SOVIET UNION REVIEW

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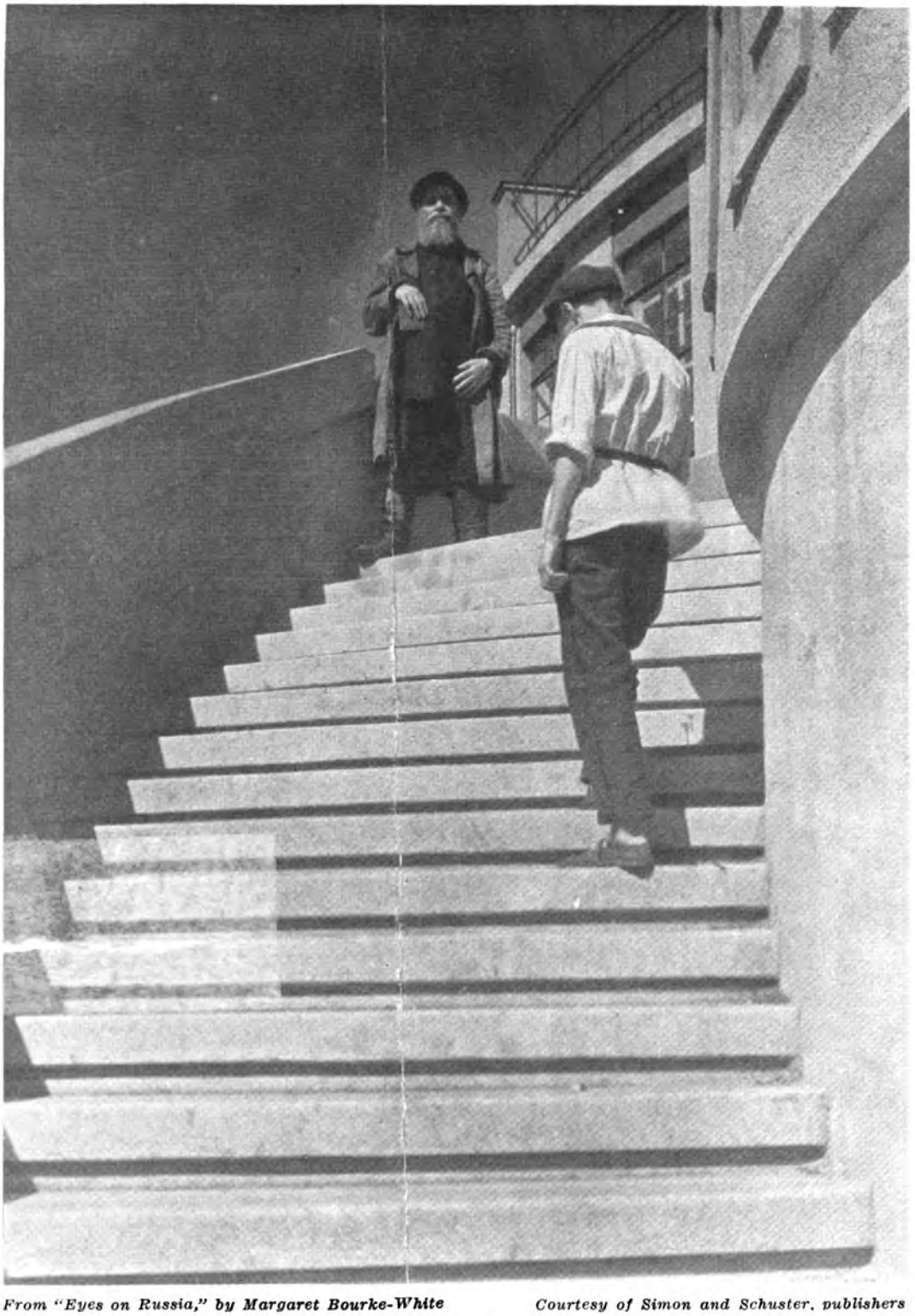

From "Eyes on Russia," by Margaret Bourke-White *Courtesy of Simon and Schuster, publishers*

Scene from a workers' club theater in Moscow

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Control Figures for 1932

THE Soviet "control figures" for 1932, giving the full and detailed economic program for the year, were presented to the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Government at the session which opened in Moscow on December 20, and became effective after approval by that body. The "control figures" present a general program for the year which is roughly equivalent for that originally projected for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1933, which was the last year of the original plan.

The program for the year calls for advances all along the line equivalent to those of the past few years and in a number of cases greater than those either planned or accomplished hitherto. The details of the program indicate that particular emphasis will be placed upon solving the transport problem and in speeding up production in the coal and metal industries, both of which lagged behind schedule during the past year.

The most important items in the program for 1932 adopted by the Central Executive Committee follow:*

Electric power output, 17,000,000,000 kilowatt hours against approximately 10,000,000 last year.

Coal output, 90,000,000 tons as against approximately 58,600,000 last year.

Pig iron, 9,000,000 tons; steel, 9,500,000 tons.

Machine construction is scheduled to amount to 6,880,000,000 rubles, including 940,000,000 rubles for agricultural implements. The number of tractors produced will be 82,000, about double the number produced during the past year. Automobiles, 73,000, about triple the output of last year. The 1932 program calls for the construction of 1,300 locomotives and 50,000 freight cars.

New blast furnaces, 64; 63 open hearth furnaces; 12 electrical furnaces; 7 bloomings.

The program for the year calls for marked increases in consumers' goods. The mark for cotton piece goods is set at 3,061 million meters (as compared with the high mark of 2,836 million meters set in 1928-29), and the footwear industry is scheduled to turn out 91,500,000 pairs of shoes. Under the program the total of consumers' goods will increase 45 per cent, as compared with 1931. The program calls for the construction of a new textile combine in Central Asia, and thirteen new sugar factories, eleven of them in Kazakstan. The Commissariat for Trade and the Consumers' Cooperatives are scheduled to open 10,000 new retail stores during the year.

The total capital investment in industry for 1932 is to be 10,700,000 rubles. It was 8,200,000 in 1931.

The spring sowing program calls for 102,000,-

*Preliminary figures received by cable from Moscow.

000 hectares; the winter wheat sowing, 42,000,000. The cotton area is to be increased by 14 per cent; the sugar beet area by 13 per cent.

Machine and tractor stations are to be increased from 1,400 to 3,100. The increase in cattle on the State cattle ranches is set at 40 per cent; the increase in pigs, 290 per cent. There will be 7,300,000 head of sheep on the State sheep farms, against 4,780,000 in 1931. The program for the collectives is 2,700,000 milch cows, 4,500,000 pigs, 9,000,000 sheep.

The total capital investment for agriculture for 1932 is to be 4,360,000,000 rubles, against 3,600,000,000 last year.

The capital investment in railways, water, land, and air transport is set at 3,330,000,000 rubles. The personnel of the railroads will be increased to 1,186,000, and the wage fund to 1,494,000,000, an increase of 13 per cent over last year.

There will be 6,218,000 industrial workers against 5,447,000 in 1931. Wages are to be increased 11 per cent, bringing the wage fund to 8,051,000,000 rubles.

The number of workers and employees in all branches of Soviet economy will be 21,000,000, or 3,000,000 more than last year.

The sums scheduled to be expended for housing and for new public works in cities are about double those expended in 1931. The schedule for socialized housing calls for an outlay of 1,942,000,000 rubles, and for municipal public works, 950,000,000 rubles. These sums will be expended mostly in the coal and metal centers, in Moscow and Leningrad, and in the new industrial towns grouped about the new giant enterprises.

Federal and republican expenditures for cultural undertakings, including education, science, health and social insurance, are 9,200,000,000 rubles, as compared with 6,600,000,000 rubles in 1931. These figures do not include local expenditure for public education. During the year it is expected that 56,000 students will be graduated from universities; 175,000 from technical schools; 121,000 from workers' faculties, and 364,000 from factory and plant schools.

The total capital investments in the socialized sector of national economy planned for the year amount to 21,100,000,000 rubles, as against 16,100,000,000 rubles in 1931. The national income under the program is estimated at 49,200,000,000 rubles, as against 37,800,000,000 rubles in 1931, an increase of 30 per cent. Of this national income for 1932, the socialized sector represents 91 per cent.

The preliminary budget figures for 1932 call for an income of 27,429,000,000 rubles, with expenditures of 26,929,000,000 rubles, and a reserve fund of 500,000,000 rubles.

The Second Piatiletka

THE Seventeenth all-Union conference of the Communist Party will be held in Moscow beginning January 30. The conference will consider last year's economic results and the program for 1932, as well as the preliminary program for the next Five-Year Plan, which will begin January 1, 1933. Indications are that the new Piatiletka will stress production of the consumers' goods necessary for the comfort and well-being of the people, and increased housing facilities. While heavy industrial production will continue to expand, the proportionate increase in industries serving the direct needs of the population will be greater than in those manufacturing the means of production. This is only possible because of the basis that has been laid in the three years of the plan already completed.

A leading article in the Moscow *Pravda* of December 6, indicates the main lines the Party discussions will take. During the present year special attention will be directed to problems of transport in order to preclude any possibility of a repetition of the experiences of the past year, when the entire economic program was endangered by the condition of the railroads.

The inability of some of the industrial leaders to adapt themselves to the new conditions will be considered, and a careful check made of the extent to which the six recommendations made by Stalin last June have been carried out.

Among the achievements of the past year special note is made of the improvement of technique in the new industrial giants, largely as a result of lessons learned from the Stalingrad tractor works. During the past year much complicated machinery and equipment never before made in the Soviet Union has been produced—equipment for blooming and cracking, oil pipelines, turbines and turbo-generators, electrical equipment and new types of agricultural machinery.

While production for the year just completed was below the requirements set by the plan, the movement is steadily upward. Production increased by 19.4 per cent in the first ten months of 1931, and the production for October, 1931,

The Five-Year Plan in Four and a Quarter

The "control figures" for 1932 are predicated on the virtual completion of the Five-Year Plan by the end of 1932, or in four and a quarter years. The original Five-Year Plan was designed to run to September 30, 1933. Under the circumstances it is interesting to compare the "control figures" for 1932 in the vital indices of national economy with the equivalent figures originally designed for 1932-33, the final year of the original plan. The comparative table follows:

	Control figures 1932	5-Yr. Plan 1932-33
Steel (metric tons)	9,500,000	10,400,000
Pig iron (metric tons)	9,000,000	10,000,000
Coal (metric tons)	90,000,000	75,000,000
Oil (metric tons)	35,000,000	20,800,000
Electric power (million kwh.)	17,000	22,000
Machine building (million rubles)	6,880	2,959
Cotton cloth (million meters)	3,061	4,700
Sown area (hectares)	144,000,000	142,000,000
National capital investment (million rubles)	21,100	19,600

was 24.4 per cent higher than that of the preceding October.

A complete transformation in the agricultural system will mark the beginning of the second Five-Year Plan. With over 60 per cent of the peasants organized in collectives, and immense areas under cultivation by the State grain farms and machine and tractor stations, the coming year will probably see the completion of collectivization in the chief grain-growing regions at least. Attention will thus be turned from the actual organization of collectives to the further mechanization of agricultural processes through increased production of tractors, combines, motor trucks and complex agricultural machinery of all kinds. The Stalingrad and Putilov works are, between them, already turning out 5,000 tractors a month. Machine and tractor stations will be greatly extended, and the agricultural collectives will be strengthened by improved organization of labor. Vigorous efforts will be made to increase crop yields through better agricultural technique, irrigation and other measures against drought. Animal husbandry will receive greater attention, as well as the technical crops necessary to provide raw materials for light industry.

The extensive program for the reconstruction of municipal economy and huge new housing projects adopted by the June plenary session of the party will be still further amplified in the second Five-Year Plan as the most vital part of the program to improve material and social conditions.

The electrification of the country will take a great stride forward in the second plan, on the basis of the progress already achieved in the metallurgical industries. A gigantic program is being mapped out for the creation of a second Ural-Kuznetsk coal and metallurgical base, for the establishment of numerous new industrial districts and centers and greater extension of the industrialization program into the national republics. And finally, the new program will call for still greater efforts in "mastery of technique" and increased opportunities for the training of skilled workers and specialists.

Carpentry class in one of the new polytechnical schools

War on Drought

AGRICULTURISTS, engineers and scientists from all parts of the Soviet Union met in conference in Moscow from October 26 to November 1 to consider methods of combatting drought.

Causes of drought have been the subject of exhaustive studies ever since the catastrophic famine of 1921. The semi-arid Volga region has from time immemorial been subject to recurrent droughts which have meant disaster to thousands of peasant households whose primitive methods exhausted the soil and permitted no conservation of the limited moisture.

The drought of 1921, following two years of partial drought in southeastern Russia, was of unprecedented intensity, causing complete crop failure over an area of about 140,000,000 acres. Twenty million people were directly affected and, already weakened by world war, civil war and blockade, a quarter of them perished. A vast program of restoration of the drought-subject regions was immediately undertaken by the Soviet Government, but although the droughts which have occurred in regular succession since then have done decreasing damage, the losses in crops and cattle due to drought in the southeastern section in the past three years are estimated at from 600,000,000 to 700,000,000 rubles.

This past summer the fields of Orenburg, Buzuluk and Samara were again scorched by sun and hot winds for a month and a half, but while there were severe local losses, the increased area and higher crop yields made possible by the spread of collectivization, the wide use of tractors, the application of dry-farming methods on a large scale and the use of cleaned, selected seed prevented the total harvest from dropping below that of last year.

The recent conference was called for the purpose of gathering together the results of all the studies of drought and drawing up a unified plan to still further mitigate its results.

Over four hundred delegates attended the conference, from the Narkomzem (Commissariat for Agriculture), Gosplan, the Lenin Agricultural Academy, the State Grain Trust, the Kolhozcenter, the Academy of Sciences, the Hydro-Meteorological Committee, and other agricultural and scientific institutions.

On the agenda of the conference were the following subjects: causes of drought, problems of agricultural technique, seed selection, irrigation, organized measures for combatting drought.

Causes of Drought

The conference was opened by Yakovlev, People's Commissar for Agriculture. The first paper, analyzing the causes of droughts, was read by Professor Vangenheim, chairman of the Hydro-Meteorological committee. He stated that droughts are brought about in one of three ways—lack of rain, excessive heat and dryness of the atmosphere, causing increased evaporation, the latter being the chief cause. Dryness of the atmosphere, he explained, is due either to the displacement of the lower strata of the air by the upper, or to masses of cold air from the Arctic regions which occur in definite years, in definite periods, and move in more or less regular directions. He pointed out that while science is powerless to modify meteorological phenomena and cannot change the movement of the winds, it is possible to take precautions against the consequences. He outlined two groups of methods of fighting drought: the first by improvement and irrigation of the soil, and the selection of crops for their ability to withstand drought, and the second by measures of a purely hydro-meteorological nature. A number of other reports were read on the causes of drought.

Agricultural Technique

In discussing problems of technical methods to be used in mitigating the effects of drought, Kovarsky, assistant chairman of Tractorocenter, reported that the work of the experiment stations and the MTS (machine and tractor stations) has proved that timeliness of work was the most important element. Deep plowing had proved not to be so important in the arid regions as early plowing.

Professor Bazhanov of the Central Volga Agricultural Department presented a paper on "How to Fight Weeds," based on material from the Buzuluk Experimental Station. He advocated early fallow, deeper plowing, thicker sowing, and crop rotation, which would include grasses.

A paper by Prof. V. R. Williams, who was kept away by illness, was read for him, by A. J. Bush of Gosplan. Professor Williams is an American who has lived in Russia for over twenty-five years and teaches in the Agricultural Academy in Moscow. Professor Williams declared that the problem was to insure the greatest penetration of moisture into the soil and to prevent useless evaporation. There are two types of soil, he pointed out, structural and non-structural. While the former absorbs during the year close to a hundred per cent of the water content of the air, the non-structural soil absorbs only 15 per cent. Therefore he advocated the inclusion of certain grasses and legumes in crop rotation as restorers of the soil structure.

This point of view was sharply attacked by Margolin, formerly director of the successful ex-

perimental training farm "Verblud" in the North Caucasus, and now director of the Western Siberian Grain Trust. Margolin said that experiments over a number of years had shown that after including a grass crop in the rotation, the grain harvest not only did not increase, but was actually lowered, and that the highest yield came from the use of clean fallow and proper cultivation, and that the earlier the plowing the higher the yield. He referred to experience in the United States, where the foremost agriculturists advocate "killing the weeds" as the main weapon in fighting against drought.

World Resources of Drought-Resistant Crops

Prof. Vavilov, head of the Leningrad Agricultural Academy, gave a very interesting report on the world resources of drought-resistant crops based on material gathered by the Plant Institute of the Academy. He divided crops into three categories—those best adapted to resist drought, those least adapted, and the intermediate varieties. He said that three-fifths of the entire cultivated area of the world was occupied by the intermediate type and that the group of drought-resistant crops was very small.

Following the drought of 1921, Soviet agriculturists naturally turned to the countries with a similar climate and the best developed selection work to seek selected seeds suited to arid conditions. During 1922 and 1924 the Institute of Applied Botany, now the Plant Institute, ordered a huge amount of the best selected varieties of seed from all parts of the world. In the course of seven years, over 700 varieties of the best foreign seeds were examined and tested. With few exceptions, the results of these experiments did not come up to expectations. It was found that varieties of grain from the United States and Western Canada, and even more so the varieties from Western European countries, did not measure up to the selected crops of the Soviet Union, either as regards resistance to drought or to winter. This meant a new and exhaustive study of the grain resources of the whole world to determine the origin and main centers of development of the crops necessary for the U.S.S.R.

Between 1924 and 1930, through correspondence and numerous expeditions, the grain resources of forty countries were investigated by the Plant Institute, according to a systematic plan. As a result, the Plant Institute has a mass of first-hand scientific data on the world selection material for all the main crops. In the world assortment of wheat, barley, beans, corn, etc., many varieties were found with greater drought-resisting qualities than those previously known in the U.S.S.R. Many new varieties of wheat, potatoes, and vegetables were discovered. The former data had to be entirely revised. Instead of the seven varieties of lentils previously known, for instance, 78 were discovered, some of them of great practical interest.

New Varieties from Ancient Lands

The ancient agricultural countries on the shores of the Mediterranean and in Southwestern Asia yielded plants of the most interest to Soviet agricultural scientists. The great concentration of the ancient agricultural populations meant that the poorer land of the border regions had to be used. Within Algeria, Tunis and Transjordania are semi-desert regions subject to frequent droughts, where the primitive farmers of long ago selected the finest varieties of grain, and large-grained wheat of a high quality was found here. High grade wheats were also found in Persia, Afghanistan and the interior of Spain. In the Mediterranean region, large-grained oats with strong drought-resistant qualities were found. Especially useful varieties of corn were found in Northern Mexico, Arizona and Persia. Many interesting varieties of flax were found, and many wild grasses which could be cultivated for fodder. Professor Vavilov said that among the wild flora of the semi-desert and even desert regions of Kazakstan, Central Asia, the Lower Volga, Persia, Afghanistan, Mongolia and Western China are great reserves of wild vegetation that might be utilized in many ways.

Of great interest, too, was the account given by Professor V. S. Bogdanov of experiments made at the Krasnokutsk Station in the Ukraine in cultivating drought-resistant feed grasses. He said that among the wild vegetation of Armenia, Azerbaidjan and Central Asia there had been found many varieties of drought-resistant wild pears and grapes and almonds which could be used for hybridization. He said there was very little ready-made material for the varied conditions of the arid agricultural regions, but rich stores of material that could be used for crossing, to strengthen the existing varieties. This, he said, meant the development of selective work on a large scale. The necessary conditions for determining drought-resistant qualities in one growing season do not yet exist, so the experiments must be carried on over a number of years while a more satisfactory method is sought by science.

Early Maturing Varieties

Professor Bogdanov emphasized the importance of early maturing varieties of grain which would ripen before the hot winds did their deadly work. He said there was a great stock of early varieties in the world assortment which might well prove of value to the U.S.S.R. During the expedition to Abyssinia, and especially due to the help of the Soviet Trade representative in Arabia, many varieties of early wheat, barley, beans and lucerne were obtained from Yemen. The most early

maturing varieties have survived in Arabia through the centuries by natural selection, and some of these have great practical importance. Since early maturing varieties usually have small yields, Professor Bogdanov pointed out the importance of determining the varieties not only best adapted to drought years, but best adapted to the average conditions.

Professor Maximov, of the Plant Institute, emphasized the importance of shortening the growing period as a means of combatting the effects of drought, and described promising experiments made in the use of electrical action to hasten growth. Professor Lysenko, from the Odessa Genetics Institute, who has received the Order of Labor for his great services to agriculture, related his experiments in treating seeds before sowing to hasten their maturity. Experiments of this kind have been made at the Odessa Institute not only with grain, but with cotton, kenafa, soy beans, corn, and other crops.

Irrigation Projects

Plans were outlined for extensive irrigation projects in the Volga, Ukraine, Crimea and North Caucasus regions. From one to two million hectares of land are to be put under irrigation in the Volga region during the next ten years, and special methods of storing the spring overflow have been worked out. The conference passed resolutions calling for the prohibition of cutting trees in the Central Volga district over an area of about half a million hectares, and also for extensive reforestation work. It is planned to raise the level of the Volga six to seven meters, turning 40,000,000 hectares into a fertile area, and to plant 600,000 hectares of trees, affecting an area of 7,500,000 hectares.

Artificial Production of Rain

The problem of artificial production of rain was given very serious consideration by the conference, and a number of reports read describing experiments in this direction. Professor Kazhinsky called special attention to experiments made in the United States in 1924 in ionization of the atmosphere, and to the work of the Soviet physicist, Fedoseyev, in Ashkhabad, in 1931, with electrified smoke. Fedoseyev produced rainfall lasting for forty minutes. Kazhinsky reviewed the history of experiments to create rain artificially. He said that electrical precipitation of moisture has been known to physicists for over a hundred years. Between 1901 and 1925 a number of experiments were made in Japan, France, America and England. In 1921, on the initiative of Lenin, a scientific institute was established in Leningrad to study the problem of artificially procuring water from the atmosphere. This institute has achieved some interesting results. Professor Aganin, in Odessa, is also doing important work on the problem of getting rain from the clouds. Osoaviakhim (Soviet chemical and aviation society) has a special brigade working on the uses of aviation in procuring rain artificially.

Results of Conference

Committees were appointed to sum up the most important facts brought out in each cycle of reports, and resolutions advocating a series of practical measures to be undertaken in each field considered were adopted. While facing squarely the fact that knowledge of the causes of drought is still limited, the conference adopted a series of measures designed to mitigate the results of drought which are to be embodied in a general plan of warfare against drought to be drawn up by the Narkomzem. These measures include increased attention to early cultivation, improved seeds, fighting the weeds, crop rotation in some districts and the use of clean fallow in others. Extensive experiments are to be carried out to determine the best methods for different districts. The cutting down of trees is to be entirely prohibited over large areas and a reforestation program has been mapped out. A large area is to be irrigated by raising the level of the Volga. Measures for the storage of snow have been undertaken. Meantime, causes of drought are to be studied carefully through the network of meteorological stations.

Comsomol Campaign Against Drought

Immediately following the Moscow conference with its important and far-reaching decisions to combat the effects of drought, the Comsomol organizations of the Central and Lower Volga and Kazakstan regions, called a conference for the purpose of putting the anti-drought measures decided upon into immediate effect in these most drought-subject sections of the U.S.S.R. This conference, aided by the Leningrad Agricultural Academy, concerned itself with very practical problems and outlined a definite and detailed program of work for all Comsomol organizations throughout the region. The Central Volga Comsomol organization, with 200,000 members, has adopted its own five-year plan for combatting drought and increasing crop yields.

All during December meetings have been held in the agricultural collectives and the sovhozes to map out the campaign, by the initiative of the Comsomol organization. Each Comsomol nucleus has selected a special brigade for organization work.

Public Health in the Soviet Union

FOR an appreciation of the problems of the *Commissariats for Public Health of the Soviet Union, the health heritage from Tsarist Russia must be considered. The population of the country was 80 per cent peasant and over 70 per cent illiterate. The "healthy peasantry" was a myth. Tuberculosis, venereal diseases, malaria, typhoid, smallpox, as well as other diseases that had almost disappeared in western Europe and the United States—such as typhus, cholera and relapsing fever—took heavy annual tolls from the agricultural population that Count Witte's Agrarian Committee in 1903 had proclaimed 30 per cent under-nourished in normal years. Away from the cities there was one doctor to each 20,300 of the population.

As late as 1913 only 219 towns—that is, one-fifth of those classified as cities—had water mains and a few of those towns had water that was safe for human consumption. Among these cities without a public water-supply were several with populations of more than 100,000 inhabitants. At the same time only nineteen cities had satisfactory sewerage systems. Not a tenth of the population had even primitive sanitary facilities.

The number of hospitals was very low and there was *no* nursing system worthy of the name. The sick were cared for by untrained and usually illiterate workers of the lowest grade.

During the war years and the first four post-revolutionary years—a period of ten years—the standard of living in the country, low as it was, continued to fall. New living quarters were insufficient for the rapidly increasing city populations and the old, badly planned and equipped buildings were in a bad state of disrepair, due to lack of funds and lack of materials.

The work of the Commissariats for Public Health in the first post-revolutionary years was chiefly of an emergency character. Victims of the civil wars and foreign invasions had to be cared for, the epidemics of the diseases that had been endemic had to be controlled. The budget of the new state that was attempting the rehabilitation of a ruined country and its broad industrial development was quite inadequate for an extensive program of health. As rapidly as possible the existing medical institutions were re-equipped and repaired and the former houses of the wealthy were opened as sanatoria for the use of the sick not requiring bedside care. Other houses were opened as "rest homes" for those with incipient diseases who lived in places too crowded and unsanitary to enable the patients to recover their health.

The lack of trained personnel was unbelievably great. It was moreover, difficult to attract workers to the lower medical work because it had occupied such a lowly position in pre-war times. Short emergency courses of training were instituted, and an attempt was made to dignify the work.

The Soviet Commissariats for Health began their work with one basic principle—that the

*Owing to the differences in health conditions in various sections of the Soviet Union there is no Health Commissariat for the whole U.S.S.R., each constituent republic having its own Commissariat for Health.

Below—A Red Cross brigade accompanies collective workers to the harvest fields

Above—Medical inspection at a day nursery for Kalmuck children

A medical high school in Ashkhabad, Turcoman Republic

Bacteriological Institute with Pasteur station at Ashkhabad

basis of health was laid in infancy. As rapidly as possible, infant welfare centers were opened to provide medical assistance and instruction. Patient education of the mothers of the country, beginning with the period of pregnancy, was undertaken. They were taught that the old belief in the child as a vegetable till his sixth or seventh year was outmoded; that the child had a right to the same scientific care and training from infancy that the mothers were already accepting as the right of the older child; that as soon as possible the state would provide institutions, such as nurseries, nursery schools and kindergartens, where that scientific care would be provided for the child of even the poorest citizen. Simple training was given to the mothers themselves: the child must be fed regularly and according to the doctor's instructions; it must not be given the usual pacifier made of a dirty bit of cloth filled with bread chewed by the mother; the child must not be wrapped up all day in tight bindings, but must have freedom of movement; the child must be washed daily; the child must be protected from the swarms of flies usually present in the home of the worker and peasant and must have a bed free from the usual bed-bugs and roaches; the sick child must be brought to the doctor and not dosed with home remedies. No better monument to the infant welfare workers of those hard years can be found than in the amazing drop in the infant mortality rate. In 1913, 275 of every 1,000 babies born died in their first year; in 1927, but 186 died in each 1,000; in 1930, the mortality per thousand dropped to 130. These figures are for the European part of the U.S.S.R. The high infant mortality rate that remains for the whole Soviet Union—almost twice that of the United States—is due, in part, to the fact that in the remote districts where conditions are unbelievably primitive, it has not yet been possible to apply the full infant welfare program.

As new needs became apparent attempts were made to meet those needs, as in the establishment of venereal disease clinics and tuberculosis clinics. Emergency stations had to be established in factories to care for industrial injuries and the emergency stations expanded into regular medical clinics. With the extension of medical facilities came an overlapping of services and in time various experiments were begun in unification of the various health activities.

One of the great checks on health progress lay in the attitude of the doctors trained in the old tradition that the medical field was the cure of disease rather than its prevention. With this tradition went an indifference to the need of training in correct health habits and of correcting the unsanitary conditions in which the population lived and worked. In the last year the Councils of Peoples Commissars of the various Union Republics have made instruction in the theory and practice of physical education a compulsory part of all medical training. In 1932 two schools will be opened in Moscow and Leningrad to train instructors of physical education. In August of 1931 the Council of People's Commissars of the R.S.F.S.R. decreed the establishment of institutions for the training of instructors for the teaching of social hygiene, communal hygiene and industrial hygiene and made obligatory to all student doctors courses in the technique of sanitary inspection. This same ruling raised the educational requirements for medical workers and gave the graduates better housing and salaries than they had been receiving. It also provided a broad organization of extension study to raise the educational standards of all classes of medical workers who are now on jobs.

The latest experiment in the unification of health activities is being made at the new Woman Textile Workers' Health Center in Leningrad. This was established under the statute of the Commissariat of Public Health, which defines the function of a health center as the establishment of a single system of "registration, observation, disease prevention and treatment." In addition the center is to locate foci of morbidity and the industrial causes of disease, by study and re-

search. These centers differ from centers found in other countries in that all matters concerning health and disease for the district they cover center there, from inspection of the homes, food supply and water supply of the district, to medical treatment of the individual and his health education.

The unit of attention in this Leningrad experiment is not the individual but the family, and the case history is not that of the individual but of the family. The health problem of the woman who applies for attention is assumed to be tied up with the health of her husband and children, with the work that she does, with the food that she eats, with the home where she sleeps and spends her time, with the places of amusement she frequents, with the health of her neighbors at home and in the factory.

As one of the disadvantages of the usual clinic is that the patient is not under the continuous supervision of one person, the district covered by the Health Center is divided into smaller districts containing fifteen hundred to two thousand inhabitants and each of these small districts has its own general physicians in the clinic and on the home service, its own specialists for tuberculosis, venereal diseases, nervous diseases and so on. The visiting physician is a member of the health committees of inspection and instruction in the houses where his patients live.

The Center has its own laboratories, its equipment for hydro-therapy, electro-therapy, an X-ray department, a disinfectant station, a dietetic kitchen, a drug store, a social welfare department, and a health education section.

Each district staff holds frequent meetings for discussions of the patients under its care, diagnoses of obscure ailments, for decisions on sanitary measures for the district. The findings of the staffs on sanitary questions are coordinated and the heads of the Center coordinate with the heads of other centers.

The sanitary staffs of the Center work in its districts in the supervision of communal dining rooms and of small industrial units located there.

In certain cities of the Union experiments are being tried with "night homes." These are used for workers who are able to work but who are in need of the ordered régime and freedom from domestic interruptions that can not be obtained in the average home. These preventoriums are rendering valuable aid in disease prevention.

Further experimental work is being done in clinics for alcoholism and drug addicts with hypnotic treatment for patients in groups. The results have been most encouraging. The patients come for treatment of their own accord, or on the urging of friends and families.

In the early days of the new régime the rest homes merely provided a kind of vacation for those below par. The positive health role is being developed and in the majority of such homes an active education is carried on, not only by health instruction but by the training in physical culture and the establishment of a correct physical régime that will prevent a recurrence of the condition that brought the patients to the institution.

One of the greatest problems before the Departments of Health is that of attracting physicians and other workers to the remote districts. Many graduates have refused to leave the stimulating cities and the society of their friends, preferring to live in conditions of great crowding and existing by precarious means. It was found necessary to refuse places on the rolls of the unemployed to those who adopted this attitude. The problem will probably become less acute as the agricultural centers develop and the standard of living and social life rises in the outlying country.

The health problem is particularly acute in regions where the population is semi-nomadic and scattered. In the Mongol-Buryat Republic, for example, with a half-million population and very high incidence of syphilis, there was not a single dispensary for treatment of the disease. Ten dis-

A dispensary in the town of Cherepanov, Novosibirsk Region

pensaries where treatment is given had been established by 1931, but the number is still quite inadequate. Twenty small hospitals have been opened in the Mongol-Buryat villages and four tuberculosis dispensaries.

A number of research expeditions under the auspices of the Commissariats of Health are being carried on among the lesser known and remotely located national groups, for the purpose of working out the ways of handling the health problem best suited to the conditions of the peoples.

Sanitary conditions, that have been such a shock to western travelers in the Soviet Union, are still far below standard, but the last year has seen a distinct step ahead and public attention is now focussed on the matter, so that radical progress may be expected. The greater progress has been made in the prevention of disease. Each year brings expanded budgets to the work of the Commissariats of Health and each year now provides larger numbers of workers with higher qualifications.

SIX-DAY WEEK REPLACES CONTINUOUS WORKING WEEK

Permission to change temporarily from the five-day continuous working week to a six-day non-continuous working week was granted to government departments and other institutions by a special decree issued November 21 by the Council of People's Commissars. The decree, which went into effect on December 1, stated that the five-day production week had not been abandoned as the basic form of labor organization in the U.S.S.R., but that in order to ameliorate certain difficulties it had been found desirable to permit those organizations and institutions so desiring to adopt the six-day week.

The new ruling does not apply to organizations serving industries which by their nature must operate continuously nor to enterprises catering to the material and cultural needs of the population such as the cooperative and state stores, restaurants, hospitals, information bureaus, and public utilities of all kinds.

According to the new six-day week each sixth day is to be a rest day for everyone, and the working day is to be shortened from six and a half to six hours. The actual procedure of making the change is to be worked out in connection with the labor departments.

CHILD WELFARE CONTEST

While much has been done during the past year in the care of homeless children, and their number has greatly decreased, this fall saw a recrudescence of the problem in some of the large urban centers, particularly in Moscow. As a result, the Children's Commission attached to the Vtsik (Central Executive Committee of the R.S.F.S.R.) resolved to take vigorous measures to insure the care of all homeless children.

An All-Russian contest for better care of children was therefore held from October 15, to January 1, 1932, in which republic, regional and district children's commissions, departments of education and health and separate institutions and social organizations participated. A jury headed by Dr. N. A. Semashko, formerly Commissar for Health, and representatives of various government organizations, will make the awards. To the republics and regions showing the best results in child care, 100,000 rubles will be given to be used in further work for children. To the section doing the best work in rescuing homeless children from the streets, 50,000 rubles will be given for a training home; for the most constructive work in handling the question of unsupervised children, 50,000 rubles will be given to be used in equipping playgrounds and other extra-school institutions. A number of smaller rewards will be given in equipment for children's colonies, manual training shops, recreational centers, and so on. Individual teachers and child welfare workers will also receive rewards in the form of vacations, trips, and sums of money. Children's collectives achieving the best results in self-government will receive prizes in the form of musical instruments, radios, libraries and other equipment.

OPEN ROAD TOURS TO THE U.S.S.R.

The Russian Travel Department of The Open Road reports an ever-growing interest in travel to the U.S.S.R.

A number of "special interest" tours are being organized by The Open Road. One of these, under the leadership of Dr. Jerome Davis, of Yale University, will consist of economists, sociologists, and educators. Studies will be made of the state farms, factories, coal mines, etc., and data will be assembled and made available for the use of those interested in these subjects in this country.

Another group, under the auspices of the Drama League of America, and The Open Road, will devote itself to the study of the Russian theater in Moscow and Leningrad.

