretation of historical facts. For this reason all of the material is closely examined and followed up in strict chronological order. Each and every stage of the revolutionary movement is carefully traced and studied in order to make clear the economic and social basis that preceded each stage and to show the historical sequence of the natural law of development of the revolutionary movement.

During the ten years of its existence, the Museum has constantly laboured on the improvement of its exposition. Today, celebrating the tenth anniversary of its activities and reviewing the work done during that period of time, the Museum may well be proud of the tremendous accomplishments gained in the process of its daily and educational work.

During the past ten years the sources of the Museum have grown immensely. Out of these funds the Museum draws very valuable information that is constantly adding a new interest to the exhibits and various materials displayed. The archives of the Museum contain at present over 500,000 different objects, including manuscripts, publications and many other valuable articles of art that have been accumulated during the past decade.

Very important sources of information which enriches the Museum's collection are living witnesses, personal participants in the revolutionary movement, veterans of the populist movement (narodnichestvo, 1860–1880), members of the underground revolutionary workers' circles (beginning with 1880), active participants and leaders of the revolutionary movement of 1905 and 1917, participants of the October Revolution. Many of them have served long terms in jail, penal servitude and exile, having devoted their entire lives to the revolutionary cause. Their memoirs are living pages of history, and this is the reason why the Museum enrolls their assistance in the collecting of historical data. For this purpose the Museum has organised different groups of workers — active participants in revolutionary action, revolutionary sailors, organisers of revolutionary battles, red guards and partisans.

Of particular value and interest is the questionnaire which is issued to the above named groups. Information obtained in this manner eventually becomes the object of study and serves as a base for the scientific research works of the Museum, where this information is usually put to a critical analysis, verified and added by facts, according to the documents, obtained from the secret files of the tsarist police, as well as from the court records of the pre-revolutionary period.

In addition to this the Museum conducts a systematic search for material among files of other museums, library archives, second-hand book-sellers and collectors. Thus, the Museum's collections are constantly growing in number and form a real valuable base for its vital activities.

The Museum of Revolution, more so than any other museum in the country, serves as a powerful centre for political education of the toiling masses. The utmost efforts are, therefore, exerted in displaying the exhibits in a popular and comprehensive manner, accessible to the visitor, whose
political views become considerably enforced in the actual process of acquainting himself with genuine historical facts.

The increasing popularity of the Museum may be judged by the following growth of visitors covering the period of 1923/24 up to 1931:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Visitors</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1923/24</td>
<td>36,452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924/25</td>
<td>171,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925/26</td>
<td>209,146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926/27</td>
<td>236,726</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927/28</td>
<td>252,540</td>
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<tr>
<td>1928/29</td>
<td>270,572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929/30</td>
<td>65,913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Last quarter of 1930</td>
<td>279,398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>185,728</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pupils of elementary and secondary schools form the majority of visitors constituting 30%, next come factory workers — 25%, technicum and university students — 21%. Another big group of visitors is composed of foreign workers' delegations and foreign tourists from many countries: Germany, England, France, Italy, Turkey, U.S.A., Japan, China and others.

The featuring of films portraying the process of revolutionary struggle is also part of the general activities of the Museum that add to its educational value. Only films on revolutionary historical topics are illustrated at the Museum, either in the form of documents, chronologically arranged, or single scenes artistically combined. The cinema performances are usually preceded by a lecturer's note. These films include: “Battleship Potemkin”, “October”, “Mother” and many others. Over 300,000 persons attended the cinema performances at the Museum in 1931.

The wide activities of the Museum are confined not merely to services extended to the visitor within the Museum, but far beyond, reaching directly workers at the factory, colhozmen in the field etc. For this travelling exhibitions are widely employed, being arranged according to definite topics such as: “On the Road to October”, “The Five-Year Plan”, “The First Revolution” etc. Competent lecturers accompany these travelling exhibitions, which visit industrial centres and rural areas.

The department of travelling exhibitions has arranged since January 1931 110 exhibitions on 22 subjects, including 85 exhibitions abroad. In Moscow such exhibitions are usually organised in the summer period, the street boulevards, Parks of Culture and Rest being used for this purpose. Some of these exhibitions, — for instance the one held at the Central Park of Culture and Rest,— are converted into permanent ones.

During the 10 years of the existence of the Museum of Revolution a number of auxiliary departments have been founded. The consulting department on methodical problems caters to all interested in the matter of arranging expositions, excursions etc. The photo-laboratory prepares pictures not only for the Museum's needs and for travelling exhibitions, but also fulfils requests for illustrations from scientific institutions, schools, publishing houses, theatres etc. During 1931 the photo-laboratory prepared 3,895 negatives and printed 22,369 photos. The Museum's archives issue various information, supply with copies of exhibits the local historicorevolutionary museums and city exhibitions. The reading room of the Museum is open to all interested in questions of the revolutionary movement. About 1,700 persons availed themselves of its services in 1931.

A large part of the general activities of the Museum is devoted to the publication of albums, post-cards and literature on historico-revolutionary topics and on methodical questions. 7 albums and about 20 million copies of post-cards, dealing with revolutionary heroes, leaders and various episodes, have been printed in the last 6 years.

At present the Museum is occupied with the task of preparing new cadres of museum-research workers. For this purpose it has created a special institute for post-graduates with a two-year course and a preparatory department for factory workers. There are 30 students at the institute who are making a deep theoretical study of the history of the western peoples, history of the various nationalities of the USSR, dialectical materialism etc. The students are at the same time carrying on practical work at the Museum. A number of graduates of the institute have been included among the permanent scientific staff of the Museum.

The general activities of the Museum have expanded to such an extent that the old building of the former English Club cannot accommodate its growing needs. Steps are now under way for the construction of a new building that will provide ample space (according to the project it will have 68 halls, — 4,475 square metres) and will be technically well equipped and fully answer the demands for the ever growing scope of scientific research and educational work conducted by the Museum. The Museum will then be able to extend its
work on a much wider scale and will be in a position to present the picture of the revolutionary movement not only on the territory of the former Russian Empire, but also of various countries of the West and East. The visitor will then get a good chance of acquainting himself with similar processes that were simultaneously taking place in various countries: peasant wars (in France), the Wat Tylor revolt; the period of 1525 in Germany; the Razin and Pugachov uprisings in Russia; a number of bourgeois revolts which destroyed the remnants of feudalism (the English revolution of the XVIIth century, the Great French Revolution, the revolutions of 1830 and 1848, the Paris Commune etc.); mass proletarian movements of the epoch of industrial capitalism, the history of the three Internationals, the struggle of the colonial peoples for liberation, revolutionary movement in the epoch of imperialism and the beginning of the decay of capitalism.

The idea of organising a "Museum of the World Revolution" is the Museum's programme for the second Piatiletka. This programme puts new tasks before the Museum. It demands reinforced efforts in the matter of research work, a search of new materials that will be necessary for the expansion of the activities of the Museum. To fulfil this responsible task the Museum hopes to gain the assistance of all those who sympathise and are anxious for the organisation of a "Museum of the World Revolution".

The auxiliary "Association of Friends of the Museum of Revolution" is extending very valuable service in this direction. It now has a number of branches throughout the country with quite a big membership actively engaged in the collection of historical data.

THE 300TH ANNIVERSARY OF SPINOZA'S DEATH.

The philosophy of Spinoza, like every other philosophical system, is a product of the age in which it was evolved. In the XVIIth century Holland, the birthplace of the philosopher, was a country in which capitalism had reached a relatively high stage of development. It had already undergone its bourgeois revolution, and even earlier, in the XVIth century, there had been a strong revolutionary, communist movement led by Thomas Müntzer. In the XVIIIth century Holland was passing through a stage of relatively peaceful development, when trade was good, handicrafts prospered and production by machinery had just begun.

Marx devotes considerable attention in his "Capital" and other works to a study of the economic development of Holland during this period. He emphasises the fact that "Holland of the XVIth just as France of the XVIIIth century represented a typical manufacturing country in the true sense of the word". Thus, for example, the division of labour in manufacture had advanced to such an extent in Holland that by the XVIth century the manufacture of wool for power looms was already a specialised industry. Marx further mentions that "in Germany during the XVIth and XVIIth centuries machines were invented which were employed only in Holland". Throughout this period Holland had extensive colonies and showed a tremendous growth of merchant capital. The growth of merchant capital at the expense of plundered colonies is typical of the development of capitalism. Marx observes that "the history of Dutch colonial economy — and Holland in the XVIth century was a model capitalist country — presents an unexampled picture of treachery, corruption, murder and every kind of meanness".

At that time Holland had large possessions in both Indias, the whole trade of
Cochinchina and the Zonds Islands was in the hands of Dutch merchants. Holland was the leading trading country of the world. Her East- and West-Indian trading companies are well known.

Being a well developed capitalist country, Holland was at this time also the centre of considerable, and relatively free scientific, philosophical and artistic progress. This little country, having undergone its bourgeois revolution and enjoying the political conquests of its rising class, was the scene of a tremendous awakening and became the centre and focus of contemporary science, art and philosophy. Painting flourished (Rembrandt lived at this time) and mathematics and natural sciences had reached a very high level.

The XVIth and XVIIth centuries were marked by the rise of materialism and the positive sciences in all the chief countries of Europe. Particular progress was made in mathematics and mechanics, and the mathematical sciences began to be looked upon as the prototype of scientific truth, scientific inquiry and proof.

Spinoza expressed in a very vivid form the ideology of the bourgeoisie of this period and its most advanced and radical tendencies. Spinoza was the ideologist of the comparatively peaceful development of Holland, of its age of prosperity, and the rise of its trade and financial capital.

Spinoza stands at the apex of the scientific knowledge of his time. His philosophic system, which is in the direct line of evolution of the materialism of the XVIth and XVIIth centuries, is a generalisation of the progress made up to his time in the natural sciences, mechanics and mathematics.

The fate of Spinoza's philosophy is particularly instructive. The philosophical works of this great materialist thinker, when they appeared in the XVIIth century, were met by the supporters of the church and of reaction with the utmost hostility, and called forth the hatred and contumely of idealists of every breed. Later on, however, there was a definite change of attitude. The bourgeois ideologists, after capitalism had overcome feudalism, began to count Spinoza amongst the idealists. Thus it was that the idealistic interpretation of Spinoza's system has become the traditional one in the history of philosophy.

Spinoza is one of the greatest materialists of the new age. However Spinoza's materialism was not consistent to the end. His materialism was dressed up in theological garments. Feuerbach wrote as follows about Spinoza's philosophy: "Spinoza with his paradoxical proposition: 'God is that which is extended, that is the material existant', hit the nail on the head. He found what was for his time at least the true philosophical expression of the materialistic tendencies of the new age; he legalised these tendencies, sanctioned them. God himself is a materialist.' And in another place: "Spinoza was the Moses of contemporary freethinkers and materialists."

While showing the materialistic character of Spinoza's philosophy, Feuerbach at the same time points out where the inadequacy of Spinoza's materialism lies. In Feuerbach's view it arises from the fact that his is a "theological materialism, the rejection of theology on the basis of theology itself".

Spinoza bases his philosophy on an analysis of substance which he at the same time calls God. Feuerbach again very clearly showed the true meaning of this conception of Spinoza's, the secret, as it were, of his philosophy: "After careful examination what do we find it is that Spinoza calls logically or metaphysically substance and theologically God? It is nature and nothing else."

The conception of substance in the philosophy of Spinoza has given rise to endless disputes and altogether contradictory interpretations in the history of philosophy. On a basis of the theological bias of Spinoza's philosophy, historians who wished to combat materialism started the legend of Spinoza as an idealist.

In the works of Marx, Engels and Lenin, dialectical materialists can find a perfectly clear exposition and appreciation of Spinoza's philosophy which will arm them for the struggle against idealistic philosophy and every kind of revisionism.

In the "Holy Family" Marx and Engels give the following exposition of Spinoza's substance: "In Hegel's system there are three elements: Spinoza's substance, Fichte's self-consciousness, and Hegel's necessarily contradictory combination of both—absolute mind. The first element is metaphysically disguised (or dressed up, travesty) nature divorced from man, the second is metaphysically disguised mind divorced from nature, and the third is a metaphysically disguised combination of each, the real man and the real human race."
Marx and Engels with their characteristic thoroughness disclosed the secret and true meaning of the philosophical systems referred to. In their view Spinoza’s substance is metaphysically disguised nature. While accepting the main outlines of Feuerbach’s exposition they make an important correction which is of great importance if Spinoza’s system is to be understood. His nature is “nature divorced from man”. Marx and Engels here emphasise the metaphysically passive character of Spinoza’s philosophy, his meditative materialism.

At the same time Engels emphasises the great significance of Spinoza’s famous proposition that nature has its cause within itself (causa sui) and depends on no transcendent or supernatural causes for its existence. With this principle of his Spinoza dealt all idealistic and theological systems a deadly blow and gave materialism a firm proposition on which to build.

Referring to the progress of the sciences from the XVIIth to the XVIIIth centuries Engels writes: “It is very much to the credit of the philosophy of this time that it did not allow itself to be influenced by the limited outlook of contemporary natural sciences, and that, beginning with Spinoza and ending with the great French materialists, it resolutely sought to explain the world from within, leaving it to future science to give a detailed justification of this attitude.”

We can thus note the following points about Spinoza’s materialism: 1) a recognition of the objectivity of the world, of nature and of matter, and of their existence independent of human consciousness; 2) nature has its cause within itself and does not require any supernatural creator, is without beginning and without end; 3) a strict principle of mechanical causality and determinism holding good throughout nature, society and the process of human thought, and consequently a rejection of teleology and of the freedom of the will.

The history of materialism and atheism is intimately bound up with Spinoza’s name. Spinoza was one of the greatest atheists of the new age. He has come down through history as the “prince of atheists”. In his works, especially in his “Theological and Political Treatise”, Spinoza carried on a systematic and thoroughgoing criticism of religion and the Bible. Spinoza, as even the bourgeois historian Windelbandt admits, was “the first great representative of historical biblical criticism”. In this respect Spinoza’s influence on the further development of anti-theological and atheist literature was very great indeed. Both the French materialists in their militant atheist literature, and the young Hegelians in Germany on the eve of the revolution of 1848 (Strauss, Bruno Bauer and others) as well as Feuerbach in the “Essence of Christianity” were undoubtedly very much influenced by the method of approach to religious criticism of which Spinoza was the initiator. He approached religious superstitions from a broad historical standpoint and disclosed the historically limited nature of religious beliefs, showing that religion and religious beliefs have nothing permanent about them, that they are not “laid down once and for all by God”, but given the necessary conditions arise in the course of history.

Spinoza devoted a great deal of time to denying and criticising theological mythology. He held that the God of the theologians, as a being which sets itself a goal, as creator of the universe though standing outside of the universe, God pointing out the way to go, is a tremendous contradiction of human reason. Such ideas arise, according to Spinoza, because the aims and attributes of men are made to apply to the absolute and thus take on a divine character. Throughout the world there is a universal conformity to law, a strict and necessary causality which leaves no place for such a theology.

Religion and religious ideas, from Spinoza’s point of view, have no theoretical significance whatsoever. This does not mean that they have not a very distinct practical influence on society owing to the fact that ruling authorities make use of every kind of superstition and religion in order to gain power over the people. Spinoza held that it is just on this kind of superstition that the monarchical system upholds its authority. According to him fear is the basis of superstition.

One can well understand therefore the kind of reception which Spinoza’s philosophy met with amongst the militant ecclesiastians of the XVIIIth century.

Neither in his materialism nor in his atheism is Spinoa consistent to the end. In this respect the militant French materialists of the XVIIIth century stood on a much higher level. This however must not blind us to the really tremendous revolutionary importance which Spinoza’s philosophy has had in the past and still has at the present day.
K. TSIOLKOVSKY, A SOVIET INVENTOR

The name of K. Tsiolkovsky, the inventor of the all-metal dirigible and airplane capable of mounting to great heights, is internationally known. For fifty years he has worked on the problem of interplanetary flights. In tsarist Russia he worked in complete solitude. He was cold shouldered and ridiculed by the government bureaucrats. Only in the USSR is he surrounded with every possible care by the government and the people.

Scientists are particularly surprised at the ease with which Tsiolkovsky in his theoretical works is able to leap over the elementary details and as if by a stroke of genius come to such conclusions which others only arrive at after long, painstaking practical experience. Take for instance the designs of an airplane he made eight years prior to the first flight by the Wright brothers, before Santos-Dumont and Ader. It is very similar to the airplane of today. Even long before the Zeppelin was invented, when man could but dream of flying in the air, Tsiolkovsky had already made the designs for an all-metal dirigible.

As to inter-planetary flights, scientists the world over who are trying to solve the question of retroactive motive power acknowledge Tsiolkovsky their teacher. The German scientist Ober whose rockets have already pierced the stratosphere wrote to him thus: "You have set alight the wick, and we shall continue in our endeavours until this mightiest dream of mankind has been realised."

After the October Revolution Tsiolkovsky's inventions came into their own. He began to receive State support. All his material wants were attended to. His work on retroactive motive power began to be widely studied. His plans for the construction of an all-metal dirigible became a part of the dirigible construction plans in the USSR.

Tsiolkovsky's all-metal dirigible has overcome all the defects and shortcomings of the dirigibles hitherto constructed. The whole of it is built of corrugated steel. Its covering is to be like roofing iron. As a house with an iron roof does not require any special protection, so this steel dirigible will not need a hangar. Perpendicular motion will not likewise require wastage of gas, nor will there be any need to carry any burdensome ballast. All these and many other features will considerably enhance the feasibility of exploiting steel dirigibles of a new type and make them a better and cheaper means of transport.

The higher the altitude at which an airplane flies, the faster can it travel. An increase in speed can therefore be more easily attained at a greater altitude. It has been proved after very careful calculations that in an atmosphere rarified 4, 9 and 100 times the speed can increase by 2, 3 and 10 times under the condition the power of the motor should be increased. In a rarified atmosphere the rate at which a missile can travel is equivalent to its motive power. And these are just the points which are being solved by Tsiolkovsky's all-metal dirigible.

The Soviet journalist L. Kassil in speaking of an interview which he has had with the inventor says: "He (Tsiolkovsky) speaks of interplanetary flight with marvelous clarity. He is by no means an Utopian. He is continually engaged in calculations. This is knowledge without pride, confidence without affectation. Tsiolkovsky's latest work deals with the question of inter-planetary repopulation."

The 75th anniversary of Tsiolkovsky's birth has recently been celebrated in the Soviet Union. In Moscow it was honoured in the Columns Hall of the House of Trade Unions which was filled to overflowing by representatives from scientific and social organisations, from works and factories. Speeches were made by R. Eideman, President of the Central Council of Osavia-khim, E. Luppel, President of the Chief Scientific Committee, Prof. Veger, representing the VARNITSO (Organisation of Soviet scientific and technical workers), and representatives of Moscow factories.

Prof. Rynin made a speech on the "Life and work of Tsiolkovsky in connection with aviation and retroactive motive power". This was followed by a speech by Prof. Vorobiov who spoke of Tsiolkovsky's work in the field of aviation construction.

In his reply to the speeches and greetings, Tsiolkovsky declared that he had only been given free scope in his work after the coming of the Soviets into power, and that he felt sure that his all-metal dirigible would serve the cause of the USSR.

In accordance with a decree passed by the Central Executive Committee of the USSR Tsiolkovsky has been awarded the Labour Order of the Red Banner. 5 scholarships have been endowed in scientific-research institutes in his name.
About ten years have passed since the first Soviet scientific expedition to the North was organised, on Lenin's initiative, on the steamer "Persey". The small expedition on the "Persey" served as the beginning of the Soviet arctic explorations.

Since then there has been created a floating Marine Institute subsequently reorganised into the State Oceanographic Institute.

At the same time there was also set up an Institute for the study of the North. Finally, in 1930 the government organised the All-Union Arctic Institute, the only scientific institution in the world specially devoted to the study of polar countries.

With every passing year the work of exploring the North is developing on a broader and broader scale. Already more than 50 expeditions beyond the Arctic circle have been carried out by Soviet navigators.

The arctic cruises of 1932 are of special importance. On the 1st of August began the Second International Polar Year. Among the tasks which world science laid upon the expeditions of this year was the opening of new polar stations to the number of at least 17, of which 10 had to be opened by the Soviet Union.

During the past summer vessels flying the Soviet flag left the Archangel port in rapid succession. In the history of polar explorations of the Soviet Union 1932 will be marked as a year of the greatest achievements and heroism.

The USSR carried out its task in excess of expectations. Many of the stations opened this year are of considerably larger size than had been planned and their equipment makes it possible to carry on the work on a broad scale. Thus in the Tikhaya Bay (Pacific Bay) on Franz Joseph Land, there have been built, in excess plan, a pavilion of actinometry, a telephone station, a radio laboratory, and other scientific laboratories.

This year's favourable ice conditions facilitated the success of the expeditions. This unquestionably helped the ice-breaker "Malyguin", the hero of the Soviet polar voyages, to carry out its record-breaking arctic explorations, in making two trips in one summer to the remote and inaccessible Franz Joseph Land. At the extreme point of this archipelago, on Rudolf Land, a site has been selected for the northernmost polar station in the world.

On August 15 the "Malyguin", with a cargo of building materials, equipment and provisions for winter stations, left on its second voyage.

"Enveloped in fog the ice-breaker is paving its way through the White and Barentz Seas", the special correspondent of "Izvestia" telegraphed from the vessel. "Day and night pilots take turns on the captain's bridge. They search the fog, studying the compass to guide the way — on the lookout for ice, for land....

"Neither ice nor land, and the 77th and the 78th degrees northern latitude
For four feverish days wintering materials for the colony were unloaded in Bay Tikhaya. Then the vessel hoisted anchor and steamed northward where land is no more, where only ice and water stretch far as the pole.

On the last day of August the "Malyguin" broke the record for vessels sailing in northern latitude within the European arctic. At 82° 27' the ice-breaker was checked by an immense mass of ice, 7 to 8 metres thick.

The ship turned back to Teplitz Bay and on the 7th of September at 11 p.m., while a violent storm was raging, the northernmost station in the world was solemnly opened. The crew of the "Malyguin" and the members of the expedition, the workers who built the station and the local colony joined in the ceremonies. Greetings were expressed, a salute was fired and the red flag of the Land of Soviets was hoisted on the radio mast erected here, at 81° 47' northern latitude.

The "Malyguin" expedition accomplished its aim splendidly. A station was built and the first time in history men stayed for the winter on Rudolf Island.

The biggest scientists and the most courageous navigators of the Soviet Union have been engaged in the practical solution of the problem of opening new sea routes for the USSR. The names of the men who succeeded this year in honourably fulfilling the responsible task assigned them by the Soviet government — to cover in one navigation season the entire route from the White Sea to the Pacific Ocean — will forever be inscribed in the annals of northern sea voyages. Their names are: Prof. O. Schmidt, leader of the expedition, Prof. V. Wiese, head of the scientific section, and V. Veronin, captain of the ice-breaker "Sibiriakov", which carried out a voyage that has no parallel in the history of arctic exploration.

Their feat would have been impossible without the heroic co-operation of every participant in the expedition. "The trying conditions which the ice-breaker met were overcome by the spirit of organisation and enthusiasm of the entire crew and of all the scientific workers, by the socialist competition of the brigades, which broke speed records in unloading cargo and all but declared themselves shock brigades" — said the leaders of the expedition in their report to the Soviet government.

The route covered was one which had caused many of the bravest seafarers of the world to fail. Only three men had been

"Malyguin" in the ice-fields

have been left behind. Last year in these latitudes the "Malyguin" had long been battering the ice, nosing for an opening among the ice-fields. We have passed the 79th and the 80th degrees northern latitude, that of Nordbruk Island, that of Cape Flora.

"Neither ice nor land — naught but fog and water. Finally on the night of the 21st the screen of fog began to thin, finally lifting completely. In the glare of the midnight sun breathlessly stretches the ocean, and three miles from us appears the magnificent George Land. Cape Grant towers above us in a dark mass; beyond it a mighty glacier stands like a bluish precipice above the shore, red lichens spotting its snow-white cap. And trailing the precipitous glacier a row of icebergs like a frozen breaker. Franz Joseph Land..."

August 22, at dawn the "Malyguin" put in at Tikhaya Bay, a place no longer justifying its name. For there in 1929 a winter station was built, a single house holding 10 persons.

This year the bay has been made into a veritable scientific colony. Among the crags that surround it are scattered half a score of buildings, all of them wired for telephone and electricity. Last year only the usual meteorological and magnetic observations were made. Now the programme at Tikhaya provides for extensive scientific studies. Twenty persons remained for the winter, among them scientists of eminence such as the German physicist Dr. Scholtz and the engineer Arkhangelsky. In charge of the winter colony is Ivan Popanin, former lathe hand and red partisan.
successful in negotiating it before: Nordenskjöld, Vilkitzky and Amundsen. The first was forced, however, to spend the winter several miles from his goal, the second spent three years to achieve his aim, while the third wintered twice on route. The "Sibiriakov", on the other hand, covered the entire distance — nearly half the circumference of the globe — in 65 days.

The head of the expedition Prof. Schmidt chose an entirely new route, one which proved to be the most difficult. The ice-breaker rounded Northern Land from the North enabling the expedition to ascertain the conditions for sailing in these unexplored latitudes. This route, by which the mouth of the Kolyma river is reached from the West, opens up great possibilities for the economic development of the Yakutian Republik.

The ice-breaker "Sibiriakov" left Archangel on July 28. The first half of the voyage was attended by relatively favourable conditions. On September 10, however, the vessel met with its first serious mishap when the ice snapped the blades and screw propellers. Five days of strenuous work permitted the vessel, without seeking port, to repair the propeller and replace the blades. But more serious troubles lay in store.

On September 18 heavy polar ice accumulated over a period of years near Stone Heart Cape ripped the screw propeller and the blades sheer off. It was then that the heroic struggle of the "Sibiriakov" crew began. The expedition had to be completed. By all manner of means — drifting with the current, blowing up the ice barriers, dragging from ice-floe to ice-floe by ropes, hoisting impromptu sails on the mast — the ice-breaker was kept moving on its course. Early in October S. Kamenev, President of the Arctic Commission, received the following telegram:

"On October 1 at 3 p.m. 'Sibiriakov', under sail, crossed the meridian of Dezhnev Cape. We entered clear water in Behring straits. Task accomplished. North-Eastern covered on single trip without outside aid despite shipwreck."

Inside the straits, in clear water, the "Sibiriakov" met the trawler "Ussurjets" which a few days earlier had rushed to its aid but been kept from overtaking it by the current which had borne the ice-breaker off its route. Taken in tow by the trawler, the "Sibiriakov" went into port for repairs, to staunch the wounds sustained in its heroic struggle with the elements.

The voyage of the "Sibiriakov" opens up a new era in the history of arctic navigation. It has proved the possibility of covering the entire distance of the Arctic Ocean in one navigation season. It has brought arctic science very close to a solution of the problem of opening up the "Great Northern Route".

The "Sibiriakov" expedition is, moreover, closely bound up with the Ushakov expedition which has just
GREETINGS TO THE ICE-BREAKER "SIBIRIakov"

Ice-Breaker "Sibirakov".
Prof. O. Schmidt, Commander of the expedition.
V. Voronov, Captain.

Cordial greetings and congratulations to the participants in the expedition which has successfully solved the historical problem of sailing through the Arctic Ocean in a single navigation season.

The success of your expedition which has overcome unbelievable difficulties shows once again that there are no strongholds which bolshevik daring and bolshevik organisation cannot take by storm.

We are putting the request before the Central Executive Committee of the USSR that the participants in the expedition should be awarded the Order of Lenin and that of the Red Banner of Labour.

Stalin, Molotov, Voroshilov, Yanson.

returned after two years of explorations in Northern Land.

The exploration of Northern Land, and in particular the determining of conditions governing voyages between it and the continent, demanded some knowledge of this hitherto unexplored section of the Arctic Ocean.

The expedition led by G. Ushakov is an example of the new way in polar exploration. This expedition brilliantly demonstrated that the study of the earth's surface in the Arctic and of the Arctic Sea routes is possible not only in snatches but in a planned and permanently organised way.

On August 24, 1930, the ice-breaker "Sedov" landed four men on one of the islands of a previously unknown group later named Sergey Kamenev Islands (in honour of the chairman of the Arctic Commission).

With Ushakov, who was in charge of the expedition, were Urvantsev, engineer-geologist, S. Zhuravlev, hunter, and N. Hodo-v, radio-operator.

In deciding to remain on the Sergey Kamenev Islands these four men knew that they would face an uphill struggle, that they might cut off from the outside world for several years, that the odds against them were tremendous. But a determined will, a deep scientific interest in their work and confidence in their own powers inspired them with hope for success.

The farewell whistle of the "Sedov" had hardly faded when the members of the expedition took up their work. There was no time to lose. An arctic winter, a four-month polar night, lay ahead. G. Ushakov describes the first sally:

"We determined to utilise the remaining period of daylight for initial attempt to reach the shores of Northern Land. Once, when visibility was exceptionally good, we sighted from the S. Kamenev Islands these shores along the horizon. The ice leading to them looked smooth and promised a successful crossing.

"But anyone at all familiar with ice on sea knows that it is as unreliable as the word of princes. Our expedition had hardly made 5 kilometres when a strong coastal wind blew up and a blizzard started in the opposite direction. Blinded by the snow dust, the dogs refused to pull the heavily laden sleighs. But to stop near open water is to hazard the danger of being carried to sea. Be the difficulties what they might, we must push on. With 18 kilometres covered the expedition was forced by darkness, and the dog's exhaustion to bivouac for the night. The blizzard raged through the night and by morning the camp was practically buried under snow. At noon, blizzard beginning to give way, the expedition started plodding further, in an Eastern direction. More obstacles were ahead, for in many spots the wind had swept the ice clear of all snow and left a jagged surface. The dogs cut their feet and their blood stained the ice. Not until the evening of the third day, after a final effort, did the dogs pull the sleighs into the mysterious shores of Northern Land. We had left a total of 90 kilometres behind."

The expedition spent the winter in its main base preparing for explorations in the spring. The work was conducted by plan, step by step. Itineraries were outlined and food bases established along the pro-
posed route. Repeatedly Ushakov and Zhuravlev made a start through pitch dark-ness for Northern Land, in order to deliver provisions to the supply bases.

Only after the polar night was ended could the expedition start out to make a topographic map and do other preparatory work for a thorough survey of the land. In the course of 1931 two journeys were made. One lasted 36 days and the other — a much more difficult one both in respect to distance covered and conditions of travel — 52 days. The third and fourth journeys were made during the second year.

The highly valuable scientific material gathered has already been worked over in part and is shortly to be published. This material is remarkably rich and varied. The data on the hundreds of minerals investigated are interesting both from a scientific and an economic point of view, the expedition having found indications of various ore deposits. The diaries or logs of the expedition (containing detailed descriptions of the fauna of Northern Land) point out the very rich industrial possibilities of the islands.

During the last voyage of 1932 the topographical map of Northern Land was completed. The blank of the Arctic Ocean has been filled in by the Ushakov expedition, which made a complete chart of the archipelago and named all its islands. The map drawn by Urvantsev gives the contours of the Bolshevik, October Revolution, Komsoomolsk and Pioneer Islands, surrounded by smaller islands and divided by the Red Army, Jungsturm and Shokalsky straits (the latter strait was discovered earlier, but had been thought to be a bay). This was the map used by the expedition which Prof. Schmidt headed when on the "Sibiriakov" it rounded Northern Land, for the first time, from the North.

Thus, as a result of the work of the Soviet arctic explorers the blanks on the section of the Arctic which belongs to the USSR are disappearing. Lands previously indicated on the charts by dots to show incertainty are now delineated with precision. New, hitherto unknown islands have been discovered, valuable ore deposits new fisheries, hunting regions etc. found. From year to year the wealth of scientific materials has kept accumulating. All this has been made possible, as S. Kamenev, the chairman of the Arctic Commission of the USSR, declared, because "the survey of these lands has been taken in hand by new, proletarian explorers" endowed with strength, energy, the will to fight their way through to victory and imbued with the conviction that "the discovery and exploration of new sea routes are part and parcel of the great plan of socialist construction" (report of the "Sibiriakov" expedition).

WHAT IS ANGARA?

(From a recent book "The Country of the Bull")

By Daniel Fiebich

In an aeroplane cabin one can ponder over things quietly, circumstantially, thoroughly. The horizon is wide, the field of vision is extended enormously.