Walter Pettit, Assistant Director of the New York School of Social Work, will be the leader of a group of social workers. Special attention will be paid to the educational and recreational institutions, factories, workers' clubs and public health activities.

A group that promises to prove particularly popular is a students' delegation.

In addition, many other group tours are being planned by The Open Road. Intourist (the Russian State Travel Bureau) is making special arrangements to handle the expected increase in the number of American tourists to the U.S.S.R.

Pioneer Schools on Sakhalin Island

The following account by the Soviet writer, Sletov, of a visit to the schools of Sakhalin Island, is translated from the magazine "Education of the Nationalities" which contains many articles on the pioneer work being done in carrying the cultural program of the Soviet Government to the primitive peoples inhabiting the remote sections of the U.S.S.R.

The Giliaks, with whom this article is chifly concerned, belong to the Paleo-Asiatics, a group of isolated tribes of northeast Asia, representing, in the opinion of some students, the remnants of the aboriginal inhabitants of Asia crowded out of the central districts to the edge of the continent. They inhabit the northern section of Sakhalin Island, the lower Amur River district, the Amur gulf, part of the shore of the Tartar straits and Liangr Island. They are isolated linguistically from surrounding tribes, and Professor L. Y. Sternberg has developed the theory, based on similarities in language structure and folk-lore, that they are akin to certain tribes of North America.

I WAS hunting for Melnikova, the teacher who had come up to the Far North to establish schools for the native children of Sakhalin Island. I had a vivid picture of her in my mind and thought I should be able to find her easily, for in this remote place everyone came down to watch when a boat was due. The boat would be here in a few hours now—my last chance to see her before my departure.

"You are looking for Melnikova, the teacher?" someone asked me, "There she is—fishing with the children."

From the descriptions that had been given me I had pictured an energetic school worker with a masculine exterior, in a leather jacket, probably wearing glasses. I found her to be hardly more than a girl, with smiling dark eyes, dimples in her sunburned cheeks, thick black hair, like an Indian.

"What brought you here?" I asked her.

"I was terribly interested. I do not regret it. And you perhaps have heard that I am a heroine, a martyr?"

We sit on a pile of logs, watching the fishermen pull their primitive lines out of the water, the herring twisting like live springs on the hooks.

"Something of the kind. And besides that, I have read your *feuilletons* in the paper. But tell me about yourself. Did you organize the school from the beginning?"

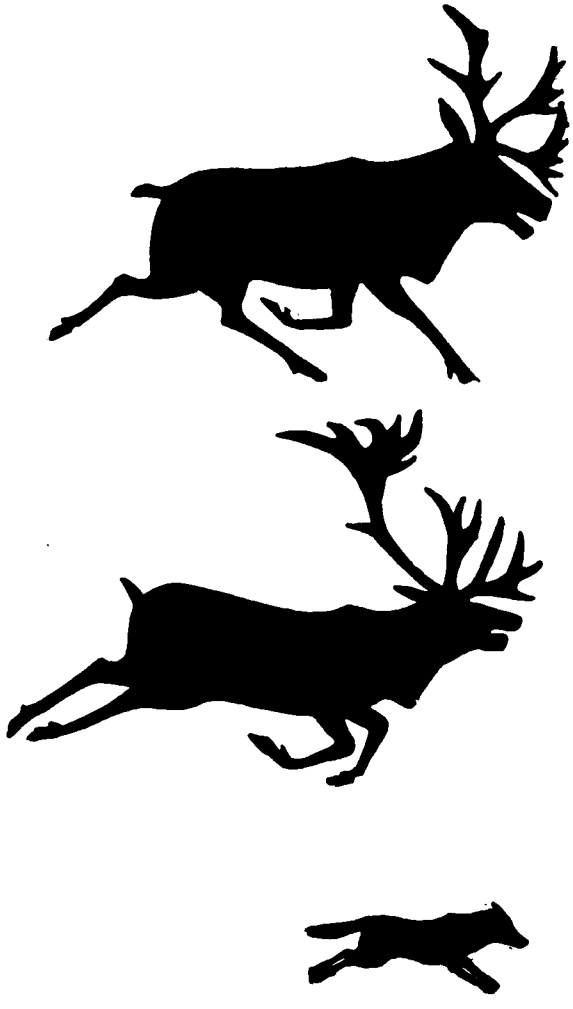
"Not entirely. It was this way. I was called to the Okrono (district educational office). They told me that one of the teachers had left, gone back to the mainland, and that therefore I, as a pioneer in teaching among the natives, should go up to Viskvo. 'There is a good school there' they told me, 'it just needs a little repairing. We will supply you with everything you need—' well, I don't remember all they told me. Of course I pricked up my ears, was excited, and without taking long to think it over, was on the road. I arrived . . Do you know what I found? What they called a school? A fish-salting shed! Old, ramshackle, draughty, full of cracks. Just no good at all. I can't imagine how any teaching could have been done there!"

Melnikova smiled in recollection, showing her dimples.

"I found the former teacher still there, and he showed me how he had taught the children. He played for them on his *dudochka* (pipes), and the children danced around him. Funny and sad! But truly, under such conditions, nothing more could be thought of.

"Well, he went away, and I got to work. The first thing was to draw up a report. I wrote that

A Tungusian hunter in full regalia



Drawings by Giliak children

the school was a kilometer and a half from the nomad's camp, which was too far for the children, especially in winter, that the shed was falling to pieces, that repairs were impossible. The three hundred rubles that had been given me was not enough—it would just be a waste to spend it. I sent the report to the rayon executive committee. Silence—not a word from them. And the shed was decaying before my eyes, and winter was coming on. I drew up a second report. I wrote that it was impossible to work. Again I sent it off—again silence. And no one to turn to—it is a long distance to the Okrono, more than two hundred kilometers . . .

"I wait—then suddenly, a threatening paper: 'Panic!—Desertion on the labor front', and so on. They propose 'mobilizing the public,' and getting the repairs done in whatever way possible. What to do? Well—I carried on a campaign among the Giliaks. I collected two hundred rubles, got the repairs done for five hundred rubles. But I had guessed right. Just as soon as winter began, the first strong wind blew down the walls. Of course, no teaching could be thought of.

"I wrote another letter: 'This is to inform you that the walls of the school entrusted to me have collapsed.'

"The answer came back: 'Use all means to support the falling walls . . '"

Melnikova stopped laughing at this point. The dimples disappeared.

"And where did you live yourself?" I asked her.

"Well—I tried to get a *yurt* from the Giliaks. But they told me I must not bathe in it, nor cook, nor wash my clothes. For if I did, they said, there would be no hunting this year, and the fish would not bite. So I had to take an 'unclean' *yurt*—polluted because a Chinaman had lived in it, a Chinaman who had married a Giliak woman, and he had bathed and cooked in it, so according to the Giliak superstition, the *yurt* was polluted. No Giliak would live in it, and it remained empty. So I moved in. And thereby hangs a tale, too. Once I cooked a goose in my pot, and the Giliaks noticed it. It is painful to remember what happened then. The Giliaks pounced on me, shouting 'Why have you burned the goose's eye in the fire? Don't you know that means that no goose will fly near us now?'

"The *yurt* was spacious, and near the children—right in the settlement. When the shed fell to pieces, I moved the school into my *yurt*. Immediately the attendance increased. I had had about eighteen pupils in the shed, and now thirty, thirty-five children started to come. Once a commission from my stern superiors, the district executive committee, visited me, having heard that I had deserted the salting shed. I had gone to take a bath in a neighboring settlement. The commission sent out an order to find me. Finally I appeared. Well, that went off all right, they recognized my action as justified.

"You are interested in what I taught the children? Not very much. Don't forget—that was in 1928 when educational work among the natives had only just been started. And there was nothing to work with. Not a book, not a pad. All the fine talk they had handed out in the Okrono remained just talk. My supplies for the year amounted to just five pens which they sent me. Think what that meant. Winter time—to travel to the center by dog team was a matter of several days—and—five pens! . . . I used the books which I had brought along with me, read to the children, taught them to speak properly—and that was all. Go to the native center, in Noglik, and there you will find something quite different . . .

"And, by the way, I worked not only with the children. I taught handwork to the women. They were very capable, they enjoy handwork, and do it well.

"The early marriages which are a custom among the natives interfered greatly with the

school. The rayon executive committee had forbidden marriage before the legally established age. But the custom is rooted, apparently, in the economic condition of the natives, and is a result of the shortage of women. The custom of trading young girls of eleven or twelve to be married still persists secretly, and the boys are married at fourteen. Some girl will suddenly stop coming to school. I ask the children what has become of her, whether she is sick. Oh no, they tell me, she has gone to see her aunt. Imagine, what clan solidarity! And before that, I have already noticed that the girl had begun to plait her hair in two braids, bound together by a hoop, an unmistakable sign of bethrothal.

"Still another difficulty—all the children smoke, without any exception. Therefore during recess I always order them 'Now children, run and smoke!' so that at least they will keep from smoking during the lessons."

I remembered the young teacher's tale often as I traveled down the river Tym, visiting the pitiful *yurts* of the Giliaks in the settlement of Chir-vo, surrounded with dirt and poles hung with dried fish, the food supply for both men and dogs, with clouds of flies buzzing around. But among these *yurts* built on piles, smoky, without stoves,—only a sheet of iron in the center and a hole in the roof—with rough shelves along the sides for beds, here and there log houses are already appearing. No wonder foreign museums ask Amtorg for pictures and models portraying the bear festivals, the methods of training sledge dogs, the ritualistic slaughter of certain animals, and other details of the life of the Giliaks. For these ancient customs are giving way before the onslaught of Soviet culture.

The best proof of this is to be found in Nogliki.

This native center is not indicated on every map. It is eight kilometers from the mouth of the Tym river, where it falls into the Sea of Okhotsk. Here at Nogliki the river Tym is sluggish, and depends on the ebb and flow of the sea. The river flows to the sea between endless peat bogs, out of which a mighty power base will some day be created.

The *taiga* (forest) here is thin—only in the sand between the peat bogs do the trees reach a normal growth for Sakhalin. The climate is said to be healthy. There is even a project for establishing a rest home here for the workers of the whole eastern shore of the island.

On one of the curves of the river Tym, where the shore arches its sandy back above the surrounding lowlands, a small town of scattered log cabins has grown up. This is the "cultural base" of the native district executive committee. It was started in 1928 for the purpose of "carrying on political and cultural work among the native population and educating the native children."

The cultural base consists of a boarding school for sixty children, a hospital with fifteen beds, a laboratory for the study of native diseases, a native club connected with the school and an experimental vegetable farm. A veterinary hospital is also planned (for the dogs and reindeer) and a retail cooperative store was being organized. The cultural base, which has a personnel of 31, is provided for in the State budget out of the funds designated for the committee of Northern nationalities.

In addition to the large two story log school house, there are three one story log dwellings, the hospital, bath house and laundry, a bakery, a warehouse, three cabins for personnel, a large icehouse, a vegetable storehouse, two barracks, a model well and cattle sheds. The base maintains a number of horses, cows, pigs, sledge dogs, and

Appliqué work of Giliak children

so on. Thus the base represents a complete enterprise adapted to local conditions of life, where the natives and their children may learn more civilized methods of living.

The boarding school represents a little international of its own: 2 Yakuts, 21 Tungusians, 12 Giliaks, 6 Nigidaltsi, 5 Orochens, 8 Russians, 2 Germans, 2 Poles, 2 Mestizas (Aino and Russian). The average age of the pupils is around twelve and thirteen, although there are some as young as seven and some as old as twenty-one. There are 48 boys and 12 girls.

At the end of the Sahkalin summer, before the first of September, the boarding school pupils begin to arrive from all parts of the island. The Giliaks come in their *kayaks* (canoes), the Tungusians come by reindeer. They all bring their hunting weapons. The older ones carry guns, the younger ones bows and arrows. They are all fine hunters. The older ones are always late for the opening of school, for they are responsible for the success of the hunting season.

Immediately the battle against dirt and vermin commences. Sent home on July 15th clean and neatly clothed, the children manage in the course of their summer vacations to collect all the delights of their home life. The new ones protest desperately against having their heads shaved—that is forbidden by tribal superstition. And if they do finally agree, they insist that their hair must be sent home and not burnt. The older ones surrender to cleanliness more calmly. They have already learned that nothing dreadful comes of it.

The first days are filled with tales of hunting. The Tungusians hunt only in the forests, the Giliaks along the river, the Orochens, both. All the children hunt in the summer time. They hunt for sables, squirrels, ducks, geese—even for bears. They try to out-do each other, each tells of his exploits during the summer. One lucky hunter bagged eight sables—which meant more than 2,000 rubles. It must be said for them, unlike the European Nimrods, these native hunters, including the children, never lie.

Hunting continues to occupy the central place in the children's interest throughout the year. On holidays they set forth in groups to hunt or fish. Tackle and ammunition are provided by the cultural base. Sometimes this scene occurs: All the pupils will be sitting quietly at their lessons, when suddenly the cry will go up "Geese!" Immediately the whole class is out of doors and the air is full of shot and arrows.

At first it is very difficult to teach the children to sit on the benches, because of their custom of lying on the boards in their *yurts*. The young ones always insist on lying on their stomachs while having their writing lesson.

The teachers report varying abilities of the children of the different nationalities. The most able are the Tungusians, next the Nigidaltsi, Orochens and Giliaks. The reason for this is undoubtedly the physiological influence of their living conditions. The *yukol* (a kind of fish) which is the main article of diet of the Giliaks, is infected with tapeworm larva, and all the Giliaks from three years of age on suffer from tapeworm. The disastrous consequence of this disease are apparent. The Giliaks are small-boned, underdeveloped, their growth is retarded, their weak constitutions predispose them to tuberculosis. Naturally this cannot but have its effect on the aptitude of the Giliak children. The Tungusians are reindeer breeders and are fed almost exclusively on meat. Hence they too are afflicted with a form of tapeworm. But in spite of this disease, the Tungusians are much better off than the others. They are taller, their constitutions are stronger.

The children are divided into three groups, irrespective of their ages. In the first group are the illiterates, in the second those who know how to read and write, and in the third, the most advanced. In spite of this division the day is divided in the same way for all of them. They rise at seven o'clock, wash and brush their teeth. The Tungus children wash themselves carefully the Giliaks perfunctorily. At eight o'clock, breakfast—tea with milk and sugar, caviar, white bread and butter. At eight o'clock, physical exercise. At nine o'clock the studies begin, four classes, lasting 45 minutes each, ending at 12:35. At one o'clock, dinner, with one meat dish, usually reindeer, supplied by the Tungusians. After dinner, tea (which they drink four times a day) and then an hour of rest.

The afternoon occupations consist of two hours in the workshops—carpentry and mechanical work for the boys, hand-work for the girls; then an hour and a half for consultation with the teacher and study, and the rest of the afternoon for play.

The afternoon tea is prepared by the children themselves. The boys and girls take turns at this task, which the boys, with the exception of the Giliaks, thoroughly dislike. In the spring the girls gather cranberries for tea.

After supper from seven to nine is free play time. Each group amuses itself in its own way. The Tungusians dance the national dance, the *khamagai*, the Giliak boys sing duets—sometimes ballads of such length that they cannot be finished until the next evening.

The pictorial method is used in teaching the Russian language. The children show greater aptitude for arithmetic than for language. The teaching of natural history is adapted to the island conditions. The native life of the island is reflected in the drawings of the children. The themes, which they select themselves, are usually reindeer, hunting scenes, extinct volcanoes, dog teams. The favorite subject is the lead reindeer, usually wearing the embroidered velvet collar with which their owners adorn them.

The drawings of the native children in manner and execution compare very favorably with those of European children. But in the art of appliqué they are incomparably superior to their European cousins. They cut out their designs in white paper and paste them on colored transparencies. These they hang at the windows of their *yurts*. The motives of the design are usually silhouettes of reindeer, dogs, and designs obviously borrowed from the Mongolians. In examining this appliqué work one is struck not only by the astonishingly true proportions, but by the expression and movement which these young artists put into the figures of the animals.

I was able to obtain samples only of the average appliqué work of the children—all the outstanding pieces had been sent away to an exhibition in Khabarovsk. Most of the reindeer figures are drawn naturalistically, although in the figure of the reindeer with a *yurt* as background signs of stylization are apparent.

The girls are especially skillful with their hands, and begin to sew as young as seven years. There are three sewing machines at the school, and the girls make clothes and other articles. Exhibits of their work are being arranged for this winter. The children are organized in "circles" for their extra-curricular work, such as fishing, hunting, nature study, carpentry, mechanical work, art and drama. Still another activity of the children is the wall newspaper. This has no permanent name, for the native children like to change its name with each issue. Its contents are mainly tales of hunting. The younger children contribute drawings.

All the children are Young Pioneers, and three of them are Comsomols. The complete honesty and truthfulness of these native children greatly simplifies the problem of teaching them. No punishment whatever is applied in the boarding school, and rarely is there any infringement of the school discipline. There were a few cases of desertion, but there was a special reason for this —racial hostility between the Tungusians and Giliaks which broke out in the first year of the school's existence, but soon disappeared. But even on this occasion, the groups of children who considered themselves insulted made no complaints against the others, but simply quietly gathered up their belongings and vanished, returning just as quietly after they were sought out in their homes and persuaded to come back.

The parents do not lose touch with their children, but come often to see them and bring them presents. The natives are fond of all children, not just their own. This was especially apparent during the native congresses, when they bring sweets and presents for all the children.

From Amkina film, "Tunay"

A Tungusian mother and child

Congress of Scientific Workers

ON December 4 the fourth All-Union Congress of scientific workers opened in Moscow, attended by delegates from scientific organizations in all parts of the Soviet Union. In the two and a half years that have passed since the last congress of scientific workers, their number has grown from 20,000 to 43,000.

The attention of the congress of scientific workers was centered on the problem of developing a working class technical and industrial intelligentsia the importance of which Stalin emphasized in his speech to the industrial managers last spring, and questions of further development of scientific research work.

Reports were given by the commissars for education of each of the constituent republics on progress made in developing higher education for the workers. On November 1, 1930, there were altogether 537 colleges and universities and higher technical schools throughout the territory of the Soviet Union (as against 91 in 1914-1915), with 280,000 students. By 1931 the number of students had increased to 400,000. In order to bring higher technical education closer to the practical needs of life, the method has been adopted of developing educational institutions directly under the government departments in charge of the different branches of the national economy. Thus 182 of the higher schools have been established under the Supreme Council of National Economy, 105 under the Commissariat for Agriculture, 21 under the Commissariat for Transport, and 4 under the Commissariat for Post and Telegraph. The number of workers on the job who have become students in regular courses has increased from 10,343 in 1930, to 47,438 in 1931, and it is planned to increase this number two and a half times in 1932.

The delegates to the conference showed a realistic appreciation of the fact that the quality of the training sometimes suffered because the pressing demands for more and more technicians and skilled workers often meant hasty rather than thorough preparation. Such problems as a more careful definition of the requirements of specialists, more unified and complete programs of study, better coordination of theoretical and practical work, and improved textbooks and equipment were seriously considered by the Congress.

The number of scientific institutes connected with industry, an entirely new development since the revolution, has grown from 24 in 1928, with 8 branches, to 121, with 75 branches, in 1931. The number of workers in these scientific institutes has grown from 12,000 to 27,000 in the last two years. In 1929 expenditures and capital construction work in these industrial scientific institutes amounted to 98,500,000 rubles, and in 1931, to 143,500,000 rubles.

The entire system of scientific institutions in the Soviet Union now includes seven academies, about 650 institutes, and 165 central laboratories. A total of half a billion rubles was spent on scientific research work in the Soviet Union during the past year.

Sessions of Academy of Sciences

THE regular session of the Academy of Sciences which opened in Moscow on November 22, marked a further step in its program of taking a direct part in the practical problems of industrialization while pursuing its theoretical work.

The conference of last June which was held in Moscow, and open to workers' organizations, marked the first step along the new road. Most of the reports given dealt with the role of science in the processes of technical construction.

Since last June members of the Academy of Sciences have been making a thorough study of the agriculture and industry of Leningrad region with a view of determining what concrete assistance can be given by the Academy of Sciences in determining and developing the productive resources of the region. The reports at the November session were devoted to this particular subject. As in the June session, the scientists did not confine their addresses to the meeting halls of the conference, but visited factories and districts to acquaint the workers with their plans.

The findings of the Academy of Sciences will be used in connection with the drawing up of a second Five-Year Plan for the Leningrad region.

Carrying out the program of decentralization decided upon when the Academy of Sciences was reorganized last year to bring its work nearer to the needs and interests of the country as a whole, the October session of the Academy of Sciences devoted itself to problems of establishing branches of the Academy in the new industrial centers of the Soviet Union. During 1932 six new scientific bases will be established in Sverdlovsk, Tiflis, Tashkent, Novosibirsk, Irkutsk, and Khabarovsk. It was also decided to organize a power institute under the direction of Krjijanovsky. The Academy will participate closely in drawing up the second Five-Year Plan through consultation bureaus in different branches of science, which will work in close cooperation with the planning and producing organizations.

The plan for scientific investigation work during 1932 calls for an expenditure of 9,700,000 rubles. Most of the research work will be carried on on the basis of direct contracts with economic and scientific organizations. Arrangements of this kind have been made by the Academy of Sciences with upwards of a hundred different organizations, including many of the new industrial projects.

Soviet Foreign Relations

JAPANESE-SOVIET CORRESPONDENCE

THE Moscow *Izvestia* of November 21 published a statement from the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs, reporting that on November 19 the Japanese Ambassador in Moscow, Koki Hirota, called on Maxim Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, and handed him the following note on behalf of the Japanese Government:

Japanese Note to U.S.S.R.

"During the Soviet-Chinese conflict in 1929, the Imperial Government maintained a policy of strict neutrality. As the Union Government no doubt remembers, Japan refused to transport Chinese troops sent to the vicinity of Manchuria Station. The Imperial Government has therefore, since the beginning of the present Japanese-Chinese conflict, expected that the Soviet Government would pursue a policy of non-interference and refuse to render assistance to any Chinese troops whatsoever. The Imperial Government expressed its satisfaction with regard to the statement made by the Union Government on October 29, which confirmed this expectation of the Imperial Government. The Imperial Government does not believe the rumors which have been current since that statement. It categorically declares that there can be no question whatever that the Japanese consulates and military authorities invent rumors and spread them through press and telegraphic agencies.

"As regards the statements of the Japanese military authorities in Mukden and the Japanese viceconsul in Harbin, referred to in the November 14 statement of the Union Government, the Japanese Government, while unaware of the form in which these statements were reported, presumes that the former simply told representatives of the press that there were such rumors (they have been spread in Harbin) and that the latter simply reported frankly information which he had received. It would be an inadmissible misunderstanding to suppose that the Japanese authorities would invent rumors without any basis whatsoever. Information has been received to the effect that the Chinese are spreading rumors about various kinds of assistance rendered the Chinese troops by the U.S.S.R., with the purpose of raising the morale of the Heilungkiang troops. The Union Government, which has declared a policy of non-interference, would do better to direct its complaints to the Chinese. In view of the tense situation existing between the Japanese and Chinese troops, the Japanese Government expects a clear statement to the effect that the Union Government will give no aid to the troops of General Ma, by supplying them with arms or other materials.

"The Imperial Government, forced to come out for the defense of its rights and interests in Manchuria and Mongolia, has naturally taken care that the interests of the U.S.S.R. should not suffer. The Heilungkiang troops, in violation of the accepted agreement, have not only attacked the small Japanese detachments sent to defend the brigade repairing the Taonan-Tsitsihar railroad bridges, but have concentrated many reinforcements from the East and West in the Tsitsihar district, thereby threatening our outnumbered troops. The Japanese troops have not the slightest intention of paralyzing the activities of the Chinese Eastern railway, but if the Heilungkiang troops do not refrain from any further provocative attitude toward the Japanese troops, a collision between the two opposing sets of troops will be inevitable, as a result of which the Anantsi district may be temporarily disturbed. The Imperial Government will take every measure to avoid any such conflict or any injury to the Chinese Eastern railway as long as the troops of General Ma do not use this railway for their own purposes. However, if, in spite of our efforts, unfortunate occurrences should take place, the responsibility will undoubtedly be with the Chinese. The responsibility would also fall on the Chinese Eastern railway for permitting the concentration and transport of Chinese troops."

Litvinov's Reply to Japan

On November 20, Litvinov received the Japanese Ambassador, Hirota, and responded to him as follows on behalf of the Soviet Government:

"The Soviet Government accepts with satisfaction your statement, Mr. Ambassador, to the effect that the Japanese Government does not credit the rumors of the violation of the principle of non-interference and of Soviet aid to the Chinese generals and that it therefore repudiates the irresponsible statements made by Japanese official persons, obviously without the sanction of their government. The Soviet Government could not expect any other attitude on the part of the Japanese Government regarding the aforesaid rumors after the perfectly clear statement made by Mr. Karakhan, on the instructions of the Soviet Government, regarding the strict non-interference of the Soviet Government in the Japanese-Chinese conflict and its policy of giving no aid whatsoever to either side.

"Insofar as in your statement, Mr. Ambassador, you draw a certain analogy between the present events in China and the Soviet-Chinese conflict in 1929, I am compelled to note the incorrectness of such an analogy. In spite of the gross violation by the Chinese authorities, entirely indubitable and apparent to everyone, of the treaty rights of the U.S.S.R., the Soviet Government did not in-

vade and had no intention of invading Manchuria. Only after repeated attempts by the Chinese and Russian White Guard detachments on Soviet territory, did the Soviet troops cross the Manchurian border to repulse the attack, disarming the invaders and putting an end to further attacks. Futhermore, no question of the possibility of even temporary occupation of Chinese territory by the Soviet troops, of the dismissal of existing authorities and the creation of new ones, ever arose. Nor was there at that time the remotest possibility of violating the legal rights and interests of Japan. As soon as the Soviet troops had carried out their restricted task, they were withdrawn to Soviet territory. The Soviet Government did not take advantage of its own military superiority and the weakness of China to bind the latter to any new conditions whatsoever, or to solve any questions not directly connected with the breaking out of the conflict.

"If, Mr. Ambassador, in referring to the refusal of the Japanese Government to transport Chinese troops during the conflict of 1929, you have in mind the South Manchurian railway, and are comparing that with the alleged transport of Chinese troops over the Chinese Eastern railway during the present Japanese-Chinese conflict, then I must make the following explanation. The South Manchurian railway is under the complete administration and control of Japan and is guarded by Japanese troops, whereas the Chinese Eastern railway is under mixed Soviet-Chinese administration and is guarded by Chinese troops controlled solely by Chinese authorities. It must be known to you that the Soviet Government voluntarily renounced the Tsarist's Government privilege of retaining troops in China and in particular on the Chinese Eastern railway. And the Soviet Government does not regret this because it is convinced that it has acted with complete propriety in relinquishing the privileges of the Tsarist Government. But from that it follows that conditions on the South Manchurian railway can not be identified with conditions on the Chinese Eastern railway. The Soviet Government has no information to the effect that the Chinese military guard of the Chinese Eastern railway was transported on the Chinese Eastern railway for military operations. There would have been no necessity for that so long as the Japanese-Chinese conflict was limited to the region of South Manchuria. Such a danger could only have arisen from the moment the Japanese troops approached the Chinese Eastern line. And when that danger became a reality, the Soviet Government took that circumstance into consideration, and on November 12, gave directions to the Soviet part of the administration of the Chinese Eastern railway to continue to maintain the principle of neutrality and not in any case to agree to transport the troops of either of the warring sides to the front by way of the Chinese Eastern. And, in fact, in spite of all the difficulties created by the proximity of the front, the Chinese Eastern railway, as a whole, has been able to maintain a régime of neutrality. I have considered it necessary, Mr. Ambassador, to make this explanation in order to emphasize that I cannot agree with you in regard to the responsibility of the Chinese Eastern railway.

"The Soviet Government accepts with satisfaction the repeated assurances of the Japanese Government with regard to its efforts to prevent any injury to the interests of the Chinese Eastern railway and the U.S.S.R. and the absence of any intention on the part of the Japanese troops to paralyze the activities of the Chinese Eastern railway. I must, however, state that notwithstanding the first declaration made by you, Mr. Ambassador, on behalf of your government, with regard to instructions given for the utmost limitation of Japanese military operations in Manchuria, that these operations since then have widened to a great extent and gone far beyond the borders of the zone originally intended. This circumstance, increasing the possibility that the interests of the U.S.S.R. might be affected, cannot but give rise to serious alarm on the part of the Soviet Union.

"The Soviet Government, in all its relations with other countries, persistently maintains a strict policy of peace and peaceful relations. It attaches great importance to the maintenance and strengthening of its present relations with Japan. It maintains a policy of strict non-interference in conflicts between other countries. It also counts on the Japanese Government to strive for the maintenance of existing relations between the two countries and to consider the interests of the U.S.S.R. inviolable in all its actions and instructions."

Japanese Communication of November 19

In Tokyo on November 19, the Assistant Minister of Foreign Affairs of Japan, Mr. Nagai, sent for the Soviet Chargé d'Affairs and on behalf of the Japanese Government gave him, for transmission to the Soviet Government, a statement of the reasons which led the Japanese troops to cross the Chinese Eastern railway. Nagai declared that the soldiers and officers of the Japanese army had received special orders to refrain from doing any damage whatever to the Chinese Eastern railway while crossing it. He also stated that just as soon as the newly appointed Chinese chief of the guards should arrive at Tsitsihar and restore order, the Japanese troops would immediately withdraw from Tsitsihar to the South. Mr. Nagai said that he could not name the exact date, but that in his personal opinion this would occupy four or five days. Mr. Nagai asked that the Soviet Government be assured of the unchanging friendly attitude of the Japanese Government toward the Soviet Government and especially em-

phasized that all measures would be taken to prevent any damage to the Chinese Eastern railway.

An additional statement to this effect was made by Mr. Hirota during his talk with Mr. Litvinov yesterday.

JAPAN-SOVIET PARCEL POST CONVENTION

The Moscow *"Izvestia"* of November 24, printed the following Tass despatch regarding the conclusion of a parcel post convention between the U.S.S.R. and Japan:

"On November 23 a convention regarding the exchange of postal packages between the U.S.S.R. and Japan was signed at the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs in Moscow. The convention was signed on behalf of the U.S.S.R. by L. M. Karakhan, assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs, and on behalf of Japan by Koki Hirota, Japanese Ambassador in Moscow.

"The agreement provides for the exchange of postal packages directly between the two countries and for the shipping of parcel post packages from other countries. Sending of packages through the territory of the Soviet Union is permitted only to those countries having special postal agreements with the U.S.S.R., and through Japan only to those countries with which Japan has parcel post exchange. The exchange of parcels may be made by land, sea, or air. Each country reserves the right to make limitations with regard to the contents of the packages in accordance with the internal regulations of the country. A supplementary agreement on technical regulations was signed at the same time."

POLISH-SOVIET NEGOTIATIONS

The Moscow *Izvestia* of November 22 printed the following Tass report of negotiations for a Polish-Soviet non-aggression pact:

"We are informed from authoritative sources that yesterday, November 21, M. M. Litvinov, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, received the Polish envoy, Mr. Patek, and proposed to him that the negotiations regarding a non-aggression pact be resumed. Previously, on October 14, Mr. Litvinov, on the instructions of the Government had proposed to the Polish Government through the late Chargé d'Affaires, Mr. Zelezinsky, that a non-aggression pact be concluded similar to the proposed Soviet-French pact. The Soviet Government is acting on the supposition that inasmuch as negotiations on the basis of the Soviet draft in 1926 led to a disagreement, the proposal of a new text of a pact, identical with that being negotiated with France, would meet no opposition on the part of Poland. The Polish Government,

From "Eyes on Russia," by Margaret Bourke-White *Courtesy of Simon and Schuster, publishers*

In a Moscow textile factory

however, stated on the 14th of this month to Mr. Litvinov, through Mr. Patek, that the text of the Franco-Soviet pact was not acceptable and that the draft pact proposed by the Soviet Government to Poland in 1926, with the addition of certain amendments made by Poland, was preferable. Yesterday's statement by Mr. Litvinov signifies the agreement of the Soviet Government to a resumption of negotiations on the basis of the pact of 1926. The negotiations will shortly begin."

TEACHERS' SALARIES INCREASED

According to a recent decree of the Council of People's Commissars the average monthly pay of Soviet elementary school teachers is to be increased to 90 rubles a month beginning January, 1932, and the average monthly pay of the teachers of the intermediate grades is to be increased to 130 rubles a month. The governments of the Union Republics, the Commissariat for Finance and Gosplan are instructed to base the control figures for educational expenditures for the present year on the increased salaries.

A supplementary decree was issued putting teachers in the same preferential category as industrial workers with regard to procuring provisions and industrial goods through the Consumers' cooperative stores.

RECENT ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGES

Gosplan has recently been strengthened in preparation for the drawing up of the program for the second Five-Year Plan, by the inclusion in its directing staff of several of the foremost Soviet economic leaders. Valery I. Mezhlauk, formerly vice-chairman of the Supreme Council of National Economy has been made first vice-chairman of Gosplan, and M. Gurevich and I. T. Smilga have also been made vice-chairmen.

Books on the Soviet Union

"AN EDITOR LOOKS AT RUSSIA," by Ray Long. Ray Long and Richard R. Smith, New York. $1.

Mr. Long, for many years an editor of Cosmopolitan Magazine and now a publisher of books, went to Moscow to look over Soviet writers and their work. His little book records his impressions of his visit. Mr. Long's narrative is objective, amiable and very shrewd. It is eminently entertaining and at the same time more instructive than many a more pretentious volume.

"EYES ON RUSSIA," by Margaret Bourke-White. Simon and Schuster, New York. $5.

Miss Bourke-White, who has made industrial photography a fine art, traveled 5,000 miles in the Soviet Union to take photographs of the new industrial enterprises and the collective and state farms. She made 800 exposures, and forty of her photographs are reproduced in her book. The photographs are well worth the price of admission. The accompanying narrative is a jolly and unpretentious collection of day-to-day impressions with some fascinating descriptions of the technique of picture-taking. There is a sympathetic preface by Maurice Hindus.

"MY RUSSIAN VENTURE," by Mrs. Cecil Chesterton. J. B. Lippincott Co., New York. $2.50.

Mrs. Chesterton and a companion wandered over parts of White Russia and the Ukraine, largely in the country districts. The impressions given are largely visual, as the visitors were handicapped, particularly in the rural districts, by lack of knowledge of the language. The book is a bit diffuse in spots, but it contains interesting first-hand observations on the villages and collective farms in the sections visited, and gives a picture of the transition period of the country districts and the vital forces freed by the collectivist movement.

"SOVIET POLICY IN PUBLIC FINANCE, 1917-1928," by Gregory Y. Sokolnikov and Associates. Translated by Elena Varneck; edited by Lincoln Hutchinson and Carl Plehn. Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California. $4.

The late Professor Frank A. Golder of Stanford University planned a series of "non-emotional, non-political" studies by various scholars of the evolution of Soviet policy from 1917 on. During his last years he conducted negotiations with Soviet authorities over this plan. No final agreement on methods was reached and the plan was not realized. Mr. Sokolnikov, at present Soviet diplomatic representative in London and formerly People's Commissar for Finance, was selected by Dr. Golder and his associates to direct the preparation of material on Soviet financial policy. The manuscript prepared under his direction was received, and it has been published after Dr. Golder's death.

In a cautious, and, it would seem, somewhat grudging preface, Mr. Hutchinson says: "Presenting as it apparently does an authoritive picture of Soviet policy in an important field of economic policy, at the moment of the inauguration of the much heralded Five-Year Plan, it serves as a basis for an understanding of the developments under that plan."