During the hours of the sing-song monotonic hum which I spent in an open mail Focker (Irktusk—Nizneudinsk—Krasnooarsk—Novosibirsk) and then in a cabin full of prosaic comfort, sitting next to the window of a three-motor ANT (Novosibirsk—Omsk—Kurgan—Sverdlovsk) during these beautiful tours in the air the whole of Siberia, which was lying a thousand metres beneath, passed before us like a live geographical map.

It swam past us covered with motley shadows of the clouds creeping over its sields, wooded hills, ornamented with the silver lace of innumerable rivers flowing northward. It was overgrown with bluish-green, thick-haired fell of the Siberian virgin forests and in the south it passed into the blue smoke which delineated the mountain ridges of Pamir and Tyan Shan.

It passed glittering with the lead of Angara, Yenissei, Irtysh, on the banks of which there appeared the mosaic of big industrial cities, the glass and concrete cubes of new constructions, the smoke of mills, the new bright yellow constructions of saw mills, Soviet farms.

We followed the course of birds — by that great international route which for the first time was struck by the Soviet air squadron, which flew from Moscow through the ancient sea sands of Gobi to Peking and which is now being followed not only by our powerful aeroplanes, con-
structed at our works, which are regularly following this route, but also by Germans, French, Americans, Japanese, Italians. They are flying from Europe to the Pacific, from Tokyo to Paris, flying round the world. I have seen at the Irkutsk aerodrome a white and blue aviette, similar to a dragon-fly, which belonged to Japanese airmen. In Kurgan, when waiting to mount the plane, three Parisians descended from the air, a young women in horn-rimmed spectacles wearing male pyjamas and two men.

The number of passengers and the amount of mail bags and luggage on the Trans-siberian mail route is increasing yearly. In July 1930 the Moscow—Krasnoyarsk air line carried 5 passengers, 1,4 tons of mail, .09 tons of cargo. In July 1931 the corresponding figures were 288 passengers, 5,4 tons of mail, 2.3 tons of cargo.

... When flying, in the clouds it is well to ponder over things.

I thought of Siberia — of the extraordinary country of which I saw and learned only a little. I thought of those fascinating horizons, which the Revolution opened up before Siberia.

The country of convict prisons, of convict songs, of terrible roads which chained prisoners used to tread, is being transformed — in fact has been transformed — into an Eldorado, into an industrial base of colossal power and energy.

Some one has said that in the course of the last centuries the world industrial centres have been shifting from the shores of the Atlantic to those of the Pacific.

The Urals serve as one of the illustrations of this statement. The half-deserted Urals which under capitalism were regarded as "non-paying", with their factories, built under serfdom, the Urals which at one time yielded supremacy to South-Russian industry, now hold the key positions.

The blast furnaces of Magnitogorsk, Kuznetskstroy, the growing metallurgical giant of Nizhny-Tagil...

The Ural mountain ridge is being transformed into the spine of the Soviet heavy industry.

It is now the turn of Siberia.

Siberia, the freed Mongol slave, cruel, enigmatic, precious, like a box filled with jewels, possessing mighty streams, where power stations are destined to rise, with steppes capable of feeding many thousands of herds of cattle, with huge forests and mountains harbouring millions of tons of coal, all kinds of ore, and gold.

We know of the virgin forests of Siberia, which have been sung by hundreds of poets, with its romanticism after the fashion of Fennimore Cooper, with animals unseen by man, with forest inhabitants, who shoot in distant forest paths successful gold prospectors or liquor smugglers.

But do we know that the Siberian virgin forests occupy an area, exceeding all the forests of Western Europe put together?

Is it known that the yearly increase of Siberian forests is itself capable of satisfying one-third of the demand for timber in the whole of Europe?

We have had enough of the archaic romanticism. We are surfeited with it. It is not only harmful, but also out of date.

Today, another romantic conception is coming to the fore. The romanticism of magnificent constructions, of heroic labour. The romanticism of scientific-research explorations investigating the jungles. The romanticism of the pioneers of a new epoch, of scouts, whose faces bear traces of terrible wounds inflicted by mosquitoes, with boots covered with morass mud, who are working veins and making surveys of an unknown country.

These are the scouts of the great coming socialist advance on the virgin forest, the gloomy hostile nature, of old Siberia. They will be followed by armies of hundreds of thousands of workers, who will fell century-old cedar trees, blow up rocks, build high roads and electric railways, dig the ground with excavators, mix concrete, assemble and erect machines, lay cables on mountains which will transmit a high tension current for a distance of hundreds of kilometres.

They will erect constructions such as have not yet been seen by mankind. And here we can refer to Angarostroy.

In the days I spent in Irkutsk the loud-speakers in Karl Marx Street were telling loudly about Angara, about millions of horsepower, about kilowatt-hours.

The first scientific-research Congress of Eastern Siberia was at that time taking place. Engineers, professors, specialists, academicians, who arrived from Leningrad, were discussing the plan of the coming great work which will transform the huge region beyond recognition.

The agenda placed as its first item that same rapid river with green waters which, without in the least suspecting such flattering attention to it, was tearing along past the pillars of a long wooden bridge,
not far from where the Conference was taking place.

Let us quote engineer V. Malyshev, who is guiding the construction of Angarostroy:

"The total capacity of Angara throughout the whole of its length is about 15 million H.P. The rapids can give up to 25 million kw.-hours a year of exceedingly cheap electrical energy. If we compare this figure with others, the immensity of its power will become obvious; it is 90% of the energy produced by the whole of Germany at all its power stations. This means the feeding of industry equal to 90% of all the industries of present-day Germany. It means an energy capable of satisfying 25% of all the industries of present-day America. This energy we are able to obtain at one spot near the rapids of Angara. And if we take into consideration also the Small Angarostroy, then these two stations put together will be powerful enough to feed the entire German industry."

In order to grasp the magnitude and power of the Angara hydro-electric power constructions, we can compare them with Dnieprostroy. The completed Dnieper power station will at first be able to muster 500,000 H.P. Later on the figure will reach up to 800,000 H.P.

But as regards Angara — let engineer Malyshev speak on this:

"It is possible to construct two stations, one of 2.7 and the other of 2.5 million H.P. Thus these two stations could supply a power of 5,200,000 H.P. of equal tension throughout the whole year. This latter circumstance is particularly valuable, since it makes the Angara stations superior in this respect to other hydro-electric power stations of the world.

"Apart from Angara great reserves of energy of considerable value are obtainable from other big rivers, such as Irkut, Kitoy, Oka, etc."

The furious onslaught of the waters of Angara will be utilised in sections most favorably situated for that purpose. At the first section of the Angara, 12-18 kilometres from the Baikal, dikes and stations of the Small Angarostroy are being planned. The Great Angarostroy will be constructed near the rapids below Bratskoye village, covering a distance of about 230 kilometres. There the river is tearing along, foaming and storming, compressed by very steep banks of hard mountainous rock, leaping over stones and rocks. Dams will bar Angara here at three points. Near the Padun Rapids, where the height of the dike will be 21 metres, a hydro-electric power station will be built with a capacity of 1 million H.P. Near the Long (Dolgy) Rapids, a station of 1,750,000 H.P. will use the pressure of the waters falling from a height of 35 metres. Finally in the neighbourhood of the Shaman Rapids, the dam will be 25 metres high and the station will have a capacity of 1,290,000 H.P.

The total capacity of the Great Angarostroy alone will be 4 million H.P. ("Angarostroy" by engineer A. Goravsky).

The Leningrad bureau of "Energostroy" has estimated that the approximate cost of electrical energy in the Small Angarostroy will be .56 kopecks and in the Great Angarostroy .25-.30 kopecks per kilowatt-hour. So far the cheapest electrical power in the Union (the Dnieper station) will give current at .75 kop. per kilowatt-hour.

Angarostroy is a construction unique in the whole world as regards its power. It will be an electric power centre of world importance.

The construction on the Angara is being planned as a single unit, a combinat. It will be constructed on the same principle as Dnieprostroy.

This implies not only the construction of an hydro-electric station, but also the construction around it of new gigantic works, new socialist cities, the building of electric railways, of everything that will be fed by the electric power of that station.

Dnieprostroy is being created in an industrially populated area of the Ukraine. In Angara, on the other hand, the tasks are more complicated and wider — the colonisation of new uninhabited territories, the reconstruction of agriculture, the development of all kinds of transport, total reorganisation of a wild sparsely populated and inhospitable region.

There on the shores of Lake Baikal, in virgin forests infested with bears, it is possible to create an all-Union centre of electrical industry, of non-ferrous metallurgy, of light machine building, of siliceous and chemical industries.

This is indicated by all the natural characteristics of the region.

Cheap electrical power, coal and iron, non-ferrous metals, high-grade clays, forests. Moreover, the construction of mighty power stations will give Siberia a new water-route 5,000 kilometres long. Almost throughout its entire length the region
is intersected by one of the largest water arteries: Selenga—Baikal—Angara—Yenisei. When the Angara rapids, which are now innavigable, will be destroyed, nearly the whole of this system can with relative ease be transformed into a navigable route. Steamers loaded with lumber, raw material and manufactured goods of the new gigantic works will proceed from Baikal straight to the sea of Kara, on the route of the Kara expedition, along which we are yearly transporting tens of thousands of tons of export goods. It will then be possible to travel by water from Hamburg, London or New-York to Mongolia, to the threshold of Gobi.

Angarostroy will be constructed by inhabitants of a classless socialist society.

Preliminary exploration work is now being carried out. In the forests are roaming scientific expeditions, digging near the banks of Kitoy, making surveys and hydraulic observations on the Irkut, investigating the Padun rapids, where in the days to come the lights of the main station will shine.

And round about, as far as one can see, there stretch virgin forests, jungles, morasses, full of wild animals, huntsmen’s paths, and the primitive huts of the tungsuzes.

... Late at night after a forced landing at some unknown pasture near the fringe of the forest we succeeded at last in tearing away from earth and to speed upwards.

The passengers are sleeping in their wickerwork chairs. From the pilot’s cabin, after opening an oblique door, the mechanic creeps out, treading firmly the narrow corridor.

In the lilac haze of dawn, through the duraluminium wing, we sight the city of Omsk.

It begins to shift the chessboard of its square blocks lined with a sparse row of lights. Irtysh glitters like lead.

There it is—the former hornet’s nest. The capital of the little tsar of Siberia. The residence of the “supreme ruler of the Russian State”, the city of Admiral Kolchak. Here the battalions of the interventionists were strutting about. Here they dictated the man with black double-headed eagles on his shoulder straps to advance either in this or that direction.

I recall the people I have met. Tens of former guerilla fighters, underground workers, Red commanders.

The fact that a Soviet aeroplane was now able to fly over Soviet Omsk was largely due to their present and past life, to their everyday work. At present their work included the transformation of Siberia of the convict prisons, the Siberia of Kolchak, at one time groaning under the heel of the interventionists, into a modern Siberia—that of Angarostroy and of socialism.

**SHAMSHOV I, A SOVIET HEALTH-RESORT**

**By Sh al'va Soslani**

Shamshovi, this word is a compound of two proper names—of a man and a place. Shamshe Lezhava, a communist physician, had discovered this wonderful health resort in his native valley among the Shovi hills, in the midst of a thick pine forest, in the highlands of Georgia.

A rare name is Shamshe. The doctor is now an old man. In his young days he was active in the revolutionary movement, worked underground, was hounded by the tsarist spies and police, and went through imprisonment and exile. All those years he cherished an undying affection for his native home, and as a physician he thought much about the great medical possibilities of the mineral springs and pine forests of Shovi.

In his childhood he had heard many stories about the wonderful cures effected by the Shovi waters. The origin of these springs and forests is shrouded in ancient mystery and folklore.

Once upon a time, in the hoary past, David the Builder, or his grand-daughter tarina Tamara, riding on mules, drove through this locality, making a halt at the village of Glola. All the mules—so the story goes—made straight for the water and would not budge one step farther. The tsarina herself sampled this water, and the fact of such royal appreciation was duly commemorated. A church was built on the rock, and the village grew into a large township. As the population grew, so did also its superstitions. The
church stood for eight centuries and grew into one with the country and its people, and its rocky hills.

Here, near the bridge of the Rion river, straight from the rocky shore, gushes a strong spring of gaseous ferric water.

Here and there, on the meadows, on the slopes of the hills, are the miserable huts of the poverty-stricken peasants...

Such were the conditions not so very long ago. In such a hut, with a hole in the ceiling for a chimney, and an open hearth in the middle of the living room, a crowd of peasants would gather around the fire to listen to hoary tales handed down through the ages.

The oldest patriarch begins the story.

"As is known, the Devi 1 dwell in the mountains...

"And the spring, which gushes right here under the hill, was guarded from times immemorial by the good fairy Vodza, the patroness of the poor...

"Her hair flows in gigantic tresses. If she spreads out one of these tresses, a thick pine forest grows forthwith out of the ground; she spreads out another tress, and a spring begins to gush...

"Nine gruesome Devi fought for her hand, and in their furious combat they overturned hills and rocks, uprooted trees.

"And fleeing from her terrible wooers, the beautiful fairy tore down one rock, a second, and a third, and gathering them in her lap she lay in ambush between two hills — the Buba and the Dgviora hills which wear snow veils over their heads.

"A great battle raged between the Devi for possession of the fairy...

"It all happened here, amid the Shovi hills...

"A stone was not left in its place. Huge primeval alder-trees flew about like splinters in the hands of the Devi. Mountains were shifted. Many of them were swept down by floods. And one of Devi, having clutched a mountain — they say it was the Mamion Glacier — desperately tore away a block of ice. A huge stream began to gush from the heart of the mountain, flowing downward in a swift river. Another one of the Devi sought refuge in the Buba cliff, but Buba angrily threw him down the glacier and poured a river over him. (Thus came the swift running Bubis-Tskhali river). A third, the most agile among the Devi, climbed up the Tchkhont-chu Peak, but his tail got caught in a crack of the glacier, the ice was torn open, and the Tchkhonchur river began to flow...

"Thus the Devi failed to overtake the fairy, either drowning in the iron waters, or losing themselves in the impassable woods. The rising sun found the Devi exposed in the mountains and they were turned into stony rocks...

"Listen, children... Do you hear the sound of rumbling? At night the Devi rise in the mountains, and everytime one of them shifts his foot, the rock underneath begins to rumble..."

And the young listeners would huddle around the fire, thrilled and awe-stricken. The old man would clean his pipe for another smoke, and another story.

This time it is a story of real life.

A story about events no less terrible, although perpetrated by human Devi — the feudal landlords and oppressors of the common people, the vicious and ruthless rulers of Svanetia and of Ratcha.

Shamshe Lezhava turned over in his mind these reminiscences in his far-away exile. In 1910 he returned to his native home.

He found the same old Shovi — ignorant and superstitious, fearing God, the landlords, the police, and the terrible Devi. The ferric water streaming down from the Mamison Glacier...

Down the slopes of the Shovi plateau, where the green pastures are bordered with pine trees, the carbo-oxide waters trickle down through the bushes and moss, leaving a red ferric sediment. And in the middle of the plateau — amid the thick alder-trees and birches — is a little lake of clear water.

The ground all around is muddy. There is no path for human feet, and only the cattle manage to wade a path to the clear refreshing water.

Here, in the valley of the rivers Chan-chakh and Buba — where the bolshevik doctor found concealment in a shepherd’s hut — the idea originated of building the Shovi health-resort.

Doctor Shamshe, in 1913, a fugitive from the tsarist authorities, organised the first "Auxiliary Society for building the Shovi health resort".

The idea developed. The dream turned into a feasible plan.

The plan roamed through the virgin forests, like the Devi of old, shifting mountains and rocks. Roads were built to the north and to the south.

The plateau between the Shovi valleys was cleared. The swamps were drained.
The stream of the ferric waters was traced to its source — the Vodza Spring.

Investigation revealed the existence of four groups of mineral springs — astringent acid springs, which have long since been attracting malarial and anemic patients from villages near and far.

Thus was the plan first originated in the dark days of tsarist rule.

But the plan was born into a land in captivity.

Both the land and the plan were in the captivity of tsarist Russia, and they remained so until the October Revolution of 1917.

Finally, the Soviet Union became the native land of Dr. Shamshe, and his cherished plan was then revived.

The plan was turned into a real thing.

The building of the Shovi health-resort was started in the very next year after the sovietisation of Georgia: it was one of the first health-resorts in Transcaucasia to be built according to preliminary plan. It was the first Soviet health-resort.

* * *

The years that passed since 1922 to this day were full of arduous and persevering labour carried on in true bolshevik fashion under most difficult and trying conditions. Machines and building materials had to be hauled up the steep mountain paths, over bottomless precipices, amid numerous handicaps and dangers.

Down below, at the bottom of the gorge, runs the river Rion, noisily forcing its course through the impeding rocks.

At the top, where the clouds are on a line with the pinacles of tall beech trees, the mountain climber has to proceed cautiously, step by step. Here, along the slope of the mountain, the Military Ossetian Highway leads its winding course to Shovi and on to Mamiison Pass.

Man looks so pitifully small among these imposing grandeur of nature — like ants toiling on a hill.

There is not one place in the mountain, not a single village or meadow, associated here with the name of man — most of them bear the names of animals, or of various species of trees and minerals, or of the outward shape of mountains and rocks, or are dedicated to the memory of various battles both successful and unsuccessful.

Today, amid the Devi mountains, man encounters nature, fully armed with technical equipment and scientific knowledge.

Governmental commissions, scientific expeditions, geologists, chemists, engineers and technicians, architects and professors, proceeded to Shovi along the tortuous mountain paths, to study the locality of the future health-resort and to organise the preliminary work... The plan of the great balmecological resort of the future has become a tangible reality.

In 1928, on the tenth anniversary of the October Revolution, the Shovi health-resort was officially opened, and named after Shamshovi — in honour of the untiring physician and veteran bolshevik Shamshe Lezhava.

These hills, these rocks, the forests and the glacial altitudes, the noisy rivers of Chanchekh and Buba, listened on that day for the first time in the thousands of centuries of their existence — to the tale of their ultimate subjection to the will and determination of man.

The builders of the Shovi health-resort and their guests-peasants from surrounding villages, deputies from Svanetia and Ossetia, engineers and chemists, geologists and common labourers, shepherds and foresters — all of them danced in chorus on that day upon the Shovi plateau the ancient folk-dance Perkhis as the supreme expression of joy and elation.

* * *

In times past there used to be fights and encounters among the different races and tribes inhabiting the mountain villages. Today they are organised in State and collective farms, forming a happy and united, prosperous agricultural family.

The only rivalry now existing is that of "socialist competition", the only fighting is that of "shock brigades" endeavouring to outdo one another in the carrying out of production plans.

The future of Shamshovi has already become its present.

It seems as though the hills, the air, the sun, the water, and the forests, are being rejuvenated here, along with everything else in this country.

From local red stone, gray granite, and pine timber, the Shamshovi health-resort is being built.

Built to face the sun and snow-clad mountain peaks.

Built in the pine forest, close to the Vodza springs.

And the future of the great health-resort that is to be is already discernible from the plan of development mapped out for Shamshovi in the second Five-Year Plan.
Six years ago the first big Soviet hydro-electric station with a capacity of 60,000 kilowatts was opened on the Volkhov river. The builders of the Volkhov station were then transferred to Dnieprostroy. The huge hydro-electric station on the Dniepr with an ultimate capacity of 810,000 kilowatts (of which 450,000 are already in use) was opened on October 10, 1932.

In the second Five-Year Plan the workers of Volkhovstroy and Dnieprostroy are to be faced with a task of even greater magnitude: they are to build on the Volga four power stations exceeding several times the capacity of the Dniepr station.

Three of the stations will be built on the Middle Volga: in the Ivanovo-Voznessensk district, in the Nizhny-Novgorod district and in that of Perm (on the Kama river).

The approximate capacity of these power stations will be between 800,000 and 1,000,000 kilowatts. The stations are to be completed not later than October 1, 1935.

The Nizhny-Novgorod, Ivanovo-Voznessensk and Perm districts represent important industrial centres in which are concentrated the textile industry, big metal plants, etc.

These powerful electric stations will lend further impetus to the development of the productive forces of these districts by raising the technical level of the industrial enterprises.

The fourth and most powerful hydro-electric station will be built on the Volga in the region of Kamyshin, and will be the greatest hydro-electric plant in the world, with a capacity of 1,800,000—2,000,000 kilowatts. Its construction is planned for completion in 1937, the end of the second Five-Year Plan.

While the first three stations will chiefly serve industry, the fourth station is part of a major project to irrigate the regions of the Volga subject to drought.

Prof. Chaplygin, the author of the scheme for reconstruction of the Volga and irrigation of the Trans-Volga regions, said of this work:

"The irrigation of this territory will insure a regular crop of 1.5—2 tons per hectare. This must be multiplied by the 4—4.3 million hectares which are to be irrigated to conceive the far-reaching economic benefits expected from the proposed Volga irrigation system.

Kamyshin on the Volga, where one of the new power stations is to be built
"The Trans-Volga region will be converted into one of the largest granaries in the Soviet Union, with a gross yield of 5,000,000 tons of wheat from irrigated lands.

"The Kamyshin power station will yield 9-10 milliard kilowatt-hours of energy per year against the Dniepr station’s 2-3 milliard kilowatt-hours. Kamyshin will therefore be equal to four Dnieprostroys.

"The dam of the power station will be a structure unexampled in history, as it is to be some 3 kilometres long and 30 metres high.

"The obstacles to irrigating the Trans-Volga steppes are immense. The area in view is at an altitude considerably above the Volga. In consequence about 25 milliard cubic metres of water will have to be raised annually to a height of from 60 to 100 metres.

"As the irrigation season lasts for only three months, stupendous pumping stations would be required to pump this mass of water in so short a space of time, but my plan foresees the creation of a system of reservoirs — giant internal lakes — over the irrigated area. Into these reservoirs the water will be pumped the year through and during the irrigation season their water will be used to flood the fields.

"Irrigation itself will also be organised along new lines. Instead of running water through ditches as is commonly done, it is proposed to use the wholly new method of sprinkling by electrical means.

"The estimated cost of the Volga irrigation scheme is from 5 to 7 milliard rubles."

The daring project for irrigating the drought-menaced Volga steppes is no utopia but a tangible fact in socialist construction. Already 3,000 technicians and 11,000 workers are engaged in the preliminary work. The next few months will see their number grow to 6,000 technicians, 20,000 workers and 3,000 collaborators of projecting organisations. The government has issued orders to complete all surveys, charting and draughting within half a year.

During the second Five-Year Plan four power stations are to go into operation on the Volga; the immense Kamyshin station to be one of them. And the Volga region will, in addition, be fed by an astoundingly large and modern irrigation system.

THE WHITE SEA-BALTIC CANAL

This November marks the completion of a canal connecting the Baltic and the White Seas. The next navigation season vessels will proceed from Leningrad through this canal straight to the White Sea.

This canal is one of the biggest constructions of the Soviet Union. It is 226 kilometres long and has been built in record time — 300 days. The Suez Canal, which is 164 kilometres long, took 10 years, and the Panama Canal, 82 kilometres long, took 9 years to build.

The White Sea-Baltic Canal is located in the land of lakes — Karelia. It begins near Port Soroki on the White Sea, then proceeds along the river Vyg, the lake of Vyg, river Telekinka and merges into the Onega lake near the town of Povenets. From here along the Onega lake, Svir river, Ladoga lake and Neva river, boats will proceed to Leningrad.

The canal has a history. The route it follows has been known for several hundreds of years.

Already in the XVIIth century two Englishmen Thomas Southen and John Spark went by the water route from the White Sea to the Onega lake in order to sell their goods to the local inhabitants. They made their journey on three boats — partly on lakes and rivers and partly by portage. Up to the present day has been preserved along the route of the canal an enormous cleared path cut out in 1702 by order of Peter the Great.

Thus the necessity of creating a through route connecting two important seas was felt very long ago. Under the tsarist government there was frequent talk of the construction of a White Sea-Baltic canal, plans were frequently drafted and surveys made. As late as 1915 the State Duma discussed the question of building a water route. However nothing came of it. It is only now under the Soviet government that we were successful in realising this grandiose enterprise.

The enormous task which confronted the builders of the canal was not only to connect into a single system rivers and lakes which are situated between the White Sea and the Baltic, but also to make such
a canal navigable. This task could be solved in two ways, either by deepening the waterway of rivers and lakes or by raising their level by means of dikes, dams and sluices. The builders of the canal elected the second course. By means of enormous sluices built near Povenets ship will be raised to the height of 76 metres and then through a lock 6 kilometres long cut in rock will gradually descend towards the White Sea. Near the ancient village Nadvoitsy powerful dikes are being constructed. When they are completed the famous Nadvoitsy rapids will be completely submerged.

A great piece of construction work is the Dubrovskaya dike built near village of Nadvoitsy. This dike will have to bear the pressure of $5^{1/2}$ milliard cubic metres of water coming from lake Vyg. The dike stretches for $3^{1/2}$ kilometres. A special committee of the Scientific-Research Institute of Hydrotechnics has inspected this dike and expressed the opinion that it constitutes one of the most interesting and original constructions of recent years. It was built in 100 days by 3,000 men.

Lower down, 20 kilometres from Nadvoitsy, near lake Shavanskoye, one of the most original constructions has been erected, — a wooden dike bound with iron rims. Semicircular in form, it reminds one of a gigantic log placed across the river.

Sluices, dams and dikes intersect the whole canal raising the level of the water and making it navigable for sea-going vessels. The main part of these constructions is already completed. The following striking figures illustrate the enormous work that has been carried out: 1,800,000 cubic metres of rock, 6,700,000 cubic metres of earth, 334,000 cubic metres of concrete, etc. This means a considerably bigger volume of work accomplished than either the Panama or the Suez Canals.

The importance of the new White Sea-Baltic Canal is enormous. The wealth of Karelia, — the Karelian timber, the Khibiny apatite, the coal of Pechora, granite etc. — is incalculable. Hitherto the absence of highroads for transport was the main difficulty which hampered the development of the productive forces of that country. It possesses only one railway, the Murman railway. The White Sea-Baltic Canal solves this most important question.

Big ships sailing from Leningrad to the White Sea will no longer have to follow a roundabout route along the shores of Scandinavia. They will be able to go by the shortest direct route.

The last constructions which will make the canal navigable for sea going vessels are being completed. In the summer of 1933 the ships will for the first time use the White Sea-Baltic Canal.
Literature and Art

THE CONGRESS OF SOVIET WRITERS

Our journal has already taken note of the reconstruction of the Soviet literary and art organisations, which resulted in the formation of a United League of Soviet Writers.

In autumn of 1932 in Moscow took place the first enlarged plenum of the Organisational Committee of the League, attended by writers of the RSFSR, the Ukraine, the Transcaucasian Federation, Tartaria, Turkménia, the Crimean Republic, Moldavia, Tadjiestan, Uzbekistan, Kirghizia, Kazakstan, Siberia, the Udmurt Region. 129 delegates in all. About 500 writers and members of literary circles were present as guests.

The first plenum of the United League of Soviet Writers coincided with the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution. Thus the results summed up at the plenum were at the same time the results of the development of Soviet literature for the past fifteen years.

Soviet literature appears before the whole world with an enormous list of names and works created in the land of the October Revolution.

The first theme, which expressed the strongest ties which bind our literature to present-day life, was that of civil war. In a number of important works the heroic years of struggle against armed counter-revolution and intervention have been portrayed. The creation of such works was for the writers a great test of their revolutionary qualification and of their creative forces and mastery.

Socialist construction has opened up a new period in the development of Soviet literature, having been responsible for works in which there appear the living images of the men of the Five-Year Plan, images of the new village, of State and collective farms.

These creative efforts made possible only by a decisive struggle against the hostile influences of the old world forces acting in literature as potently as in the other spheres of economic and cultural life. The organisations of proletarian writers, which existed in the preceding period, helped to conduct this struggle.

The main body of writers who witnessed the downfall of the pillars of the old world, the progress of gigantic construction, the growth of unprecedented enthusiasm on the part of millions of people, resolutely and irrevocably took their stand on the side of the Soviet government.

These events led to the unification of all Soviet authors in a single league, which replaced the former literary organisations, whose limitations had begun to hamper the further development of Soviet literature.

The decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party concerning the dissolution of those organisations and the creation of a United League of Soviet Writers (as well as a league of artists, composers, etc.) was carried out on April 23, 1932. Only a few months elapsed from that date to the plenum. The plenum gave a striking proof of the absolute correctness of this decision.

All writers, including many of those who hitherto had taken no active part in social-literary life, came to the plenum in order to declare their close allegiance with the construction of socialism in the USSR.

Dozens of representatives of the literature of the RSFSR, the Ukraine, Georgia and other Union republics passed before the plenum. Some of them were proletarian authors, others old writers who grew up under conditions of bourgeois culture, such as Andrey Bely and Mikhail Prishvin. What was the bond uniting them all? It was the desire to fight for the construction of a socialist society, the desire to work on the creation of socialist culture.

The plenum was a demonstration of a brotherly alliance between the literature of the nations of the USSR and proved that the October Revolution had really caused a revival of art among all nations which were previously oppressed. Suffice it to mention that the Ukrainian State Publishing House possesses a reserve of 20 long novels, some of which are extremely original, both in point of art and ideas.
The plenum devoted much attention to the problems of the theory of literature, of style and of artistic method. Of all theoretical questions the fundamental one at the present stage is that of "socialist realism" as a style of Soviet literature. This slogan does not mean, of course, that all writers are bound to follow a uniform method. The principal and most profound meaning of the formula of socialist realism is the demand that the artist should be truthful and should not snapshot isolated facts which may often distort the real picture of life. He should be truthful in the sense that he should reveal the leading tendencies of actual life, showing the present events in the fullness of their development. Such method does not contradict the presence of revolutionary romanticism in Soviet literature, a romanticism which expresses the exaltedness of the author, his tendency to get an insight into the future of the Soviet Union.

This position determines the tasks of Soviet criticism.

A Soviet critic must not be one who destroys or extols a writer on account of the presumed ideas of the writer and the presumed lack of correspondence between these views and the standpoint of the critic himself. A Soviet critic is bound to lay emphasis on actual life which the artist represents in his images and show the degree to which the artist approaches to or deviates from real life. It is only in this way that it is possible to investigate the causes of success or failure of a given author. It goes without saying that only Soviet criticism based on the principles of the teaching of Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin, is able to present such an analysis of the literary work and is therefore capable of helping the author in correcting his errors and developing his creative abilities.

The plenum also discussed various kinds of Soviet literature and indicated, among others, the great achievements of Soviet drama and the enormous importance of plays for the Soviet Union, where plays enjoy particularly popularity among the masses.

Soviet literature enters the 16th year of the October Revolution with assets of indisputable successes, and is setting itself tasks worthy of the great work which is being performed in the Soviet Union.

EXTRACTS FROM SPEECHES DELIVERED AT THE PLENUM OF THE UNITED LEAGUE OF SOVIET WRITERS

I. Gronsky,
President of the Organisational Committee of the United League of Soviet Writers

The creation of a United League of Soviet Writers has been rendered possible owing to a change in the attitude of the broadest masses of the old intelligentsia which grew up under conditions of bourgeois culture, a change in favour of the socialist Revolution. This change has been prepared by the whole preceding development of the proletarian Revolution.

The old intelligentsia saw that the bolsheviks were right. They were convinced of it by such facts as the crisis of world economy, the successful realisation of the Five-Year Plan, the victorious development of collectivisation and the wide sweep of the cultural advancement in our country. And on becoming convinced that the bolsheviks were in the right, the intelligentsia turned in a body towards the Soviet government.

The writers are not separated from the rest of the intelligentsia by any Chinese Wall. They constitute one of its most progressive socially active detachments. The change, to which I have just referred, took place also among the writers.

The old writers, the old masters of literature turned towards the Soviet Government, towards the socialist Revolution. This is a fact which is so obvious, that hardly anyone would venture to dispute it.

I. Kulik,
President of the Organisational Committee of the League of Soviet Writers of the Ukraine.

Never has Soviet Ukrainian literature experienced such a renaissance of its creative activity as now. This is sufficiently proved by a mere enumeration of the most important works written by Ukrainian writers during the past few years.

Epik has written a novel, "Petro Romen", Hvyliievoy has completed his new novel,
"Mikola". I. Mikitenko has written a new play. Gordy Kotsuba has written an important book on Dnieprostroy, Miroslav Irchan—a new play, "Two Orders", Arkady Luchchenko—a play, "The Earth is Afame". Ostap Vishnya has abandoned his tales of rural life and small feuilletons in favour of big novels. He has just completed a novel dealing with the Donbass.