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Books About the U.S.S.R. in the English Language

The following list is given in chronological order.

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"Russia in 1919," by Arthur Ransome. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1919.

"The Bullitt Mission to Russia." Testimony before the Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate, of Wm. C. Bullitt. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1919

"Fighting Without a War." An Account of Military Intervention in North Russia, by Ralph Albertson. Harcourt, Brace and Howe, New York, 1920.

"The Russian Workers' Republic," by H. N. Brailsford. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1921.

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Leon Trotsky: "Literature and Revolution," International Publishers, New York, 1925; "Lenin." Minton Balch & Co., New York, 1925; "Whither Russia?" International Publishers, New York, 1926.

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"Modern Russian Composers," by Leonid Sabaneyef. International Publishers, New York, 1927.

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"Russia After Ten Years," Report of the American Trade Union Delegation to the Soviet Union. International Publishers, New York, 1927.

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SOVIET UNION REVIEW

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Molotov Addresses TSIK

ON December 22 the TSIK, Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., opened its regular session in Moscow. The questions on the agenda were the control figures for 1932, the financial plan and budget for 1932, the report of the government of the Turcoman Republic and the report on the decrees adopted by the Presidium of the TSIK.

The session was opened by Gregory Ivanovich Petrovsky, one of the chairmen of the TSIK and chairman of the Ukrainian Central Executive Committee, who summarized the achievements of the past year in the completion of many industrial projects and 62 per cent collectivization in agriculture. The main report of the session was delivered by V. M. Molotov, chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R., who spoke on the plan of national economy for 1932, and analyzed the execution of the Five-Year Plan during the past three years, and then discussed the foreign relations of the Soviet Union in part as follows:

"It is not my task in this report to make a detailed survey of matters pertaining to the international situation of the U.S.S.R. I shall therefore limit myself to the most significant events of the moment.

"As a whole there has been no change in the relations between the U.S.S.R. and the capitalist countries during the recent period.

"In the case of those countries with which the Soviet Union formerly had normal or friendly relations, those relations are still maintained. The Soviet Government is doing everything possible to strengthen further these relations on the basis of the firmly established principles of Soviet policy. In the case of those countries with which we have not considered our relations to be on a sufficiently satisfactory basis, the Soviet Government has sought improved relations. This, too,

is in line with the unchanging policy of the Soviet Government.

"In accordance with this policy, a policy of promoting general peace, the U.S.S.R. has entered into negotiations with Poland for a non-aggression pact. These negotiations are still in progress. We aim to bring them to a favorable conclusion. In any case, all that depends on the U.S.S.R. has been done and is being done in this respect.

"Recently we have received proposals for the conclusion of non-aggression pacts from Rumania, Finland and Esthonia. We consider that the conclusion of non-aggression pacts with these as well as with other countries, especially those bordering on the U.S.S.R., is in entire accord with the peaceful policy of the Soviet Government and the interests of securing universal peace. As before, we wish to place the question of the conclusion of these non-aggression pacts in the field of practical realization. All that can be done in this regard is being accomplished by the Soviet Government.

"The most important problem for our foreign policy is, of course, the Far Eastern conflict—the events in Manchuria. Facts indicate that the extent of these operations is not merely diminishing, but shows a tendency to further expansion.

"It is known that the League of Nations attempted to interfere in the military activities taking place in Manchuria. However, this intervention had no effect whatever in preventing the present occupation of Manchuria, nor did it bring about a cessation of military activities there. The results were quite the opposite.

"On two occasions the League of Nations attempted to make concrete proposals regarding the occupation of Manchuria. We know to what that led.

"In the beginning the League of Nations even named a definite date, the fourteenth of October, with which in certain circles the illusion was connected of the possibility of some change for the better, that is to say, the cessation of military activities in Manchuria. But nothing of the kind happened.

"After new and lengthy deliberations the League of Nations recently decided to send to Manchuria, in the name of the Five Powers, a scientific research commission. In other words, the League of Nations proved its complete lack of desire and ability to check in any degree the further development of military operations in Manchuria. This second decision of the League of Nations makes mockery of the first, and virtually sanctions the military occupation and further development of military operations in Manchuria.

"All this compels us to strengthen our vigilance as regards happenings in the Far East. We must not forget that our border lies along the Manchurian line.

"The workers and the village population of the Soviet Union are occupied with their own internal affairs, absorbed in the task of improving the national economy, in the task of bettering their living conditions. But the international events taking place at the present time require intensified vigilance. And we again emphasize our fundamental principle. We do not need any other country's land, but neither will we give up an inch of ours to anyone."

In referring to the approaching meeting of the arms commission on February 1, Molotov called attention to the concrete disarmament proposal already made by the U.S.S.R. He said:

"This proposal provides for the complete actual disarmament of all countries. The U.S.S.R. still believes that this is the only proposal meeting the interests of disarmament and general peace. As a minimum the U.S.S.R. has proposed that within the next few years armaments be cut down by fifty per cent."

Molotov emphasized the fact that the depression has intensified the economic struggle between the Western countries, including the struggle for markets. This intensification, he said, had increased international frictions and the dangers of imperialist adventures that might lead to a new war. In such a situation he stated that the U.S.S.R. was under a special menace by hostile forces, including some of those which had previously organized military intervention against the U.S.S.R. He added:

"In connection with the recent events in Manchuria, several provocative attempts to draw the U.S.S.R. into war have been exposed in our press and in the foreign press, including the bourgeois press. We must be ready to deal with such provocation.

"We reply to all this by carrying on our consistent policy of peace. We reply to this by intensifying our vigilance. We reply to this by the growth of our socialist construction, and first of all by setting about the completion of the Five-Year Plan in 1932."

Kuibyshev on the Economic Situation

A summary of the report made by V. V. Kuibyshev, chairman of the Gosplan, at a recent session of the TSIK.

THE chief factor in the present status of the Five-Year Plan is that with more than 60 per cent collectivization of agriculture and the tremendous growth of socialized industry in 1931, the foundations of socialist economy in the U.S.S.R. are secure. The share of the socialized sector in the national income for 1931 reached 81.5 per cent.

During the past three years the annual increase in industrial production has been from 21 to 24 per cent, or 13 per cent more than provided originally in the plan. In the sphere of the heavy industries the increase has been from 24 to 40 per cent.

In oil, machine construction and the electrotechnical industries the daily output scheduled for the last year of the Five-Year Plan has already been achieved. The anthracite industry exceeded the program for the present year.

In 1931 railroad freight turnover was 250,000,000 tons. The mark set by the plan was 210,000,000.

Mastery of Technique

The technical training of the workers is reaching ever greater proportions. Workers' inventions, rationalization proposals, the direct participation of the workers in improving the technique in their own plants, are growing constantly.

Much progress has been made in Soviet manufacture of new machinery and equipment of all kinds, from the most complex heavy machines for the power and metallurgical industries to the most delicate of precision instruments.

There has been marked increase in both quantity and quality of production in the automotive industries.

In addition to tractors and new types of combines, seventy new types of agricultural machinery have been developed, especially tractor hitches for grain farming and new machinery for harvesting technical crops—flax, cotton, sugar beets, etc.

During the first three years of the plan many new factories have been set in motion, many new power stations and centers established. One of the greatest links in the whole five-year chain—Dnieprostroy—is successfully nearing completion and is preparing to send out its first current in May, 1932.

In non-ferrous metallurgy, a field in which we have been very backward, we have put several large plants into operation, including two large zinc plants. We are producing aluminum for the first time. Six hundred million rubles will be invested in non-ferrous metallurgy in 1932. The amount invested in 1931 was 375,000,000 rubles.

In the sphere of fuel, we have opened twelve new anthracite mines, some of which have a capacity of a million and a half tons, and a number of new cracking plants and pipe-lines in the oil industry.

The opening of the Nizhni-Novgorod automobile plant is a matter of days. Many new agricultural machinery plants are operating and in preparation, as well as new electrical equipment plants, engine construction factories, chemical works, and numerous new undertakings in the building equipment field—such as cement, glass and woodworking.

We have not only put up new factories, but we are establishing new branches of industry entirely unknown in pre-revolutionary Russia, such as artificial fibre, synthetic rubber, methods for the production of which have already been found, new branches of the electrotechnical industry, aluminum, potassium, a number of branches of the exact industries (mass production of clocks, precision instruments for aircraft etc.). We can fully guarantee the necessary machinery for such branches of industry as textiles, footwear and food.

High Spots in the 1932 Plan

The highest spot in the plan for 1932 is the virtual completion of the collectivization movement, which is expected to include approximately 72-75 per cent of the peasants. This means substantially the completion of the collectivization program and the liquidation of the kulaks as a class. Along with this, the plan foresees great development of production and a colossal construction program, accompanied by growing improvements in the well-being of the workers and collective members.

The second most important element of the plan for 1932 is the completion of the Five-Year Plan in four years.

In 1932 we shall surpass the plan for coal by 20 per cent (90,500,000 metric tons against 75,000,000 in the plan); in oil, by 28 per cent (28,000,000 metric tons* against 21,700,000); in

*In our January issue, through an error in transcription, we gave the "control figure" for oil for 1932 as 35,000,000 metric tons. It should have been 28,000,000 metric tons.—Ed.

copper, by 19 per cent (100,000,000 metric tons against 84,700,000); in machine construction as a whole, by 42-43 per cent; in the electrotechnical industry by 7-8 per cent; in tractors by 49 per cent (82,000 against 55,000).

In spite of the systematic progress from year to year we have still not fulfilled the piatiletka in some branches, as for instance, the textile.

The growth of the sown area to 141,000,000 hectares in 1932 means the complete fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan in this respect.

In transport the increase in freight turnover in 1932 to 320,000,000 tons means an increase of 13.8 per cent over the piatiletka.

In order to carry out the Five-Year Plan in all branches of our national economy we must lay the greatest possible stress on the key industries, which are for us at present coal, metal and machine construction, especially machine construction connected with coal, metallurgy and transport. All other problems must be decided on the basis of the needs of these industries.

Metallurgy

Further lagging behind of metallurgy in our whole economic development can no longer be tolerated. There is not a branch of our national economy which has not suffered from the low level of metal production in 1931.

Ferrous metallurgy must be pushed ahead at all costs. We must produce 9,000,000 tons of pig iron against the 4,900,000 tons produced in 1931. That program is absolutely obligatory.

Against the 5,350,000 tons of steel produced this year, the output in 1932 must be 9,450,000. Against the 4,050,000 tons of rolled steel, the output in 1932 must be 6,600,000.

We shall invest 1,800,000,000 rubles in construction for the metallurgical industry, as against 1,027,000,000 in 1931, and shall complete the construction first of all of the three metallurgical giants—Magnitogorsk, Kuznetsk and Zaporozhesk. The forced development of all phases of the metallurgical industry means that we must develop our own machine construction base for metallurgy, as we can no longer depend on foreign import.

In the field of labor organization, wages and supplies, metallurgy is to be in a privileged position.

Housing construction in the metallurgical districts must be developed intensively in order to create a permanent corps of workers, to eliminate the high labor turnover and thus to increase the productivity of labor. For this purpose 225,000,000 rubles is to be invested, which will provide housing for 209,000 workers in the metallurgical industry alone.

Coal

We cannot permit a repetition of the situation that existed in 1931 when the lag in the output of coal meant great difficulties in all the other branches.

Against the 57,600,000 metric tons of coal mined in 1931, the output in 1932 must be 90,000,000 metric tons.

In 1932, 810,000,000 rubles is to be invested in the coal industry (587,000,000 rubles was the sum for 1931). Several new coal regions will be put under exploitation. The extent of mechanization is to be 72 per cent against 61 per cent in 1931. The coal industry will also be placed in a favored position with regard to housing and supplies, and the wages of coal workers will jump from ninth place to fourth.

Transport

We cannot permit ourselves a repetition of the situation that existed in 1931 when transport difficulties at one period disrupted the work of several branches of industry.

The railroads must carry 320,000,000 tons of freight in 1932, 28 per cent more than the total for 1931. In addition to large capital investments, and new rolling stock and engines, of even more importance is improvement in our present system of despatching and general organization.

In 1932 transport will receive 50,000 new cars, 1,300 locomotives, and construction of equipment for electrified railways will be commenced.

The center of capital construction must be in establishing and developing transport connections between the Urals and the Kuznetsky Basin. Lines of communication must be opened up from Siberia and the Donetz Basin. The 2,500,000,000 rubles to be invested in transport must be concentrated in the most important sections and in the mechanical re-equipment of the railways.

Water transport facilities will be increased by 32 per cent in 1932, receiving 420,000,000 rubles.

A series of measures to improve transport labor conditions is also projected. Wages will be increased by 13 per cent, and 155,000,000 rubles will be spent for housing, social and cultural measures and training.

Construction planned for 1932 will involve the expenditure of 21,100,000,000 rubles. This compares with 16,046,000,000 rubles spent in 1931.

In 1932 three billion rubles is to be spent for housing and municipal construction. Capital construction in all branches will surpass the provisions for the last year of the Five-Year Plan, and will be concentrated for the most part in the completion and technical improvement of enter-

CORRECTION

On page 3 of our January issue the sentence appears: "The total capital investment in industry for 1932 is to be 10,700,000 rubles. It was 8,200,000 in 1931." These figures should have been respectively 10,700,000,000 rubles and 8,200,000,000 rubles.

prises already started. An effort is to be made to cut down production costs by 17 per cent.

By January, 1932, the power of all the electrical stations will be 4,050,000 kilowatts against 2,900,000 on January 1, 1931. During 1932, 1,500,000 kilowatts will be added. The general electric power output is to be 16,700,000,000 kilowatt hours, 6,100,000,000 more than that of 1931. Capital construction in the electric power industry for 1932 will amount to 800,000,000 rubles.

In addition to the completion of the Dnieprostroy, Svir, Rio and other hydroelectric stations, it is planned to commence construction of the huge Chirchiksk station in Central Asia, two powerful stations on the Volga, and one in the Leningrad region.

coal, oil and metal there is a decided movement toward the east.

Agriculture

The success of socialized agriculture in 1931 has transformed the U.S.S.R. into a country of large-scale agriculture. In 1928 only 1.7 per cent of all the peasant farms were united into collectives, and cultivated only two per cent of the entire seeded area. In 1931, 62.2 per cent of the peasants were in collectives, and 79 per cent of the entire seeded area was sown by collective farmers. The entire seeded area has increased by 21.7 per cent during the last three years, reaching 137,500,000 hectares in 1931.

With the success of socialized agriculture assured attention has been turned to organizational problems. Some of the larger sovhozes which

Mud dwelling of an individual peasant

The large construction program projected for 1932 means that we must devote special attention to the rational distribution of our industries throughout the territory of the whole Union. Our guiding principle here must be the instructions given by Lenin that industry should be developed as near as possible to the basic sources of raw materials and fuel. At the same time we must consider the problem of drawing the national districts into the economic system.

There has been decided progress in this respect during the first three years of the piatiletka. The development of the Ural-Kuznetsk combine, the economic advancement of Karaganda, the construction of railroads in Kazakstan and Siberia, mark a turning point in the distribution of our productive powers. In electric power output special emphasis is placed on the needs of the basic coal regions and the central industrial region. In

have proved unwieldy are being broken up into smaller productive units. In the collectives, the management is being strengthened, and new and higher forms of production worked out.

In 1932 the new tractors in Soviet agriculture will represent at least one million horsepower, and agricultural machines and implements will amount to 900,000,000 rubles. The machines to be supplied to agriculture in 1932 alone will amount to the entire agricultural equipment of machinery and implements in 1928. The tractors and complicated machinery which will be turned over to agriculture in 1932 will be entirely of Soviet construction.

During the past year over 2,500,000 collective members and sovhoz workers have been trained to use the new machinery, tractors and combines. This number of skilled agricultural workers is to be doubled in 1932.

The MTS (machine and tractor stations) are penetrating every section of the Soviet Union and the experience of the past year has shown that they are the basic instruments for the socialist strengthening and technical re-equipment of the collectives. Their main task is to correct careless handling of machinery, to develop socialist competition, shock troop work and piece work in order to raise the productivity of labor.

Animal husbandry has the center of attention in the agricultural plan for 1932. Capital investment in the live-stock sovhozes will be a third more than in 1931.

The problem of increasing the grain crop yield receives special emphasis in the plans for 1932. It is hoped to increase the yield per hectare from 7.6 centners to 8½, which would mean an increase of 120,000,000 centners in the total crop.

The agricultural plan for next year is at the same time a plan for the further development of a raw material basis for light industry. The successful development of MTS in the cotton, sugar beet and flax regions, new harvesting machines for these three crops, and the construction of 150 plants for the working up of flax and hemp, mark a revolution in these branches of agriculture.

Well-being of Workers and Collectivists

On the basis of the growth of agriculture and large scale industry, light industry receives a great impetus in the plan for 1932. The total production of the food industry will increase by 36.6 per cent in 1932 in comparison with 1931. The canning industry will increase by 92.4 per cent, meat by 54.8 per cent, sugar by 55.9 per cent, and fish by 33 per cent. We are building up an enormous meat packing industry. This branch of industry, which has heretofore been at a very low level of development, is now receiving the benefits of the most modern technical methods.

The increase in cotton production, exceeding the pre-war level by two and a half times, will mean an increase of 23.8 per cent over last year in the amount of cotton cloth manufactured. In 1932 construction of a cotton cloth "combinat" will be commenced in Central Asia, which will prepare the way for transferring the working-up of cotton to its raw material base. The clothing industry will increase by 28 per cent in 1932.

Trade turnover is to reach 35,500,000,000 rubles in 1932, 30 per cent more than last year. Ten thousand new stores will be opened by the Centrosoyus and Narkomsnab (People's Commissariat for Supplies) alone, and in addition a huge number of stores will be opened at the various sovhozes and collectives and directly under the various industries.

New cottages for agricultural workers on sovhoz "Verblud"

In the field of socialized restaurants the daily output of meals is to be increased to 50,000,000, or fifty per cent more than in 1931.

The total number of workers will increase from 18,600,000 to 21,000,000 in 1932, and the wage fund from 21,100,000,000 rubles to 26,800,000,000. It is proposed to increase labor productivity by 22 per cent. The seven hour day is to be extended to all branches of industry during the present year. Funds for labor protection will be greatly increased. For labor protection in the industry under the Supreme Economic Council alone, 111,000,000 rubles has been assigned, 80 per cent more than was spent in 1931.

The average monthly wage for all branches during 1932 will exceed that proposed in the

piatiletka by 20.7 per cent. The entire wage fund will be 60 per cent higher than that intended by the plan because the number of workers has far exceeded expectations. The social insurance fund for 1932 is 69 per cent greater than in the plan and capital investment for labor protection will be double the amount specified in the plan. The socialized wage fund will increase by far greater proportions than individual wages. The growth of the shock troop movement and socialist competition, which have had such a tremendous influence in carrying out the plan, will continue.

Training Skilled Workers and Technicians

The plan for 1932 includes an extensive program for training skilled workers, technicians and engineers. By the end of 1931 there were in the Soviet Union 226,000 engineers and technicians with special training. The entire engineering and technical personnel amounted to 600,000, or twice as many as the year before last. The capacity of the technicums, workers' faculties and factory schools will be increased in 1932, so that 4,000,000 skilled workers will be under training in these institutions, 1,300,000 more than in 1931.

One of the most significant processes now to be observed in the Soviet Union is that the workers in Soviet industry, transport and agriculture are mastering the scientific, technical and theoretical side of the processes of production while actually on the job.

In the field of mass education an enlarged program is also projected. The schools are to accommodate 24,700,000 children in 1932.

Unified Financial Plan and Budget for 1932

Extracts from the report of G. F. Grinko, People's Commissar for Finance of the U.S.S.R., to the TSIK.

ACCORDING to the general financial plan it was intended to spend the sum of 29,600,000,000 rubles in 1931 on the entire national economy, cultural construction, administration and defense of the Soviet Union. The total expenditures in execution of the unified* financial plan exceeded expectations, amounting to 31,300,000,000 rubles. The budgetary income for 1931 actually amounted to 20,450,000,000 rubles, or 1,450,000,000 rubles in excess of the amount required according to the budget. Deficits in amounts due from industrial profits and the railroads were more than made up for by receipts from Soviet trade and the flotation of internal loans. The development of retail trade through lowering prices and the opening of many new stores brought in increased revenues. Social insurance organizations, postal service and other sources brought in larger receipts than expected. Receipts in excess of the plan and a considerable part of the revenue accumulated during the year were used to increase the appropriations for industry and agriculture. Cultural construction and other needs were fully financed in accordance with the plan for 1931. The local budgets also exceeded the limits set for them.

The general situation in money circulation at the end of 1931 is, unquestionably, decidedly better than was the case at the end of 1930. Emission is under strict control and has been permitted during 1931 only within very restricted limits and exclusively for the seasonal needs of our trade turnover. Throughout all of 1931 we succeeded in preventing any such delays in the payment of wages as happened during 1930, which is the more significant when the greatly increased wage fund is considered.

We were unable to achieve completely in 1931 the growth in our national income provided for in the Five-Year Plan. However, the national income of the U.S.S.R. increased by 13.2 per cent during 1931, in contrast to what is happening in other countries.

In 1913 the industry of pre-war Russia contributed altogether 27.4 per cent to the national income. In 1928, the first year of the piatiletka, industry contributed 27 per cent of the income. In 1931, 35 per cent. In 1928 the socialized sector of industry provided only 52.7 per cent of the national income, in 1931, 81.5 per cent.

Reconstruction of Financial System and Credit Reform

In order to complete the Five-Year Plan in four years we must speed up the rate of financial accumulation, especially in the socialized sector.

One of the central problems in 1931 was the elimination of the defects in our credit system, and the adaptation of our entire financial and credit organization to a system of *hozraschet* (economic accounting), and of accumulation of funds within our socialized enterprises.

*The unified financial plan, of which the budget is a part, represents a comprehensive balance sheet of the national economy as a whole, with the exception of current expenses of industry and transportation and private enterprise.

During 1930 some of the grossest abuses of our credit system were permitted.

The first steps to correct this situation were the decrees of January 14 and March 20, 1931, which eliminated the practice of automatic crediting, and made the granting of credits directly dependent on the actual fulfillment of production plans by the economic organizations, and introduced a system of contracts. This system went into effect on May 1.

However, an effective system of economic accounting could not be guaranteed under conditions of failure to distinguish between their own and borrowed funds of which many of the economic organizations had been guilty. This problem was solved by the decree of July 23, whereby all state economic organs were guaranteed sufficient of their own turnover funds to cover minimum needs for raw materials and to permit the industry to function normally. This decree, which went into effect on November 1, established for just what requirements of the industry bank credits might be granted. The decree required, furthermore, that such credits be properly secured, that they be short term credits, and must be paid back on the expiration of the period designated.

Another measure less familiar to the Soviet public but also of great importance and directly related to the problem of economic accounting is the change in the method of diverting the profits of industry into the state budget. I refer to the decree of the Sovnarkom of May 3, 1931. Previous to this decree the major part of the profits of industry (81 per cent) was transferred to the state budget, and redistributed for the financing of the entire national economy. Now, however, most of the profits remain under the control of the economic organs themselves to be used for capital investment, increasing the turnover funds, etc. The effect of this decree may be illustrated by the fact that according to the old system 2,225,000,000 rubles from the profits of industry in 1931 would have been turned over to the budget, whereas according to the new decree 1,229,000,000 rubles in all were deducted for the budget. This has strengthened the direct interest of economic organs in the accumulation of profits, and hence in the lowering of costs and the rationalization of production.

A further decree, issued on December 2, 1931, provides that all industrial concerns and trusts should leave a part of the profits accrued in fulfillment of the plan for the direct disposition of the factories and enterprises which have earned them. All profits accumulated in excess of the amount planned shall remain with the enterprise earning them to be used to increase capital investments, for cultural and social needs of the workers and for bonuses.

A change in the method of financing transport was made in the decree of April 30, 1931. As before, the net profits of transport, i. e., excess of receipts over expenditures for operations, will go into the budget, but the entire mechanism of expenditures for transport will be so organized that expenditures can be made only in direct relation to actual receipts and the fulfillment of obligations to the state budget.

Along with these measures for financial reform, the Bank of Long-term Credits for Industry and Electrical Construction, and its branches and agents in the large industrial centers and construction projects, have been strengthened. This apparatus will make possible more expedient and strictly controlled use of funds for capital investment.

We also plan to establish a long-term credit bank in the Centrosoyus system in connection with the tremendous increase of capital investments in retail trade, community restaurants and cooperatives.

The All-Union Collective and Cooperative Bank has been liquidated and its functions of granting

Collective members buying goods at the village Cooperative

production credits turned over to Gosbank which now has a department in every rayon.

While the organizational basis of our financial reform has been completed, and there have been positive results in 1931, there are still some abuses carried over from the period of automatic crediting which must be eliminated, and strict financial discipline must be enforced in order to fulfill our economic plan for 1932.

Soviet Trade and Finance

During 1931 state and cooperative trade was one of the central problems to meet the growing needs of the city proletariat and the collective workers. The development of Soviet trade is also of enormous importance from a financial point of view. The basic mass of goods is in the hands of the government and is distributed on the basis of the government plans and regulations, and subject to a strict price policy.

According to the control figures the entire retail turnover of socialized trade must grow from 27,000,000,000 rubles in 1931 to 35,500,000,000 rubles in 1932. In 1930 the share of government trade in the total socialized retail trade was 20 per cent, and that of the cooperatives 80 per cent. In 1931, according to preliminary estimates, the corresponding percentages were 30 and 70, and in 1932, according to the control figures, 40 and 60.

In addition to the development of cooperative and state trade, special measures were taken in 1931 to develop *kustarny* (handicraft) production. The total value of the commercial products of the *kustarny* cooperatives amounted to 3,500,000,000 rubles in 1931 against 2,100,000,000 rubles the preceding year, and promises to reach over 4,500,000,000 in 1932.

A speeding up of the rate of goods turnover is essential both from the point of view of supplying the consumers and of our money circulation. Under the conditions of strictly limited emission which we are carrying out, the most rapid possible turnover of capital and trade is absolutely vital.

Attracting the Funds of the Population

We are using the funds currently accumulated for our construction work. This means that in addition to our struggle to accumulate funds through our socialized economy and trade, we must use energetic measures to attract funds of the population into socialist construction. The income of city and country is growing very rapidly in connection with increased wages and the commercial activities of the collectives. It is sufficient to point out that the entire income of the population amounted to 43,600,000,000 rubles in 1931, against 31,400,000,000 in 1930. The wage fund increased from fifteen billions to twenty-one billions in that period and the income of the peasantry from the sale of agricultural products has increased from 9,100,000,000 rubles to 11,400,000,000 rubles. Finally, the income of the villages from non-agricultural earnings made by participation in the industrial program reached 4,500,000,000 rubles in 1931, against 3,200,000,000 rubles the year before.

Taxation constitutes an inconsiderable and shrinking part in our program for attracting the funds of the population. Government loans, savings funds, shares in various social organizations and other forms of voluntary participation by the population in building up funds for socialist construction have become the leading factors in our financial work. In 1930, the share occupied by taxation in the general program of mobilizing the means of the population was 48 per cent; in 1931, 44 per cent, and in 1932 it is to be 36 per cent. This has only been achieved by a systematic campaign throughout every section of the country to draw local government organs and all sections of the population into direct participation in the financial program. The 1,600,000,000 ruble loan for the "Third and Decisive Year of the Piatiletka," was oversubscribed by 200,000,000 rubles within a month. The organized support of the collectives was an important factor in the flotation of the loan in the villages.

Another important factor this year was that in the process of buying grain and agricultural raw materials we were dealing not with scattered individual farms, which meant payment of cash to each separate household and so required a great seasonal emission of money, but with organized collectives with accounts in the Gosbank or in savings funds.

With the passing of the individual farm, the old custom of hoarding money in stockings will also pass, and the finances of the Soviet village will be organized on a new basis.

Strengthening of Republic and Local Budgets

Under the former budget law the union, republic and local Soviets for the most part operated on a deficit which was covered from the general state budget. A new decree, published December 22, guarantees the almost complete liquidation of the deficits in republic and local budgets with a few exceptions in the case of backward republics and regions which could not balance their budgets without a government subsidy. This is accomplished by providing that the taxes from the turnover of republic and local economic organizations shall go directly for the use of republic and local budgets. It also provides for decentralization of the tax on the turnover of federal organizations. This will mean an increase of 1,200,000,000 rubles in the local budgets. The new budget law further provides for special deductions for republic and local budgets from the turnover tax of federal economic organizations developing the natural resources of the separate

republics and regions such as cotton, oil, gold, etc. Another provision of the new law is that the entire income from communal enterprises within the limits of each oblast, region or republic, shall go back into communal development.

The National Budget for 1932

In 1930 the budget amounted to 12,800,000,000 rubles (in income), an increase of 55 per cent over the preceding year. In 1931 it reached 20,400,000,000, an increase of 58.8 per cent over 1930. Finally, in 1932, we propose a budget of approximately 27,500,000,000, representing an increase of 34.1 per cent over 1931. The budget for 1932 is more than double that proposed in the Five-Year Plan.

Tractors in the Soviet Union

PRODUCTION of tractors in the Soviet Union during 1931 was 41,700, as compared with 13,400 in 1930 and 4,500 in 1929. The output was below the revised schedule of "control figures" for the year, which called for a total output of 56,000 tractors for the year, but it was over five times the original schedule of the Five-Year Plan for the fiscal year 1930-31. The output for December was 130 per cent of the monthly output called for for 1932-33, the final year of the original Five-Year Plan.

Tractors produced during the year in the three principal plants under operation were as follows:

Stalingrad	18,410
Putilovetz	20,950
Kharkov (open in October)	1,304
Total	40,664

Upwards of a thousand tractors were produced in other plants.

Nearly 40 per cent of the total was achieved during the final quarter of the year.

During the first half of the year progress in production was disappointing, owing to slow growth of operation in the Stalingrad plant. By early in the fall Stalingrad had improved its output to 100 tractors a day and during the last week of the year it was averaging 120 tractors a day, or 72 per cent of full capacity. During December the plant turned out 2,735 tractors, or 65 more than the number called for under the "control figures" for the month.

It is interesting to note that the Kharkov plant, which has the same productive capacity as the Stalingrad plant, and was opened about 16 months later, produced more tractors in its third month of operation than the Stalingrad plant produced in its tenth month. The figures are respectively 865 and 806. The Kharkov plant not only profited by the initial delays made at Stalingrad, but it started with a large corps of trained workers "graduated" at Stalingrad, while the latter was compelled to break in a mass of raw labor, unacquainted with the type of machinery used.

A worker at the Stalingrad tractor plant

It is anticipated that both Stalingrad and Kharkov will come to full production during the present year. In addition the new plant at Cheliabinsk, whose full capacity will be 40,000 tractors of the caterpillar type annually, will begin commercial production. The "control figures" for 1932 call for a total output of 82,000 tractors in Soviet factories, or just about double the production of 1931.

In addition to the home production some 24,000 tractors were imported from the United States in 1931 and two or three thousand from other countries. Thus the total of new tractors added to the Soviet supply in 1931 was close to 70,000. During 1931 the Soviet Union took three out of every four tractors exported by the United States.

In the fall of 1931 it was estimated that there were 150,000 tractors at work on farms in the Soviet Union. They furnished 2,057,000 horsepower. In the spring of 1930 there were 75,000. Before the revolution there were less than 500 tractors in all Russia, virtually all of them small-

type machines employed on the large private estates. Among the peasants they were unknown. Pre-war Russia spent $60,000,000 annually for agricultural machinery. Last year the expenditures aggregated about $400,000,000.

The demand for tractors has followed the advance of collectivization, and demand promises to exceed the available supply for some time to come. In the fall 60 per cent of the peasant farms had been organized in collectives. The collectives are served by tractor and machine stations scattered through the farming districts. Toward the close of 1931 there were some 1500 of these stations. Tractors on these stations were furnishing approximately 1,000,000 horsepower. They were serving about 40 per cent of the collectives. The development of the stations has been extremely rapid. In the summer of 1930 they numbered 360. During the next two years it is anticipated that there will be a sufficient number of the stations to serve all the collectives.

Two Industrial Giants Start Production

THE first of the year marked the beginning of production in two of the most important of the new Soviet enterprises—the Saratov combine factory and the Nizhni-Novgorod automobile plant.

The Saratov factory, which is planned to manufacture 15,000 combines (combined harvester-threshers) annually, was started two years ago. The technological processes have undergone many improvements since the factory was first projected and exhaustive experiments have been made to produce a type of combine suited to large scale Soviet agriculture. The first test machines were completed on September 7, and after various additional improvements, the first perfected model came from the belt on December 31. It is expected to produce 750 combines during the first quarter of 1932, and gradually to increase the rate of output so that the total for the year will be 6,000.

The combine factory is connected with a group of factories served by a central electric power plant—a sawmill, an accumulator plant and a factory for manufacturing tractor parts.

Around these plants, situated seven kilometers from the city of Saratov, a new town, planned for 30,000 inhabitants, is growing up, with modern workers' apartments, a factory kitchen with a capacity of 25,000 meals at a time, clubs, theaters, new tram lines, etc.

The skilled workers and technicians employed at the Saratov plant were trained for the most part at other agricultural machinery enterprises, but it now has its own factory school, built to accommodate 1,500 students.

On January 1 the Nizhni-Novgorod automobile plant, construction of which was completed November 1, entered upon its program for the mass production of automobiles and light trucks after the Ford model.

The Nizhni-Novgorod plant is modelled on the Ford factory at River Rouge, which was thoroughly studied at first hand by a group of Soviet engineers under a technical assistance contract with the Ford Motor Company. The plant, which was constructed in eighteen months, consists of 23 main buildings covering 2,294,000 square feet, and is larger and better technically equipped than either the reconstructed Amo factory or the Kharkov plant. It will produce its first twenty-five automobile trucks during January, 700 during the first quarter, and the mass production program will be under way by April 1. It is expected that the output will reach 70,000 cars during the first year, and eventually 140,000 annually.

A model socialist city is being constructed adjoining the factory. The Austin Company of Cleveland supplied technical assistance in constructing the plant and the city.

Progress in the Far East

AT the meeting of the Central Executive Committee of the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper) which met in Moscow from December 16 to December 21, preceding the meeting of the All-Union Central Executive Committee, a report was made by Butsenko, chairman of the Far Eastern Region. The resolution on his report summed up the achievements of the Far Eastern Region during the past three years as follows:

During the past three years of the Five-Year Plan 614,000,000 rubles has been invested in the national economy of the Far Eastern Region, and in 1932 it is planned to invest 400,000,000 rubles. During that period eighty-seven new enterprises have been constructed in the lumber, fishing, coal, oil and other branches of industry. The total production of industry has grown two and a half times. Exploitation of lumber has increased from 1,800,000 to 6,000,000 cubic meters.

The fish catch has increased from 98,000 tons to 350,000 tons. The fishing industry has been completely reconstructed. The coal output, which was negligible during the revolution (100,000 tons in 1916) increased to 1,800,000 tons in 1931. The oil industry has been entirely reorgan-

Korean fishermen in the port of Vladivostok

ized and shows great promise for future development. The export trade of the region has increased by 175 per cent in the last three years.

The total production of industry for the Far Eastern Region has tripled in three years. The population has increased by 25 per cent, and the industrial proletariat by 64 per cent.