Le is working on the novel "Integral". A. Kopylenko, I. Semchenko and I. Kirišenko have published new books. New collections of verses have been prepared by Tychina, Bazhian, Yanovsky and Pervomaisky.

An enormous change has taken place among the Ukrainian writers. Most of them are sincerely supporting the Soviet government, they sincerely wish to take part in socialist construction.

We can boldly assert that the Ukrainian literature is no longer narrow or provincial, as was recently the case. Tsarist oppression made it narrow and provincial and the Ukrainian bourgeois chauvinists tried to keep it in that state. We can state with pride that Ukrainian fiction now occupies a place of honour in Soviet literature.

N. Tikhonov

You all know of the changes that have taken place and are taking place in the country. If you will travel over the USSR you will discover enormous changes wherever you go. The whole country is in a state similar to that of a gigantic conveyor. Things, men, characters are being refashioned and produced. Everything is in a state of colossal flux. Need one add that it is a most grateful task to live and write in such an epoch.

Lev Nikulin

The non-party intelligentsia, the non-party writer went through a series of most complicated vicissitudes. The non-party writer witnessed assaults made on the Party by its enemies; gradually he was educated, changed and finally he was able to grasp such conditions and things, which ten years ago did not impress him. Gradually (I am forced here to speak for myself) this re-education went so far that at the moment when I work on a book I no longer experience the influences of these circumstances.

I write as I feel, but when I read over my work from beginning to end, I note with joy that in no way does it contradict the Marxian world conception, and it seems to me that I am writing a book for the Party and the question of the Party in the book itself becomes a perfectly simple one for me.

Andrey Bely

The very debate we are having today is in itself an eloquent answer to the call which we heard yesterday. This fact shows that the question of some kind of an agreement, of some mutual understanding has become ripe and, as far as I can see, this fact indicates that the Dnieprostroys of literature must be built, Dnieprostroys which prove not only the quantity of new talents and groups but also the qualitative regeneration of individual writers and groups, not by means of outward leveling but by means of a mutual overcoming of difficulties.

Undoubtedly all questions of cultural revolution inspire us with great enthusiasm. There is a consciousness that my writer's "bench" has been socialised by the State, and since such is the case how can I fail to struggle in order that it be in good working order?

M. Prishvin

In my opinion a writer must write rather than speak. Personally, I can only speak when I am among friends. Here, in this society I shall speak. I shall tell you what I felt when I read the decision of the Central Committee of the Party. I am supposed to be an old writer, but I do not regard myself as such. When I begin a new book I look out for something new, I feel myself young. Now I am the youngest writer because I have just started a new book.

I believe that nowhere in the world is there such protection extended to the writers as in this country. I think it is extraordinary. Just now shock brigading has entered the sphere of literature. This has a profound meaning. I have dreamt all my life of poets coming from the lowest strata of the proletariat and peasantry. I am also a revolutionary. Had I been another kind of man I would not have performed creative work, and yet at least three-fourths of my best works have been created after the Revolution.
Egor Bulychov's grandfather was a raftsman. He was a muzhik, whose power lay in the grasping and tenacious brain which helped him work himself up in the world. Gorky has given a good many portraits of such men, greedy for life and gain, who upon going through the severe school of hunger, privations, social disfranchisement, rose to the surface, not sparing their enormous physical powers and giving little thought to what in this harsh and dark life is called "conscience".

The grandfather worked himself up and his father did so too. His father no longer shivered on autumn nights on the Volga rafts, and did not bleed his callous hands by hard toil. Egor Bulychov's father went to the city and started in business. This was probably in the seventies of the past century when the semi-Asiatic country with feverish haste tasted of the first fruits of the capitalist system and the locomotive of Russian history already sped along the rails which brought the empire to the European markets. Money became the dominant factor of the epoch. Wealth became the dream of all those who had been drawn into this headlong play of stock exchange speculations, stock companies and banking manipulations.

The "Bulychovs" were growing rich. Yesterday's rafters, drovers, publicans, village shopkeepers, crude capitalists whose money was kept in household jugs, were growing "civilised". Quit-rent muzhiks, who during the epoch of "great reforms" received freedom without land, were building factories. Tall chimneys began to belch forth smoke on the dismal Russian steppe.

All of these Zhukovs, Morozovs, Konovalovs, Guchkovs who still remembered the fetters of serfdom were becoming masters of life. Indeed, Konovalov's grandfather was a slave, the "baptised property" of the landlord; his grandson became a minister of the provisional Russian government which replaced the imperial power. The imperial power had held Guchkov's grandfather in bondage, and his grandson went to Pskov to "seek" the abdication of the last Romanov.

Such were the dialectics of the rise of the Russian bourgeoisie. Maxim Gorky in his "Egor Bulychov" gives a magnificent portrait of a man of the same ravenous type to which belonged the Guchkovs, Konovalovs, Zhukovs, Riazushinskys. Only Egor Bulychov's fate was different. We do not know how his grandfather and father lived, but we surmise that they had that violent temperament which precisely because of its recklessness, ruthlessness, precisely because it knew no measure or limit, led to degeneration within half a century.
The grandson of the rough-hewn muzhik who drove rafts down the Volga, Egor Bulychov, suffered in old age such mortal anguish as had not been experienced by his father and would have been totally inexplicable to his grandfather, but which brought Egor to complete moral prostration.

This breed of men greedy for life and gain began to give in. These men whose ancestors had felled woods, uprooted the land, robbed on the highways, cheated folks in the beerhouses, underweighed them in their shops, fed them rotten meat in the factories and did their brutal work of enrichment without thinking or philosophizing, these men, in this new age, filled with the presentiment of the revolutionary storm, suddenly sank in spirit and body. Their blood proved to be sclerotic. And their conscience which had not known any reproaches was suddenly beset with doubt. They began to be troubled with painful thought.

This process of withering, this picture of decline was given by Gorky, with the mercilessness of the greatest realist, both in "Foma Gordeev" and in "The Artomo-novs". In "Egor Bulychov" the moral and physical death of one of the representatives of the big Russian bourgeoisie reveals the moral decay of the class as a whole.

Gorky's new play is one of the most powerful of his works in which is so fully revealed the process of accumulation, growth, consolidation and disintegration of Russian capitalism. Engels, expressing his admiration of Balsac's masterpieces, said that some pages of this mighty realistic artist might successfully replace complete treatises on social-economic questions. Engels' statement is fully applicable to Gorky's play. His play, being filled to the brim with the deepest social content, represents proof of the fact that the author by purely artistic methods is fulfilling the most difficult task of convincing and forceful agitation. Gorky, portraying Egor Bulychov on the background of his class foundation, reveals his internal world and the intricate complexity of those human relations which are woven around the personal drama of the hero of the play. Egor Bulychov is revealed in all of his contradictions. He is convincing because he is shown through a prism of the interplay of light and shadow. The colours are well distributed and the psychological analysis is done with great subtlety. The collapse of Egor Bulychov is revealed and explained even though the artist does not resort to those "labels" which playwrights following the line of least resistance so readily paste upon their personages.

The drama by its name stresses the fact that it is precisely Egor Bulychov upon whom the attention of the author is focused. "Egor Bulychov and Others" is the name given to his play by Gorky who thus emphasizes that he will expose the contrasts existing between Bulychov and those surrounding him. About the "others" a new play must be written for in this one which is devoted to Egor Bulychov they are given only in splendid outline.

Through Egor Bulychov's personal drama the author raises the highly complex social problem of the historically predetermined doom of his class.

When Egor Bulychov grows prematurely old and he, a thoroughly earthy man who has a carnal appetite for life, is doubled up by a severe disease, he suddenly realizes that he had lived "apart from real life". Everything that had constituted the basis of his existence went to pieces before his piercing and suffering gaze. What had formed the foundation of his grandfather and father—family, religion and the State—slipped away from under him.

Here is the woman who is his "legal spouse". She is loquacious, coarse, disgustingly stupid, she cannot be depended upon either for aid or counsel. She is prepared to rob the dying Bulychov. Here is the elder daughter: she is calculating, greedy, she is of the same species of carnivorous ravens who flock to Bulychov's death-bed. Here is her husband—a glb lawyer, a slick liberal who has "neither conscience nor honour behind his soul". A polished swindler, he will dexterously adapt himself when the Revolution comes.

It begins to appear that everybody around Bulychov—the immediate relations, the old partners, the trusted employees—all those who together with him took part in the arduous and sinful task of enrichment, are his worst enemies. They whet their sharp fangs, they cover up by foxen tails the slyness of their secret designs and like jackals are prepared to fling themselves upon his inheritance even without waiting for the last sigh of the dying man. And the only joy of Egor Bulychov is derived from what constitutes the "breach" of his family relations, the younger daughter born out of wedlock, and the simple housemaid who, having become his lover, gave him sweet tenderness which Bulychov so
painfully lacked in his "legitimate" family.

There is no family, nor is there any church. The church is personified in father Pavlin, a sly, false individual, who behind his long, shallow and bombastic sermons poorly covers up his own indifference to what constitutes the essence of religion. And next to father Pavlin is the abbess Melania, a sister of Bulychov's own wife who in the past had herself "sinned" with Bulychov. Can she be trusted by Bulychov who well remembers her beastly sensualness? And these servants of the church plead with him in the name of God, threaten him with hell and promise heaven should he, Egor Bulychov, buy this "eternal bliss" at the price of a commercial deal profitable to the church. No, away with both Pavlin and Melania, away with God, the devil, and the "blessed" Propotey by whose naive charlatanery they want to cure the hopelessly sick old man.

The State... Was it so many years ago, that the tsar himself had shaken hands with Bulychov during the celebration of the House of the Romanov's tercentenary, and all of Kostroma looked on with envy at this honour bestowed upon the merchant Bulychov. And he, greedy, acquisitive, bold and ravenous, who did not know of mercy for his competitors in business, had once felt that he was living in the security of tsarist laws, this system with governors and sheriffs. And now it appears that the tsar is a mediocrity who had lost one war to the Japanese and has now involved himself. "God knows what for", in another. It appears that the system which main-

tained itself by bayonets and whips failed to safeguard the country against a Revolution, against those workers who want to live without bosses and to govern their own lives as their own masters.

The bosses... During his life Egor Bulychov has seen enough of them and, having seen, realised that "theft is a legal business". "It is not you who steals, it is the ruble that steals. It is itself the main thief." What a simple truth this was! But it appeared that there was some new truth which upset Egor Bulychov's consciousness and exposed the profound falseness of his convictions which had only recently been expressed in the solid formula: "It is my business to make money, it is the business of the muzhik to work."

And so everything — family, God, the State — vanished. Disease-ridden Egor Bulychov looks into the mirror and tells himself: "You are in a bad fix, Egor. Even your face isn't yours somehow. What are you guilty of? Eh?" And he finds no answer. There is no way out of the impassé of doubt and moral void. And for the last time Egor Bulychov is bent upon "mischief". Egor has done enough mischief in his life, but this time he is bent on mischief making with calculated spite, with vicious raffery, with clever sarcasm: a naive charlatan comes to him, a fireman who cures all diseases by the sound of a trumpet, for sixteen rubles. Bulychov gave the trumpeter sixteen rubles and ordered him, in mockery of himself and of all of Egor's relatives, to blow his silly trumpet. And the trumpet roars, and Bulychov furiously laughs, for the ridiculous charlatan —

Gavrila the trumpeter (A. Koltsov)  
Abbess Melania (N. Russinova)  
Xenia Bulycheva, Egor's wife (A. Zaporozhecs)
the fireman — heralds forth the end of the world. Let the trumpet play louder! To the devil with the old world! It cracks and erumbles! Let it! Let the trumpeter play louder!

Suddenly a deep symbol is revealed in this scene. In the episode with the trumpeter Egor Bulychov's personal drama assumes a universal significance. It is not Egor Bulychov, it is the class of Bulychovs that is breaking down.

And when Egor Bulychov is dying, clinging to life to the last minute, cursing death, there, in the street, beyond the windows of the solid home of the Bulychovs, rises a bold song; the Revolution marches. To the tune of its victorious hymn comes to an end the life of the restless, sinful, distressed, unsupportable Egor Bulychov.

In Gorky's play Bulychov holds the central place. Everything around him is merely a background. And all the "others" lack the monumentality of Bulychov.

The performance at the Vakhitov Theatre revealed the social atmosphere by which Bulychov is surrounded. The stage-manager Zakhava created an atmosphere which brings us back to the days of the eve of February 1917, and found the proper characteristics for each part no matter how cursorily drawn.

The actor Shuisky plays the part of Bulychov with tremendous power. He uses a great variety of colours and creates a portrait woven from various shades: humour which sounds like scalding sarcasm; tenderness flaring up at times for his daughter Shura and the maid Glafira; undisguised hate and rudeness towards all the others, tenaieous greed for life — all this is revealed in the integrity which drives home to the spectator the image of Bulychov in its entire fulness and depth. Shuisky does not accentuate the biological details, giving Egor Bulychov's physiology in a few sparing strokes. Shuisky, like a true artist, understood that the drama of Egor Bulychov's death is not in the disease of the liver.

"Egor Bulychov" raises a number of most important questions of principle regarding the creative ways and methods of the Soviet theatre. It is both a lesson and an exhortation.

"THE FLAME OF PARIS"

On November 7th, the XVth anniversary of the October Revolution, the Leningrad State Theatre of Opera and Ballet performed for the first time "The Flame of Paris", a ballet dealing with the Great French Revolution and specially written for the revolutionary anniversary. The music was composed by B. Asafiev (also known under the pseudonym of Igor Glebsov), the libretto was written by N. Volkov and V. Dmitriev, and the ballet was directed by ballet-master V. Vayonen (dances) and Sergey Radlov (mimic scenes). Preparations are now under way to produce the ballet in the Moscow Grand Theatre, one of its acts having already been performed on November 6th during the anniversary celebration.

"The Flame of Paris" cannot be regarded as a ballet in the ordinary sense of the word. This is a complex spectacle not confined to the framework of an ordinary ballet performance, and constituting the result of organic co-operation between the playwright, ballet-master, composer and director. The new principle embodied in "The Flame of Paris" is the production, on the basis of the classic dance, of a dramatic and musical spectacle in which dancing as such is not an ornamental diversion but naturally arises out of the action itself. Hence an entirely approach to all the elements of the dancing spectacle. An intelligent, clear, and dramaturgically well arranged subject, serious, interesting music, as a result not only of creative art but also of an extensive historical study of music, entirely new choreographic settings — these are the outstanding characteristics of "The Flame of Paris".

N. Volkov,

one of the authors of the libretto "The Flame of Paris"

A DANCING PERFORMANCE ON THE FEAT OF THE MARSEILLE BATTALION

In working on "The Flame of Paris" we conceived the libretto not only as an outline of the story but as a special ballet dramaturgy not limited merely to the composition of the story but seeking a general style for all the means of expression through
the ballet. Our task consisted of creating a choreographic spectacle of a monumental character based upon the materials of the Great French Revolution.

We decided upon the year 1792 when the royal power was finally overthrown. The main event to us was August 10th, the capture of the Tuileries Palace. At the head of the masses who stormed the palace was the then famous Marseille battalion which came to Paris from the South in the summer of 1792. It is this battalion which represents the principal hero of our ballet.

We looked for materials for our libretto everywhere—in engravings, art works, memoirs of contemporaries and in historical works. The statement found in one of the documents to the effect that the young actress Catherine Pochette on August 2nd, 1792, joined the battalion of the "Red Boys" in Paris gave us the picture of one of the central roles of "The Flame of Paris", the royal ballet dancer joining the Revolution.

The second female part, that of a peasant girl participating in the Marseille advance, was also inspired by the story of women members of the army. Among them for instance was Barbara Paran, the daughter of a cooper of Valenciennes.

"The Flame of Paris" has four acts divided into eight scenes. It begins almost like an idyll, a peaceful scene, the collecting of brushwood by a peasant family in the landlord's wood. However, the idyll is soon disturbed by the hunt of his lordship the Marquis, who owns the wood and who deals cruelly with the "boors" daring to interfere with the "noble recreation". The action is then transferred to Mar- seilles at the time of the proclamation of the slogan "The Country is in Danger" and formation of the Marseille battalion.

The second act is devoted completely to the banquet given by the royal guard to the Flandres regiment arriving in Paris (here the chronological events have been somewhat shifted, an earlier episode being shown in 1792).

The third act depicts the events which took place on the night of August 9—10, 1792. The first scene is performed on the square near the Jacobin club, the second represents the capture of Tuileries itself.

A solemn ceremony in honour of the victims of August 10th begins the fourth and last act of the ballet. We wanted to bring upon the scene torches throwing a dim light upon the mob bristling with lances around the funeral pyramid with the simple inscription: "Hush, they are resting". This is followed by the festival, "The Triumph of the Republic" staged in accord with the mise-en-scène of the artist David, and the whole ballet ends in an outdoor ball on the ruins of the Bastille.

One of the peculiarities of "The Flame of Paris" is the participation in it of a chorus. Chorus singing at the highest emotional moments adds force to the musical fabric of the ballet and does not contradict the general "silent" character of the action.

Sergey Radlov,
director of "The Flame of Paris"

A NEW BALLET STYLE

"The Flame of Paris" is a play destined to open a great battle for a new style in the art of ballet. What was the first and foremost task before us?

In the first place it was necessary to restore to the art of the classic dance the emotional tensity, the dramatic concentration, the fullness of content. Only then will it be possible seriously to think of organic motion, of organic changes in the style and technique of the dancing art.

In this struggle for an intelligent, interesting, thrilling ballet performance a revision of the relations between dance and pantomime is essential. No doubt dancing in the ballet has been and remains the basic part of the spectacle. But pantomime while not replacing the dancing must affect it, stimulate it, prepare and condition the dramatic tensity of the dance. I am referring not to the old ballet pantomime, this language of the mutes. Our theatre proceeded from the necessity of taking into account and assimilating the main achievements, the main conquests of the dramatic art in order to saturate with them the pantomime language of the dancer. It was in this struggle for a new pantomime and through it for a new quality of the ballet performance that I saw my task.

I want to emphasise very much that in this case the co-operation between the director and the ballet-master proved to be a purely organic combination. If we divided the work—the ballet-master attending to the dances and the director to the pantomime—we did it not mechanically and in a number of important pieces combining dancing with pantomime we worked together, jointly seeking the
The climax is followed by scenes of mass festivities in the fourth act conceived as the finale of a heroic symphony which is preceded by a tragic prologue: this is the funeral march of Gossek accompanying in the performance the funeral of the victims of the Revolution.

In the first act of the ballet I use the “Marseillaise” not as a hymn but as a mass song picked up by the mob during the formation of the Marseille battalion.

“The old regime” (the second act—the banquet and counter-revolutionary conspiracy in Versailles) is shown not in the style of sentimental-pastoral or salon songs but on the basis of the musical material of Lulli, as a striking expression of French absolutism, and partly upon the work of Gluck.

If the second act represents a symphonic andante, the third and central act of the ballet, based upon the melodies of the national dances and mass songs, is conceived as a broadly developed scherzo. The central mass dance of the third act develops on the tunes of the “Carmagnole” and other characteristic songs which were heard in the streets of Paris during the Great French Revolution.

OCTOBER ANNIVERSARY FILMS

The Soviet cinema industry came to the XVth anniversary of the October Revolution with a series of new creative victories. This is forcibly demonstrated by a number of films released in the USSR during the anniversary.

“The Counter-Plan”, a film produced by the Leningrad studio of Soyuzkino, is unquestionably the most interesting and striking of the series. Two gifted young directors who have already gained a wide reputation in the Soviet film industry, Friedrich Ermler, the author of “Fragments of an Empire”, and Sergey Yutkevich, whose latest production “Golden Mountains” is regarded as one of the greatest achievements of the sound film industry in the USSR, combined their abilities to produce this new film. This collaboration proved to be a happy one. As a result of the joint work of these two directors, each with a strikingly expressed artistic individuality, a definite unity of style has been achieved in “The Counter-Plan”.

“The reality of our programme—it is you and I, living people.” It was upon these words of J. Stalin that the authors built their film. The struggle for a counter-plan of production which constitutes the subject of the picture is revealed here in the “living and practical work of the millions” (J. Stalin) of whom the main heroes of the film are typical representatives.

The subject of “The Counter-Plan” is a simple one. A great turbine factory. The counter-plan advanced by the workers to build a turbine of 50,000 kilowatt capacity—is threatened by a “miscalculation” in the designing bureau, a mistake committed not without the participation of a wrecker. The entire mass of the factory workers mobilises itself for the struggle for the fulfilment of the “counter-plan”, for successfully carrying it into effect despite
the attempt at sabotage. The entire story is centred around this struggle in which different characters collide, bonds of love and friendship break, and — this is the gist of the picture — the old foreman Babchenko is reclaimed to a new life.

Babchenko, the central figure of the film, is its “hero”, if the traditional term is to be used. However, in reality there is nothing of a hero in him. The old foreman of the turbine plant is shown as an ordinary worker, whose joys and sorrows, whose strong and weak points are quite ordinary and natural. He grew up in the factory, he lives and breathes its life, its interests. He grumbles and complains at times like any other old man. In addition he suffers from a serious malady, he is fond of his drink. He knows his machine like the palm of his own hand and he therefore does not recognise any precise measurements and instruments but works by the eye, until once, after a heavy drinking bout, his “eye” fails him, resulting in the spoiling of the job on which he worked. It was then that for the first time in his long life the old man, after some hesitation, puts the customary glass of vodka aside. Nor is there any heroism in the fact that when the fulfilment of the “counter-plan” is threatened Babchenko is the first to find a way out of the difficulty and to mobilise his brigade, the “old guard”, for the restoration of the neglected shop.

It is precisely in this simplicity and humanness of the old foreman that his power lies. Throughout the film Babchenko provokes the deepest sympathy among the audience, from the moment when, aggrieved by his failure in the factory, he soaks himself full of alcohol to the tune of a most vulgar gramophone record, until the final shots when after the victory of the counter-plan and the successful test of the 50,000 kilowatt turbine the old man decides to join the Party and drinks a tiny glass of vodka “in honour of the new communist Babchenko”. The magnificent acting of Gardin, who plays the part of Babchenko, is largely responsible for the powerful impression made upon the audience by the figure of the old foreman. The actor succeeded in finding methods of playing, and in assuming a general appearance, voice and gestures which create a truly artistic generalisation of the social, living and psychological characteristics of an old worker.

Another unquestionable success of the film is the figure of the secretary of the Communist Party nucleus of the factory. Here, too, the directors and the gifted actor Tenin, who performs this part, succeeded in creating a very human, unselftitled and genial type of man. Vassily is quite as ordinary a worker as Babchenko, and as any other member of the huge working force of the factory. To him, too, “nothing human is alien”. But in his relations with the workers, in his approach to them, whether party or non-party, there is so much heartiness and human understanding, and on the other hand so much firmness and such an ability to subordinate personal sentiments to the interest of the cause, that on the whole this figure must be regarded as one of the best personifications of a communist and leader ever created on the Soviet stage or film.

“'The Counter-Plan’” is based upon the principle of artistic realism. It freely combines elements of healthy romance with joyous comedy, dramatic intensity with lyric warmth. Scenes saturated with the intense dynamics of daily life and toil in the factory alternate with unimpeachable pictures of Leningrad’s white nights.

The music written by the young Soviet composer Shostakovich is organically woven into the artistic fabric of the film. It not only accompanies but accentuates the events in the picture, helping to reveal them and bring their meaning home to the spectator. It is also necessary to note the splendid sound effects of this film which excels all previous Soviet sound films.

Special mention should be made of the work of the painter-architect Dubrovsky-Eshke who built within the film studio a giant department of a metal factory with all of its machines and lathes.

Man as the vehicle, creator and accomplisher of the great plan of socialist construction holds the centre of still another film production devoted to the XVth anniversary of October. We refer to “Ivan”, a new work of the gifted Ukrainian director A. Dovjenko. This is a story of a simple village lad, of thousands others like him who come from the villages, from collective farms, to the great construction jobs of the country, a story of those by whose hands has been created the Dnieper power station and who in the process of creating this power station threw off the burden of custom and tradition, of petty personal interests, and grew into the new socialist type.

The method chosen by Dovjenko differs from that by which Ermler and Yutkevich differ.
solved their task. While "The Counter-Plan" is built upon a display of single figures, of individual characters, Ivan is rather a collective figure, the incarnation of thousands of village boys who upon entering a building job make their first timid step towards the proletariat and then begin, at first uncertainly but later more and more boldly and confidently, to step forward, towards communist labour, towards education, towards the Party.

As in Dovjenko's earlier works, objects, materials at times dominate the picture overshadowing the characters. To be sure, the nature of these objects has changed—concrete piles and metal structures taking the place of the blooming apple-trees of "The Earth".

Quiet shores of the Dnieper. White blocks of ice majestically, noiselessly glide along the surface of the river. From afar come the voices of singing girls. White clouds curl over beds of rush. From the village peacefully scattered along the shore comes Ivan. But suddenly the author turns the camera away from this scene. Stillness is gone. The Dnieper roars over the rapids, foams among the rocks. Men blow up nature. Din and rattle, whistling of locomotives, crashing of concrete from upset buckets. Ivan is agitated and dismayed, overawed by the blazing fires, by the rattling of the excavators, by the gigantic panorama of the construction job.

Such is the story of the film. Further we see this feeling of dismay gradually disappear in the process of labour and make room for a sense of assurance. Ivan begins to see and understand the things around him in a new way. The film ends with two episodes revealing the further career of our hero. Ivan is admitted to the Party and enters a university. And yesterday's meek youth turns to the professors of a higher school, to the keepers of knowledge and science with the cheerful and bold challenge: "Comrades Professors, tell Ivan all you know".

Quite a distinct place among the October films belongs to the work of Esther Shub entitled "K.S.E." (Young Communist League — Patron of Electrification). This is a documentary film which has attained a very high artistic standard.

Lenin's words that communism is Soviet power plus electrification served as the basis for practical, everyday "patronage" by the Young Communist League over the work of electrifying the Soviet Union. Shub's film which exhibits to the spectator a broad canvas of the electrification of the country shows how the youth of the Soviet Union exercises its patronage among the vanguard of the builders of the socialist society, mastering the technique of electricity, this basis of material culture of socialism.

In the first shots of the film, in its overture which boldly reveals the "kitchen" of the picture (here we see the sound-film itself in process of production) the spectator sees and hears "Termenvoks", the "music of the future", a metallic rod from which the soloist derives, without touching it, by merely moving the hand to and fro, floods of sounds of an unusually gentle and deep timbre. In the concluding scenes the spectator is shaken by thunder and lightning produced by one turn of the switch by Academician Chernyslov from a high voltage installation in his Leningrad laboratory. Between these two extreme points, throughout the six parts of the film, the spectator receives the reports of the struggles and victories of the young communists — lamp makers of Moscow, electric welders of Leningrad, builders of the Dzoraget electrical station, concrete makers of Dnieprostroy.

The film itself, from beginning to end, is nothing but a striking demonstration of victories of electrification in the field of sound films. Throughout the picture sound is reproduced with exceptional precision and purity. The spectator hears every detail of an international telephone conversation. Militant speeches at a meeting make the spectator a living participant of it. Dnieprostroy sounds from the screen, a complete industrial symphony of noises and rattles.

All of these living links of electrification collected in an "electric" sound picture and presented with great expressiveness make the "K.S.E." into a highly interesting, exciting and truly artistic spectacle.

In this review we have dealt with only the most outstanding of the films released during the days of the October anniversary. Lack of space prevents us from discussing in detail the other films released at the same time. We shall limit ourselves to mentioning two of them as the most characteristic in addition to those which made up the subject of this review. This is "Shakir" produced by the State Cinema Studio of Georgia and devoted to the question of collectivisation in the national republics, and "Three Soldiers", a film produced by the Leningrad Soyuzkino studio.
NEW PLAYS IN MOSCOW THEATRES

In honour of the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution some of the Moscow theatres produced a number of new plays that were first performed during the holidays on November 6, 7, and 8.

The State Little Theatre produced "The Defeat". This play dealing with the period of the civil war is based on the famous novel by Fadeev, "The Nineteen". It was also staged during the October holidays in another Moscow theatre — the Lenin-District Theatre.

Another play devoted to the subject of civil war is "Mstislav the Brave" written by Proot. It was staged at the Moscow Workers Art Theatre.

The Second Art Theatre had on "Earth and Sky" by P. and Y. Toor. The main idea underlying the play is to show how in the practice of socialist construction the solution of particular problems is combined with the solution of general ones, "earth" with "sky", manufacture of field-glasses with the discovery of new stars. This play also touches upon the problems of the intelligentsia in the period of Revolution, a subject that is also treated in Afinogenov's play "Fear" which has met with great success.

The Moscow Dramatic Theatre — formerly Korsh — chose for the holidays the play of V. Kataev "Speed up, time", which shows the great enthusiasm of the people engaged in one of the biggest works of socialist construction.

Another very interesting play is "My Friend" by the well known playwright N. Pogodin, staged at the Theatre of Revolution. The leading character in this play is the chief of construction of a new big plant. He is a real type of the heroes of socialist construction, a fine, simple, modest person creating big things.

"The story of the city of Glupov" was the new holiday production staged at the Satiric Theatre. The new play is not dealing exactly with the contemporary problems, but is a splendid satire based on Saltykov-Shchedrin's book under the same title, presenting one of the finest masterpieces of classic literature.

The well known artists Kukryniks, the brilliant masters of satiric art, have helped in the staging of this play.

SOVIET COMPOSERS ORGANISE

The musical composers of the USSR have recently founded their own union. The main object of this organisation is to rally all composers and other prominent musicians who have adopted the Soviet platform, and who are actively participating in the creation of a new musical culture which will merit the great epoch of socialist construction.

In the USSR the very process of extensive development of musical culture is conceived not merely in the works of highly skilled or expert musicians, but in the way to attract the toiling masses of the Soviet Union and invoke their interest in music, as well as to develop new musical forces from among the factory and co/hoz (collective farm) workers. Out from their midst are to be drawn the new cadres for Soviet art.

The Union is actively engaged in the promotion of its creative productive work. For this purpose the Union frequently arranges lectures, reports on musical art, recitals introducing new musical creations, special musical performances for promoting contact between authorities of the musical world with representatives in other spheres of art. The Union also organises classes on the technique of composition, for the study of contemporary Western musical art etc. To the latter the Union of Soviet composers devotes particular attention. With the assistance of VOKS the Union hopes to establish close contact with musicians of various countries by correspondence, exchange of compositions, and establishing personal contact, inviting foreign composers to visit the USSR and arranging of trips of Soviet composers for studying the musical art in other lands.

There is a creative musical section in the Union which on the basis of Marxist Leninist theory conducts scientific research work on musical theory problems.

Apart from these activities, the Union also publishes two magazines: "Soviet Music", dealing with scientifical-theoretical problems, and "Non-professional musical art", which is a popular journal.
Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries

SOVIET ART AT THE 18th INTERNATIONAL ART EXHIBITION HELD IN VENICE

Italian Press Comments

Soviet artists, as in all previous exhibitions held in Venice were very well represented in the latest, the 18th International Art Exhibition, which closed on November 1st, 1932.

This year's visitors to the Soviet pavilion saw not only the works representative of the various tendencies in art, but also personal exhibitions of the leading Soviet artists, particularly the works of some of the younger generation.

There were paintings by Sterenberg, Kuznetsov, Konchalovsky, Rozhdestvensky, A. Deineka, all regular participants to the Venetian exhibitions, and Andrey Goncharov, Konstantin Vyalov, Ekaterina Zernova and others.

In all 50 Soviet artists participated in this exhibition. Among them were the Ukrainian artists Sediar, Padalka, Kassian, Fradkin. There was a total of 229 works of art: 134 paintings, 12 sculptures and 83 belonging to the graphic arts.

The Italian press, as in former exhibitions, paid particular attention to the Soviet pavilion and printed a number of criticisms on it.

The younger generation of artists was very highly praised. "Gazetta del Popolo" of June 6th, 1932, wrote as follows:

"Russian art of today is represented by Deineka, Pimenov, Labas, Zernova and Williams. To them may add A. Kupreyanov and a few others who are able to keep in stride with the younger generation." "There are three modern themes which the Soviet artists choose, but they may be expressed in just two words: the Five-Year Plan. The three-themes are industrialisation, collectivisation of agrarian economy, and the new life."