On the basis of the industrial and cultural progress of the region, the socialist reconstruction of agriculture is being successfully carried out. Up to the present time 60 per cent of the poor and middle peasant farms have been organized into collectives, 100 sovhozes have been established, and 20 machine and tractor stations organized. The seeded area of the socialized sector constitutes 80 per cent of the entire seeded area of the region. Rice, soy beans, sugar beets, and bast crops have been introduced. Whole new sections with great potential areas for cultivation are being reclaimed.

Previous to 1923 the population of the region was only 37 per cent literate. Now over 67 per cent of the people are literate. Ninety-five per cent of the children of school age are attending the primary schools. Two universities, 9 special higher educational and technical institutions, 44 technicums and 10 workers' faculties have been organized. Upwards of 40,000 students are being taught in these institutions.

An extensive system of hospitals and medical stations has been organized. About 800 day nurseries have been established, accommodating over 18,000 children. About 80,000 children were in kindergartens in 1931.

Workers from all the varied nationalities inhabiting the region have been drawn into active participation in socialist construction. Three native okrugs, 15 native rayons and 600 native Soviets have been set up with their own native government officials, transacting business in Chinese, Korean, Ukrainian or the languages of the various border peoples of the northeast.

Between 1929 and 1931, 824 schools were established in the native rayons. In the native rayons, agriculture has been about 70 per cent collectivized, and among the northern tribes about 40 per cent are collectivized. Nine native trade schools have been established — three Korean, three Chinese, two Jewish and one Ukrainian. Thirteen newspapers are published in the languages of the national minorities. An extensive health program is being carried out among the minor nationalities. The Chinese and Korean alphabets are being Latinized in order to hasten cultural and economic development.

Along with the general development of the region rapid economic and cultural development of Kamchatka and Sakhalin is also taking place. Especially rapid is the growth of the fishing and lumber industries, the fur and trapping industries (state farms for raising fur-bearing animals have been established on the islands), and the output of coal and oil. A canning industry has been started. The social and living conditions of the peoples of the north have been greatly improved.

Increase in Soviet Population

THE growth of population in the U.S.S.R. during the past three years is indicated by the following figures:

Population	*1929*	*1930*	*1931*	*Increase 1930 ov'r 1929*	*Increase 1931 ov'r 1930*
	(in thousands)			*(per cent)*	
Total	154,410	157,700	163,000	2.14	3.36
City	29,200	30,900	33,200	5.8	7.44
Village	125,200	126,800	129,800	1.3	2.4

As will be seen from the above, while the total population increased 2.14 per cent in 1930, the city population increased 5.8 per cent, and the village population only 1.3 per cent. In 1931 the increase in the total population was 3.36 per cent, while the increase in the city population was 7.4 per cent, and that of the village population 2.4 per cent. This is due to the rapidly growing number of industrial workers, which increased from 12,300,000 in 1929 to 14,600,000 in 1930 and 18,700,000 in 1931. It is of interest to note that according to the Five-Year Plan the city population was to exceed 20 per cent of the total of the U.S.S.R. during the last year of the Plan, 1933. This figure was reached in 1931. In pre-revolutionary Russia the city population constituted about 15 per cent of the total, while in 1926 this had risen to 18 per cent.

About 30 million of the adult village population were members of collective farms in 1931.

Particularly striking has been the population

growth in the old industrial centers. Thus the population of Nizhni-Novgorod was 126,700 in 1917 and over 350,000 in 1931, and of Stalingrad, 132,000 in 1917 and 304,000 in 1931. Sverdlovsk had 69,000 inhabitants in 1917 and now has 223,000, Novosibirsk had about 70,000 and now has 180,000; Rostov-on-the-Don had 177,000 and now has 425,000; Ivanovo-Voznesensk had 85,000 and now has 177,000. Moscow has grown from 1,700,000 in 1917 to approximately three million in 1931, and Leningrad has grown from 2,165,000 to 2,236,000, in spite of the fact that at one time, due to the transfer of the seat of government to Moscow, its population had decreased to one million.

Coincident with this growth of the old cities entirely new cities are developing with constantly increasing populations. At Novokuznetsk, for instance, where 45,000 workers are employed, the number of inhabitants has reached 165,000. At Magnitogorsk, where the number of workers employed is upwards of 70,000, a new city of 190,000 inhabitants has sprung up. At Berezniki, with 28,000 workers, the population has reached 90,000; at Bobriki, with 16,000 workers, the population is now 45,000, and so on.

This increase in urban population has necessitated greatly increased investments in municipal enterprises, particularly in housing. During the past five years 3,500,000,000 rubles has been invested in housing in the U.S.S.R., 1,156,000,000 rubles of that during 1931 alone. During the same period 29,000,000 square meters of housing were constructed, about a third of this during 1931. In the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper) alone 750,000,000 rubles has been invested in municipal economy during the past three years, almost half of this in 1931.

Krupskaya on Polytechnical Schools

THE Soviet school system was recognized last year into a "unified system of polytechnical education." The word polytechnical is used in the Soviet Union not, as in America, to denote training in many different special trades, but in the sense of training all children, from the very beginning of their education, in certain fundamental labor principles which are at the basis of all labor — whether industrial, agricultural, or social—thus laying a broad basis for whatever special trade or profession is taken up later. All such training is shared equally by boys and girls. Under the new program every school is linked up with either a factory or a collective farm. With the younger children this takes largely the form of excursions and visits exchanged between school and factory. Children over fourteen have practice work directly in the factory, a period of two or three hours, occurring twice or three times in ten days. It is forbidden to children to take part in difficult or dangerous work. The teachers also give time to the factory, learning its processes themselves and planning its cultural work.

Nadezhda Krupskaya, the widow of Lenin, who is associate commissar of education, has played an important part in working out the polytechnical schools' program, and has written numerous articles on the subject for the Soviet press.

In an article published in the *Pravda* last summer she outlined the methods to be used in carrying out the program.

In this article Krupskaya emphasized that the practice work in the factories must not be considered an end in itself, but must lead to closer contacts with the whole social life of the workers, to understanding the need for labor discipline, to sharing their enthusiasm for building the socialist state. The practical work must be closely bound up with modern science and technique—teachers, workers and engineers must work together on this problem.

Schools Linked with Factories and Farms

"We must," she continued, "keep our great aims before the children, make them near and comprehensible to them. We must kindle in them the flame of enthusiasm, teach them to subordinate everything to the great struggle for socialism. That is why it is of such great importance that our schools should be nearer to the factories, the workers nearer to the schools. The proletariat is now fighting vigorously to rebuild all industry and agriculture on the foundations of modern science and technique. The new generation has also been inspired by this aim. The schools are already reorganizing their administration and their activities on a new basis.

"The polytechnical school must be nearer to the factory. There must be frequent excursions to the factory. They must be carefully prepared and organized. A number of other activities arise in connection with excursions. For instance, the children of the Kanavinsk school became interested in the quality of production turned out by their factory. The factory to which they were attached manufactured millstones. The children paid visits to the neighboring mills, checked up

on the quality of production, and then made a report at their own factory which drew the attention of the whole factory to the work of the school.

"The research and laboratory method of work used require that the children learn how to work independently with books, select their material, make summaries . . . Working at the shop or in the collective farms, the children observe how

Bookbinding in a polytechnical school

labor is organized, hear about production meetings, sometimes attend them; hear about problems of labor productivity. This must inevitably reflect on all of their socially useful labor. How to draw up a plan of work, how to divide work among themselves, how to organize it and to appraise its results—all these are questions which come up in their own activities and which their observations at the factory help them to solve.

"In the sovhoz 'Gorky' there is a school for peasant youth, which is connected with a nearby collective. The school helped the collective in reckoning its labor days, used its mathematical knowledge in measuring its fields, helped them in their accounts. For this purpose, the school was divided up into brigades; to each brigade was attached a sovhoz shock troop worker who helped the children by his own experience, organized production conferences and helped them to make up their own accounts.

"The enthusiasm of the workers infects the children. The schools conclude socialist competition contracts with different organizations. This is very good. But these contracts must be planned educationally from the point of view of whether they over-tax the children's strength, how much time they take, whether they interfere with the regular program, how the tasks must be distributed according to age, how the work must be planned."

Krupskaya then outlined some of the steps necessary in the reorganization of the chief school studies.

Mathematics and Natural Science

"The questions of economic construction bring to the fore questions of rationalizing our program on mathematics and the natural sciences.

"In the U.S.S.R., under conditions of planned economy and at the present stage of development, mathematics is of exceptional importance, and the factory and shop seven-year schools must equip the growing generation with extensive mathematical knowledge.

"But it is necessary that mathematics should not be simply exercises in logical thinking or memorizing formulas, but that it should be transformed into a tool for the building of socialism. It is necessary that theory should not be thrown out, but closely bound up with every day practical activities. This union must penetrate every field. It is important that school children should know for what purpose they need the different branches of mathematics. If one were to ask the pupils of the factory and shop seven-year schools why they need algebra, most of them would probably answer 'in order to enter high school or college.'

"Certainly it cannot be said that mathematics is in no way linked up with practice. It is closely bound up, for instance, with the Five-year Plan. But figures should not be dead, each figure should convey some meaning. It is important that children should understand statistics, that they should learn the meaning of *hozraschet* (economic accounting), production costs, that they should learn to make use of mathematics in rationalizing life and work. The application of mathematics to the study of machinery is also of great importance."

The necessity of linking up the study of mathematics with other subjects was then emphasized by Krupskaya. Mechanical drawing and modelling are of great importance, she said, in developing memory and a capacity for exact observation, as well as for creative work along technical lines. In physics and chemistry it is of the utmost importance to follow all the latest discoveries. In this field, she said, it is perhaps easier than in any other to link up theory and practice. Geology is of the utmost practical importance in opening up the vast natural resourses of the U.S.S.R.

Language Study

On the subject of language study, Krupskaya said:

"The life of our country is characterized by the growth of social contact between people. Not only in the cities, but in the villages as well there are an endless number of meetings of all kinds. The masses have learned to talk. Life has become much richer in content and experience. Our language has become fuller, more compact, more intense. The structure of our language is changing. The whole present day situation is teaching our children to talk, is unloosing their tongues. This simplifies the teaching of language. The task of the schools is to teach modern language culture, to enrich the children's vocabulary, to teach them to seek knowlege through books, to master both their own and other languages, to use their language in the service of collective labor, in the service of social work, to teach them to fight with words . . . This of course can only be done when language study is closely connected up with practical work.

"Still more closely is the teaching of language linked up with the teaching of literature. The influence of literature on a child's point of view is enormous. It acts on the emotions, organizes or disorganizes. It exerts its influence not merely by words, but in the most vital way, giving rise to a whole new line of thought. The greatest influence is exerted by modern revolutionary literature . . . But this does not mean that only modern literature should be taught in the schools. Classical literature may and should be taught, but only for a deeper understanding of modern literature or as historical illustrative material. Literature must be very carefully selected and very carefully analyzed. Children must be trained to a critical attitude toward literature. That is the best insurance against harmful influences.

The Study of Society

"The study of literature must be linked up in the closest possible way with the study of society. The latter is divided into history and modern times. History must teach a deeper understanding of contemporary life in all its ramifications, a deeper understanding of where social development is tending. The chief task of history teaching in the factory and shop seven-year schools is to lay the basis of a material interpretation of history, to teach an understanding of the interrelation of economics, politics and culture, to show the determining forces of historical development. There is no need to load the children with material, no need for a chronological recitation of events—only of the most important ones. It is important in a historical course that the foundations of political and economic understanding be laid—the division of labor, cooperation, means of production, ownership of means of production, classes, conflict of class interests, forms of economic management, forms of government administration, etc.

"Problems of international relations and their development must be treated in detail in the study of history . . . We must give our children a picture of the present international situation, and explain the meaning of our international as well as of our national policy . . ."

The study of society, according to Krupskaya, must be accompanied by a study of the district where the school is situated and its resources, which will serve as an introduction to Soviet planning methods. This is closely connected with the teaching of geography, physical, economic, and political. The social work of the school is of the utmost importance. This can be done largely through the local Soviets. The school children can help in the consumers' cooperatives, in sanitary and cultural campaigns, with the idea not merely of collecting rubbish and cleaning up, but of developing in the children a conscious attitude toward the life around them, and a sense of their power to reconstruct that life.

Krupskaya then emphasized the importance of bringing out the connection between the general tasks of the working class and the relation of each enterprise and each worker within the enterprise to the problem as a whole. Thus school workshops must not simply teach working habits for their own sake, but must have actual production tasks to perform which will be a part of the whole program, such as making things actually to be used in the school and doing tasks for the factory to which the school is attached.

Physical culture and play, Krupskaya believes, must have a more important part in the schools than ever before. The purpose of physical culture must first of all serve to strengthen the growing organism. There must be no over-taxing of strength, and it must be adapted to age and sex differences. There must be special exercises to develop muscle, sureness of eye, coordination and general dexterity. Exercises must be used to overcome fatigue, to protect the organism, to teach a knowledge of physical powers and how to use them fully and wisely.

In conclusion, Krupskaya pointed out that whereas children in Western European schools had already had their elementary grammar by the time they reached eight years, Soviet children did not start their regular schooling until they reached eight years. But in six years the Soviet children are much more developed in respect to social and biological knowledge, and ability to apply their knowledge to life. What is necessary now, she said, is a better use of modern technique, and wider use of the methods of excursions and of radio and the cinema in the schools.

Djaldybai - Road to Wealth

Translated from a sketch by V. Gavrikov in Projector, No. 28-29, 1931

IN the Kazak language "Djaldybai" means the road to wealth. And not in vain was one of the plateaus of the Kolbi range, on the border of Western China, so called. Djaldybai, the best of pasture lands, belonged for immemorial centuries to the native beys. To the other Kazaks, especially the poorest ones, the road to Djaldybai was forbidden.

The masters of Djaldybai lost their privileges along with the other beys in 1928, and the pasture land remained untouched until 1931 when the cattle of the Kokpektinsk collective were driven there for fattening.

Until that time the Kokpektinsk collective had been in existence only one year. A year ago, under the leadership of Mikhail Khomutov, the nomad-Kazaks who had only just formed a collective, set about reclaiming 812,000 hectares of land in order to carry out their obligations under a contract concluded with the newly organized live-stock sovhoz (state farm). Mikhail Khomutov, son of a Zaisansk potter, had been a teacher for many years in the *auls* and *stanitzas* of the Kazak steppes. After the revolution he was up to his ears in Soviet work, barely escaped from Kolchak's troops, and after the defeat of Kolchak he threw himself with new energy into the "sovietization" of his native land. When the sovhoz came into being he was made its first director. On this huge territory a chain of cattle farms had to be established, connected into one strong whole, to carry out the orders of the sovhoz. Sixty thousand hectares of hay had to be cut and harvested, temporary yards had to be constructed for the cattle with no materials at all save willow trees and turf. Forty-five thousand head of large-horned cattle had to be received at a station hundreds of kilometers away from the sovhoz, driven across country, put through quarantine, divided into producing and meat groups, and placed in winter quarters And all this had to be done not only without specialists, such as agronoms, veterinarians, cattle experts, but even without work animals, without either work horses or *arba* (tilted carts used by Eastern nomads).

The Kazak collectivists did everything themselves. They allotted some of their workers to the sovhoz, harvested the hay, built the cattle-yards, drove in the cattle, and, all during an unusually severe winter, at the risk of their lives, they hauled hay to the base from meadows ten and fifteen kilometers away, through snow two meters deep, through snow-storms, on *arbas* and in packs—they had no sleighs. And now the first herd from the sovhoz has been driven to Djaldybai, there to be fattened for meat for the central industrial section of the U.S.S.R.

In the beginning of May Karpenko, a "cattle engineer," and the young cattle expert Serezhnikov, who had just completed his short-term course and was eager to put his knowledge into practice in the quickest possible way, made a journey of inspection to Djaldybai.

They traveled on horseback, without luggage, in order to examine carefully the course over which the cattle must be driven. For them Djaldybai was a legend which must be verified, in order to find out what was true and what was invention. It drew them as any rich deposit, still untouched, known only by hearsay, draws explorers.

Were the Djaldybai pastures as fine as the Kazak herdsmen said they were? Were they true, these tales of eternal spring, of succulent grass, waist high, without the scorching heat of the steppes, without the mosquitoes and gadflies which give the cattle no peace there in the valleys?

The Kazak herdsmen were all of the poorest class, and not so long ago they had tended the herds of the beys in these hills, with strict instructions from their former masters to drive off all strange cattle or any Kazak daring to pasture his cows on any small meadow, even though the beys themselves did not use it. For this purpose the herdsmen were armed and ordered to shoot any trespasser whether wolf or Kazak. For the beys had claimed Djaldybai as their own through the centuries—since the time of the great Genghis himself.

Karpenko and Serezhnikov rode through one deep gorge, and then another and another. Not so good! The ascent is steep, the passage narrow, the bottom of the ravines filled with sharp fragments of stone, the swiftly rushing streams almost carry the accustomed Kazak horses off their feet.

How to drive hither the cattle still not completely recovered from the severe winter? How to make the journey with the calves and goods on covered *arbas* hauled by young oxen which have never yet felt the yoke, which must be used for lack of work animals? That is a problem!

The top is reached at last, under the clouds—and there indeed is heaven on earth. Not a mosquito, not a gadfly. Grass higher than the horses—spear grass and clover. Here is meadow mint, wild oats, foxtail, wild pea, timothy—everything imaginable. Streams from under the cliffs flow through the willows and wild cherries.

Flowers without number—later on there will be berries in abundance.

No wonder this place was called Djaldybai—road to wealth. No wonder the beys founded here their *auls* and estates. Now they are vacant, but formerly, only three or four years ago, the Kazak nobles lived here, lords of thousands of cattle. Each bey had several spacious covered courtyards. Around each house the walls of *kiziaka* (bricks of mud and manure used as fuel) remain untouched to this day. Between the houses berry bushes have grown.

They stop their horses, look around them, look at one another.

"We shall bring them here, Boris Ivanich," said Karpenko to Serezhnikov, "somehow or other we shall bring them—and our cattle will be the cream of all cattle. We shall fatten them until they can hardly move!"

They made the return journey swifty. Karpenko set the departure for the next morning.

Karpenko had altogether 1,244 head of large-horned cattle to transport and 450 calves. They were divided into artels of from 250 to 300 head. For the transport of the *yurts* (nomad tents) the young calves, salt (fifty poods of salt alone), and for all kinds of utensils there were altogether four *britzkas* (half covered wagons), ten horses and seven camels. One for each member of the expedition. What animals then, should haul the *britzkas?* There were none left! The horses and camels had to be used for rounding up the herds.

Finally brood oxen were harnessed to the *britzkas.* The day before departure, while Karpenko and Serezhnikov were out reconnoitering for the best way through the mountains, the whole day had been spent breaking in the oxen, training them to walk between the shafts. But could they be broken in in one day? One thing saved the situation—they were gentle animals. On smooth ground, with drivers, with two guides on either side, things went well enough. They managed to get to the mountains with no special grief. But then the torture began!

Tilted by the step ascent, the goods slipped backward. The calves had to be carried by hand, the salt had to be carried. Some of the goods had to be hauled along by rope. They tried harnessing the camels. At first the oxen did not resist, and pulled together with the camels. But when the camels began to spit the oxen flew into a rage, and got quite out of control. The ill-mannered hump-backed fellows had to be unharnessed. After that the oxen would not let the camels come near them at all. The herds were driven on, three or four miles apart. They made from five to eight kilometers a day, and then rested for two or three days after each march. They stopped at springs, which the men dammed to make ponds for the cattle.

Ahead, Skorikov drove his two herds fifteen or twenty kilometers a day, without resting. He outstripped the rest of the procession by about twenty kilometers, so afraid was he that someone else might get there first.

In the mountains they met two more of their herds, from Bazarki and Bukoni. Their herdsmen and cattle experts, who had not yet seen the plateau, were grumbling.

"Did you choose a road like this on purpose? Is this the best you could find? And what sweets will we find when we get there?"

"All the same, you better push on," Karpenko calmed them. "It would be a shame for you to get stuck in a place like this."

Great were the difficulties of the chief herdsman, Sakhvila Kurmangaliev, with his oxen. From Karagandygula itself, whence he started, for all of eighty kilometers, he had to use oxen for hauling, before they gave him camels to replace them. Some of the herdsmen yoked cows with the oxen. With them it was certainly much easier. But Karpenko, Serezhnikov, Sakhvila and the other old herdsman, Makhumadi, pounced on them like vultures.

"Don't you dare harness the cows! They have no strength after the winter. The bulls do not spend their strength in the winter, but the cows have the calves to feed. What if they have used them for work animals in other places! They have hitched them to machines—to mowing machines, rakes, even to plows—that is no example for us!"

It took twenty days to reach the promised pastures of Djaldybai. It was difficult enough for the cattle, still, they managed somehow—but for the men it was torture. They fed for the most part on sour milk or dry *tvorog.* At night, it was near freezing, and there were no covers. They had nothing of their own and the *spetzodiojdi* (work clothing provided by the government) had not yet been provided. Fortunately there was the felt for the *yurts*—worn and rotting and alive with insects, to be sure—but still—felt. Sakhvila had ridden so hard and long that he had quite worn out his pants. All he had left was a long tattered gown of *shekpek*—camel's hair—which he wore next to his bare skin.

But such as he and Makhumadi had been used to hunger and cold since childhood. Both had been *batraki* (agricultural laborers) all their lives. All their lives they had herded cattle, other men's cattle, and now they drove their own cattle. They led them to the forbidden pastures of the beys, there to fatten them to send to others, poor ones like themselves, whose only worth was workers' hands and workers' skill.

To drive their own cattle, Soviet cattle, to Djaldybai—ah, that was progress, that was triumph! To climb up, past the empty villages of the beys. To sit, in true Kazak fashion, sideways on the saddle—to look off toward the blue ridge

of the Tarbagatai—that was everything—the rest was nothing.

There, in Djaldybai, the road to riches. There these tormented animals would become cattle such as the beys had never known, because they themselves, Sakhvila and Makhumadi and others like them had tended those cattle—but not as they would tend their own cattle. Now they knew how it should be done. They knew what kind of grass was best for the cattle, and when, they knew how and where to drive the cattle no worse than the cattle specialist Serezhnikov himself, and Skorikov, past master in these matters, director of the fattening base at Djaldybai.

The ascent to Djaldybai was for many, if not all of them, an ascent to a new life, to new order, just the opposite to all they had known in the past.

And at last they arrived, at last they led the cattle to these marvelous, boundless pastures. Of the full 8,000 head driven thither by Skorikov, only four were lost. Three were diseased and had to be killed. Of the rest, not a single one was the worse for the tortuous journey. Even all the calves, of which there were 142 in the herd of Sakhvila alone, arrived safely. In Makhumadi's herd there were 38 calves, from two to four days old when the journey started, and for all of them there was only one *arba*, in which besides all the utensils and the salt had to be carried. And they, too, arrived safely. The youngest and weakest Makhumadi would trust to no one, and carried two and three of them at a time wrapped in rags, on his horse with him.

At Djaldybai they pitched their tents and again spent the day on horseback. They trotted about the steppes guarding the cattle, leading them into the best pasture lands, starting a régime and discipline. Djaldybai, the forbidden, had become their own, familiar.

Kolya, dairyman and bookkeeper of the base, pitched his *yurt* by a stream where he could place the flagons of warm milk among the stones to cool. Next was Vetepo, the veterinarian, and his four young assistants to make blood tests of the cattle.

Across the stream, Karpenko set himself up with his calves, and the specialist Serezhnikov. Nearby the horses and camels were pastured. The dogs ran about barking softly.

By August the cattle were unrecognizable. The sleek meaty cows walked slowly and importantly around. The high bred bulls, proud as English lords, slowly raised and turned their large handsome heads, looking at passersby with huge unblinking stupid eyes. Two more months and the Soyusmiaso (Meat Trust) will receive a large shipment of meat of the finest quality—25,000 head from the whole Kokpetinsky sovhoz. Djaldybai has justified its name.

The Theater of Children's Books

FOR two years a unique puppet theater in Moscow, designed particularly for children, has been acquainting them with the best in literature suited to their age. It was created by Shvemberger, a former pupil of the director Vakhtangov, and is called the theater of children's books. Its purpose, as defined by Shvemberger, is to familiarize children with good literature in stage form and thereby bring them to read the books. With the support of the State Publishing House the theater has developed into a popular institution which has given in the short period of its existence over one thousand performances witnessed by 350,000 children and adults alike. In addition four traveling theaters have been organized which visit cities and village districts in all parts of the Soviet Union.

The puppets are made by Shvemberger, who not only provides musical accompaniment on various instruments but who also participates actively in the plays, as actor and property man. The movements and "voices" are provided by a woman assistant who has some sixty different puppets which she handles with great skill.

There are plays for very young and for older children. For the youngest is the charming play "Petrushka and the Eagle." Petrushka, the hero of all adventures, does not like to read. The eagle, a nimble little bird, with a clanking tongue—which personifies here the most popular children's magazine, named after him—persuades Petrushka to examine all kinds of books and with enthusiasm. In the course of the story the wildest adventures occur. Petrushka pursues a gray mouse and by so doing comes to the North Pole where he is almost frozen except for his timely discovery by the aviator Chuknovsky, who brings him back in his airplane. Petrushka is now quite naturally interested in the children's story of "The Krassin" which describes Chuknovsky's part in saving Nobile.

In the last act the eagle has a historical play enacted to show Petrushka life in pre-revolutionary days. The young revolutionist Tanya, daughter of a compositor, saves her revolutionary father by dropping into a milk can the type which he has brought home in order to print the phrase "Down with the Tsar," which is being sought by the police. Petrushka is told to stay perfectly quiet, that what is happening is only in a theater—but he can not be still, and as the policeman drinks from the very can in which the forbidden type is hidden, Petrushka falls upon him and beats him off the stage. Thus he can not learn how the story really ends and must read about it in the children's book, "Tanya the Revolutionist."

Other plays bring still more unbelievable things to the stage. "Petrushka Travels" carries the awakened puppet to all the large new industrial enterprises; at Dnieprostroy he almost drowns, his lack of technical knowledge placing him in the most dangerous situations. A third play, "Three Revolutions," is a history lesson without theoretical teaching, the puppets portraying the Tsar, Kerensky, and others, are amusing caricatures, cleverly made.

The problem of mass productions of puppets has been solved in the next play to be given. Two circular sloping tracks will be set up on which the puppets, houses and other requirements for the play will be drawn on and off the stage.

The Soviet Farmer's Almanac

INSPECTION of the Soviet *Peasant's Almanac* leads to the conclusion that the Soviet farmer has gone far beyond the primitive peasant of a few years ago. His almanac of 64 pages, for which he pays 15 kopeks, is illustrated by wood-cuts in which huge, modern farm buildings and silos and tractors appear frequently. The calendar is printed by months with notations at one side to show the relation of the five-day week to the Julian calendar. There are lists of State holidays, explanations of the reasons for their observance, tables of eclipses and the length of days at different times of the year, quotations from the writings of leaders, descriptions of the organization of the government and of the Communist party and information on the duties of local officials with whom the farmer may come in contact. Under the calendar for each month is a list of famous events of the past that occurred during that month, a catholic list in which revolutionary events rub shoulders with the births of Louis Pasteur, the bacteriologist, Leo Tolstoy, and the romantic poet, Puskin.

Beside each monthly calendar is a section devoted to *What to Do on the Farm this Month.* In January the farmer must take inventory of the seeds and implements and start repairs of his tools so that he will be ready for the brief plowing and sowing season in the spring. The collective tractors and harrows must be inspected and put in readiness, the cattle examined with care for diseases likely to develop in the long winter in the barns on dry provender. The vegetable supply must be inspected for mice and to see that the store-houses are neither too warm nor to cold.

A section is devoted to taxes with emphasis on the lowered taxes for those who enter the collectives; another section to the functions of various societies, such as the Society for the Liquidation of Illiteracy; a third to education and the avenues of higher education open to every ambitious citizen. One page, headed by a wood-cut of a soldier, is devoted to the army and the regulations concerning military service. The exemptions are specified for those who are the chief or sole support of families. The methods of establishing exemption for those who are in ill-health or who were born in families with religious convictions against the bearing of arms and the alternative services open to them are explained in detail.

Large sections are devoted to *How to Increase the Productivity of the Land,* with directions on crops, on the care of gardens, chickens and cattle. *Advice to Mothers* gives the usual injunctions on feeding and cleanliness, on infectious diseases and the care of children during their illneses. A page follows on astronomy, then one on *What to Do in Emergencies,* with home treatment for fainting, fits, sunburn, hemorrhage, bee-sting, snake-bite, mushroom-poisoning.

Several pages of *Useful Information* follow, geographical statistics, budgets of the leading world governments, instructions on the care of hunting guns, advice to hunters, information on weather, tables of weights and measures, detailed instructions on the preparation of pig hides, facts on wild animals, birds and reptiles. A long section is concerned with the care and use of agricultural machinery.

At the end of the monthly list of duties is an urgent message to the farmer to subscribe for the farm journals and to spend his spare moments in the long winters raising his "cultural level" and that of his neighbors.

GERMAN-SOVIET NEGOTIATIONS

Izvestia of December 24 carried a dispatch from Berlin giving the text of the joint official statement regarding the results of the Soviet-German economic negotiations, which was published in Berlin December 23. The statement follows:

> The economic negotiations which were commenced on November 14, between the German Minister of Industry, Warmbold, and the director of the Soviet delegation and accredited representative of the U.S.S.R., Khinchuk, the aim of which was to place the economic relations of the two countries on a more solid foundation, and to make possible their further development, was completed on December 22, when the protocol of the meeting was signed. The decisions set forth in the protocol, which are subject to ratification by both countries, are designed first of all to eliminate the difficulties arising as a result of the economic crisis in all selling markets, which are affecting Soviet-German trade as well. The course of the negotiations in which the most closely concerned economic circles of both countries participated, gives basis for the belief that the aim of the negotiations will be achieved.

Miscellaneous News

CENTRAL ACCOUNTING ADMINISTRATION OF U.S.S.R. ORGANIZED

On December 17 a decree was issued by the TSIK and the Sovnarkom providing for the organization of a Central Administration of Accounting for the U.S.S.R. under Gosplan, supplementing the decree issued on May 9, 1931, providing for the organization of accounting and statistical work under Gosplan. The new Central Administration of Accounting, which replaces the accounting division of Gosplan, will direct the accounting divisions of the republics, oblasts and rayons, and is given the right to make independent proposals on all questions connected with accounting to the higher government organs of the U.S.S.R. The head of the administration is to be at the same time assistant chairman of Gosplan.

The new accounting administration is to operate with an independent budget and staff, and is given the right to organize scientific research and economic institutions for the practical execution of its work of introducing an improved system and technique of accounting into the different branches of the national economy.

On January 9, Valerian V. Ossinsky was appointed assistant chairman of the State Planning Commission of the U.S.S.R. and chief of the new Central Administration of Accounting. Mr. Ossinsky replaces Sergey V. Minayev as assistant chairman of Gosplan, and Mr. Minayev has been appointed his assistant in the Central Administration of Accounting.

I. T. Smilga has recently been made an assistant chairman of Gosplan.

REORGANIZATION OF SUPREME COUNCIL OF NATIONAL ECONOMY

On January 5 a decree was passed by the Sovnarkom of the U.S.S.R., providing that the Supreme Council of National Economy be reorganized as the People's Commissariat for Heavy Industry and that in addition two new commissariats be organized to handle problems of light industry and lumber—the People's Commissariat for Light Industry of the U.S.S.R., and the People's Commissariat for the Lumber Industry of the U.S.S.R.

The Supreme Councils of National Economy of the separate republics are to be reorganized into Commissariats for Light Industry of the republics.

G. K. Ordjonikidze, formerly Chairman of the Supreme Economic Council of the U.S.S.R., will remain as Chairman of the Commissariat for Heavy Industry.

I. E. Liubimov, formerly Assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Trade and Trade Representative of the U.S.S.R. in Germany, has been appointed People's Commissar for Light Industry of the U.S.S.R. S. K. Sudin has been appointed Assistant Commissar for Foreign Trade in his place.

S. S. Lobov, formerly Assistant Commissar for Supplies of the U.S.S.R., has been appointed People's Commissar for the Lumber Industry of the U.S.S.R. K. V. Ukhanov has replaced him as Assistant People's Commissar for Supplies.

SHATOFF MADE ASSISTANT RAILROAD COMMISSAR

On January 3, 1932, Vladimir Sergeyevich Shatoff (Bill Shatoff) was appointed Assistant Commissar for Railroads of the U.S.S.R.

Bill Shatoff, one-time anarchist, I. W. W. organizer and worker at many trades in America, returned to Russia after the revolution. He is not a member of the Communist Party, but has held many responsible posts. He took part in the civil war, and headed the diplomatic mission which signed the peace treaty with the Japanese at the time of their evacuation of Chita. Later he became Secretary of Transportation in the Far Eastern Republic, then was made head of State Bank branches in the South, and later was in charge of metal imports for the country. His biggest job was that of directing the construction of the Turkestan-Siberian Railroad, since the completion of which he has been engaged in important railroad work in Siberia.

ALL-UNION COUNCIL ON COMMUNAL ECONOMY

On December 9 the directing staff and members of the newly established All-Union Council on Communal Economy under the TSIK, was announced. There are seventy-five members on the council, and A. P. Smirnov has been appointed chairman.

ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGES

On January 1 the R.S.F.S.R. Central Executive Committee passed a resolution changing the Votyak autonomous oblast into the Udmurt autonomous oblast, because the main population of the district, both historically and ethnographically, are Udmurts.

AERIAL AMBULANCE SERVICE

A year or so ago a young village teacher was plodding laboriously through frost and snow to take up a post in a northern village. A violent blizzard overtook her, the cold stopped the circulation of her blood and her feet were frozen. She could only be saved by an immediate operation, but there was no surgeon in the vicinity, for the accident took place in outlying Karelia.

A lucky chance saved the teacher. A Soviet airplane was touring the district. Learning of the accident the flier dashed to the village and rushed the teacher to Leningrad where she was operated on and saved.

This dramatic incident has had far-reaching consequences. For one thing, it was made the subject of the Soviet sound film "Alone," one of the outstanding pictures of the year. But a more important result is the aerial ambulance service inaugurated by the Botkin hospital, one of the largest medical institutions in Moscow.

The hospital is building a landing ground with a radio station and a first aid station. The landing ground will be connected by telephone with all the counties of the Moscow district and with the nearby villages and factories. Two airplanes will be constantly on duty with pilots and doctors. The airplanes will be equipped with two stretchers and medical supplies. As soon as the news of some serious accident is received an airplane with a doctor will rush for the place of the accident, render first aid and if necessary, bring the patient to the Botkin hospital. This will be the first regular aerial ambulance station in the U.S.S.R.

SOVIET PLANS FOR ARCTIC STUDY

Plans for a complete hydro-meteorological survey of the Soviet Union during 1932 and 1933 and for Soviet participation in the international study of the Arctic regions which is to be made in 1932, were discussed at the meeting of the presidium of the Tsik (Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R.), held on November 13. Reports on these subjects were presented by Professor Vangenheim of the Hydro-Meteorological Committee and Professor Schmidt of the Arctic Institute.

The project for an international polar study, known as the "Second International Polar Year" has been organized in connection with the fiftieth anniversary of the first international polar year which was held in 1882. It will be far more, however, than a mere jubilee celebration and the carrying out of such a study on an international scale will be of immense importance in determining causes of climatic conditions throughout the entire territory of the Soviet Union, in determining maritime routes and new power resources of the Soviet north.