"Giornale" comments thus on the works of our younger artists:

"Among the youth Deineka may be considered the leading artist. Next to his picture "War" we find "Textile Workers" interesting because of its limpidity, its bold colours, its sharpness of delineation, and because of its simplicity and its outstanding expressiveness. To a certain degree there is a similarity in the work of Deineka and Ekaterina Zernova. We should also mention here Williams' picture "Motor Race" which is dynamic despite the very economic use of artistic expression."

As to the older artists "Giornale d'Italia" of June 26th, 1932, wrote as follows: "Of the artists more bound by tradition we can place Konchalovsky as one of the foremost. He contributes 14 large canvases, all full of the joy of living. The most interesting of his works are two small impressionist portraits of the musician Zecchi, life-like and quick with movement. Next to Konchalovsky we should place Rozhdestvensky who has taken from the East its glowing colours and its blinding brightness as in "Tadjikistan". His big composition "The Itinerant Barber" is likewise very gaudy. As a result of his travels to the North we find in one of his pictures the dull, grey skies hanging over a fishing village, and in another the gleaming silver in a polar night. But regardless of how much Rozhdestvensky may be attracted by his love for colours, he can never be wooed away from his painstaking search for form."

In speaking of the themes selected in Soviet paintings "Corriere Padano" says: "In this exhibition the Russians have sent in a very small number of paintings of landscapes, still-life, and those everlasting nude bodies. Konchalovsky's extremely fine "Window to the Crimea", and a few tastefully done still-life paintings by Sterenberg, were the only exhibits where the themes chosen were not from modern life or life in the factories. Kuznetsov has several different paintings which we find full of light, fresh colours, clear and simple in technique as "Herdsmen at Rest", and "Oil Derricks at Baku", where both people and objects are seemingly deformed with just that amount of freedom the Parisians employ in their paintings. In "War" Deineka strives above all else to make his paintings express tragedy and pathos. Four figures are enough to show the real synthesis of struggle and
death. A still grimmer but technically well done painting is Barto's "Teaching Eastern Women by Radio". The critic considers that what is characteristic of Barto is the strength with which he executes his paintings. These words may be applied to Pimenov in his picture "Dairy Sovhоз" painted in yellow and green tones, which lyrically portrays reclining forms simply and unaffectedly, but which at the same time shows the genuine artistry of the painter still more subtly and convincingly."

This is what "Gazetta del Popolo" writes on Soviet sculpture and the graphic arts:

"That extremely interesting section devoted to the graphic arts includes a number of water colours by Deineka, Kupreyanov, the works of Favorsky, Kravchenko, Ze- lenyevich, Brodsky, Barto and others. The hugh sculpture "Maternity" by Sandomirsky, sculptures by Frich-Char, Efimov and Ramuranskaya helped to complete this pavilion which is undoubtedly one of the most interesting sections of the Venetian exhibition.

The pastels by Nakhman and the water colours by Kupreyanov were also commented upon by "La Tribuna".

The entire press was loud in praising the Soviet pavilion.

"Corriere Padano" of June 21st, 1932, remarked that "the excellence of the Soviet pavilion is due to the extraordinary organisational ability and the seriousness with which the artists have been elected... It is noticeable that Soviet artists are not bound down by any set rules, and that each of them is given an opportunity of expressing his individuality."

According to "Giornale d'Italia", "the exhibition succeeded in providing, above everything else, documentary evidence of the problems to be met with in the Soviet Union. The dominating theme of the exhibits is labour."

"Crónica Prealpina", of June 22nd, 1932, in analysing the work of Soviet portrait painters noted the part that is being played by women in Soviet art.

"Crónica Prealpina" remarks that "the things that first strike one in the large pastels of Eugene Katsman are the outstandingly beautiful drawings and the lively colouring. He has given us a number of portraits, but they are more than mere portraits. They are expressive of life. In "Labour Enthusiasm" we see first of all the expression of joy which arises from the fact that everybody has an opportunity of working and taking part in the construction. This joy is explained by the rebirth of the individual that the Soviet government is striving for through educating the people collectively.

"We must acknowledge the fact that women in this exhibition are playing an important part. We are convinced that the women who labour in the Soviet Union work with enthusiasm. There are even women who direct factories and plants and who fill high posts. They want to prove that they are worthy of the freedom that the government has given them. The so-called "women activist" has found for herself a place in the USSR. Olga Yanovskaya is represented by two portraits of these "women activists", delegates to the 16th Congress of Soviets. They are interesting not only because they are well drawn portraits, but mainly because they are pictures of definite types. Serafima Ryangin engaginly draws the girl student on practical work taking part in the construction of river transport. Ekaterina Zernova has given us "Girl Shooting an Arrow", "Ski Race" and "Sel'mashstroj".

"Sculpture also has its following among the women. The most outstanding are Sara Lebedeva and Maria Ryndziumskaya. The former — with a portrait of Solts and the latter — with portraits of an aviator and a collective farmer.

"All the themes chosen are basically the same — the New Life."

"Here we see life in the Red Army, life among the peasantry, the industrialisation of the USSR, the fight against illiteracy, the emancipation of woman, portraits of shock-brigade workers, the joy that the new society is bringing into the lives of the people."

"Crónica Prealpina" considers the Soviet pavilion one of the most interesting to study and analyse and the one possessing the deepest psychological interest.

One can easily see from the quotations reprinted above that the Italian critic is keenly interested in Soviet art and that he analyses not only the themes selected but also the art value of the works.

The Italian critic notes as well what may be considered the most characteristic feature about Soviet art — its single hearted desire to portray the great socialist construction. And it is just this which makes it so well worth-while and so refreshing.
FOREIGN ARCHITECTS IN THE USSR

On the initiative of the French magazine "L'Architecture d'aujourd'hui" which shows keen interest in Soviet architecture and regularly publishes items on socialist construction, an excursion of French architects to the USSR was organised. The excursionists were to inspect the construction jobs going up all over the country, and meet Soviet architects for a joint discussion of the problems of Soviet architecture. The All-Union Society for cultural relations with foreign countries (VOKS) together with the Academy of municipal economy, the All-Union Council of municipal economy and the Society of Soviet architects prepared a programme for the reception of the group, which included visits to points of interest and a series of conferences.

The group arrived in Moscow on August 31, where they remained until September 3. Among their number were prominent architects such as Agache, a town-planner of distinction (who planned Rio de Janeiro and Buenos-Aires), Sebille, also a town-planner, Joseph Vago, who was awarded first prize in the League of Nations building contest, Pingusson, Fischer, Pierre Vago, editor of "L’Architecture d’aujourd’hui"; and Andre Bloc, another magazine editor. Besides the Frenchmen, the group included the Belgian Dedoyard, the Portuguese Pardal Monteiro, the Italians Barli, magazine editor Ambrosiano, Casabella and others.

In Moscow the architects inspected in detail the Lenin mausoleum, the “Dynamo” stadium, the Electro-Technical Institute, workers’ clubs, a kitchen-factory, the Government House, the House of the finance commissariat employees, the airport, the Tsentrosoyuz building which is being erected after the project of Le Corbusier, the Park of Culture and Rest and other new buildings. Three conferences were held in the VOKS and in the Architectural Planning Department of the Moscow Soviet, between the members of the group and representatives of Soviet architecture at which the addresses were delivered by Soviet architects. “The reconstruction of Moscow” was discussed by Semionov, “The basic tendencies of Soviet architecture” by Arkin, “Formalism and rationalism in modern architecture” by Higer, whose address was in response to request from the foreign architects, and “Town-planning” by Baburov.

Arkin, whose address dealt with general principles, stressed two definite features of the development of Soviet architecture: the planned character of all Soviet building activity and the conception of architecture as construction for the great masses. He pointed out that the fundamental problem of Soviet architecture is the creation of types of mass dwellings and mass public buildings, such as workers’ club-houses, Palaces of Culture, Palaces of Labour, etc. Arkin discussed the achievements of housing construction as related to the peculiarities of housing organisation in the USSR, and brought out the underlying architectural principles of town building as founded upon the industrialisation of the country. The speaker also touched upon the questions of constructivism and functionalism in Soviet architecture as stages now past. He pointed out that Soviet architecture, in search of a new style, aspires toward an organic synthesis of technical function and artistic form and utilises the experience of the past. Arkin’s address was well received by the French visitors.

On the theme “Formalism and rationalism”, treated by the French architects, statements of foreign architects were read by the Frenchmen; the architects quoted were Luben Tonev (Sophia), governmental town planning architect, Boken (of the society of Dutch architects), Anvo, Belgian architect, Franz Jourdain, President of the Society of modern architects.

Others whose views were quoted were Karl En (Vienna), Joseph Hofmann (Vienna) and Professor Torgi (Budapest). The statements adduced had been received by the editors of “L’Architecture d’aujourd’hui” in response to a questionnaire in which they raised the problem of the decorative elements in architecture.

The first to speak at the Conference in the VOKS was Fischer, of the group, representing the left tendency in French architecture. Fischer began by stating that all activity of the architects in the West resolves itself, thanks to the crisis, to theoretical discussion and paper projects. Fischer gave the view that modern architecture must contain no ornamental or decorative elements, whether of sculpture, painting or ornamentation. Ornamentation is a relic of primitive culture. Modern architecture faces a technical and social problem, and must take into consideration
primarily social needs. Its object is the creation of a city and street rather than an individual house. In a talk at the next meeting Fischer developed this view further.

Fischer's opinion was contested by his colleagues Bloc and Pierre Vago. Bloc declared that to deny an ornamental art is "to deny the entire great heritage of the architectural past". Now, while "prosperity is not a feature of the world", Bloc said, referring to the crisis, decoration in the construction of a building has been relegated to the background, but the time will again come for the rebirth of decoration, which will serve as a symbol of general prosperity.

Vago explained the policy of the magazine "L'Architecture d'aujourd'hui", which combats the tendency known as "neo-formalism"—a reactionary tendency in disguise. The formalists debate the question of facades, cubes, windows, columns, and scorn everything that is not concrete, metal, glass, forgetting that they build not to have pictures of the buildings published in the press, not for the purpose of making fine photographs, but for the needs of life. An architect in our opinion, he said, must work not for an utopian ideal, not for classes privileged materially or intellectually, but for satisfying the urgent material and intellectual needs of the masses. Too many designs and buildings actually constructed, in every country, reveal a complete lack of study, contemplation and rational criticism. The young architects doomed to forced inactivity by the crisis, which has been incorrectly called a crisis of overproduction and a speedy solution of which is highly problematical, hasten to imitate the noisily advertised new forms without thought to the material prerequisites which constitute the point of departure of an architectural work. In addition, there still prevail academic canons which introduce a false esthetics. Vago cited examples of extreme infatuation with formalism.

R. Higer, representing Soviet architecture, also took up the question of "Formalism and rationalism".

Beginning with the remark that Soviet architects were working together in a single Society of Soviet architects, Higer proceeded to state that formalism was a stage of Soviet architecture long left behind. Its effect was expressed in works "in which every attempt was made to stress by formal means the geometrical, physical, me-

French architects in the VOKS. In front row from left to right: Agache, Pierre Vago, Goldenberg (President of the USSR Municipal Academy) and Higer
Modern Soviet architecture. New building of the Central Committee of the Ukrainian Communist Party (Kharkov)

The attention to Soviet number architecture, formalism as today, reconstruction comprehensive the cities, an the drew formality e. Modern the architecture rationalism, ed architecture of "Constructivism", architectural process. The other tendency, rationalism, or as it is called in Soviet architecture "constructivism", is characterised by the attention concentrated on the content of the architectural object. "Constructivism made a fetish of the technical elements of architecture, supplanting with them the problem of the artistic effect of form", while "formalism", Higer said, "cultivated architecture as a pure art". Both are inacceptable to the Soviet architecture of today, he pointed out. The useful principles introduced by these two tendencies into Soviet architecture made for functionalism, i. e. an embodiment of the "living and production processes for which the given structure is intended, the introduction of the latest engineering achievements into the architecture of the ordinary building".

It is necessary to utilise for Soviet architecture the heritage from the past, especially ancient architecture.

Another important issue is the employment of sculpture and painting in architecture as decorative factors. Soviet architecture assigns an honourable place to adornment.

Aside from the problem of formalism and rationalism, the Conference devoted considerable attention to the question of reconstruction of old cities and planning of new ones.

The reconstruction of Moscow was dealt with in a comprehensive address by the architect Semionov, who set for the plans and took up the problems of tree planting, expanding the area of the city to meet the growth in population, etc. The reconstruction of cities was discussed by Sebille, who handled the problem of town building from the standpoint of the relations between the city and the individual.

Touching upon specific questions in the reconstruction of cities, Sebille stated, among other things, that despite the great amount of reconstruction work carried on in Moscow and Leningrad the principle of protection of art values is being strictly observed.

Agach supported the views of the previous speaker: in the reconstruction of cities all the good elements must be preserved and all the bad destroyed. In replanning a city it is necessary to take into consideration all its peculiarities and solve not any one problem but all pertinent problems, such as replanning of streets, garbage disposal the sewage system, etc.

A city planner, he explained, is like an orchestra leader who has a number of scores before him. In replanning esthetics must be kept in the background. A town is a machine intended for work.

The French town-planners displayed special interest in the address on socialist city planning delivered by Baburov, an entirely new problem to architects from capitalist countries. Baburov described the basic work of building socialist cities in the USSR.

* * *

From Moscow the architects proceeded to Dnieprostroy and Kharkov. They declared that during their stay in the USSR they realised the tremendous construction work proceeding in the Union, noted the enthusiasm of the masses participating in this work, and became aware of the limitless possibilities of Soviet architecture.

In Kharkov the group of French architects inspected the Ukrainian architectural exhibition which is to be sent abroad as well as the exhibition entitled "Planning a greater Kharkov". A group of Kharkov architects placed before the visitors a number of questions relating to the city's public utilities André Bloc and Penguosson gave replies.
Bloc declared that the "great work already accomplished in building up Kharkov inspires us with the deepest admiration. Criticism of the defects inevitable in such vast construction work you are able to make yourselves".

Bloc emphasised that there were tremendous achievements in the development of Kharkov and expressed the hope that after further perfecting construction methods the Ukrainian capital would achieve a high degree of prosperity and greatness.

Pengusson who followed Bloc declared that "Kharkov combined within itself the most diversified forms of socialist architecture, typified both by the number of newly built structures and by their execution. The achievements in this field during the years of the Revolution have been so enormous that no architect, whatever his nationality, whichever school he may support, can afford to ignore them.

Pengusson expressed sincere joy as an architect at having been able to observe that in the USSR the plan is indeed "omnipotent". He also greeted the fact that all jobs are in charge of architects who sift immediate demands, yet take into consideration the needs of the future, who direct and realise construction with the greatest economy of time, money and labour, combined with the highest type of execution. "You recognise no obstacles to the fulfilment of a plan, no matter how great its scope or how brief the time for its execution. Your social system has solved the problem of power based upon collective creation."

The speaker further noted that in the USSR the economic plan has been made to serve the idea of collectivisation and unity. In socialist construction, he said, he observed a search for a new style developing under the influence of two tendencies, functionalism and expressionism. Soviet architecture seeks new construction methods and the application of new materials. He sees new civilisation being created in the USSR.

Turning to the Soviet architects, Pengusson expressed his "amazement at their great achievements".

"L'Architecture d'aujourd'hui" proposes to publish a special issue of the magazine devoted to the visit made to the USSR by the foreign architects.

Modern Soviet architecture. A new building in Cheboksary, Chuvashia
U.S.A.

The Society for Cultural Relations with the USSR in San Francisco arranged an exhibition of Soviet drawings. Great interest was shown in the exhibition and the achievements of Soviet graphic art were favourably reviewed by the press.

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Senator Sabbath spoke on the question of the recognition of the USSR at a meeting conducted in Chicago by the Society for Cultural Relations with the USSR.  

As is known, Senator Sabbath introduced a motion in the Senate concerning the recognition of the USSR.

ENGLAND

On the occasion of the XVth anniversary of the October Revolution, the London society for Cultural Relations with the USSR arranged a "We have been to the USSR" dinner.

The dinner was attended by 250 persons, many of whom were members of the Society. A number of speeches dealing with the achievements of socialist construction and cultural revolution in the USSR were delivered. Mrs Mansell-Moullin, Chairman of the Society, sent a message to the USSR congratulating it on the XVth anniversary of the October Revolution.

*  

The S.C.R. in Birmingham has drawn up a big programme of lectures for the next months.

The following topics have been indicated: 1) Education in the USSR, 2) Marriage in the USSR, 3) The second Five-Year Plan, 4) The system of financing in the USSR, 5) The psychological stimulus for work in the USSR.

*  

The S.C.R. in Liverpool has organised a circle composed of students and others to study the second Five-Year Plan.

BELGIUM

VOKS received the following appeal from the Belgian Society for Cultural Relations with the USSR:

"The Council of the Society for Cultural Relations with the USSR has decided to work tirelessly for the realisation of its social task of furthering the development of cultural, scientific and literary connections between Belgium and the USSR and requests VOKS to transmit to the competent government authorities its warmest congratulations on the occasion of the glorious XVth anniversary of the October Revolution.

"It hopes that the time is not far off when normal relations will be established between the governments of both countries and when cultural exchanges will be considerably extended and strengthened at a time when the Russian Revolution will victoriously realise its aspirations."

At a general meeting of the Society on November 5th the following text of the appeal to the toilers of the USSR was proposed:

"The assembly of Belgian intellectuals at its meeting devoted to the XVth anniversary of the Russian Revolution, organised by the Society for Cultural Relations with the USSR, expresses to the toilers of the Soviet Union its fraternal and warm sympathies for the marvellous energetic struggle which they have been conducting for 15 years on one-sixth of the globe for the realisation of their revolutionary ideal.

"It expresses the wish that the USSR, taking advantage of the present peaceful conditions, would carry out to the end the first international experiment of socialist construction, by continuing to create new intellectual and material values."

At this meeting a paper was read by Mme Heiliger-Leroy on the revolutionary months February—October 1917, and Engineer Re. né Plot of Paris—on Lenin and Gorky.

JAPAN

There has appeared a new book by Fukuro "A Short History of the Cinema in the USSR".

Soviet literature was represented at the international exhibition of literature and cultural achievements in Tokyo.

Soviet literature enjoys great success in Japan. A number of works of Soviet authors—Sholokhov, Vs. Ivanov, Shaghinyan, Lavrenev, Seifullina and others—have been or are being translated.

A number of Japanese men of letters are preparing books on the industrialisation of the USSR, on Soviet music, on the cultural achievements in the USSR, etc.
Soviet Fiction

E. Gabrilovich

NINETEEN THIRTY

(Fragment from a story)

"1930" is written by the gifted young Soviet author Eugene Gabrilovich. The chief character of the story is Kasymov, an old Tartar peasant.

At 49 years of age, Kasymov starts studying, joins a colhoz and becomes an active colhoz organiser. In spite of the desperate resistance offered by the reactionary elements in the village, in spite of all the difficulties, Kasymov, being a man of tremendous energy and ardent belief, deeply conscious of his close connection with the masses, finally triumphs. The colhoz is organised. It successfully carries through the sowing campaign. Kasymov is killed by his foes—the kulaks and mullaks. But his death only strengthens the solidarity of the colhoz members.

In the author's foreword we read:

"Everything has changed in the regions dealt with here. A big agricultural unit is now to be found where once Kasymov laboured. But there was a 1930. I saw this year in the boundless steppes beyond the Volga. I saw its heroes and its wreackers. I want to describe what I saw."

The fragment given below represents Kasymov's journey through the colhozes, his trip to the town, the struggle for the fulfilment of the spring sowing plan in the colhoz, and Kasymov's death.

We drove from village to village. As soon as we arrived at a place Kasymov would call a meeting in the local "people's house".

Crowds came to the meetings. As soon as Kasymov got up on the platform hundreds of questions were fired at him from all sides. There was a whitwind, a storm, a siron of questions. One would need to be an agronomist, engineer, a veterinary surgeon, economist, meteorologist and lawyer combined in one to answer all the questions. And Kasymov, the old Tartar, was none of these. He was not even a speaker. When he made a speech, he got muddl-ed after the first three words. Interruptions from the audience put him out altogether. He closed his eyes. He seemed to have fallen asleep. The audience shouted and roared. Some humped up from their places, and pulled him by his Tartar's gown, swore at him. Kasymov was silent.

Little by little the room quietened down. The audience became aware that the man, silent and with closed eyes, was evidently waiting for a chance to speak. Silence came of itself. Then Kasymov shook himself and called one of the men sitting nearby up to the platform. Kasymov began to hold a loud conversation with this man. He asked his christian name and called him by it. It was at this point that the meeting proper began. Kasymov, who could get no further than the three first words of a speech, possessed a wonderful gift for carrying on a conversation. He could see and understand the man's doubts, as he could see a house, a wood, or a meadow, and replies that one would have to be an economist, an engineer, or an agronomist to give, fell from his lips of themselves.

It was the most penetrating form of agitation I have ever heard. The collective farm was knocked down, was hurried, was surprised. The collective farm lost things, doubted, yawned and looked about it. The meeting held its breath as it listened to that astonishing dialogue.

At 4 o'clock in the morning Kasymov closed the meeting. At 8 we went on our way.

Three weeks went by like this. Sometimes of nights Kasymov asked me to read the newspapers to him. I would read him the headlines and slogans and try to interpret them for him. The slogans frightened him, at the steely directness of the slogan he paled; had he made some mistakes, he wondered? He was so afraid that I was afraid for him. For several hours he would be not quite himself. He would pace up and down, thinking, slip-slapping his galoshes and gesticulating. He muttered to himself.

In a few hours' time he got used to the idea of the slogan just as he had got accustomed to the beard, the buttons and coat of his companion in conversation.
Now it was the slogan that lost things and doubted, and got wick, hurried and was knocked down. That was enough. Now the slogan could be seen, had become his.

In the course of those three weeks the gradual crystallisation of the collective farm was brought about.

Grain, forage, plans, labour norms, and credits settled the business. The collective farmer could see a brigade, a collective farm field, and collective farm sowing methods clearly and definitely.

The brigades, the disappearance of private hedges and the work of sowing—which up to now had been exclamations, convincing but unearthly—suddenly smelt of tobacco smoke, wore high boots, scratched themselves, became a crowd. One could see the sand that had dried on the blade of the collective farm sowing machine, and the pimple on the cheek of the brigade worker. Taste, smell, sight and touch were once more called into play, this time inside the collective farm. That was the thing. The collective farm, the real one, was growing stronger, stronger every hour.

There was one weak spot, however. The implements needed mending.

On April 5th the board of directors sent Kasymov to Samara to look into the matter personally.

He arrived to Samara. He went down a side-street. For the first time in his life he saw pavements, and lamp posts along them, stuck with bills. Then the side-street ended. He saw for the first time in his life a boulevard, inscriptions over gates, gratings to let water through. He went up to a tram stop. He stood and looked at the women with baskets, the cab drivers, the crowd, windows, portfolios. He quailed. He feared that he was in this town for ever. He was alone. Perhaps all these things were invented for him alone. Everything looked so flimsy and unreal. He stood shaking his head. The tram came up. Kasymov would have liked to run away, to get to the hotel, to Sargar, to see the director’s frame house again, and the saddle workshop. He took one step backward—and then got on the tram. For the first time in his life he saw a conductor’s wallet, the roll of tickets, the short scats for sitting on and the traffic warnings pasted on the walls.

At last he got to the offices of the Regional Collective Farm Union. People of the most varied professions were scurrying about here. Brigades of agronomists, engineers, instructors, docters, blacksmiths and clerks were formed here. It was as if a tremendous pulse could be felt throbbing intensely through the tables, cupboards, inkstands. With every hour more people from the villages came troop in here. People came from all parts of the country, received instructions, boots, sheepskin coats, pamphlets, and went out. The next day they were no longer to be seen. Some went away for two or three months, some for six months, and other for five years.

Kasymov was told here that 25 repair workers’ brigades had been sent to the Asulino district. There were no more brigades at the disposal of the Union. Kasymov had better appeal directly to the workers about the brigades. The chairman advised Kasymov to get to the Party nucleus and the shop committee of the machine works here. They had already dispatched 17 workers’ brigades for the sowing.

Kasymov went to the machine works. The secretary of the Party nucleus listened attentively to the old man’s broken talk, and said he would put the matter before the workers at the general meeting in the dinner hour next day. He asked Kasymov to make a speech at the meeting. The Kasymov went back to the hotel.

He began to prepare his speech for the next day. He drew out of his sack sheets of paper covered with figures. The book-keeper had given them to him just before he left. Kasymov read the figures over and over, whispering to himself: “I’m no speechmaker.”

It grew dusk. About 6 o’clock Kasymov decided to learn his speech by heart. He rose and began to caper up and down the room. He whispered, fidgeted, gesticulated. He learnt it paragraph by paragraph. He tramped and tramped, hitching up his trousers, now and again shuffling his galoshes. And muttering all the time.

By 10 in the morning, when he had got it off by heart, he went out. For the second time in his life he saw the theatre posters, the boulevards, the inscriptions, the gratings for the rainwater to run down. He walked, rode and ran stumbling sometimes. He arrived at the works at 11 o’clock, an hour before the meeting. They told him to wait in the committee-room. He sat there a long time. He could remember the beginning and the end of the speech very well. He sat without moving, repeating the middle of the speech to himself—seraps of the middle, exclamations from it.
At half past 12 he was called in to the club. A huge hall full of people. He was invited to come up to the platform. He began his speech. The beginning of it he managed quite well. He spoke clearly though he was embarrassed. But the middle of the speech tripped him up. He made a mess of it.

He went on talking and talking and thinking to himself:

"It's all up with me now, I'm no speechmaker."

But it was not all up with him. In this room they were all his own kind. They understood: the old man had got winded, got into a sweat, got all tied up. They understood that it was not his words but his business that mattered.

When Kasymov finished, the secretary of the Party nucleus came out on the platform and said:

"We've got to pick out still another brigade, comrades."

He pointed out that the works had already sent out 17 repair brigades and that they would have to make tremendous efforts so as not to let their own industrial and financial plan fall through.

"And still, comrades", he said, "we've got to send out another brigade."

The meeting adopted a resolution to send still another brigade to "Dawn". It was to leave on April 16th, when the works' industrial plan for the half month will be completed.

The business was over; Kasymov left Samara.

The train boomed out of the station. Outside the windows wet gullies and slippery steppes rolled by. At rare intervals there were low one-storied railway station. About 7 o'clock it began to rain and the wind arose.

The worker's brigade arrived on April 17th, and started work at once. It worked day and night, and repaired 5 ploughs, 10 harrows, and 3 sowers every 24 hours, and still the rapid thaw of the spring of 1930 was ahead of the rapid work of the brigade.

The general sowing began on the 30th, that is, with a delay of five days. The sun was scorching. It was necessary not only to fulfil the daily sowing task, but also to make up for the delay.

On May 3rd arrived repair brigades from the more prosperous collective farms, as also the newspaper correspondents. So did the agronomists, the political workers, the Young Communist groups.

Travelling field smithies were organised: bellows, two sacks of coal, five hammers, a cart, a horse, an anvil. The repairing of farm implements on the spot started.

Meetings also began. Fifteen political instructors drove about to the villages, explaining the policy of the Soviet government with regard to the collective farms and individual farmers. Associations of individual farmers arose. The Asulino medical and sanitary brigade opened creches. Travelling kitchens were opened.

A travelling library was the next thing. A covered cart was dragged out of one of the sheds, put on wheels and used to carry books, magazines and newspapers round the villages. A travelling wall newspaper was launched. It was taken round by the Asulino brass band. Whenever the band arrived in a village it would strike up a march. As soon as a fair number of people had gathered round, the band would nail up the newspaper to the gates of the village Soviet.

On May 4th, five days after the alarm had been sounded, the amount of work done had increased by 40%. This was not enough. The sun was baking. The soil got drier every hour. It was hard to doubt that the sowing would be a failure.

Brigades of Young Communists were picked out; they worked in the fields. Propaganda vans went out into the fields, explaining the political nature of the sowing campaign, and agitating for increased speed in work. The Asulino Party brigades arrived. They worked in the fields after their day's work in the offices and works where they were employed.

At night they left the ploughs and went back to Asulino, to start work again in the morning. Propaganda groups arrived singing couplets and giving performances of light sketches. Journalists sat about in the fields describing actual difficulties and actual disorders. Shock-brigades were formed. Socialist competition began.

Individual output rose 30% over the figures of the plan. And even that was not enough. The sowing was delayed by 11 days. The sun baked the earth and it was getting hard. A daily extra 100% was demanded.

Night work by the light of fires and lanterns was organised. The collective farm shock-brigaders who had finished their own jobs went to work on the backward fields. The Party members and Young Communists of 18 Party nuclei were put on to this work.
Journalists, actors, doctors, students, and agronomists formed brigades. These brigades did auxiliary work, thus releasing people who could be employed on the main business, the actual sowing.

Sargar was well nigh unrecognisable. It vibrated. New people kept coming into it from all sides. A travelling printing works rattled. Motors shone. Wires of field telephones hung from trees. Sargar groaned and boomed. A tremendous force, drawn from everywhere, swelled it out. It blew out like a ball, shuddering and twitching. It was awakened from its sleep, raised and carried in human hands.

On May 11th 90% above the sowing plan were completed.

Next day Kasymov went to a meeting in Maximovka. He spent the night in Novaya Veriga, the village where he was born. He slept on the table in the village Soviet. In the night he heard the clatter of broken glass. He opened his eyes. The lamp was smoking. By its dim light he could see the portraits and placards on the walls. It was quite still. A breeze blew in through the broken window. Kasymov passed his hand over his cheek and saw drops of blood and the mark of a bullet on the table. He raised himself, astounded.

A shot rang out. Kasymov fell off the table. He was shot in the back. He crawled towards the door, trying to keep close to the floor, hoping that the lamp would go out at last. Now he had got to the door. To reach the bolt he would have to raise himself, but he was afraid to do so. He decided to wait for the alarm bell. There was not a sound. He raised his hand. All was still. He could not reach the bolt with his hand. He raised his shoulder. The blood flowed from the wound in his back. The lamp was still burning. As he lay on the floor, Kasymov could see a waste paper basket, a broken pen, and some black sand. He raised his head. Another shot rang out. Kasymov was killed.

Next day the murderer was caught. It was the son of the mullah who had been arrested in connection with the beating of Kasymov.

On the 15th day of the sowing we buried Safatdin Kasymov in Novaya Veriga.

We carried red banners. The orchestra played Chopin’s march. We walked with bent heads. The mournful music drew everybody out into the streets. Down the street we went, through the fields, to the graveyard.

The collective farm workers of many villages stood here waiting. They bore red banners with the words: ‘‘Thousands will come to the relief of one’’. Then the farewells began. I waited my turn, I moved slowly on. I saw the black fields, the ploughs, the tractor, the sowers, the daily plan that had been doubled in the course of work. I went up to Kasymov. I could see his wrinkled face, his lumpy forehead. I said good-bye to him and made way for the next man. Afterwards we lowered the coffin into the grave and closed it. The Mordovian Okolov, who was chief of the Sargar farm, stepped up on the grave.

‘‘Comrades’’, he began. ‘‘It’s a great old man that lies here. He believed in a better life. Some scoundrels killed him. But what did they get out of that? Nothing. Only one old man died. But we are all alive. The sowers, the ploughs and the harrows remained. Good-bye, old chap. We’ll remember you; you were not very big and you were thin. You always went about in your Tartar gown. You were shy at the meetings. You got muddled sometimes and you would cough to pass off. But we swear to go the same road you went, the road the great Soviet Government and the great Communist Party are leading us along.’’

The band struck up. We went our ways.

It was dusty on the road. The sun was scorching. I sat down by the co-operative. There were clanging sounds from the kitchen; it was 10 in the morning. A group of pioneers with waving banners passed by. The travelling library cart passed by. A woman came out of the gate, glanced at the sky and began to pump water. The caretaker of the co-operative yawned. The repair brigade strode by with their tools. The agronomist passed on horseback. A wind blew. The river splashed. The birds sang. It was noon, dinner-time.

They say that real pathos is inconspicuous. This is not so. It may be expressed haltingly, in such a low voice that it can scarcely be heard. And yet it thunders forth. And when a man takes the pen in his hand to write dawn what he has seen, he is stunned and carried away by this obscure pathos.

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