The participation of a large number of countries in the study is already assured. To the Soviet Union falls an especially responsible share of the work in view of the large extent of Soviet territory in the northern hemisphere.

The Tsik approved the plans presented, with special emphasis on the necessity for increased use of aviation in polar exploration work, and further exploration of the Soviet northeast.

NEW POLAR EXPEDITION

The All-Union Arctic Institute has worked out plans for a new polar expedition on the icebreaker "Rusanov."

The expedition will take the northeastern route from Archangelsk to Vladivostok. After leaving Archangelsk the expedition will pass by Northland and head for Novosibirsk Island, Wrangel Island, Chukotsky Peninsula and thence past Kamchatka to Vladivostok.

One of the main problems of the expedition will be that of provisioning the peoples inhabiting the northern borders of Siberia. Heretofore they have received provisions from Vladivostok through Wrangel Island and the mouth of the Yenesei River.

In the course of the passage of the icebreaker, hydrological, biological and meteorological studies of the little known regions of the Arctic will be carried on.

The expedition will be supplied with an airplane for the purpose of reconnoitering, making aerological observations and flights into regions hitherto unstudied.

RADIO STATION ON CAPE DESIRE

A new radio station on Cape Desire (the most northern point of Northern Land), started operation on October 6.

This station was erected by a special expedition managed by Utenkov, a young Soviet engineer. The equipment of the station was delivered last year from Archangel by the hydrographic steamer "Tamyr."

The station was erected under very difficult meteorological conditions, the builders sometimes working for weeks waist high in ice-cold water.

The new station is one of the most northern stations in the world and is of great scientific and practical importance, making it possible to secure regular information on meteorological conditions in the polar regions adjacent to Northern Land.

This station will play a particularly important role in the "International Polar Year" in 1932, when by agreement with a number of countries united scientific investigation of the Arctic region will be carried on.

ORDER OF LENIN BESTOWED ON SCIENTISTS

The commission on granting the "Order of Lenin" for outstanding achievement in scientific work, of which Prof. A. I. Schmidt is the chairman, has announced its awards for 1931, as follows:

Academician I. M. Gubkin, for his work on oil geology;

Professor L. I. Mandelshtam, for his work in physics and radio technique;

Professor A. M. Frumkin, for his work in chemistry;

Professor A. A. Ukhtomskom, for his work on the physiology of the nervous system;

Academician V. R. Williams, for his work in agriculture.

The Lenin award was established in 1926 by the Sovnarkom of the U.S.S.R. and is the highest award for scientific work. Five awards of 2,000 rubles each are bestowed each year on the recommendation of an expert commission which has been established under the Communist Academy, with representatives of the All-Union Academy of Science, the Ukrainian Academy of Science and other scientific institutions.

In previous years the Lenin award has been received by A. E. Obruchev, A. E. Chichibabin, N. I. Vavilov, A. Bach, V. P. Vorobiev, N. Y. Marr, A. Archangelsky, V. F. Mitkevich, N. S. Kurpakov, V. N. Ipatev, N. M. Tulaikov, A. V. Pisarjevsky, A. A. Chernyshev, and others.

STATE FARMS SUBDIVIDED

The special commission which was appointed to consider the question of breaking up the state grain farms into smaller units has completed its work and has created 39 new farms by subdividing the existing ones. About 5,000,000 acres of land which had been a part of the farms was discarded as not adapted to use in large scale mechanized agriculture because of its contour, the quality of the soil or distance from the railroad.

In place of the 1,040 units of land into which the state farms were formerly divided, 1,500 units have been organized. Previously the average area per state farm was over 200,000 acres. Now the average has been reduced to about 150,000, and the average size of the divisions 18,000 acres.

MOSCOW SUBWAY

Decrees passed some months ago in Moscow with regard to the construction of a subway for that city are now in the first stage of realization. A commission has recently been in Berlin examining traffic arrangements and train service as well as canalization, street lighting and other matters relating to municipal economy. It will give orders to German firms for the machinery and equipment necessary for subway construction in Moscow.

According to the decree relating to the subway, building operations are to start in the course of 1932. They will be directed by the engineer Rotert, formerly construction assistant at Dnieprostroy, in connection with a newly formed trust, "Metrostroy," to have special charge of matters relating to the construction of the subway.

It is planned to have five main lines running from the center of the city in different directions, making 45 miles of track. The first main line is scheduled to be opened in 1933, and the others, according to a rough estimate, in 1936. The total cost is estimated at 876,000,000 rubles.

REPORTS OF SOVIET SCIENTISTS

The papers presented by the delegates of the U.S.S.R. at the International Congress of the History of Science and Technology held in London from June 29 to July 3, 1931, have been reprinted in English in a book entitled "Science at the Cross Roads" published by Kniga (England) Ltd. of London. The subjects covered include political science, physics, technology, biology, agricultural science, electrical energy and mathematics. Nikolay Bukharin, member of the Soviet Academy of Sciences, A. F. Joffe, director of the Leningrad Physico-Technical Institute and N. I. Vavilov, head of the Lenin Agricultural Academy are among the contributors.

TRADE UNION MEETINGS

On December 13 the sixth plenary session of the All-Union Council of Trade Unions met to consider questions of control figures for 1932, collective agreements, improvement in the work of the cooperatives and the system of supplying the workers.

March 5, 1932 has been set for the date of the Ninth All-Union Congress of Trade Unions, to be preceded during January and February by local congresses.

AMERICAN ROAD EQUIPMENT

According to "Commerce Reports" of January 4, the Soviet Union was the second largest foreign market in 1930 for American road-making equipment, being surpassed only by Canada. In 1926 the Soviet Union stood eighth on the list of countries taking this type of equipment. During the increased nearly eight-fold. In 1926 the Soviet Union took 3.5 per cent of American exports in this category and in 1930 it took 14.1 per cent. The purchases for each of the five years:

1926	$59,224
1927	80,936
1928	371,413
1929	146,626
1930	459,316

Recent Magazine Articles on the Soviet Union

A list of the more important articles which have appeared since the November, 1931, issue of the SOVIET UNION REVIEW.

Americans in Soviet Russia

"Do Our Engineers in Russia Damage America?" by Walter Arnold Rukeyser. Scribner's, November, 1931.
Mr. Rukeyser sees a tremendous potential and future demand for American goods.

"Construction in Soviet Russia," by L. G. Khostovsky. The Constructor, December, 1931.
The head of the Technical Bureau of the Amtorg Trading Corporation writes of possibilities for American contractors to sell their services in the U.S.S.R.

Culture

"Soviet Literature," by Leon Dennen. New Masses, November, 1931.

"The Brain Worker in the U.S.S.R.," by William Henry Chamberlin. The New Republic, November 25, 1931.

"Bolshevik Dramatics," by Hubert Griffith. Theatre Arts Monthly, December, 1931.

"Camera Explorers of the New Russia," by Zelda Popkin. Travel, December, 1931.
"The Romance of the Moving Picture in Russia's Hinterlands"—with fine illustrations.

"A Mexican Film and Marxian Theory," by Serge Eisenstein. The New Republic, December 9, 1931.
A communication by the Soviet cinema director containing an excellent statement of the position of the Soviet artist.

"Cinderella in the Russian Palace," by Vera Edelstadt. Travel, January, 1932.
"How the Soviets utilize the treasures of Imperial days — transforming castles into sanitariums and schools—educating Russia's youth."

Economic Problems

"Russia and the World Crisis," by Louis Fischer. The Nation, November 25, 1931.
The gratification of consumption requirements as the dominant principle of the second Five-Year Plan.

"How Efficient Are the Russians?" by Walter Polakov in collaboration with Theodore Swanson. Harper's, December, 1931.
Mr. Polakov discusses Soviet methods of eliminating inefficiency as observed at first hand.

"Progress of Standardization in the Soviet Union," Commercial Standards Monthly, December, 1931.
Translation of a report of the Supreme Economic Council of the U.S.S.R. on standardization in industry for 1931.

Second Thoughts on the Five-Year Plan," by Alzada Comstock. Barron's Financial Weekly, January 11, 1932.
An interesting, but, in our view, entirely too pessimistic reconsideration of the Five-Year Plan.

"The Soviet's Influence on Foreign Trade," Standard Trade and Securities, December 9, 1931.
An analysis of economic conditions in the Soviet Union in relation to foreign trade, by Standard Statistics Co.

Labor

"Forced Labor in Russia," by Henry Raymond Mussey. The Nation, November 4, 1931.
Professor Mussey finds the Russians driven by an inner force to Herculean labors in construction.

"How Soviet Russia Abolished Unemployment," by William Henry Chamberlin, Asia, January, 1932.
Mr. Chamberlin described the surplus of jobs and vocational training projects in the U.S.S.R.

"Wages Go Up in Russia," by Louis Fischer. The Nation, Wednesday, January 6, 1932.

Nationalities

"The Revival of Nationalities in the Soviet Union," by Rudolf Broda, Antioch College. The American Journal of Sociology, July, 1931.

"Soviet Tadjikistan," by Joshua Kunitz. New Masses, November, 1931.
An account of a recent visit, with illustrations by Louis Lozowick.

"Soviet Russia Solves the Jewish Problem," by William Zuckerman. The Contemporary Review, London, December, 1931.

Science

"Science in Soviet Russia," by Hyman Rosen. The New Masses, November, 1931.

"Science Under Communism," by Benjamin Ginzburg. The New Republic, January 6, 1932.
A discussion of the relationship between Communist philosophy and action based on "Science at the Crossroads," papers by Soviet scientists.

Travelers' Impressions

"Glimpses of Soviet Russia," by Frank Jewett Mather, Jr. Atlantic Monthly, October, 1931.
A professor of art and archeology describes May Day in Moscow and a visit to Kiev.

"Russia in Hope," by Bruce Bliven. The New Republic, December 2, 1931.

"A Postcard from Moscow," by Bruce Bliven. The New Republic, December 9, 1931.
Bruce Bliven writes about schools, the Red Army, the press, the theater, stores and travel and diet.

"What G. B. S. Found in Red Russia," by Bernard Shaw. Hearst's International-Cosmopolitan, January, 1932.
A trip to the Soviet Union described as only Shaw could describe such a trip.

Various

"A Russian Bibliography," by Leon Dennen. Hound and Horn, October-December, 1931.
A survey and interpretation of recent books on the Soviet Union.

"Marvelous Brick Walls from the Days of Genghis Khan," by Alexis A. Zakharoff, Architect. Building Economy and the Modern Brickbuilder, December, 1931.
A profusely illustrated article based on material gathered by the Restoration Committee of the Soviet Government.

"Anti-Soviet Concentration in Paris," by Pierre Van Paasen. The Nation, December 2, 1931.
Activities of Russian émigrés in Paris.

"Religion and Love in Russia," by Bruce Bliven. The New Republic, December 23, 1931.
Notes on the status of the church, morals, marriage, birth control, etc.

"Russian Communism As a Religion," by S. K. Ratcliffe. Yale Review, Winter, 1932.
An interpretation of the driving force at work in the Soviet Union.

"Those Crazy Russians!" A Mental Hygiene Hunting Trip in the U.S.S.R., by Frankwood E. Williams, M. D. Survey Graphic, January, 1932.
The first of three articles written for the Survey Graphic by the distinguished American psychiatrist. "The whole organization of Soviet society is based on building up the mental health of its citizens."

"The Recognition of Russia," by Edwin D. Dickinson, Michigan Law Review, December, 1931.
An article on the recognition of Russia presented to the Senate by Mr. William E. Borah and reprinted by the U. S. Government Printing Office.

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Litvinov's Speech at Geneva

Address of M. M. Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, made on behalf of the Soviet Delegation to the World Disarmament Conference at Geneva on February 11, 1932.

OUR President and previous speakers have told us that this conference has no precedent, and no one will disagree with this. The conference is without precedent, not only on account of the number of states represented, but also—and principally—on account of the vast demands made upon it by humanity, and the enormous importance of its outcome, whatever this may be.

This conferencee meets as the result of long—we think too long—preliminary work. But this preliminary stage is now over. The present conference is face to face with the problem of disarmament, which demands a practical solution without further delays or temporizing, without digression for the study of continually arising preliminary conditions.

The foundations of this conference were laid during the Great War, also an event without precedent, both as to scope and consequences. For the first time in history the peoples were drawn in their millions into the battle field; indeed, in some countries almost the whole male population was mobilized, and the correlation of class forces and social-political factors was very different from that in former wars.

In the very thick of the war the voice of protest against war made itself heard and the cry "war on war" was raised. The war itself could only be kept going, and millions of victims engulfed, by calling it "the last war."

And yet the whole history of international relations since this so-called "last war" has been marked by a steady and systematic increase in the armed forces of all states and by a colossal increase in the burden of militarism.

The creation of the League of Nations itself and the 8th article of its Covenant already referred to by several speakers, were nothing but faint tribute to popular demands for the fulfillment of the promises given by their governments that the Great War should indeed be the "last war," to the demands of the masses of the work-

ers, grown more enlightened and beginning to take a direct part in political life. In the years following the war — years of universal impoverishment, of the healing of wounds, both on the part of the defeated and the victorious—the popular clamor for the abolition of war has increased, and cannot, in the opinion of the Soviet Delegation, be satisfied by the stabilization or slight reduction of armaments or war budgets. What is required is to find a way for putting an end to war.

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 cooperation 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 realization 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 organizations 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 "security" 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.

Only a few years have passed since this controversy and what do we see now? The Disarmament Conference had to begin to the accompaniment of the distant rumbling of cannon and the explosions of bombs from the air. Two states, mutually bound by the League of Nations' Covenant, and the Paris Treaty of 1928, have been in a state of war, de facto if not de jure, for five months. No war may as yet have been registered with a notary public, but vast territories in one of these countries have been occupied by the armed forces of the other, and battles in which all sorts of armaments are being employed and thousands are being killed and wounded, are being waged between the regular troops of both countries.

True, all this is going on far away from Geneva, far away from Europe, but who is so optimistic as to assert in good faith that the military activities which have begun will be limited to two countries only or to one continent only? Who is so optimistic as to assure us confidently that the events in the Far East are not the beginning of a new war, which in extent, scope and—thanks to the latest technical inventions—horror, may eclipse the sinister fame of the last war? Continents are no longer economically and politically isolated. There are countries belonging to more than one continent. There are not many neighbors in Europe without serious territorial accounts to settle. The extent of disputed frontiers is greater now than it was before the war. Can we be sure that these differences will not be thrown into the melting pot, if a single one of the European states should be dragged into war? Granted that all this may not happen, that the fire in the Far East may be kept within local bounds, even then can we be sure that similar fires will not break out in other parts of the world? What is to prevent this? International organizations and pacts? But we have seen that they are incapable of either preventing or ending military activities in the Far East, with all the consequences of these activities. Public opinion? It is still more impotent. And after all what is public opinion? Has it ever been unanimous anywhere, or served a single purpose? Public opinion, as expressed in the press or through public bodies, serves various interests, the multiple interests of various countries and of capitalist groups, of private enterprise and even of individuals in these countries. Have not the acts of violence going on under our very eyes in the Far East their advocates and instigators in the press, even the press of countries not immediately concerned? Have we not read quite lately articles in both European and American papers, urging the necessity and efficacy of the extension of the war in the Far East and actually suggesting that war would be a way out of the crisis, of that very crisis the acuteness of which must be ascribed to the late war and its consequences?

Nor can the limitation of armaments be expected to prevent the arising of fresh wars. At the present moment all states are sufficiently supplied with armaments — and armaments sharp enough and destructive enough — to conduct a

war, in comparison with which the Great War would appear mere child's play. The reduction of armaments is equally incapable of guaranteeing us against any war, especially if such reduction is not very radical and is not carried out with the conscious purpose of placing obstacles in the way of war.

The Soviet Delegation, basing its attitude upon the needs of the present moment, and the demands of the popular masses, those demands which necessitated all the preliminary work of the Conference and which called the Conference itself into being, would sum up the problem before us in the words: "Security against war." It is this that distinguishes our conception of security from the conception of other delegations, many of whom, when they speak of security, mean the assuring of the utmost possible chances of victory to a state subjected to attack. The Soviet Delegation considers that we must endeavor to make war itself impossible since it is the people who suffer, both in the victorious and defeated countries, and moreover, as the last war has shown us, the people in all countries. The Soviet Delegation appraises from this standpoint all proposals made to the Preparatory Commission or to be made to this Conference, including the French proposals, which are worthy of more than a mere passing allusion. It is, indeed, as a mark of respect that I respond to the invitation of the French Delegation, to criticize and discuss its proposal.

First and foremost it must be stated that from the point of view of the reduction of armaments the French proposals scarcely bring us nearer to our aim, inasmuch as they are preliminary conditions requiring to be accepted before any sort of reduction of armaments is to be made on the part of France. The discussion of these conditions would actually convert this Conference into a preparatory conference for a future disarmament conference, requiring perhaps no less time than did the Preparatory Commission. It must be remembered that these proposals represent the further development and materialization of what is known as the Geneva Protocol, which has been before the League of Nations for seven years, provoking wide controversy and so far unaccepted. We have no grounds to assume that the same protocol, pushed to its logical conclusion, will meet with greater unanimity than before. It would become a question of the creation of a new international organization with considerable powers, and consequently of the creation of a new covenant, with regulations for the disposition of an international army, for the definition of aggression; a host of problems fruitlessly debated for ten years in the League of Nations, with the addition of new and still more complicated ones, would spring up. Even now, as far as I know, there is no precise interpretation recognized by all members of the League, of the 16th and other articles of the Covenant, and the rules for their application passed in 1921. To spend time over these questions in the present acute state of political and economic international antagonisms would mean, as far as disarmament is concerned, to put the clock back years if not decades.

The French proposals, however, as I have already said, interest us most of all from the point of view of their capacity to create security against war, and I should like to dwell upon this question in somewhat more detail.

What then is the gist of the proposals of the French Delegation? It is proposed to create a new army, to consist of a certain number of military bomb-carriers, scattered over various countries or concentrated in a single place, and a certain number of troops reserved in various countries for special purposes. In other words, an army of, say, a few hundred thousand men, is to be adequately equipped, for the purpose of joining the forces of a state recognized to have been the victim of attack. A state which intends to attack another will have in advance to reckon not only with the forces of its immediate enemy but also with those of an army, so to speak, allied to it. Does this imply that the aggressive party will inevitably refrain from attack? Have we not had experience enough of allies and allied armies, and have they ever been the slightest guarantee against war? Many a state in the past, when preparing for war, has had to reckon in advance that it would be up against more than one state, and this consideration has not invariably prevented it from carrying out its warlike intentions. Either it has provided itself with allies, or made its program of armaments to outweigh all possible forces of the enemy side. All that an aggressive state would have to do then would be to take into consideration the forces of the international army also, in laying its plans.

Again, it is obvious that such an international army is not likely to be very big. We cannot assume that even more states which are adjacent to the theatre of war will be able or willing (except in very special cases) to send large forces to take part in a war not directly concerning them, especially when they themselves have accounts to settle with the state they are called upon to assist. Supposing then that a strong state, capable in time of war of mustering an army running into millions, attacks a state many times weaker than itself! It is quite obvious that a few hundred thousand more soldiers on the side of the weaker state would not be a decisive factor, and therefore such an international army, far from preventing war, could not even always ensure the victory to the side attacked.

And this is not all. What guarantees would there be that such an international army would be put into operation, and that in good time, be-

fore the weaker party to a conflict was crushed? What guarantees would there be that the aggressor would really be found and found in the right place? These questions are by no means idle, by no means theoretical, but have been suggested by well known facts of international life very present in the minds of us all. Supposing an armed conflict is going on somewhere, whether it has the official stamp of war or not. First of all it must be established who is the aggressor and who the victim, and whether there has been an infringement of international treaties and undertakings binding upon both parties. In most cases this is by no means a complicated matter. The unsophisticated man in the street would have little difficulty in giving an answer to these questions and no doubt his answer would be the right one. But when it is international organizations and individual governments who have to give the answer they are not always ready with it, and are reduced to issuing appeals, exhortations and threats simultaneously to both sides. I merely use this supposition for the sake of argument. But now I would ask—should such a conflict arise in the future what guarantees would there be that the existing or some new international organization, at whose disposal the international army would be, would be able or desirous to establish which is the guilty side? After all, it can hardly bombard both sides simultaneously, so as to make sure of hitting the aggressor! What, I ask, are the guarantees that a new international organization, or the existing one with increased actual power, will really be able or willing to use such power for the defense of the weaker, for the protection of the attacked against the attacker?

National egoism has been mentioned here as an obstacle to international action. Apparently this egoism shows itself not only in the decisions of individual governments, but finds its way into the proposals and decisions of the representatives of these governments at international organizations, paralyzing their action or giving it an undesirable turn. If such cases have occurred in the past, what is to prevent them from occurring again? More, what are the guarantees that, since this egoism admittedly exists, an international army would not be exploited in the interests of some state which has won for itself a leading position in the international organization through separate alliances, ententes and agreements? There is not a word about the prohibition of such alliances in the French proposals.

I shall be told that the stronger and more actual the means of pressure at the disposal of an international organization, the more resolutely will it act. I venture to doubt this. If states represented in such an organization, either from fear of upsetting their relations with the aggressor, or from other egoistic nationalist considerations, cannot always agree to the use of even feeble means of pressure for the aversion and ending of conflicts, how much more are they likely to hesitate before applying such a powerful weapon as the dispatch of their own armies. This being so, is it to be expected that states will be sufficiently imbued with the necessary confidence in an international organization and in its impartiality, to entrust their security to it, and place their own national troops at its disposal?

The question of an international army arose and was discussed, if I am not mistaken, thirteen years ago, when the Covenant of the League of Nations was being drawn up, and it was then decided in the negative. And at that time there was much more faith in international organizations than now. As for international differences and national egoism, surely these have not been diminished during the last thirteen years! A glance over events in the sphere of international economic relations will suffice to convince us of this.

I pass over the question of the extent to which the Soviet Union could be expected to confide its security and a part of its own armies to an international organization consisting largely of states openly hostile to it, even to the extent of refusing to maintain normal relations with it. The workers and peasants of the Soviet Union are more likely to see in an international army created under such conditions, a threat to their country.

I feel bound, therefore, to state frankly that as far as security against war, and therefore, security of states are concerned, the French proposals arouse grave doubts in our minds. The Soviet Delegation is thereby only strengthened in its conviction that the only infallible way to the solution of the problem of the organization of peace, the problem of the averting of war, the problem of assuring security to all nations, is the way recommended by it, the way of general and total disarmament.

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 cooperation by taking part in a series of international congresses and organizations and by the proposals which it has brought before them.

Nor do we underrate the importance of international treaties and undertakings for peace. My government adhered to the 1928 Paris Treaty at the time and even put it into force with neighboring states earlier than 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 Commission for the Disarmament Conference a draft convention for total disarmament, to be realized 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.

The idea of total universal disarmament is distinguished from all other plans by its simplicity and by the ease with which it could be carried out and with which its realization could be controlled. A plan for total disarmament would eliminate all those difficult and thorny questions which made the work of the Preparatory Commission so long drawn out, condemned to sterility the innumerable international conferences of the last few years held in various capitals on the question of disarmament, and gave rise to those gloomy forecasts with which this Conference has been met. Identical security and equality of conditions for all countries could only be arrived at by means of total disarmament. As regards control it is sufficiently obvious that it would be much easier to find a state out when making tanks, cannon, machine-guns, bombing-planes, in spite of an international undertaking, than if it were only increasing its output of these weapons above the percentage internationally established. It would be easier to find a state out when training its population in the use of machine-guns and bomb-throwing, in the face of international prohibition, than if it were merely increasing its army above the percentage laid down.

I must, however, once again emphasize the fact that the Soviet Delegation has by no means come here merely to put before you yet another time its proposal for total and general disarmament, or to declare that we are determined to have all or nothing, complete disarmament or none at all. We have no illusions whatsoever as to the fate in store for our proposition. Our Delegation, ladies and gentlemen, is ready to discuss with you any proposals tending to reduce armaments, and the further such reduction goes, the more readily will the Soviet Delegation take part in the work of the Conference. Considering the draft convention drawn up by the Preparatory Commission altogether inadequate, the Soviet Delegation will advocate here its own draft for the reduction of armaments, which, however, it regards merely as the first step towards total disarmament.

I would remind the Conference that the Soviet Delegation was the first to propose, in its second draft convention put before the Preparatory Commission, the complete destruction of the most aggressive types of armaments, including:

1. Tanks and super-heavy long-range artillery;
2. Ships of upwards of 10,000 tons displacement;
3. Naval artillery of over 12-inch calibre;
4. Aircraft carriers;
5. Military dirigibles;
6. Heavy bombing-planes, all stocks of air bombs and any other means of destruction for use from airplanes;
7. All means and apparatus for chemical, incendiary and bacteriological warfare.

The Soviet Delegation proposed the complete prohibition of air bombing, and not only beyond the limits of a definite area. It also proposed not merely to refrain from chemical warfare, but actually from preparing for it in time of peace.

All these proposals remain in full force for the present Conference.

The Soviet Delegation will recommend the progressive proportional method as the most impartial and equitable method for the reduction of armaments, allowing for facilities and exceptions in favor of weaker countries, in danger of aggression. It will warmly support any proposals approaching or outstripping its own. It will support the equal rights of all participants in the Conference, and equal security for all states.

The country I represent is in a less favorable position as regards security than other countries. Only fourteen years ago, it was the object of armed attack on all its frontiers, of blockade and of political and economic boycott. For fourteen 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 mobilizing 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.

Here I feel bound to express once more that no measures for the reduction of armaments can meet the pressing needs of the present times.

The political and economic differences existing between various states which 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 arousing 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 realization 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 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 feel this assurance only if other states also agree to give up their armed forces.

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 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 organizing 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. This idea is by no means utopian in itself, but it can be made utopian by its rejection by the other states represented here.

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.

Soviet Non-Aggression Pacts

IN pursuance of its policy of maintaining peaceful relations with the rest of the world, the Soviet Union has recently been negotiating non-aggression pacts with neighboring countries. The negotiations with Finland resulted in the signing of a Finnish-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact at Helsingfors on January 21. A similar pact between Poland and the U.S.S.R. was initialed in Moscow on January 25, and on February 5 a Soviet-Latvian non-aggression pact was signed. Negotiations are being carried on with Esthonia and Rumania.

On December 21, Mr. Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, suggested the conclusion of such a pact to the Japanese Foreign Minister, Yoshizawa, on his passage through Moscow. No official response to the proposal has been received from the Japanese. Negotiations for a non-aggression pact with France have been under way since last summer.

The Soviet Government has from the beginning of its existence sought to reach agreements with all countries which would exclude the possibility of attacks and assure neutrality in case of armed conflicts with third parties. The first of these was the treaty of non-aggression and neutrality concluded with Turkey in 1925. In 1926 such treaties were signed with Germany, Afghanistan and Lithuania, and in 1927 with Persia. These pacts are for five-year periods and have been renewed in each case on the expiration of the first five years.

LITVINOV ON NON-AGGRESSION PACTS

In an interview on January 25 with Tass, before his departure for the disarmament conference at Geneva, Mr. Litvinov made the following statement regarding the status of Soviet negotiations with western countries on the conclusion of non-aggression pacts:

"The contents of the pacts proposed by the Soviet government are very simple and consist in undertaking obligations not to enter upon aggressive action and to eliminate so far as possible causes which might lead to infringement of the peaceful relations existing between the governments concluding such treaties. If, in negotiating such pacts, the contracting parties are really animated by the desire to strengthen peaceful relations and pursue no indirect aims, then it is possible to complete the negotiations very rapidly. This is exemplified by the negotiations with Finland which were satisfactorily concluded by the signing of a pact within two weeks.

"Negotiations with Poland were commenced a few weeks earlier than with Finland, and have resulted today in the initialing of the non-aggression pact published in the press.

"Negotiations with Latvia* are proceeding slowly and negotiations with Esthonia were opened only a few days ago. After the signing of the pact with Finland and the initialing of the pact with Poland the conclusion of pacts with Esthonia and Latvia should not present any special difficulties. Negotiations with Esthonia and Latvia should be further simplified by the circumstance that mutual neutrality is already provided for in the existing peace treaties with them, and that therefore no repetition of that obligation is necessary.

"The draft pact with Rumania has also been practically agreed upon. Both parties have agreed to negotiate and have found it necessary to set aside the unsettled Bessarabian question. It is quite evident that when no official relations exist between two states and they have serious territorial and other disputes, a bilateral pact between them cannot be concluded without mentioning that these questions shall not be touched upon and are set aside.

"We fully understand that inasmuch as Rumania virtually occupies Bessarabia, she would wish to forget the existing dispute and to interpret failure to mention it as our silent consent to the occupation. We cannot agree to that. Rumania, however, goes considerably further and seeks a formulation of the point on non-aggression from which would follow our recognition either of Rumanian sovereignty in Bessarabia or of the Dniester River as the Bessarabian frontier. We cannot agree to that, either. It must be stated quite clearly that both sides have maintained their positions on this disputed question and that the conclusion of the pact in no way interferes with those positions. The aim of the pact is to eliminate the possibility of aggression by either party against the other, and this aim is achieved in the first article of the pact which has already been agreed upon as follows:

" 'Both contracting parties, declaring that they have renounced war as an instrument of national policy in their mutual relations, undertake mutually to refrain from any attack by land, sea or air against each other, either separately or jointly with other powers.'

"Furthermore, the Soviet side has agreed to add to this article a second paragraph to the effect that any attempts whatsoever to settle territorial or other disputes existing between the two coun-

*The pact with Latvia has since been signed.

tries by violent means, will be considered a violation of the pact.

"The Soviet government has given sufficient evidence of its good will and of its sincere desire to conclude non-aggression pacts. The rest, however, depends on the good will of others."

FINNISH-SOVIET PACT

An editorial on the signing of the Soviet-Finnish non-aggression pact in the Moscow *Izvestia* of January 24 said in part as follows:

"In the present international situation the task of struggling to preserve universal peace, to maintain peaceful conditions for the building of socialism in the U.S.S.R. has been and remains the most important problem in the international policy of the Soviet government. The struggle for peace runs like a red thread through all our international actions. The Soviet government takes advantage of every opportunity for the strengthening of peace. The entire position of the Soviet government in connection with the Manchurian conflict and all its statements have been motivated by concern for the maintenance of peace. This was most clearly expressed in the proposal to conclude a non-aggression pact made by Litvinov to the Japanese Foreign Minister, Yoshizawa, on the latter's passage through Moscow.

"It was quite natural that the Soviet government should have readily accepted all proposals for renewing negotiations on the conclusion of non-aggression pact which have been made on the part of France, Poland, Rumania, Latvia, Finland and Esthonia. Molotov, chairman of the Sovnarkom of the U.S.S.R., in his report at the second session of the TSIK of the Union, stated very clearly that the Soviet Union, which has no desire to attack anyone whatsoever, was ready to conclude non-aggression pacts with all its neighbors, with all capitalist countries. The idea underlying these non-aggression pacts is one of the fundamental tenets of the peace policy of the U.S.S.R. and its realization in its relations with any other country would be welcomed by the Soviet government.

"The negotiations on non-aggression pacts which the Soviet government has recently been carrying on are as a matter of fact a continuation of negotiations held previously on the initiative of the Soviet government. The U.S.S.R. has repeatedly proposed the conclusion of non-aggression pacts to its neighbors, and also to France. Such a proposal was made by the U.S.S.R. to the neighboring countries in 1923 and again in 1926. The negotiations carried on at that time led to no results, through no fault of the U.S.S.R. The negotiations were broken off at that time because the U.S.S.R. was presented with a lot of conditions which had no relation whatever to the actual treaties, and also because in the course of the negotiations a tendency was revealed on the part of some countries to strike out from the draft treaties proposed by the Soviet government as many as possible of the obligations toward the maintenance of peace, thus entirely emasculating these treaties and stripping them of their most important contents. Nor can we fail to note that similar tendencies are appearing in the course of the present negotiations, which inevitably means the dragging out of these negotiations. The entire course of the negotiations of 1923 and 1926-27 showed that only the Soviet government sincerely desired to conclude non-aggression pacts.

"The Soviet negotiations with Finland have led to the signing, on January 21, of a non-aggression pact. The pact is unquestionably an important step in the direction of strengthening general peace and improving Soviet-Finnish relations. The circumstance that the Finnish government has been the first to conclude a non-aggression pact with the U.S.S.R. bears evidence to Finland's desire to manifest independence in her foreign policy. This treaty concluded with Finland, with whom comparatively recently unfortunate disputes have taken place as a result of the provocative activities of certain anti-Soviet circles in Finland, gives rise to the hope that in the leading circles of Finland a change has actually taken place, and that these circles have recognized how senseless it is to aggravate the relations with the U.S.S.R. which desires to live in peace and friendship with all peoples, including the people of Finland.

"The Soviet Union for its part was especially eager to conclude this treaty with Finland. The Soviet government has the greatest respect for the efforts of the Finnish people to strengthen their national independence. The workers and peasants of the U.S.S.R. are well aware that to the Finnish people, freed by the October revolution from the yoke of Russian Tsarism and imperialism, national independence is especially dear. The Soviet government is fully cognizant of this in its policy with regard to Finland and therefore especially emphasizes its desire for peace and friendship with the Finnish people and its desire to respect fully its national independence. Soviet public opinion therefore welcomes the conclusion of a non-aggression pact with Finland and expresses its conviction that it presages also the strengthening of economic and cultural relations between the two countries.

"The conclusion of the Soviet-Finnish non-aggression pact undoubtedly will also be of importance in the interests of general peace. In the period when the tendency toward a new war is manifesting itself increasingly in capitalist circles, this treaty is a demonstration of the strong will exerted by the Soviet Union in the

struggle against the dangers of new wars and to insure peace.

"In welcoming this new non-aggression treaty, the workers and peasants of the U.S.S.R. can not, however, forget how limited in the final analysis is the significance of all peace treaties. Therefore the signing of this treaty must not in any degree slacken the vigilance of the workers and peasants of the U.S.S.R. nor their readiness to resist any attack, from whatever quarter, against the Soviet country, occupied as it is with problems of peaceful construction of socialism."

The text of the Finnish-Soviet non-aggression pact signed on January 21 by representatives of Finland and the U.S.S.R. at Helsingfors, follows:

TREATY ON NON-AGGRESSION AND PEACEFUL REGULATION OF DISPUTES CONCLUDED BETWEEN THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS AND FINLAND

The Central Executive Committee of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on one side, and the President of the Republic of Finland on the other, animated by the desire to assist in the maintenance of universal peace and convinced that the establishment of the obligations mentioned below and the peaceful regulation of every possible dispute between the U.S.S.R. and the Republic of Finland, is in accord with the interests of the two High Contracting Parties and will facilitate the development of friendly and good-neighborly relations between the two countries, affirming that not one of the international obligations previously undertaken by them interferes with the peaceful development of their mutual relations nor contradicts the present treaty, and imbued with the desire to confirm and supplement the general pact for the renunciation of war of August 27, 1928, have decided to conclude the present treaty and have for this purpose appointed:

The Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R.—Mr. Ivan Maisky, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

The President of the Republic of Finland—M. Baron A. S. Yroje-Koskinen, Minister for Foreign Affairs.

These Plenipotentiaries, upon an exchange of their credentials found in good and proper form, agreed upon the following provisions:

Article One

1. The High Contracting Parties mutually guarantee the inviolability of the frontiers existing between the U.S.S.R. and the Republic of Finland and established by the Treaty of Peace concluded in Dorpat on October 14, 1920, which treaty remains the unshakable basis of their relations, and undertake the mutual obligation to refrain from any act of aggression against each other.

2. Any act of violence infringing the integrity and inviolability of the territory, or directed against the political independence of the other High Contracting Party, will be regarded as an aggression even should the said act be carried out without a declaration of war and any evident manifestation thereof.

Protocol to Article One

In accordance with the provisions of article four of this treaty the agreement of June 1, 1922 relating to measures securing the inviolability of the frontiers, is not affected by the provisions of this treaty and continues to remain in full force.

Article Two

1. Should one of the High Contracting Parties be subjected to aggression by one or several third powers, the other High Contracting Party undertakes to maintain neutrality throughout the duration of the conflict.

2. Should one of the High Contracting Parties attack a third power, the other High Contracting Party will be entitled to denounce the present treaty without previous notice.

Article Three

Each of the High Contracting Parties undertakes to refrain from participation in any treaty, agreement or convention hostile to the other Party and contradicting the present treaty in form or essence.

Article Four

The obligations mentioned in the preceding articles of the present treaty can by no means violate or modify the rights and international obligations resulting to the High Contracting Parties from treaties concluded or obligations undertaken prior to the entry into effect of the present treaty, in so far as they do not contain elements of aggression in the sense of the present treaty.

Article Five

The High Contracting Parties declare that they will always seek to solve in the spirit of justice all conflicts, of whatever character or origin, which may arise between them, and that in the regulation of these conflicts they will resort exclusively to peaceful means. For this purpose the High Contracting Parties undertake to submit all differences which may arise between them after the signing of the present treaty and which may not be regulated through normal diplomatic procedure, within a reasonable period, to conciliation procedure in a mixed conciliation commission, whose powers, composition and order of procedure will be fixed in a special supplementary convention which will constitute an integral part of the present treaty and which the High Contracting Parties undertake to conclude as soon as possible and, in any event, prior to the ratification of the present treaty.

The conciliation procedure will be applied also in cases when the conflict affects the application or interpretation of any convention concluded between the High Contracting Parties, including the question of whether any mutual non-aggression obligation has been violated.

Article Six

The present treaty is subject to ratification and the ratification instruments are to be exchanged in Moscow.

Article Seven

The present treaty enters into force from the moment of the exchange of ratification instruments.

Article Eight

The present treaty is concluded for three years. Unless denounced by one of the High Contracting Parties, of which previous notice must be given at least six months prior to the expiration of this period, the treaty will be considered automatically prolonged for another period of two years.

Article Nine

The present treaty is made out in two copies, in French, in the city of Helsingfors, on January 21, 1932.

In confirmation of which the plenipotentiaries signed the present treaty and attached thereto their seals.

I. MAISKY.
A. S. YROJE-KOSKINEN.

PROTOCOL OF THE SIGNING OF THE TREATY

1. At the moment of the signing of the treaty on non-aggression and peaceful regulation of conflicts, concluded between the U.S.S.R. and the Republic of Finland, dated to-day, the High Contracting Parties undertake to take the necessary measures with a view to its ratification in the shortest possible period and to exchange ratification instruments within 30 days of the ratification of the treaty by the competent organs of the U.S.S.R. and of the Republic of Finland.

2. The High Contracting Parties declare that any denunciations which might take place before the appointed time or the normal expiration of the present treaty can not either destroy or limit the obligations resulting from the pact for the renunciation of war signed in Paris on August 27, 1928.

Helsingfors, January 21, 1932.
I. MAISKY.
A. S. YROJE-KOSKINEN.

POLISH-SOVIET NON-AGGRESSION PACT

A Polish-Soviet non-aggression pact was paraphed in Moscow on January 25, 1932, by Mr. Litvinov, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, and Mr. Patek, Polish Envoy to Moscow. The text of the pact follows:

PACT OF NON-AGGRESSION BETWEEN THE U.S.S.R. AND THE POLISH REPUBLIC

The Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. on the one side and the President of the Polish Republic on the other, prompted by the desire to maintain the peace existing between their countries and convinced that the maintenance of peace between them is an important factor in the maintenance of universal peace, recognizing that the Treaty of Peace of March 18, 1921, remains the basis of their mutual relations and obligations, convinced that a peaceful settlement of international disputes and the elimination of everything opposed to the normal condition of relations between states is the most correct means of achieving the objective, and declaring that not one of the obligations previously undertaken by each party interferes with the peaceful development of their mutual relations nor contradicts the present treaty, have decided to conclude the present treaty with the object of developing and supplementing the treaty which was signed in Paris on August 27, 1928, and entered into force on the strength of the protocol signed in Moscow on February 9, 1929, and have appointed for this purpose their plenipotentiaries, to wit:—

Who upon exchange of their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following provisions:

Article One

Both Contracting Parties, stating that they have renounced war as an instrument of national policy in their mutual relations, undertake mutually to refrain from any aggressive acts or from attack against each other, either separately or jointly with other powers.

Any act of violation infringing the integrity and inviolability of the territory or the political independence of the other Contracting Party will be regarded as an act contradicting the obligations of the present article, even should the said act be carried out without a declaration of war or any evident manifestation thereof.

Article Two

Should one of the Contracting Parties be subjected to aggression from a third state or group of states the other Contracting Party undertakes not to render directly or indirectly any help or assistance to the attacking state during the entire conflict.

Should one of the Contracting Parties undertake an aggressive act against a third state the other party will be entitled to denounce the present treaty without previous notice.

Article Three

Each of the Contracting Parties undertakes to refrain from participation in any agreements manifestly hostile towards the other party from the viewpoint of aggression.

Article Four

Obligations mentioned in articles one and two of the present treaty can by no means restrict or modify the international rights and obligations resulting to both Contracting Parties from the agreements concluded by them prior to entering into effect of the present treaty, in so far as these agreements contain no elements of aggression.

Article Five

Both Contracting Parties, striving to regulate and settle by peaceful means only all disputes and conflicts, irrespective of their nature or origin, which may arise between them, undertake to submit disputable questions with regard to which an agreement could not be reached through diplomatic procedure in a proper period of time, to conciliation procedure, in accordance with the decisions of the convention on application of conciliation procedure, which convention constitutes an integral part of the present treaty and shall be signed separately and ratified as soon as possible together with the Treaty of Non-Aggression.

Article Six

The present treaty will be ratified as soon as possible and the ratification instruments will be exchanged in Warsaw within thirty days from the date of ratification between the U.S.S.R. and Poland, after which the treaty will enter into effect.

Article Seven

The treaty will be concluded for a period of three years and should one of the Contracting Parties not denounce it six months prior to the expiration of the term, the treaty will be considered automatically prolonged for another period of two years.

Article Eight

The present treaty is drawn up in the Russian and Polish languages and both texts will be considered authentic.

PROTOCOL OF SIGNING NO. 1

The High Contracting Parties declare that article seven of the Treaty of . . . cannot be interpreted in the sense that the expiration of the term or denunciation prior to the expiration of the term according to article seven could result in limitation or deviation from the fulfillment of the obligations resulting from the Paris Treaty of 1928.

PROTOCOL OF SIGNING NO. 2

Signing on this date the Pact of Non-Aggression, both Parties, having exchanged views regarding the project on the Conciliation Convention submitted by the Soviet Party, express their conviction that no essential disagreement exists between the two Parties.

LATVIAN-SOVIET NON-AGGRESSION PACT

On February 5 a non-aggression pact was signed at Riga between the U.S.S.R. and Latvia. The text of the pact follows:

The Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. on the one side and the President of the Latvian Republic on the other, on the basis of the Peace Treaty concluded on August 11, 1920, between the R.S.F.S.R. and Latvia, which is in effect throughout the entire territory of the U.S.S.R. and all the provisions of which remain the unchanging and forever unshakable foundation of the relations between the High Contracting Parties;

Being convinced of the fact that it will be in the interests of both High Contracting Parties to adopt certain provisions which may aid in the development and strengthening of friendly relations between both governments; having firmly decided mutually and steadfastly to respect the sovereignty, political independence and territorial integrity and inviolability of each other; prompted by the desire to assist in strengthening the cause of universal peace; declaring that none of the obligations undertaken by either side prior to the present time will hinder the peaceful development of their mutual relations or contradict the present treaty; desiring to confirm and supplement in their relations the general pact on the renunciation of war of August 27, 1928, which, irrespective of the period of action, normal expiration or possible denunciation of the present treaty previous to its expiration, will continue as before in effect between the High Contracting Parties;

Have decided to conclude the present treaty and have to this end designated their plenipotenitaries, to wit:

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics: Boris Spiridonovich Stomoniakov, member of the Collegium of the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs, and

Alexey Ivanovich Svidersky, Plenipotentiary Representative of the U.S.S.R.

The President of the Latvian Republic: Marger Skuenek, Minister-President, temporarily fulfilling the duties of Minister for Foreign Affairs.

These plenipotentiaries upon exchange of their full powers, found in good and proper order, have agreed upon the following:

Article One

The High Contracting Parties mutually undertake to refrain from any act of aggression by one against the other, and also from any violent actions directed against the integrity or inviolability of the territory or against the political independence of the other High Contracting Party, irrespective of whether such an attack or action is undertaken separately or jointly with other powers, with or without a declaration of war.

Article Two

Each of the High Contracting Parties undertakes to refrain from participation in any military or political treaties, conventions or agreements directed against the independence, territorial inviolability or political security of the other side, or in treaties, conventions or agreements having the aim of subjecting one of the Contracting Parties to an economic or financial boycott.

Article Three

The obligations provided for in the present treaty, can in no way restrict or alter the international rights and obligations accruing to the High Contracting Parties from treaties concluded by them before the entry into effect of the present treaty and duly published in the official publications of each side, in so far as these treaties do not contain elements of aggression in the sense of the present treaty.

Article Four

Taking into consideration the obligations undertaken in the present treaty, the High Contracting Parties undertake to submit all disputed questions, irrespective of their nature or origin, which may arise between them after the signing of the present treaty and which could not be regulated within a reasonable period of time through ordinary diplomatic procedure, to conciliation procedure in a mixed conciliation commission, the composition, rights and duties of which are to be established by a special convention which both sides undertake to conclude within as short a period as possible, and which will enter into force simultaneously with the present treaty.

Article Five

The present treaty is drawn up in two copies, in the Russian and Latvian languages, both texts having equal force.

Article Six

The present treaty enters into effect from the moment of the exchange of ratification instruments and will remain in force for a period of three years from that time. Each of the High Contracting Parties will have the right to renounce the treaty if notice to this effect is given six months prior to the expiration of this period, or without six months notice if the other Contracting Party should make an attack on any third country. If the treaty is not denounced by one of the Contracting Parties, its period of action will be automatically prolonged for two years. Similarly the treaty will continue to be prolonged for further two year periods as long as neither of the Contracting Parties renounces it according to the procedure provided in the present article.

In witness whereof the above-named plenipotentiaries have signed the present treaty and affixed thereto their seals.

Done in the city of Riga, February 5, 1932, in two copies in the Russian and Latvian languages.

B. STOMONIAKOV,
A. SVIDERSKY,
MARGER SKUENEK.

PROTOCOL OF SIGNING

In signing on this date the treaty concluded in Riga, February 5, 1932, between the U.S.S.R. and Latvia, the plenipotentiaries of the U.S.S.R. and Latvia, on the instructions of their governments, declare that their governments undertake to carry out the necessary measures for ratification and the exchange of ratification instruments within the shortest possible period.

Done in the city of Riga, in two copies, in the Russian and Latvian languages, February 5, 1932.

B. STOMONIAKOV,
A. SVIDERSKY,
MARGER SKUENEK.

Denial of False Rumors

The Moscow *Izvestia* of February 14 printed the following statement from Tass:

"On the basis of information received from authoritative sources Tass is able to state that the rumors regarding a secret agreement between Japan and the U.S.S.R. with regard to Manchuria or any other question, do not correspond with the facts and are obviously the result of a misunderstanding. It is possible that these fabricated rumors refer to the proposal of the U.S.S.R. regarding a non-aggression pact. But we are informed by persons in authority that up to this time no answer has yet been received to the proposal of the Soviet government with regard to the conclusion of a non-aggression pact which was made by Litvinov to Yoshizawa."

The U.S.S.R. and the International Anti-Narcotic Convention

A short time ago the General Secretary of the League of Nations addressed a query to the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs as to whether the Soviet Government intended to sign the international convention in the fight against narcotics concluded July 13, 1931, at the International Conference in Geneva.

In reply People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs Litvinov informed the General Secretary of the League of Nations that the U.S.S.R. did not intend to make use of its right to sign the narcotics convention since it considered this agreement, as well as the previous agreements on narcotics, quite insufficient to put a stop to the misuse and smuggling of such articles. The note further stated that the U.S.S.R. would continue as before to wage an energetic and continuous struggle against the misuse of narcotics, the smuggling of opium and other stupefying drugs, on the basis of its own laws.

Seventeenth Party Conference

ON January 17 the Seventeenth All-Union Conference of the Communist Party was opened in Moscow by V. M. Molotov, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars. The two subjects on the agenda of the conference were:

1. Summary of the development of industry during 1931 and tasks for 1932.
2. Directives for the drawing up of the second Five-Year Plan for the national economy of the U.S.S.R. (1933-37).

There were present at the conference 364 delegates with decisive votes and 459 with advisory votes.

The reports and speeches at the party conference, just as those at the TSIK the preceding month, all emphasized the improvements in the standard of living and cultural development of the workers and peasants planned for the 1933-1937 period, and also during 1932.

Summing up the results for 1931, Ordjonikidze stated that industrial production had amounted to 27,000,000,000 rubles, an increase of 21 per cent over 1930. Of this, heavy industry amounted to 11,800,000,000 rubles, an increase of 28.7 per cent over the preceding year; light industry amounted to 7,600,000,000 rubles, an increase of 12.6 per cent; the lumber industry to 2,500,000,000 rubles, an increase of 12.6 per cent, and the industries under the Commissariat for Supplies to 5,000,000,000, an increase of 22 per cent over the preceding year.

Consumers' goods are to be increased by about one-third* in 1932. Expenditures for social and cultural measures and housing will amount to 12,500,000,000 rubles in 1932, or double the amount for 1931. It is also expected to extend compulsory universal primary education, already in effect in part of the country, to all sections of the Soviet Union during the present year, to extend compulsory education to the seven-year schools in industrial and collective centers, and to greatly extend day nursery facilities. In all 24,700,000 children will be studying in the schools of the Commissariat for Education in 1932, three times as many as were in all the schools of Russia in 1914-15.

In the field of industrial production the plan for 1932, as presented by Ordjonikidze, Commissar for Heavy Industry, calls for certain increases over the preliminary figures adopted by the TSIK. Total industrial production is set at 37,500,000,000 rubles in 1932, an increase of 36 per cent over 1931. A decrease of seven per cent is projected in production costs. The number of workers in all industry (including construction) is to be increased by 1,200,000, bringing the total number of industrial workers up to 6,647,000. Wages for industrial workers are to be increased by 11 per cent and for construction workers by 5.6 per cent. Efforts will be made to increase labor productivity by 22 per cent. Capital investment in all industry will amount to 12,000,000,000 rubles (against previous estimates of 10,700,000,000), of which 9,200,000,000 rubles will fall to the share of heavy industry. The chief emphasis in the industrial program for 1932 will be on ferrous metallurgy, coal, and machine construction.

In presenting the preliminary outlines of the second five-year period to the conference, V. M. Molotov, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars and V. V. Kuibyshev, Chairman of the State Planning Commission, stated that the supply of consumers' goods, including food, is to increase by at least two or three times by 1937. Thorough technical reorganization of industry, transport and agriculture will be undertaken in order to achieve these ends.

Soviet machine construction will be increased by three to three and a half times by the end of the second five-year plan. Electrical power production is scheduled to reach 100 billion kilowatt hours in 1937, as against 17 billion planned for 1932. The coal production program is set at 250,000,000 tons as compared with 90,000,000 tons for 1932, and oil production is to be increased two and a half to three times. The output of pig iron is scheduled to reach 22,000,000 tons in 1937. Production of high grade steel is to be developed for the machine building industry. The program calls for new plants equipped with powerful machinery and fuller utilization of electrical processes and by-products in the iron and steel industry. In non-ferrous metallurgy domestic needs for copper, lead, zinc, aluminum and rare metals are to be more fully supplied. In the chemical industry the output of fertilizers and basic chemicals is to be increased.

Railway transport is to be thoroughly reorganized, 25 to 30,000 kilometers of new lines are to be built, many new railroad bridges, powerful locomotives and larger freight cars are to be introduced. A number of lines are to be electrified. Automatic coupling and blocking are to be used extensively. Waterways are to be greatly improved, roadbuilding developed to facilitate a greatly increased use of automotive transportation, and airlines are to be intensively developed.

* In the preliminary figures given in our January issue it was erroneously stated that the increase would be 45 per cent.

All means of communication, especially radio, are to be stressed.

In consumers' goods and food industries new enterprises are to be built particularly in regions supplying the raw materials, and the plan calls for a three-fold increase in per capita consumption. The lumber industry will continue to expand, with mechanization as the principal aim.

In agriculture it is intended to complete the process of socialization in the second five-year period, to develop machine and tractor stations to the point where they will serve all collective farms, to increase production in all branches and to achieve in so far as possible mechanization of all agricultural processes. Animal husbandry is to be increased to the point where the country's meat requirements will be satisfied. Production of cotton and flax is scheduled to double and that of flax to treble.

The training of skilled personnel is to be one of the main concerns of the second five-year plan. Domestic trade turnover is to receive new impetus and cost accounting is to be applied widely. The number of stores will be greatly increased, so that the present system of rationing may be replaced by a more normal system of trade.

The party conference was concluded on February fourth, and was immediately followed by a plenary session of the Central Committee of the party. In view of the election of I. E. Rudzutak as chairman of the Central Control Committee of the party, the plenary session voted to relieve him of his duties as a member of the Political Bureau, since according to the by-laws of the party, members may not serve on both the Central Committee and the Central Control Committee. A. A. Andreyev, People's Commissar for Transport of the Soviet Union, was elected to the Political Bureau in place of Rudzutak.

Civil Aviation in the U.S.S.R.

THE past ten years have seen a rapid growth of civil aviation within the Soviet Union. In 1922 Soviet airlines covered 1,200 kilometers and carried 276 passengers. That year marked the opening of the Moscow-Kovno-Koenigsburg airline, operated by Deruluft, a mixed Soviet-German company. Not until 1923 did the development of airlines within the Soviet Union really get under way. By the end of 1931 Soviet airlines covered about 50,000 kilometers, making the Soviet Union second only to the United States in the length of airlines. Flights covered over 7,000,000 kilometers and over 23,000 passengers were carried. The growth of aviation was especially marked during 1931. Over 60 per cent more flights were made than in 1930, 56.4 per cent more passengers were carried, and 176.3 per cent more air mail. Air postal service was conducted over 38 lines in 1931.

The accident rate on Soviet passenger planes is very low. During 1930 there were no fatal accidents on any of the Soviet passenger lines.

Main Soviet Airlines

Four international lines are now in operation: Leningrad-Berlin, Moscow-Berlin, Moscow-Kabul (Afghanistan) and Moscow-Pekhlevy (Persia).

The main lines within the U.S.S.R. are the Trans-Union lines from Moscow to the Caucasus, to Central Asia and the Far East. The Moscow-Irkutsk line of 4,700 kilometers, which has been carrying mail for two years and passengers since last spring, was extended last summer to Vladivostok by way of Khabarovsk, making an airline of about 9,000 kilometers, one of the longest in the world. This line is to be in regular operation next summer. The next longest line is the Moscow-Kharkov-Baku-Tiflis daily post and passenger line.

The Moscow-Orenburg-Tashkent line (3,000 kilometers) was opened in 1930, connecting with the Tashkent-Kabul line. Local lines between the principal cities have been in operation for some time. Regular passenger service was started between Moscow and Leningrad last summer. There are several lines in Central Asia and Kazakstan and in the North, where the main one is the Irkutsk-Yakutsk line (2,700 kilometers) along the Lena river, which operates the year round. A line from Khabarovsk to Okha on Sakhalin Island has been in operation for two years. Okhotsk is connected by air with Alexandrovsk (on the Gulf of Tartary). Last year the Irkutsk-Aldan line from Siberia to central Yakutia was opened. The Verkhne Udinsk-Ulan Bator line, which operates twice weekly throughout the year, connects the Soviet Union with the Mongolian Republic.

New Airlines Planned

The first Five-Year Plan for aviation, which called for 45,000 kilometers of airlines by the end of 1932, has already been achieved, and the second Five-Year Plan, calling for still more intensive develoment of aviation in the future is being prepared.

Over forty new airlines covering about 20,000 kilometers are to be opened during 1932. The emphasis is to be on local airlines uniting important cities and industrial and agricultural

centers and separate republics and regions. Airlines are expected to cover 300,000 kilometers by 1937.

The lines from Moscow to the Caucasus, Siberia, the Far East and Central Asia will be extended to Leningrad and Minsk. The Odessa-Kharkov line will be extended to the Urals, the Tashkent and Central Asian lines will be connected with Novosibirsk and Novorossisk, through Rostov and Stalingrad, will be connected with the Ural and Siberian lines.

Among the longest of the new lines projected is the Moscow-Cape Wallen line to the east coast of Kamchatka, a distance of 13,000 kilometers, and one of the most hazardous routes will connect Stalinabad, capital of Tadjikistan, with Khorog, Armenia. This line, about 500 kilometers in length, crosses the Pamirs at a very high altitude. Hydroplane airlines are planned along the Ob and Yenesei in Siberia and along the Volga. The new plan calls for many improvements in the existing lines. Trips will be more frequent, the season lengthened on the lines not operating throughout the year, and night service will be introduced on many lines.

According to the plan for 1932, 13,500,000 kilometers will be covered, 45,500 passengers carried, 1,400 tons of freight and 900 tons of mail transported.

Aviation Serves Agriculture and Industry

Aviation is being used in the Soviet Union for the most diverse purposes. It has proved especially valuable in cartographic work connected with the new economic geography. When a new industrial enterprise is to be located, a city constructed, a state farm established, a railroad built, preliminary surveys of the whole district from the air have proved immensely valuable.

Aero-photography began to develop in 1924 and the Soviet Union is now surpassed only by the United States in the extent of this work. During the past six years aero-photography has covered over 100,000 square kilometers. In 1931 this work was organized on a new basis as a special activity under the Chief Geodetic Committee of the Supreme Economic Council.

The use of airplanes in agriculture has passed beyond the experimental stage and is now developing according to a regular program which calls for a ten-fold increase in agricultural aviation during 1932. It has been demonstrated that airplanes can be used successfully in the destruction from the air by chemicals of agricultural and forest pests as well as of malarial mosquitoes and other carriers of disease. In chemical warfare against pests the airplane can clear 400 hectares an hour as against one or two hectares an hour when even the most powerful land apparatus is used, and the cost per hectare is only about half as much. Thousands of hectares of grain have been destroyed annually in the Soviet Union by the grasshopper plague and up until a few years ago the peasants could only make desperate attempts to keep the grasshoppers on the wing by waving rags and ringing bells or galloping through their fields on horseback, destroying almost as much grain as the grasshoppers, and then only succeeding in driving them on to the next field. The Soviet government managed to rid large sections of the pest by locating the eggs and by organized methods of spraying, but all methods have proved inadequate until the use of airplanes was adopted. Perhaps only those who have witnessed the complete devastation of field after field of grain as the dense clouds of grasshoppers settle on a field breaking down ripe grain so that it cannot be harvested, or devouring to the stalk whatever is still green, can realize what this means.

Fighting Field and Forest Pests

The first experiments in using airplanes against forest and agricultural pests were made

"Steel 2" after its first trial flight

A student of the Moscow flying school

The Soviet built "ANT-14" constructed for the Moscow-Vladivostok line

in 1925 over an area of 2,257 hectares. These first experiments were not entirely successful, crops being killed as well as the pests. A special "Anti-Pest Society" was then organized under the agricultural commissariat, which carried on experiments in the extermination of pests, and by 1931 sixty planes were being used for dusting against pests, and 250,000 hectares of agricultural and forest land were cleared. Large sections were cleared of malarial mosquitoes, too.

Plans for 1932 call for the clearing of 1,500,000 hectares. Sixteen kinds of crops will be sprayed from the air, but the main fight will be against the grasshoppers and against cotton pests.

Sowing from the Air

Some interesting experiments have been made in sowing by airplane. In the spring of 1931 the first experiments were made in using airplanes to sow rice directly in water. Over seventy hectares of rice were sown in this way at the state rice farm "Plavstroy" in the Kuban, which yielded a harvest of 44.16 centners per hectare. It is planned to sow 15,000 hectares of rice this way next season. Last autumn tests were made of seeding clover, timothy, lucerne and oats from the air. Planes have also been used in cross pollenation and in scattering fertilizer. It is planned to experiment in reforestation by airplane. Tests are also being made of planting desert areas in this way and plans are afoot to transform 4,000,000 hectares of shifting sands in Kazakstan into green meadows.

Airplanes and Forestry

Planes of the civil air fleet have been used extensively as observers of forest fires and much valuable timber has been saved by locating the origin of forest fires from the air. In a flight covering 4,800 kilometers in the Nijni-Novgorod region twenty fires were discovered in this way.

Airplanes have also proved the only possible means for adequate exploration of the vast Siberian Taiga regions. The Soviet plane "Komsevput 2" flew over 6,000,000 hectares of the Siberian taiga last summer with a crew of expert foresters, proving the feasibility of making maps of the section indicating the density and quality of the timber and locating much valuable export material.

Scientific Research in Uses of Aviation

A special scientific research institute on uses of aviation in agriculture and forestry has recently been established in connection with the Lenin Agricultural Academy in Leningrad. The institute is working out improved methods and equipment for airplanes in connection with increasing crop yields, protecting crops, extinguishing forest fires, sowing methods, and so on. They are also at work on methods of planning the work of planes used in this way so that they may work on a balanced load throughout the season. The work of the institute for 1932 includes plans for using airplanes on the large scale grain and livestock farms in the transport of repair brigades, spare parts and special machines, service for the seeding and harvesting campaigns, and so on. Two planes were used in this way on the "Gigant" farm in the North Caucasus during 1931.

Other Uses of Aviation

Airplanes have been of the greatest assistance in the numerous scientific and exploration expeditions, particularly in connection with those to the Far North, in making contact with otherwise practically inaccessible sections. They have been especially useful in studying ice movements as an aid to navigation in the northern regions. Airplanes are used extensively in connection with the fur, fish and seal industries of the north. An interesting experiment made last spring was the transplanting of newly hatched Caspian herrings into the Sea of Aral, where these fish had not

Taking on a load of rice to be sown by air

been found previously. Another use for airplanes is in transporting matrixes from Moscow to other parts of the Union so that newspapers may be published simultaneously in different parts of the country.

In the future a far greater use of aircraft in transporting men and materials between large industrial and agricultural undertakings is foreseen. It is proposed that the commissariats for industry, supplies, communal economy, and so on, each have a special aviation department, just as the Commissariat for Agriculture has at the present time.

Airplane Construction

The number of planes in use for civil purposes has increased about four-fold during the past year and construction of airplanes and motors is increasing rapidly within the Soviet Union. The main types of planes added to the civil fleet during 1931 were the Soviet built ANT-9, eleven-passenger, tri-motored all metal type, and the K-5 eight-passenger single-motor type. Such Soviet built planes as the twin-motored all-metal "Land of Soviets" which made the Moscow-New York flight in 1929, have successfully withstood the test of long distance flying under most difficult conditions.

Last July the first 32-passenger airplane was completed in the Soviet Union, the ANT-14. This plane, designed at the Central Aero-Hydrodynamic Institute in Moscow by engineer Tupolev, is made entirely of Soviet materials. It has five motors of 480 h. p. each, and is constructed of a special aluminum alloy. This is the type of plane being manufactured for the Moscow-Novosibirsk-Vladivostok line.

On October 11 the first Soviet constructed all-steel airplane "Steel 2," made its first flight. This plane, designed by engineer Putilov at the Scientific Research Institute of the civil air fleet, is a four-passenger plane made entirely of rustless steel. All of its parts were electrically welded, greatly reducing the time of manufacture. It is expected to manufacture this type of plane on a large scale.

Soviet Autogiros

It was announced last fall that after three years of experimenting a group of Soviet aviation engineers have constructed a new type of autogiro which successfully withstood a series of difficult tests. A start of fifty meters is required for rising, which takes from four to five seconds, and the horizontal speed can be regulated at from 35 to 110 kilometers an hour. The machine descends easily without a motor from a height of several hundred meters, and requires a landing ground of from 22 to 30 meters long. The machine has one vertical propellor and the "windmill" or revolving vane unit is supported on a vertical pillar underneath the fuselage instead of in the customary position above it. Soviet autogiros will be developed particularly for use in research flights in the Arctic, for agricultural work, and aerial photography.

Dirigible Construction Commenced

Great interest in lighter-than-air craft has developed in the Soviet Union especially since the flight of the "Graf Zeppelin" over Soviet territory and the spectacular meeting between the German dirigible and the Soviet ice-breaker "Malygin" near Franz Josef Land last July. Special funds have been raised for dirigible construction and two small dirigibles have been constructed. Experiments are being made with semi-rigid dirigibles in Leningrad, and models of all-metal dirigibles have been made.

Aerodromes

During the past year the one hundred aerodromes already existing in the Soviet Union have

been entirely reconstructed and over fifty new ones have been established. During the coming year all the facilities of all the existing fields will be improved and a large number of new ones built. The All-Union Civil Aviation Society has issued a special aviation loan for the building of airports. A network of landing fields is being projected in all parts of the Soviet Union in preparation for the increasing use of airplanes for local purposes. Over a hundred radio stations for meteorological service to aviation were established last year.

An aerodrome is being constructed in Moscow which will be one of the largest and most thoroughly equipped in Europe. It will occupy a hundred square hectares and be equipped with the most modern appliances, searchlights and signals. A hotel for passengers and houses for the pilots and field personnel, a large restaurant, post and telegraph office and large meeting hall are to be built. An all-steel hangar, a garage to hold forty trucks and repair shops are also to be erected. This year there will be a landing every seven and a half minutes and a hundred planes will land and depart daily.

The Leningrad airport will be similarly developed, since in the future Leningrad will be one of the main air stations connecting Europe with the Arctic and the Far East.

Training of Aviators

The greatest care is taken in the training of aviators. Last year about 18,000 new aviation specialists—engineers, pilots, mechanics, navigators and radio operators were trained. New aviation schools were opened during 1931 in Rostov-on-Don, Balashov in the lower Volga region, Tambov in the Central Black Soil region and other places, accommodating a thousand students each. The Leningrad Institute of Aviation Engineering is being considerably enlarged. About ten per cent of the students in the aviation schools are women.

Osoaviakhim

The Osoaviakhim Society is the principal popular organization in the Soviet Union for the promotion of aviation in all its phases. In 1930 it had over 3,500,000 members and 50,000 branches all over the country. Osoaviakhim has sponsored all of the long special flights of Soviet aviators, it organized the "Italia" rescue expedition, helped Professor Kulik in his expedition to study the effects of the fall of the giant meteorite in northern Siberia, arranged for the Graf Zeppelin's flight to the Arctic last summer. It maintains a number of laboratories for research, operates a number of aviation schools and conducts experimental flights.

Health Protection in 1932

THE fall in mortality both among the general population and among children, the increasing population growth and the diminishing amount of sickness testify to the gradual improvement of public health work in the Soviet Union. In the European part of the U.S.S.R. the general death rate fell from 28.6 per thousand for the years 1911-13 to 20.3 per thousand in 1929, and the infant mortality rate has been more than halved since pre-war days.

During 1931 an extensive reorganization of public health organs was carried on throughout the Soviet Union. Greater attention was paid to preventive and medical work among the production workers with special emphasis on health service for the workers in the leading branches of industry—coal, metal, transport, machine construction—and in the socialized sector of the village—the machine and tractor stations, the state farms and the large collectives.

Health Stations

The public health plan for 1932 provides for the extension of every type of medical and sanitary work, and a special campaign will be waged against industrial accidents and disease through the organization of health stations directly connected with industrial and agricultural enterprises. During 1931 the number of such stations reached 4,000, an increase of 56 per cent over the preceding year. It is proposed to add about 1,500 more during 1932, with the aim of serving all workers in the leading branches of industry. The purpose of these health stations is not merely to provide direct medical assistance but to study thoroughly the labor conditions in the given enterprise and work out standards which will permit the maximum labor productivity and a minimum of industrial accidents and disease. The work of these health stations is closely connected with that of outside health organizations such as dispensaries and clinics. The total number of medical stations throughout the U.S.S.R., reached 27,752 in 1931 and will be increased to 30,472 during 1932 according to the plan. It is proposed to increase the medical stations in the socialized sector of the village by 18.5 per cent, with special attention to providing first aid during the period of field work.

Hospital Accomodations

Hospital accomodations are steadily increasing

and in this field, too, the plan provides that the chief effort during 1932 will be to guarantee hospital facilities to all workers in the leading industries. In 1930 there were 160,000 hospital beds in the cities and industrial centers, in 1931, 182,000 and in 1932 it is expected to increase the number to 216,000 (this excludes transport, psychiatric hospitals and prison colonies). In 1931, 17,701 hospital beds were provided for transport workers. The plan for 1932 calls for 21,125. The plan provides not merely for numerical increase, but for extensive improvements in methods and equipment.

It is proposed to increase the number of hospital beds in the socialized sector of the villages from 92,618, the number in 1931, to 119,448.

In the field of mental hygiene institutions employing occupational therapy in the treatment of mental cases will be increased. The number of beds in psychiatric hospitals will be increased from 43,664 to 46,390.

Day Nurseries

The problem of creating conditions facilitating the entry into production of new groups of workers, especially of women, makes the establishment of day nurseries, which comes under the supervision of the health departments, especially pressing. The plan for 1932 is organized on the basis of the 5,267,000 women already engaged in industry, and an additional 1,200,000 expected to enter industry during 1932. It is proposed to provide day nursery accommodations for 75 per cent of the women in the leading branches of industry during 1932, and for 45 per cent of the women in the remaining branches. Day nurseries for working mothers took care of 171,000 children in 1931 and will accomodate 385,000 in 1932 according to the plan.

With regard to the villages the primary effort during 1932 will be to extend the all-year-round day nurseries for mothers connected with the machine and tractor stations and the state farms. The plan provides for an increase in the number of children in the all-year-round nurseries from 128,000 in 1931 to 247,00 in 1932. In the seasonal day nurseries, organized for the periods when the mothers are at work in the fields, the number of children is to be increased from 2,271,000 to 4,236,000.

General Health Measures

Anti-epidemic measures will be closely connected with the general program for improving living and working conditions. Thus the health departments will cooperate closely in all plans for housing and municipal improvements and for the protection of labor.

The enforcement of the "sanitary minimum" will also receive increased attention during 1932. (The sanitary minimum is a law according to which local authorities work out concrete plans concerning the improvement of the water supply, public baths and laundries, planting of trees, rational distribution of plots of land on which buildings are to be erected, maintenance of certain standards of cleanliness, etc.) Special "sanitary brigades" are chosen from among the people themselves to carry on this work, and the aid of school children is enlisted. A large part of the responsibility for its enforcement falls on the Red Cross. There were 2,558 sanitary doctors in the cities in 1930 and it is proposed to increase their number by 50 per cent during 1931.

Accommodations in the resorts and sanitaria are to be extended. Over 724,000 workers will be accommodated in the health resorts, and the number of places in sanitaria will be increased from 53,328 to 66,691. Local resorts connected with the large industrial centers such as Ural-Kuzbas and Donbas, where workers may be sent for short periods of rest and recuperation, are to be developed.

In an Uzbekistan day nursery

Use of Leisure

Another problem which especially concerns the health department is that of the use of leisure, especially in connection with days of rest and vacations, through rest homes, tourism and physical culture. Last year the workers' rest homes accommodated 800,000 workers in the course of the year—facilities for 300,000 more are to be added this year. Places of all day rest, such as

in Moscow's "Park of Culture and Rest," where workers may spend their non-working days in rest or recreation, are developing in many of the large centers.

During 1931, 415,000 workers took tours to various parts of the Soviet Union organized by the Proletarian Tourist Society—not to mention the thousands of one-day excursions. The plan for 1932 provides that over a million workers may take such tours. Members of physical culture groups among the workers numbered 4,000,000 in 1931, and the number is increasing rapidly.

Higher Pay for Medical Workers

The number of doctors is still far below requirements. At the end of 1931 there were altogether 84,000 doctors and dentists in the Soviet Union, and there are now, at a minimum estimate, 125,000 medical jobs to be filled. In 1932, 5,000 new doctors will be graduated from the medical institutions, of whom 1,680 will go to replace the natural annual loss in the medical profession. Medical educational facilities are to be extended.

On December 16, a government decree was issued providing for an average increase of 23 per cent in the pay of medical workers. For this purpose a sum of 147,600,000 rubles has been set aside in the budget. Higher wages are to be established especially in the large new industrial centers and districts, large new construction projects, and also in the more remote districts.

Increases are to be higher in the case of doctors working in the first aid stations in industrial enterprises, new construction and transport and also for sanitary doctors and doctors engaged in epidemic work. Within each particular type of work a scale is to be established, based on the qualifications, experience and the quality of work done.

Health Resorts in 1932

The People's Commissariat for Health of the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper) is planning to increase accommodations during 1932 in its health resorts and sanitariums, especially for shock troop workers, apprentices and for engineers and technicians. A number of special measures will be taken during 1932 to improve sanitarium and resort service for the latter group. A special division for engineering and technical workers is to be set aside in all sanitariums, and special sanitariums are also to be opened for them.

A District in the Pamir

Abridged from an article in the Moskauer Rundschau by Egon Erwin Kisch, the German author.

THERE was no railroad in the area of the Soviet Republic of Tadjikistan until the Republic was established. From Garm, an important economic, political and strategic mountain district, one had to ride eight or ten days to reach a railroad station, and then have a companion wait with the horse until he returned to Ferghana or Termes. The trip to Bokhara, the capital, required a month. This all meant that the people simply did not travel. They were shut off from the world.

Two airplanes now fly daily in fifty minutes to Stalinabad, the new capital, and from there one can go wherever one wishes, providing one has the money and a passport. We flew from Stalinabad to Garm, not on account of its economic, political or strategic importance, but because the July heat was closing in ever more oppressively. Therefore, away into the mountains, into the shadow of the Pamir! The same thing may be written of the flight as is supposed to have been said by a princess of Monaco regarding her kingdom, "My country is small, but high." The stretch from Stalinabad to Garm is scarcely 124 miles long, but 9,840 feet high. Beyond the city of Obigarm, which marks the half-way point, the Vakhsh is visible, not as a river, but as a thin strip of tinfoil. It was necessary here to fly higher to avoid collision with the mountains.

At the flying field in Garm, instead of omnibusses for the incoming passengers, there are horses. From the back of a horse the Vakhsh is no strip of tinfoil, but a ravenous beast, thirsting for prey. We are high up but the rocks are steep and the path narrow and bumble-bees buzz around the horses, making them jump. Now how safe flying seems!

At last we reach Garm. Here it is cool and beautiful in July under the slope of the Pamirs, the roof of the world. We hunt up the young Tadjiks whom we met in Stalinabad and who advised us to flee to them from the heat. We observe that Garm is a modern city.

"Yes, very modern. Everything new that you see here was built by the Soviet. And the Soviet régime has been in existence here for only two years."

Two years? I thought the Emir fled eleven years ago. Who governed in the interval?

"Do not stand up, comrade. Follow the custom of the country. Sit down on the earth with us and listen to the story of a district in the Pamir before you look upon it."

The first Soviets were elected here in 1920,

and a revolutionary committee conducted the affairs of the district. But who were those elected and their assistants? They were the former officials of the Emir and *chinovniki* (government officials) of the Tsar. They let the great landholders rule; they exercised jurisdiction not in accordance with Soviet laws but with the *shariat* (traditional religious laws of the Mohammedans) and, as previously, they oppressed the laboring class. In the spring of 1929, the *basmatchi* (dispossessed landlords) led by Fusail Maksum came in from Afghanistan. They occupied the entire district. The kulaks sympathized with them since the collectivization measures which would terminate their power were already in print. The mullahs also were one with the *basmatchi*. The middle and poor peasants and farm hands were powerless against the usurpers. Only when Fusail Maksum wanted to push northward over the border from Garm out toward Ferghana did he run into armed opposition and his army was annihilated. He himself fled to Kas-Tau, a mountain district. He remained a few days, hospitably received and finally fled back to Afghanistan where he is now the owner of an inn in a suburb of Kabul.

Order was established in Garm after the retreat of the *basmatchi*, the old rulers removed, Soviets elected, party and comsomol groups organized.

And since then have there been no struggles?

"Do not stand, comrade, but make use of the custom of the country. Sit down with us on the earth and listen to the story of a district in the Pamir before you look upon it."

In the beginning of April several bands led by Mullah Sherif came to the neighborhood. They were stronger than Fusail Maksum's and much better armed, even carrying hand grenades. But the situation had changed in two years. The peasants organized, attacked the bands and threw them back across the river. Half of the *basmatchi* were drowned in this attack, among them Fusail Maksum's brother and probably also the leader, Mullah Sherif. The last bands came by three weeks ago, no longer to rob, to lay waste and to make trouble. . . They were fleeing. For eight days they wandered about in the district; no one gave them food or drink, and their horses had no fodder. They did not venture into the *kishlaks* (villages), and only when they met a peasant they commanded that food be brought them in the mountains.

How did the attitude of the population change so?

"Do not stand, comrade, but follow the custom of the country. Sit down with us on the earth and hear about the economic condition of a Pamir district before you look upon it."

Prior to the revolution a quarter of the land was owned by the great land-owners; almost 5000 families belonged to the mullahs and officials. The Emir paid them no wages. On the contrary, they paid taxes to him. A sort of half serfdom arose. The bey or the mullah singled out a group of peasants to cultivate his fields or work in his house. Now the land is divided, and 107,000 hectares cultivated as against 40,000 in prerevolutionary times. There are still kulaks, but no one of them has more than double that of a middle peasant. The number of cows has been increased 40 or 50 per cent and they all belong to the peasants.

During the rule of the Emir 15,000 persons were forced annually to leave the district. They went to Ferghana, Bokhara or Tashkent where they worked as weavers or in the cotton fields, and acquired revolutionary ideas.

There were practically no manufactured goods at that time but what the wanderers brought back with them. In Ferghana duties were placed on all goods which were sent to the south. The annual importation of manufactured goods amounted to hardly more than one ruble per person. The manufactured goods sold in the cooperatives during the Soviet régime show an expenditure of 65 rubles per person and this year are expected to reach 100 rubles. Soap and petroleum were unknown previously. Only three per cent of the population drank tea. The mullahs preached against the use of sugar because flour made from pigs' knuckles was used in the refining process. Shirting was as rare in the country of the Pamir as in 16th century Europe. Kalai-Kum possessed a domestic weaving industry, which has now been destroyed, unable to compete with the textile factories.

When the peasant planted cotton it was to fill his pillows with the fibre, to pad his *khalat* (robe) and his blankets. Every peasant today has, on an average, two *khalat*, his wife likewise, two quilts and 100 to 200 meters occupied by manufactured goods. This is much more than they can use, but they love to put their money into industrial products. Before, the people wore sandals or went barefoot. Ten thousand galoshes and ten thousand high boots were distributed in 1931, far too little. A lamb formerly brought in twenty pounds of tea, a *pood* (36 pounds) of grain, a pound of tea. Only the rich owned horses. The *omatsh* (wooden plow) was drawn by oxen. Now half the peasants have horses.

Can many people read?

"Do not stand, comrade, but make use of the custom of the country. Sit down with us on the earth and hear about the cultural progress of a district in the Pamir before you look upon it."

Five per cent of the children attended the Koran schools and, of course, no girls. Of the 5800 children of school age now in the 160 schools, 80 per cent are boys and 20 per cent are girls. Universal school attendance is being in-

troduced. Many households, however, are situated in outlying mountain districts and even in the larger villages there are still parents who declare their willingness to kill their beloved daughter rather than send her to school. In 70 schools for illiteracy 3500 men and 1000 women are receiving instruction. The number of pupils who presented themselves for entrance into the schools is much higher, since all members of the collectives and trade unions want to learn to read and write. But there is neither the room nor the trained staff nor sufficient means of transportation to establish a course for illiterates in every mountain village.

The role of the mosques has changed. In summer the old men sit around leaning against the wooden columns in front of the mosque and it is certain that their comments on the political development are not exactly benevolent. In winter only one of the two rooms of the mosque serves as a prayer-room, the other as a meeting hall. This is heated and is called *Olla-u-Kana*, house of fire. There the people sit in clouds of smoke under sooty rafters. The newspapers are read aloud, logs are put on the fire from time to time, Comsomols come in and debate with the defenders of Islam, the collectives hold meetings, and delegations and agronomists from the city sleep there. This part of the mosque, in other words, serves as club, inn and teahouse alike. For many it is only a place to warm themselves, precluding the necessity of heating at home. Whether their wives and children freeze bothers them not at all.

The prayer room has remained as it always was. No, not quite. When the kulaks resisted collectivization the members of the collectives took the prayer rug of their enemies from its privileged place and laid it against the back wall where previously only the poor had kneeled. That was a heavier blow to the pious rich than the loss of civil rights which the division of their land might entail.

In Mikrob, the holy niche at the holy wall which faces Mecca to the southwest, now holds gasoline and oil for the tractors, ropes, machine parts and sickles, and where the prayer rug lay, grain is now piled up. The *Olla-u-Kana* houses the library and Lenin corner.

"Now, comrade, stand up and see for yourself what has transpired in our district in the Pamir."

Recent Books on the Soviet Union

"RUSSIA," by Hans von Eckardt. Revised and and supplemented by the author, for the English edition. Translated from the German by Catherine Alison Phillips. Alfred A. Knopf, New York. $7.50.

Dr. von Eckardt is professor of political science at the University of Heidelberg. His book is an interpretation of Russian history from the earliest days, but half of its 700 pages are concerned with the past 15 years and the interpretation of the Soviet State, and the first half of the book is primarily preparation and background for that study. The book is important, not only because of sheer volume, but because of its numerous penetrating and provocative analyses. In the main the treatment is objective, yet there are curious lapses in which antipathies, often of a personal nature, are apparent to the informed student. Such lapses are particularly noticeable in the introduction to the English edition, in which the author includes a considerable amount of misinformation obviously culled from questionable sources. Thus he asserts that "The harvests have not been good." That was true during the last years under the old primitive methods, but such conditions were ended by 1930 with the growth of collectivization, and the figures for the record-breaking harvest of 1930 were available when Dr. Eckardt wrote his introduction. Similarly he says: "Soviet Russia's failure to participate in world trade, which lasted until recently, did untold harm to the world; yet at the present moment the violent and unexpected irruption of the U.S.S.R. into the world economy threatens to precipitate a catastrophe." This was apparently written during the period of ridiculous hysteria over Soviet trade that was stimulated in certain quarters upwards of a year ago. One hardly expected to find a recurrence of the nonsense in a book making serious historical pretensions. It is true that after several years of slight annual increases, Soviet foreign trade showed a gain of 21 per cent in 1930, partly because of the resumption of grain exports in the fall. The increase, and the resultant increased orders placed abroad, proved a great boon to manufacturers in many countries in a lean year. Soviet exports in 1930 and again in 1931 were still only about two-thirds of the five-year prewar average and less than 2 per cent of world exports. This can hardly be called "an unexpected irruption" and hardly threatens anything, except, apparently, Dr. Eckardt's sense of proportion.

The book contains 13 maps and 127 illustrations and diagrams.

"IS SOVIET TRADE A MENACE?" by W. P. Coates, with a preface by Ben Tillett, M. P. Anglo-Russian Parliamentary Committee, London, 1931.

This volume contains an analysis of the principal Soviet exports, a comparison with Russian pre-war exports, a study of some of the principal campaigns against Soviet trade in Europe during 1930 and 1931 and an exposition of some of the forgeries and slanders on which the campaigns were based. The book is designed primarily for British readers but it contains considerable material of general interest to others who wish information about the Soviet market.

"SOVIET ADMINISTRATION OF CRIMINAL LAW," by Judah Zelitch, LL. M. University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1931. $5.

Mr. Zelitch has made a study both of codes and procedure. The author prepared his material partly from documents in the New York Public Library and partly by first-hand study of archives and other documentary material and first-hand observation pursued in Moscow in 1928. The appendices include a study of the criminal judicial system of Tsarist Russia.

"GOLDEN DAYS OF SOVIET RUSSIA," by Adolf Carl Noe. Illustrations by Edmund Giesbert. Thomas S. Rockwell Company, Chicago.

Mr. Noe acted as mining geologist to an American commission which visited the Donetz Basin in 1927, by arrangement with Donugal. The book is an account of his trip, from notes jotted down on the spot. It is a forthright and colorful narrative.

"NEW MINDS; NEW MEN? THE EMERGENCE OF THE SOVIET CITIZEN," by Thomas Woody. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1932. $4.

Professor Woody's book is a study of education in the Soviet Union, its processes and purposes, and its results in the form of the new citizen. It is a highly critical study; the point of view is objective. The chapters include a particularly interesting appraisal of "the new woman," analyzing her training, her tasks and her problems.

The book is illustrated with numerous photographs and charts. It has a comprehensive bibliography and an index.

AMERICAN FARM EQUIPMENT

According to "Commerce Reports" of February 15 the Soviet Union was the best foreign customer for American farm equipment in 1931, as it was in 1930. Though the actual value of exports to the Soviet Union decreased slightly, from $41,902,990 in 1930 to $37,885,386 in 1931, the relative importance of the Soviet Union as a market showed an increase; the Soviet Union took 66 per cent of the exports of farm equipment, as compared with 36 per cent in 1930. During the past fifteen years, according to "Commerce Reports," no other single foreign market has absorbed such a large percentage of exports of farm equipment.

"Russia," says "Commerce Reports," "took 87 per cent of the total value of wheel tractor exports, 48 per cent of the tracklaying tractors and 90 per cent of the combine shipments. From the standpoint of value, these three items make up about 65 per cent of the entire American export trade in farm implements."

The principal countries listed as taking American exports in 1931 were as follows:

Soviet Russia in Europe	$37,885,386
Canada	4,880,991
France	2,105,608
Argentine	1,430,511
Mexico	1,420,740
United Kingdom	1,414,113

PRIVILEGES FOR COMMERCIAL TECHNICIANS

On January 17 a decree was issued by the Sovnarkom and the TSIK extending to specialists and technicians in the commercial field the provisions of the decree of August 1st, 1931, whereby engineers and technicians were placed in the same privileged category as industrial workers with regard to living conditions and food supplies.

CHANGES IN SOVIET FOREIGN SERVICE

Israel Yakovlevich Weitzer, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Trade, was appointed Trade Representative of the U.S.S.R. in Germany on January 16.

Stepan Fedorovich Petrukhin was appointed Trade Representative of the U.S.S.R. in Mongolia on November 31, 1931.

A. N. Asatkin was appointed Trade Representative of the U.S.S.R. in Japan last fall.

POST AND TELEGRAPH COMMISSARIAT RENAMED

According to a government decree of January 17, the People's Commissariat for Post and Telegraph has been renamed the People's Commissariat for Communications of the U.S.S.R.

TRADE UNION CONGRESS POSTPONED

The date for the opening of the Ninth All-Union Congress of Trade Unions has been postponed from March 5 to April 20.

Books About the U.S.S.R. in the English Language

The following list is given in chronological order.

"Ten Days that Shook the World," by John Reed. International Publishers, New York.

"Russia in 1919," by Arthur Ransome. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1919.

"The Bullitt Mission to Russia." Testimony before the Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate, of Wm. C. Bullitt. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1919

"Fighting Without a War." An Account of Military Intervention in North Russia, by Ralph Albertson. Harcourt, Brace and Howe, New York, 1920.

"The Russian Workers' Republic," by H. N. Brailsford. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1921.

"Through the Russian Revolution," by Albert Rhys Williams. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1921.

"The Russian Soviet Republic," by Edward A. Ross. The Century Co., New York, 1923.

"The First Time in History," by Anna Louise Strong. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1924.

Leon Trotsky: "Literature and Revolution," International Publishers, New York, 1925; "Lenin," Minton Balch & Co., New York, 1925; "Whither Russia?" International Publishers, New York, 1926.

"The New Theatre and Cinema in Russia," by Huntley Carter. International Publishers, New York, 1925.

"Broken Earth," by Maurice Hindus. International Publishers, New York, 1926.

"Oil Imperialism—The International Struggle for Petroleum." by Louis Fischer, International Publishers, New York, 1926.

"Modern Russian Composers," by Leonid Sabaneyef. International Publishers, New York, 1927.

"The Russian Land," by Albert Rhys Williams. New Republic, Inc., New York, 1927.

"Russia After Ten Years," Report of the American Trade Union Delegation to the Soviet Union. International Publishers, New York, 1927.

Vanguard Studies of Soviet Russia. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1927-28: "How the Soviets Work," by H. N. Brailsford.—"The Economic Organization of the Soviet Union," by Scott Nearing and Jack Hardy.—"Village Life Under the Soviets," by Karl Borders.—"Religion under the Soviets," by Julius F. Hecker.—"Soviet Russia and Her Neighbors," by R. Page Arnot.—"Soviet Trade Unions," by Robert W. Dunn.—"Women in Soviet Russia," by Jessica Smith.—"New Schools in New Russia," by Lucy L. W. Wilson.—"Health Work in Soviet Russia," by Anna J. Haines.—"Liberty under the Soviets," by Roger N. Baldwin.—"The Jews and Other Minor Nationalities under the Soviets," by Avrahm Yarmolinsky.

"Soviet Russia in the Second Decade"; Edited by Stuart Chase, Robert Dunn and R. G. Tugwell of the Technical Staff of the First American Trade Union Delegation to the Soviet Union. John Day Company, New York, 1928.

"Present Day Russia," by Ivy Lee. Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.

"Labor Protection in Soviet Russia," by George M. Price. International Publishers, New York, 1928.

"Illustrated History of the Russian Revolution," 1917-1927. Ten Years' Progress Reported by Authoritative Russian Leaders, 2 Vol. International Publishers, New York, 1928.

"Russian Economic Development Since the Revolution," by Maurice Dobb. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1928.

"Guide Book to the Soviet Union." International Publishers, New York, 1928.

"American Policy Toward Russia Since 1917," by Dr. Fred L. Schuman. International Publishers, New York, 1928.

"Dreiser Looks at Russia," by Theodore Dreiser. Horace Liveright, New York, 1928.

"Lenin," by Valeriu Marcu. Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.

"Soviet Union Year Book," by A. A. Santalov and Louis Segal. George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., London, England, 1930 (May be obtained from Amkniga Corporation, 258 Fifth Avenue, New York City. $2.50).

"Impressions of Soviet Russia and the Revolutionary World," by John Dewey. New Republic, Inc., New York, 1929.

"The Soviet Union; Reference Book on the U.S.S.R." Soviet Union Information Bureau, Washington, 1929.

"Civic Training in Soviet Russia," by Samuel N. Harper. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929.

"The Curious Lottery," by Walter Duranty. Coward McCann, New York, 1929.

"Soviet Union & Peace." A collection of official documents regarding peace and disarmament, 1917-1929. International Publishers, New York, 1929.

"Revolution of 1917," by V. I. Lenin, Volume XX of Collected Works—2 vols. International Publishers, New York, 1929.

"The Soviet Union Looks Ahead." The Five-Year Plan for Economic Construction. Horace Liveright, New York, 1929.

"The Red Star in Samarkand," by Anna Louise Strong. Coward McCann, New York, 1929.

"Humanity Uprooted," by Maurice Hindus. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York, 1929.

"Voices of October—Art and Literature in Soviet Russia," by Joseph Freeman, Joshua Kunitz and Louis Lozowick. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1930. $4.

"The New Education in the Soviet Republic," by Albert P. Pinkevitch. John Day Company, New York, 1929.

"Soviet Economic Development and American Business," by Saul G. Bron. Horace Liveright, New York, 1930.

"Soviet Russia—A Living Record and a History," by W. H. Chamberlain. Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1930, $5.

"Russia Today and Yesterday," by Dr. E. J. Dillon. Doubleday Doran, New York, 1930. $3.50.

"A Ford Crosses Soviet Russia," by George S. Counts. Stratford Co., Boston, Mass., 1930.

"The Soviets in World Affairs," 2 vols., by Louis Fischer. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York, 1930. $10.00.

"Memories of Lenin," by Nadezhda K. Krupskaya. International Publishers, New York, 1930. $1.50.

"The Five-Year Plan of the Soviet Union,"by G. T. Grinko. International Publishers, New York, 1930. $3.50

"The Russian Experiment," by Arthur Feiler. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1930. $3.

"Piatiletka: Russia's 5-Year Plan," by Michael Farbman. New Republic, Inc., New York, 1931. $1.

"The Soviet Challenge to America," by George S. Counts, Associate Director International Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University. John Day Company, N. Y., 1931. $4.

"The Challenge of Russia," by Sherwood Eddy. Farrar and Rinehart, New York, 1931. $2.50.

"The Economic Life of Soviet Russia," by Calvin B. Hoover, Ph. D., Professor of Economics, Duke University. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1931. $3.

"Russia's Productive System," by Emile Burns. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1931.

"The Red Trade Menace," by H. R. Knickerboker. Dodd, Mead and Company, New York, 1931. $2.50.

"Soviet Foreign Trade, Menace or Promise," by Budish and Shipman. Horace Liveright, New York, 1931. $2.50.

"Progress in the Soviet Union," charts and diagrams compiled by Albert A. Johnson. A. A. Johnson and Associates, Springfield, Mass., 1931.

"Making Bolsheviks," by Samuel N. Harper, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1931. $2.00.

"The Road to the Grey Pamir," by Anna Louise Strong. Little, Brown and Co., Boston, 1931. $3.00.

"Why Recognize Russia?" by Louis Fischer. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York, 1931. $2.00.

"New Russia's Primer—The Story of the Five-Year Plan," by M. Ilin. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston & N. Y., 1931. $1.75.

"Red Bread," by Maurice Hindus. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York, 1931. $3.50.

"Pan-Sovietism," by Bruce Hopper. Houghton Mifflin and Co., Boston and New York, 1931. $2.50.

"Economic Handbook of the Soviet Union." American-Russian Chamber of Commerce, New York, 1931. $1.00.

"The Soviet Planned Economic Order," by William Henry Chamberlin. World Peace Foundation, Boston, 1931. $2.50 (Student Edition, 75 cents).

"The Red Fog Lifts; A Wall Street Man Visits Soviet Russia," by Albert Muldavin. D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1931. $2.00.

"The Soviet Conquers Wheat," by Anna Louise Strong. Henry Holt and Co., New York, 1931. $2.50.

"Red Villages: The Five-Year Plan in Agriculture." by Y. A. Yakovlev, Commissar for Agriculture, U.S.S.R. International Publishers, New York, 1931. $1.50.

"The Success of the Five-Year Plan," by V. M. Molotov, Chairman Council of People's Commissars, U.S.S.R. International Publishers, New York, 1931. $1.25.

"America's Siberian Adventure," by Major-General William S. Graves, with foreword by Hon. Newton D. Baker. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York, 1931. $3.50.

"Russia and the Soviet Union in the Far East," by Victor A. Yakhontoff. Coward McCann, New York, 1931. $5.00.

"Recognition of Soviet Russia." Selected Articles compiled by Buehler, Maxwell and Pflaum. H. W. Wilson Co., New York, 1931. $2.40.

"The Planned Economy of Soviet Russia," by A. Ford Hinrichs and William Adams Brown, Jr. Reprinted from Political Science Quarterly by Academy of Political Science, New York, 1931.

"An Editor Looks at Russia," by Ray Long. Ray Long and Richard R. Smith, New York. $1.00.

"Eyes on Russia," by Margaret Bourke-White. Simon and Schuster, New York. $5.00.

"My Russian Venture," by Mrs. Cecil Chesterton. J. B. Lippincott Co., New York. $2.50.

"Soviet Policy in Public Finance, 1917-1928," by Gregory Y. Sokolnikov and Associates. Stanford University Press, Stanford University, Calif. $4.00.

"Is Soviet Trade a Menace," by W. P. Coates. Anglo-Russian Parliamentary Committee. London, 1931.

"Soviet Administration of Criminal Law," by Judah Zelitch. Univ. of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1931. $5.

"Ding Goes to Russia," by Jay N. Darling. Whittlesey House, New York, 1932. $2.50.

"New Minds: New Men?" by Thomas Woody. Macmillan Co., New York, 1932. $4.

"Working for the Soviets," by Walter Arnold Rukeyser. Covici Fried, New York, 1932. $3.

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Maxim Litvinov

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Disarmament Plan Summed Up

Address of M. M. Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, on behalf of the Soviet resolution for general and total disarmament, at the meeting of the General Commission of the Disarmament Conference at Geneva, February 25, 1932.

I did not think that I should be called upon to be the first to speak at the Commission in connection with the resolution for general and total disarmament. I should have supposed this resolution was introduced and moved by my statement at the Plenary Session of the Conference on February 11, and that all I would have to do would be to reply to possible criticism from other delegates. I am glad, however, to respond to the invitation made yesterday in the Commission to speak again in favor of total disarmament and I am particularly gratified that this invitation came from M. Tardieu, the Prime Minister of France. I do not, however, intend to abuse this invitation and occupy the time of the Commission by a detailed repetition of all those arguments for total disarmament which I have already expounded at the Conference. All I would do now is merely to make a brief summary of them.

Our main arguments amount to this: the threat of a new war is now more actual than it has ever been (if it is permissible to speak of a threat when war is already going on); this new war threatens humanity with more appalling disasters than it has ever before experienced; it threatens most of all, in the present acute conditions and crisis, to bring disaster upon the workers; the task of the day is to create the utmost security against war; this security can be realized in no other way but by the total abolition of arms and all sorts of other military factors.

The Soviet proposal, it is true, has before this been rejected by the Preparatory Commission, in which representatives of the principal and other important states took part. In spite of this I venture to submit this proposal once more, this time to the Conference itself, since some delegates at the Commission referred among other things to their limited powers, insufficient instructions and other formal points, to which the Conference,

which consists of representatives of almost all states of the world, whether or not members of the League, and moreover representatives with the utmost authority and fully qualified to take the most serious decisions, is scarcely likely to refer.

Our proposal was, moreover, made five years ago, and it seems to me that much might have been learned from the events which have taken place since then. Five years ago the capitalist world was going through an epoch of what is known as pacifism, and many people believed that with the lessons of the Great War fresh in the minds of all the likelihood of another war was growing less and less, that conscience, public opinion, would not allow a new war, that all that was required for war to be completely eliminated from international practice was a still greater development of the network of international treaties and pacts. When the country I represent, having in view the relations existing, and still more those not existing between itself and other countries, expressed fears of attack by capitalist states, this was described almost as a kind of persecution mania. While as for war between non-Soviet states, that was regarded as quite out of the question. The possibility of a new war has, however, been clearly enough demonstrated now by the simple fact of its occurrence, and the probability of its further spread or repetition on a bigger scale cannot be denied when the ever-growing differences between states are taken into consideration.

The question of war is now being discussed in the capitalist press as a problem of actual policy, as a way out of the present economic crisis. Modern economists are telling us, for instance, (I am quoting) that "So far no government has ever put an end to a crisis in any other way but by war. Such a way out of a crisis may have its dangers but there are also dangers in not trying to do this." This was spoken before a select audience of economists in Washington on the 29th of December last. I should like also to make a few quotations from recent periodicals: "From the point of view of the sober economist," says one writer, "war is an economic undertaking on a big scale. . . . Paraphrasing Klausewitz's well known aphorism it might be said: war is the continuation of business management by other means. . . ." "Every country would gain nothing but advantage from a war." "During war business always improves in some countries. The majority of countries are at present so dissatisfied with existing conditions of business that it would be worth their risking the prospect of war." Further: "We have spent millions of dollars on first class armaments and it is extremely disagreeable to see these investments lying idle without bringing in any dividends." The writer of these words considers over-population, which he invites us to overcome by cannibalism in the form of war, as the principal cause of the present crisis. (I will not advertise these authors nor the journals in which they write, by naming them here, but I can do so if anybody wants them.)

Such articles could not have seen the light five years ago. They are a sign of the times and the symptom of that spirit which is born of increasing international differences.

Given this spirit it is no wonder that at a time when the Council of the League of Nations is sending appeals to states making war in the Far East asking them to put a stop to hostilities, when delegates at the Disarmament Conference are expressing their sorrow with regard to the bloodshed in the East, it is, I repeat, no wonder that shipment after shipment of military supplies for the continuation and increase of this bloodshed are being freely and openly sent to the belligerent states from other countries with the consent of their governments. Does not this show that international differences and the vested interests behind armaments and war industry are stronger than all the desires and resolutions of pacifists, of groups and circles and even of parties? Is it not obvious that such a state of affairs cannot possibly be ended except by the total abolition and destruction of armaments, general and total disarmament?

I might limit my arguments in favor of the resolution for total disarmament to what I have just said and leave it to other delegates to point out what they believe to be the obstacles in the way of carrying out this proposal. I am afraid, however, that we shall once again hear those same objections which were raised at the Preparatory Commission and think I may save the General Commission some time by recalling these objections and my replies to them at the time.

I have already mentioned objections of a formal character. Among these should be included references to article 8 of the League of Nations Covenant, said to impose upon members of the League the obligation of reducing their armaments only to a level compatible with security. We are, however, not basing our proposal for total disarmament on the obligations of any states taking part in the Conference and are making no demands whatsoever upon them, we are asking them not what they are obliged to do, but what they are ready to do. We are asking them if they are ready, together with the Soviet Union, to disarm completely, in order to banish war from international practice and give up the idea of war as a business proposition. We by no means ignore the factor of security, but we do say that this security, and security for

all countries, can only be attained through total disarmament.

But we have heard serious as well as merely formal objections at the Preparatory Commission.

We were told, for example, that even should permanent armies and navies be abolished, frontier guards would have to be kept to keep down contrabandism, as well as a police force, fire brigades, forest guards, convoy troops and the like, and that such armed forces will suffice for the attack of countries on each other. Undoubtedly, should total disarmament be adopted, states cannot be allowed to maintain at their own sweet will and without any limitation any sort of potential armed forces in the form of police, frontier, or other guards, and an international convention would have to be drawn up for the regulation of this question. Such a convention would probably entitle two neighboring states to maintain an equal number of guards on either side of the frontier. As for the police these might represent a potential army if it is considered necessary to arm them with machine-guns, tanks, artillery, poison gas, bomb-carriers and so on. We do not, however, admit such a necessity. Besides it is hard to believe that any state could mobilize all its police, collect them from all its towns and villages at its frontiers, in order to hurl them at a neighboring country. We know that it is precisely for war and the conduct of war that states strengthen their forces for the maintenance of internal order and they never venture to withdraw police forces from their everyday duties. The same applies to the mobilization of convoy troops, while the idea of the mobilization of fire brigades may safely be dismissed.

We were next told that even if armies and modern armaments were destroyed human nature is constitutionally unable to refrain from fighting and nations will attack each other with the most primitive weapons and even resort to fisticuffs. It seems to me, however, that even admitting this (which I do not), a very small frontier guard would suffice to ward off such attacks. Anyhow I do not think civilization would suffer much if in the Far East, for example, nothing but fighting with bare fists was going on, instead of the exchange of shells from heavy artillery and the dropping of bombs from the air, involving the destruction of human lives by the thousand and incalculable loss of property.

What would appear to be a more serious objection was also made. It was pointed out that even after total disarmament the more industrially developed countries would be able to manufacture themselves new armaments and fall upon their unarmed neighbors. But the possibility of infringement of international convention could be used as an argument against any convention, whether for the limitation or reduction of armaments or anything else. If it is to be supposed that some states will stick loyally to the convention and others will infringe it by secretly increasing the armed forces laid down for them in the convention, undoubtedly the security of loyal states will be jeopardized. If we fear that, it will be useless to conclude any sort of international agreements.

As I have already pointed out at the Plenary Session of the Conference, it would be much easier to maintain effective control of the observation of the convention for total disarmament than in the case of reduction. The setting up all over again of war industries once they have been destroyed, the mobilization of considerable troops, after mobilization records have been destroyed and their arming and equipment, would take too long to pass unnoticed. You cannot build a dreadnought or even equip a submarine, or make long-range guns or gas-throwers without people finding out. There may be first-class metal and chemical industries in a country, with a huge and dense population, but complicated and prolonged processes must be gone through before these potential forces are converted into armed forces. Military units must be formed and trained and a long time spent to get the elaborate mechanism of war to function. In the present state of military technique only systematically and regularly trained reserves are of any value for the army. Technique is taking such strides that the rank and file, non-commissioned officers and even officers require thorough retraining every few years. The abolition of conscription, the complete destruction of mobilization records would, therefore, remove altogether any possibility of using organized masses for military purposes at short notice.

Finally, modern potential forces are as it is not the same in all states. From this point of view there is no such thing as equality of security. Are not industrially developed states able now, at the outbreak of war, to gain by the mobilization of industry enormous superiority over the forces of less industrially developed countries, not to mention agrarian countries? Is it not obvious that the development and expansion of existing war industry, of existing military units, is much more easily realized than the creation all over again of destroyed war industry, or the creation of an army from untrained masses? And is the mobilization of these masses for military purposes conceivable if they do not see before them an armed opponent and if they do not fear attack from such an enemy? Even now the creation of armies and the mobilization for war are only possible by means of working on the imagination of a nation through fictitious or actual threats of attacks on their country. Under total disarmament it would be impossible to create these fictions and this alone would make prepara-

tions for war impossible. It seems to me that for this reason alone it would be impossible to mobilize even those reserves who had received military training before total disarmament.

We are profoundly convinced that the only guarantee of security for all nations would be equality in disarmament, in the reduction to zero, and that the feeling of security would be so strong that no government would be able, even if it wanted to, to mobilize its people for attack on another.

I think I have passed in review the most important criticisms of total disarmament made in the Preparatory Commission. I am ready to admit the possibility of new criticisms not expressed there. We shall lend an attentive ear to any that may be made here. We are, however, convinced that the advantages in the scheme we have drawn up completely outweigh any defects that may be found in it. There is no alternative, we can see no other guarantee against war. No such guarantee is offered by reduction of armaments, let alone their limitation and the abolition of certain types of armaments.

The state which I have the honor to represent values its independence not less, and in all probability more than other states, it needs security not less but more than other states. The workers and peasants of the Soviet Union, who have won for themselves true freedom by means of heroic efforts, were forced, after a devastating world war, to protect this freedom with arms in their hands for another three years against attacks upon it from within and from without, and after this they have been working for twelve years with unbounded enthusiasm, laying the foundations of a new life. They have carried out vast economic plans described only a few years ago outside the Soviet Union as utopian. They know that foreign invasion, the infringement of the security of their state, might threaten to overthrow the foundations they have already laid, and mean the destruction of their hopes for the speedy realization of the new life. Nevertheless they would not feel the slightest threat to themselves in the abolition of armed forces in the Soviet Union, provided that the same were done in other countries also. On the contrary their feeling of security would be increased and they would not feel the slightest fear of attack by unarmed masses of other countries, even though the Soviet Union has at its borders countries so superior to it numerically as China and India. Total and general disarmament constitutes no threat to the security of other nations either.

Whatever the attitude of other states to its proposal for total disarmament, however, the Soviet Government feels bound to use the opportunity afforded by a world conference to raise the problem of total disarmament. Where is this problem to be raised if not at this Conference? Whatever its outcome the voting on this question will be of the deepest historical significance and cannot fail to leave traces on international relations. It is for this reason that I venture to commend to your notice the resolution that I now move.

Litvinov Addresses American Committee

Speech of Mr. M. M. Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs and head of the Soviet Delegation to the Geneva Disarmament Conference, at a luncheon given in his honor by the American Committee in Geneva (a group of representatives from American peace and civic organizations), together with the Geneva International Club, February 20, 1932. The speech is given in slightly abridged form.

I THANK you for the honor you have done me in inviting me to take lunch with you today and giving me an opportunity of speaking to American citizens, a pleasure which I often have to deny myself. Your invitation reminds me once more of the discrepancy between reality and official admissions. Officially no relations exist between our countries, but nevertheless we know the enormous interest with which everything that goes on in the Soviet Union is followed in your country. The fact that there are more permanent newspaper correspondents from America in Moscow than from any other country is a sufficient proof of this. More visitors from America arrive annually at our capital even than from the continent of Europe. Finally, immense quantities of American machinery and tractors are in use in our factories and giant industrial enterprises, as well as in collective farms, and thousands of American engineers, mechanics and workers are taking an active part in the construction of our country. The people of the Soviet Union are also following life and literature in America with the greatest interest.

I read in the papers yesterday that as many as 65,000 Chinese troops are gathered at Shanghai, where fighting is going on. It must be assumed that there are at least as many if not more Japanese troops. This means fighting between armies running into hundreds of thousands, but officially

there is no war. Here we have another example of the discrepancy between official testimony, official admissions and reality.

But that is not what I wanted to talk about. It seems almost impossible to speak here on any other theme excepting those which are the center of interest in Geneva—at any rate international Geneva. Everybody here has one ear filled with talk of peace and disarmament, and the other with the voice of war, the clash of arms on the field of battle. We are all valiantly pretending that the discourses on future peace drown the voice of present war. When people here exchange impressions of the first week of the Conference, it is the thing to answer in a spirit of optimism, referring to the good beginning made and even to the defeat of those pessimists who had shaken their heads dolefully at the start. If I could really believe that optimism would help the Conference to succeed, would be of any use to the cause of disarmament and peace, believe me, Ladies and Gentlemen, you would hear from my lips the most sanguine utterances and rosy prophecies. . . .

Turning to facts I cannot see that we have more reason for optimism now than we had on the eve of the Conference. The Conference, it is true, has only just been born, after heavy and prolonged birthpangs, and has not as yet put on weight, or acquired a voice of its own, but the movements it has so far made, the sounds it has emitted, have not been such as to enable us to discern tokens of its future strength, capacity and powers.

For, after all, up to the present we have had nothing but the general declarations of delegations. We have learned the positions taken up by the various governments in these declarations. It seems to me that anything new we have heard, points rather to a retreat from these positions still farther away from disarmament. While the Preparatory Commission did at least discuss limitation and reduction, we now learn, at the Conference itself, that certain governments declare their entire disagreement with any reduction of armaments whatsoever, unless preliminary conditions, which, moreover, will be found to be quite unacceptable to the Conference as a whole, are fulfilled. We have even heard demands for the increase of armaments, and that by no means from weak states with low armaments. . . .

Taking it all around I can see no grounds for optimism.

If in addition to all this you take into consideration that, in my opinion, in the opinion of the Soviet Delegation, even the reduction of armaments (not to mention limitation) is but a weak palliative, bringing us no nearer to the only aim justifying the conference being held in the present international situation, after thirteen years of arduous preparations, namely, the aim of security against war; and if you further consider that our appeal for total general disarmament, for the only guarantee against war, has found no response at the Conference, you will readily understand that I am the last person from whom to expect a note of optimism.

Those new proposals which *have* been made at the Conference raise fears that the Conference itself might be side-tracked. We have always held that disarmament could only be interpreted either as the abolition or the reduction of armaments, and that the Conference should deal with the question of armaments. It appears, however, that this view of the task of the Conference is not unanimously held. Even at the Preparatory Commission attempts were made to substitute the question of security for that of armaments. . . .

No one can have anything against security, nor has the Soviet Delegation, but we do say that under the political and economic conditions prevailing in most countries, nations and states will have security *only* when no one can attack them, when there are no arms with which to attack, with which to occupy foreign territory, with which to subjugate other nations. The exponents of the opposite view see security only in the more or less leveling of the chances of victory, by the redistribution, or even the increase of armaments. But pre-war history also knew this sort of security. Does it really amount to anything more than the time-honored principle of the balance of power, which ruled pre-war diplomacy? This principle which at the best only increased the security of some nations at the expense of others, did not save the world from the most terrible war it has ever known, from which it emerged with even less confidence in security than it had before. Was it really necessary to undergo all the horrors and disasters of World War, to spend thirteen years preparing for a conference, to contrive all sorts of pacts and international treaties, in order to end up with the old principle of international diplomacy, merely slightly modified and modernized?

We are hearing a great deal about moral disarmament just now. Although we have not yet diminished existing military aggregates by a single unit, we are being asked to go in for moral disarmament. Again, nobody is going to say a word against moral disarmament, against the abolition of chauvinism and jingoism in press, literature, the cinema, schoolbooks, toys and the like, against the exposure of forged documents and the whole bag of tricks. I should be the last to object to such proposals, since there can hardly be any other country which has been the object of so much moral poison in the press, public speeches, even official documents, as the Soviet Union. I might call upon you, citizens of the

United States, to bear testimony to the truth of this. No one knows better than you the attempts continually being made to poison the relations between our countries by systematic organized campaigns of slander, libel and forged documents, campaigns instigated by certain commercial and banking circles, with interests of their own to serve, political adventurers, counter-revolutionary émigrés, ready to sell themselves today to Japan, tomorrow to China, the next day to any old country. It is not then for *us* to object to measures directed against such gangsters of the printed and spoken word. But there is a time and a season for everything. Moral disarmament has just been made the subject of an international conference convened by the Danish government, and the Soviet Union took part in it gladly and played an active part in it. But all this has little to do with the abolition or reduction of armaments, and for my part I am convinced that it is precisely the existence of armaments, and of big scale armaments, and the hope, by means of these armaments and the help of alliances and treaties, of conducting profitable and successful wars, which create chauvinism, that poisoning of the wells of intelligence, which we are being invited to put an end to by administrative means alone.

Nobody will deny that profound differences—economic, political and even territorial—exist between capitalist states. There are countries which consider that neighboring states are wrongly and illegally occupying land which belongs to themselves, hence the agitation for the restoration of infringed rights, for the revision of frontier lines, and the like. But these differences are not to be settled by the fortunate owners of disputed territory merely saying to their neighbors: "Forgive us our trespasses as we forgive you yours." Not thus is history made, not thus are international relations changed. What we have got to see to is that these grievances, these dissatisfactions, should not lead to attempts to alter the situation by armed force, attempts which can be prevented only by the abolition of armaments, by the abolition of armed forces. So long as armed force exists there will be faith in it, and in the possibility of getting the upper hand of neighbors by increasing armaments, and through political combinations, inside or outside of international organizations. And so long as armed force exists chauvinism and militarism in education will continue. Moral disarmament cannot help here. It is bound to follow on actual disarmament, but can never be a substitute for it. Only when we have finished with the immediate task of the Conference and achieved appreciable success with regard to actual disarmament, shall we be free to discuss measures of moral disarmament also, which then and then only are sure to be crowned with a certain degree of success. . . .

I may be told that governments are often compelled by public opinion in their own countries to maintain armaments and pursue chauvinistic policy, and that, therefore, as public opinion becomes more enlightened its pressure will lessen and governments will be more amenable to the idea of disarmament. I cannot share this view. Campaigns of chauvinism and national hatred, the setting of nation against nation, have never yet come from the heart of the masses. Such campaigns are always organized and artificially nourished by small groups interested in warlike preparations, the manufacture of munitions, and war industry, potential war-profiteers. They very often succeed in poisoning the minds of the masses for their own ends. Deprive these groups of their base, remove them from war industry, destroy this industry, destroy their hopes of war and of profits to be drawn from war, and these campaigns will die out of themselves, for they will become pointless. Then you will have true moral disarmament, without the need of any special administrative measure. . . . Once real soldiers have been got rid of, the world will have nothing to fear from tin soldiers. . . .

I should be sorry to leave you under the impression that we can see one point only to the exclusion of all others. As I have already said, we do not ignore the importance of security, moral disarmament and all other good things which may be proposed to the Conference, but we are definitely against their being substituted for disarmament. The more time we spend talking about security and moral disarmament, the less we shall disarm, and the more we really do disarm, the more security and moral disarmament will be achieved.

In conclusion I should like to remark that people do not always look for the causes of insecurity in the proper place. Some delegates at the Conference, for instance, even regarded the fact that the Soviet Union does not belong to the League of Nations as a cause of insufficient security. It is noteworthy that such misgivings were expressed by representatives of states themselves maintaining no relations with the Soviet Union. This is almost like trying to get a man, whose acquaintance you do not desire, to join your club. If, however, we are to look anywhere, outside of armaments themselves, for factors creating an alarming political atmosphere, mistrust and instability, we are more likely to find them in the existence of political and economic estrangement between several states on the one hand, and the Soviet Union with its 160 million inhabitants on the other. In this respect we only have to glance at the events now going on on the shores of the Pacific, where three of the biggest Pacific countries, namely, the U.S.S.R., China and the United States, are involved in such estrangement. It seems to me that not much

imagination and political perspicacity are required to understand the extent to which this circumstance influenced, if it did not actually cause, present occurrences in the Far East, or to understand that but for this circumstance these unfortunate occurrences might not have arisen or might have looked quite different.

I am afraid, however, that I am getting on to slippery ground and digressing somewhat from my subject, as well as, it seems to me, abusing your patience. I will, therefore, only return for a moment to my original theme to express the wish that the work of the Disarmament Conference may justify the hopes of the most optimistic of you, and put my more cautious appraisal completely to shame.

Women Celebrate Gains

MARCH 8, International Women's Day, is always made the occasion for checking up the progress made by the women of the Soviet Union in taking full advantage of the complete equality accorded them under the Soviet government. Mass meetings to discuss problems of special concern to women are held throughout the country, the opening of institutions of special importance to women—crèches, factory kitchens, public laundries—is celebrated, groups of women are graduated from special courses where they have been trained for more highly skilled jobs, large numbers of women are promoted to higher positions in every walk of life.

The reports presented this year showed women participating in the social and economic life of the country to a greater extent than ever before.

Since the beginning of the Five-Year Plan, more than 3,000,000 women have been drawn into production. On October 1, 1923, there were 2,394,000 employed women throughout the U.S.S.R. There are now 6,000,000. It is expected that about a million and a half more will be attracted to employment during 1932. There are 323,000 women in the Communist Party, 1,500,000 in the Comsomol organization, 300,000 women are members of Soviets, executive and revision committees, and more than 500,000 women are working in the various sections of the Soviets. There are four and a half million women trade union members and thousands and tens of thousands of women teachers, doctors, agriculturists, and engineers.

Soyuzphoto

Woman irrigation engineer on inspection trip

Soyuzphoto

Central-Asian delegate to a Soviet Congress

During the past three years upwards of half

a billion rubles have been spent on the care of mothers and infants in the Soviet Union. For children's playgounds and kindergartens alone 200,000,000 rubles was spent in 1931. A large number of modern factory kitchens, bakeries, restaurants, laundries have been built in the last few years. In 1931 alone the number of places in day nurseries increased from 100,000 to 1,400,000, and 5,000,000 peasant children were cared for in the day nurseries and kindergartens in the collectives in 1931.

In 1932, 3,500,000 more children will be taken in to crèches in the agricultural collectives. The best evidence of the success of the Soviet program for the care of mothers and infants is that the infant mortality rate has been halved in the European part of the U.S.S.R. as compared with pre-revolutionary days.

The growing participation of women in socialist forms of labor is evidenced by the fact that, according to an investigation of 1948 enterprises (in the metal, textile and chemical industry) carried on by the All-Union Council of Trade Unions, 54 per cent of the men participated in socialist competition and 55 per cent of the women, and in some branches of industry, the cotton cloth industry for instance, 74 per cent of the women were engaged in socialist competition.

In the past three years 15,000,000 illiterate women have learned to read and write.

The number of women employed at skilled jobs is increasing rapidly and every effort is being made to assist women in acquiring greater skill through special courses, and training for higher technical schools. The share of women in the factory and shop schools has increased from 28.8 per cent in 1928-29 to 47 per cent in 1931. In 1930, 27.5 per cent of the students accepted were women; by 1931 the percentage had increased to 41.

In medical and public health colleges 75 per cent of the students are women; in the normal schools, 51 per cent; in the technicums, 39.3 per cent, and in the workers' faculties, 18.1 per cent. In thirty scientific research institutes, 25 per cent of the "aspirants" are women.

The most striking advance is taking place among the women of the East. The first Turkish club for women, the club "Ali-Bairamov," was organized in Baku immediately after the establishment of the Soviet government in Azerbaidjan. This club has been the center of social and educational work among the Turkish women so long enslaved under the *shariat* (Mohammedan law).

During the election campaign of 1928-29, a great demonstration of freedom for women was held in Baku and throughout Azerbaidjan, during which 30,000 Turkish women cast off their veils, trampled them under foot, and burned them in huge bonfires. Since then there has been no need for similar campaigns, because the Turkish women, entering freely into all kinds of work and social life hitherto denied them, find their veils a nuisance, and cast them off of their own accord.

On January 1, 1932, about 40,000 women, among them 5,000 Turkish women, were working in different enterprises in Azerbaidjan. There are now 7,000 women in the oil industry where formerly no women worked.

A number of these women who were veiled prisoners not so many years ago, now hold responsible posts. Radjabova, a Turkish woman, is director of the Ali-Bairomov factory; Abdullayeva is the director of the school of a clothing

Checking up the day's work in an Uzbek cotton collective Soyuzphoto

factory; Seifullina is head of the bleaching department of the Lenin textile factory; Akenteva, who has been decorated with the Order of Labor, is an engineer in the Piatakov oil refinery.

During the last elections 8,577 women were elected to the village Soviets of Azerbaidjan, constituting 18.3 per cent of the members. Thirty-five women are presidents of village Soviets, and 787 presidium members. Over sixty per cent of the women eligible to vote participated in the last elections. Forty women were elected to the Central Executive Committee (the highest governing body) of Azerbaidjan, constituting 16.2 per cent of its membership.

In Kolhoz Fields

Translated from the Projector, Moscow, No. 34-36 of December, 1931. The article was written by a member of a group of Soviet writers, members of the writers' brigade of Moscow and surrounding region, who, accompanied by a photographer, visited the Ferghana region in Central Asia during the cotton harvest of last year. The group was composed of the poet Sannikov, the author Anov and the photographer Penson.

I. AKHUN BABAYEV

AKHUN BABAYEV is thirty-four years old but looks much older. His grizzled hair curls from under the embroidered Tartar cap showing a life full of trials. The *basmatchi* (dispossessed feudal landlords) helped Akhun Babayev to turn gray sooner than his time. But they gave him the necessary hardening for the struggle. He was one of the first organizers of the *kolhoz* (collective) movement in the Kokand district. He formed the strong kolhoz "Communism" containing 340 families. The peasants of the collective promoted him on to very responsible work in Kokand, and in time he was elected chairman of the Kokand Soviet.

The former *batrak* (farm-hand) came to the city Soviet illiterate. But it was inconvenient for the chairman of the city Soviet to affix his mark to business papers with his thumb instead of signing them properly. Akhun Babayev learned first of all to write his name and then signed up in a course to overcome his illiteracy.

Akhun Babayev is the symbol of present-day Kokand.

In what way is the city of Kokand today remarkable? It is studying. The whole city is studying. We rambled about in the evening and on one street alone we counted about ten houses in which people were sitting at school desks. These were schools for the illiterate.

A bootblack, an elderly Uzbek, sitting near the hotel, carefully cleaned one shoe but declined to polish the other; it was seven o'clock and he was in a hurry to get to school. He gathered his brushes in a box and advised us to go to the moving picture house—another bootblack was stationed there who studied during the day.

And we saw a still older native sitting on the driver's seat of a cart, a primer in his hand. He was waiting for a passenger and in order not to lose time, was studying the alphabet.

In the teahouse on Khaidarbek Street, under a kerosene lamp, Uzbeks with bowls of tea beside them were writing in copybooks. There sat the teacher, a young Comsomol, pointing out and correcting mistakes. A volunteer teacher, volunteer pupils.

We went with great interest to the *kishlak* (village) of Yangi to see the kolhoz "Communism" organized by Akhun Babayev.

Many pickers were in the cotton fields. While it is customary in this region for women to do the cotton picking, here the men also worked and not only near the scales but side by side with their wives in the field. Instead of riding up to the kishlak we got down and jumped across an irrigation ditch into the field. Akhun Babayev wanted to show us the patch from which the kolhoz counted on gathering two and a half tons of cotton. It was true, in this section the cotton was tall, thick with many opened pods.

"Good little fellows, well-watered"—the collectivists explained.

Akhun Babayev's face lighted up with a smile, he was proud of the good cotton.

The collective women, seeing strange men arriving, quickly moved on to new places. Only three girls remained near us.

Afterwards we learned that these girls were Comsomols, but one of them still wore the *parandjah* (veil). A Comsomol and the parandjah! A strange combination, even more so than a collectivist and the parandjah. But we were in a district which had just become fully collectivized, in a district which had cast away the dark and servile remnants of the past.

The three Comsomol girls from the kolhoz "Communism" will without a doubt not stay put in the kishlak of Yangi. Life is forcing them to go to the city to study—Soviet Uzbekistan needs cultural and cultured workers. Was it perhaps for this reason that the girls (whom someone told that we came from far-off Moscow) looked at us with furtive curiosity?

The picked cotton was gathered together in the field under the tall poplars. The home-made scales were very primitive—a stick with flat bas-

Soyuzphoto

Cultivating cotton in the Ferghana region

kets tied on cords — but worked satisfactorily. Stones served for weights. The brigade leader placed the cotton on the scales, made a notation in a book and the cotton poured to the ground. It gleamed in the sun in its wonderful whiteness, like first snow on the fields. Two Uzbeks filled bags with the cotton and carried them to a cart.

"Look at the brigadier," they told us, pointing to an alert man near the scales, "he has just 'liquidated' his illiteracy and now is teaching his comrades. Three fellows already can sign their names."

The "brigadier" could not speak Russian but he understood that the conversation was about him. He smiled deprecatingly, showing even teeth as white as the cotton and opened the record-book. We looked respectfully at the long columns which he had lovingly put down.

In the kishlak of Yangi, Akhun Babayev took us to the school. Evening was approaching. On the road the cart raised rosy dust. It was still light. But in the school, hanging kerosene lamps already burned in the three classrooms. The rooms were empty. Yulgash Chudbai, moistening the duster, wiped the chalk marks from the class blackboard. He was on duty today, and therefore had come to school earlier than the others.

Of course it was not exactly a sensible thing to light the kerosene lamps a half hour earlier than necessary, particularly when the evening sun still shone in the window. Kerosene should be used economically. But Yulgash Chudbai's action was informative and interesting: these people were not only striving for knowledge but hurrying to get it as quickly as possible. Yulgash Chudbai explained that lighting the lamps when the students are assembled diverts their attention from the business at hand and wastes "good minutes for study."

The women from the collective come to the school, they roll up their veils and put them in their desks, get out paper and textbooks. Fingers which gather cotton during the day hold a pencil, not quite correctly, but with great vigor. Eyes look attentively at the blackboard. The woman teacher goes among the desks. The women from the collective form their first letters, their fingers trembling with emotion.

The school was built a year ago. The kolhoz "Communism" began its existence with this first building. Now a new building is under construction—a "red teahouse" opposite the administration office of the kolhoz. But this is not the usual type of teahouse. It has a stage and rooms for club and "circle" meetings.

"We'll read newspapers, battle over chess, the young people will organize a stringed orchestra, there will be a reading room, we'll show moving pictures!"

Akhun Babayev was not called in vain to the post of chairman of the Kokand city Soviet. Able to organize a good kolhoz in his own kishlak, he can be a good head of the city. The kolhoz at present unites three kishlaks of 360 families. There are eleven mosques in these three kishlaks. Party and Comsomol organizations are growing. Seventy per cent of the women in the collective have discarded the veil. The night schools are filled with those desirous of studying. Near the administration building a loudspeaker rattles hoarsely. And by now an automobile causes no particular surprise. Every kolhoz dreams of getting one. Five years ago the appearance of an automobile in a kishlak was a sensation, but now they are used to it. An old man standing in the doorway of the administration building and smoking caltrop, did not even raise his head when a Ford, mind you, stopped directly in front of him.

"Communism" is leading the collective members on a new road to life. Last year each family earned from 500 to 2000 rubles. This year the harvest is not yet all in but the kolhoz warehouse is already filled with wheat.

II. FIRST IN THE HARVEST

We are driving to the fields. The first crop is being picked. The women's brigades with their colorful dresses and kerchiefs can be distinguished in the overflowing white-green fields. Stooping low under the cotton plants, they pull

off the congealed fleecy foam and gather into bags the downy, soft, white cotton which in a week will pass through the gin to be cleaned; the fiber will be pressed in bales and will go to the Trekhgornaya factory in Moscow, to the Soviet Manchester, Ivanovo-Voznesensk, but the lint is for local needs, for *khalats* (robes), for warm quilts.

In all the fields in all districts only women pick the cotton. Men's brigades are a rare sight. This is one of the essential reasons for the backwardness of the districts in fulfilling the plan. But the women are real heroines of labor, enthusiastic cotton pickers. In every district they set the example. Working steadily under the scorching rays of the Ferghana sun, they show sixty to ninety kilograms for a day's work. The husbands more frequently limit themselves to filling the sacks with the cotton and then ask the "brigadier" to put them down for a day and a half's work, saying that to fill bags is more arduous than picking cotton in the field.

The members of the collective crowded around us. At one side were the scattered white cotton seeds. Around about children were hanging on the women's arms, lying on the red-hot earth, in the dust, half naked, crying. The women, pointing to the torn, dirty dresses, spoke hastily, in Uzbek, to Ashurov.

There is much talk in Central Asia now about children's crèches. To listen to them one would think there is not a kolhoz without a crèche. Unfortunately this is talk only. We travelled over thousands of kilometers through the Ferghana kolhozes but saw few crèches. They were primitively organized, frequently they had no beds or cribs, a sufficient staff as well as necessary medicines were lacking and the food was not of the best. In addition, in some districts the women in charge of the crèches, strictly regulating their working day, closed them at two o'clock; the kolhoz women had to stop work and take their babies to the field with them. Then there are the children's crèches in the kolhoz "Kzyl Shark" in the Kokand district. They have beds, the children are given cocoa, drops are put in their eyes, games organized for the older children. But there were only eighteen children in these crèches. The rest were on the fields; half naked babies crawl in the dust under the blazing sun, swarms of gnats buzz about them and bite them. Work does not advance with the mothers: they must feed the children, quiet them, cover the curly heads from the gnats and the sun.

It is impossible to overlook the eye disease from which almost all the children suffer. One seldom meets a child with clear, healthy eyes and never stumbles on a doctor or feldsher to treat the trachoma.

The kolhoz woman worker showed her best side in this year's cotton harvest. She worked for improvement in the society of which she is a part, but above all for healthy, clean surroundings for the children. When Shaduntz, administrative chairman of the Central Asian Cotton Committee, announced in the kolhoz "Gullistan" that a prize would be given for the completion of the year's plan by November 20, the kolhoz women laid down conditions.

"Give us fifty beds for a children's crèche,—and we will finish the plan for the year by October 20."

"Good, I'll give you the beds, you hurry the picking. Fifty beds for the children and ten for adults."

This conversation occurred when we were in Kokand in the first part of October. We returned on the nineteenth. The kolhoz "Gullistan" completed the plan on that day. The chairman himself came galloping up from the kolhoz. He tied his steaming horse in the yard and went up to the hotel. He was a quiet, shy man, but now he walked with the heavy, sure step of the victor. Shaduntz was in the district. The kolhoz chairman sat patiently in the hotel four hours.

"Urtak Shadiyunus" — said the chairman, handing him the report, when at last he came, "where are your beds? The kolhoz 'Gullistan' has exceeded the plan."

Soyuzphoto

The agronom visits a Tashkent collective

Soyuzphoto

Out-of-door nursery in Bokhara cotton field

Mirzadzhanov, secretary of the Kokand city committee quickly read the report.

"Sixty beds," the chairman of "Gullistan" reminded him, as if fearing that they might miscount, "fifty for children and ten for adults!"

He emphasized the word "children" and it was clear to everybody that he might give up the "adult beds," but the children's, never.

The prize was won.

Sixty beds for a kolhoz is a good showing. This is the best award to the kolhoz women for their heroic labor. The longing of the Uzbek women for crèches shows a definite swing away from the customary way of things in the kishlak. The woman collective member standing in the front ranks in times of stress in the cotton fields, has been remade, she is becoming a different woman, active, daring.

"Give my child a clean bed," she asks of the administration, "I'll work in the field, I have been a good *udarnik* (shock worker) and I've picked ninety kilograms. They say my name was printed in the newspaper, but I want my child to be in a crèche."

III. THE KOLHOZ "SHADIYUNUS"

"Dear Comrade Chairman Shadiyunus! May your shadow on this earth not diminish. May your name be remembered forever. We respectfully inform you that the poor peasants of Chuvalanchi kishlak, Chuvalanchi village Soviet, gathered together on the 10th of January, 1931, decided to organize a new kolhoz and give it your fragrant, bright name. We are sure that our unanimously chosen patron will not refuse to supply the collective members with wheat, manufactured goods and boots, because our kolhoz is poor and our only hope is for a patron. We ask you to come to the kishlak of Chuvalanchi and acquaint yourself with affairs here and with our new way of life upon which the merry sun has now risen. May the light not be extinguished from your eyes. May roses bloom on your path.

"*Chairman of the kolhoz*, YULDASH KHAKIMOV,
"*Secretary*, AKRIM OGLI."

This vivid, buoyant letter sent to comrade Shaduntz was translated for us.

Chuvalanchi is an unusual kishlak. It differs from the other kishlaks of the Ferghana region in that it is more tangled up, running zig-zag with crooked streets. The very name Chuvalanchi means "snarl." The narrow, corridor-like streets have low gray terraces planted with poplars, their dark leaves covered with dust.

The kolhoz members, hearing that we might come to Chuvalanchi, waited eight whole days for us. Eight days in succession they carefully swept and watered the streets of the kishlak near the administration building of the kolhoz. But we came on the ninth day. The kolhoz members had already given up hope of seeing their patron and the street was unswept and unwashed. Even the chairman of the kolhoz, Yuldash Khakimov, known to us by the letter, was in a neighboring collective. A rider galloped after him, raising the dust and shouting at the horse.

A thick dust was raised about the terraces while we waited for the chairman. They were cleaning up in the courtyard of the administration building. People came to us from all sides—kolhoz members, amiably greeting us and attentively looking to see which of us was Shadiyunus. From a neighboring house they brought gay Uzbek quilts, spread them out on shelves near the stove, placed pillows under our elbows, quickly started the samovar, which they had brought from the teahouse. The collective members were receiving their patron.

All out of breath Yuldash Khakimov came running, a small, brisk Uzbek. His gray, restless eyes sparkled with joy. He was agitated and preoccupied with the pleasant worry of how to treat the long-awaited guests.

Yuldash Khakimov was the organizer of the kolhoz "Shadiyunus." The Uzbeks do not pronounce the word "Shaduntz" clearly and his name became Shadiyunus, which, in its Russian translation means "jolly prophet." This Yuldash Khakimov, we learned at the time, was the first to get the idea of naming the kolhoz after Shaduntz. At his dictation the secretary, Akrim Ogli, wrote three invitations to come to the kolhoz, and to show greater respect inserted on his own initiative the flowery phrases which he borrowed from old books of Eastern poets. Of the three invitations, two did not reach their destination, being lost, one by the salesman of Uzbektorg, the other by the chauffeur of the Machine and Tractor Station.

Following the chairman came Sherip Imsutdinov, field foreman, tall, dark. He moved steadily, surely, with a heavy step—it was obvious that he knew the value of his abilities.

Then began the hospitable Eastern greeting and entertainment. The secretary of the Kolhoz, Akrim Ogli, stood bashfully to one side, unimpressive in appearance and with very red hair, in a colored Tartar cap which did not fit him at all. He was wearing clean new linen in honor of the guests. On the side of the glossy shirt was the blue mark of the Textile Syndicate. Akrim Ogli did not at all resemble an Uzbek.

"Other collectives are afraid to compete with us. We are first in all directions," said Yuldash Khakimov, giving us a brief history of the beginning and development of the kolhoz.

At the start twenty-eight families signed up, but four were rejected. ("They were lazy and kulaks.") Afterwards twenty-seven additional families entered. The number at present is fifty-three families altogether. It is interesting to note that there are only three children in the kolhoz. Almost all the members are young and unmarried. According to the plan for Septem-

ber they had to supply five and a half tons of cotton but gave six.

"Because we all worked," explained Sherip Imsutdinov.

The kolhoz has a three-wheeled water mill confiscated from the bey. The mill brings them a good income. Individual peasants daily apply for permission to enter the kolhoz. It provided four tractorists. One of them has already become a mechanic.

The chairman and the foreman spoke of kolhoz matters, of piece-work, of wheat. Tea was poured into the *pialas* (bowls) and they treated us to milk cakes. In the courtyard it was already dark and cool with the coming of evening. Someone lit a lamp below us.

"What do you expect from the patron?" Ashurov asked the collective members.

The members of the administration smiled. But their smile was polite and dignified.

"Two horses," said Sherip Imsutdinov, "we do not have enough for transportation."

"It's possible to arrange that."

"If the patron will give us boots, the people in the collective will be so happy," and he laid his right hand on his heart, "our people are barefooted and soon the weather will change, it will be damp and cold."

"Well, what else do you need?"

"Nothing more," Sherip Imsutdinov answered again for everybody.

Shadiyunus promised to give the horses and boots but laid down a condition: the kolhoz must complete seventy per cent of its yearly plan by the first of November.

"We'll fill it!" answered the foreman.

"Well, look out, if you fail, you'll have to give up the name Shadiyunus."

"You don't have to talk like that," the foreman was injured, "if you take away the name we'll be broken up. Why offend the kolhoz members?"

The kolhoz "Shadiyunus" fulfilled the plan before the time set and received its reward.

Soviet Films

THE first Soviet cinema conference was held in Moscow early in January. Reports were made on the prospects for the development of the cinema in the U.S.S.R., on the work during 1931 and plans for 1932.

According to the reports there were in all only 1,045 cinema theaters in Russia before the revolution. By October 1, 1927, the number had reached 7,251, by October 1, 1930, 21,985, and by January 1, 1932, the number was over 32,000. The total number of pictures shown has doubled in the past three years. The number of pictures produced within the U.S.S.R. has greatly increased, and only about half as many foreign films are shown now as was the case three years back.

In spite of this expansion the conference found that the cinema industry was still far from meeting the growing requirements of the country. It was voted that capital investment for the "kinofication" of the U.S.S.R. should be increased from 23,000,000 rubles in 1931 to 131,211,000 rubles in 1932, and that the number of motion picture houses be increased by 72 per cent.

The plan for 1932 presented to the conference calls for better service to the national republics and rayons. Special attention will also be paid to the increased use of motion pictures in schools and educational institutions generally. At the beginning of this year there were about 3,000 cinema machines in use in schools. It is expected to increase this number to 17,000 by the end of the year.

A group of Moscow pedagogical specialists and psychologists have undertaken to film the

From "Road to Life"—Amkino
One of the "wild boys"

life of a child from its first movements and to put its first intellectual reflexes on the screen. This film is intended chiefly for specialists, in particular for students of the pedagogical schools. A small explanatory pamphlet has also been issued

From "The Soil is Thirsty"—Amkino

A young Soviet engineer

which explains the film to wider circles of the public.

An example of the new educational films is seen in that one recently made by the Mezhrabpom in 36 reels, showing all the details of work of a tractorist. Several hundred copies of the picture are now being sent to all machine and tractor stations where a large number of people will for the first time see the structure and function of the tractor.

Sound films will be greatly increased in the course of the year. From 53 sound picture machines in the entire U.S.S.R. the number will grow to 3,586—450 in the city picture houses, 1,206 in clubs, 300 in schools, 300 for the Red army, and 1,330 for the villages. In the second Five-Year Plan the number of silent films will be increased each year as follows: 1932—320; 1933—660; 1934—950; 1935—1,150; 1936—1,550; 1937—1,900. Sound films will increase as follows during the same period: 87, 193, 307, 550, 985 and 1,350.

The number of cinema apparatuses will increase during the next five years as follows: 38,000; 60,500; 72,500; 88,600, 108,300; 122,500. A new film manufacturing plant will be established with a capacity of 150,000,000 meters of film a year.

Another problem to be taken up is that of training specialists for the film industry. Hitherto attention has been paid mainly to scenario writers, directors and other workers for artistic films. In the future more attention is to be paid to training of people to produce scientific and educational films.

The pictures made in the Soviet Union are made not only in Russian and Ukrainian but also in eighteen other languages. The third largest group is that with German titles. Since the middle of 1931 two or three copies of all films are made with German text. They are intended not only for the German colony within the Union but also for the large plants employing workers from Germany.

For some years film production has been organized in the national districts themselves. The most successful so far have been in Georgia, where a whole school of modern young directors has grown up. Names such as Shengelaya, who made "Elisso," from Tretyakov's work of that name; Tshiaureli, who did "Saba"; Kalatossov, who did "Salt from Swanetia," of Tretyakov, are all well known already.

Vostokkino is building a new studio in Kazan, the center of the Volga Tartars. An old Russian monastery will be adapted to this purpose. New studios for national films will be built in Central Asia, White Russia, Azerbaidjan, and Armenia.

Soviet Films in America

Ever since "Potemkin" was first shown in America, the motion pictures made in the Soviet Union have excited admiration and respect in the motion picture world. "Ten Days That Shook the World," "The End of St. Petersburg," "Old and New," "Storm over Asia," and other Soviet pictures have become measuring sticks, not only for technical excellence, but for their vigor, honesty and realism.

One of the chief characteristics of Soviet films is their use of actual events for subject matter. The Soviet cinema, like the theater, keeps the people in direct touch with the dramatic progress of the social and economic upbuilding of the country. And not only do Soviet pictures go to real life for their material but to a large extent for their casts as well. If a cinema director wants a street crowd he uses a real street crowd, if he wants Red Army soldiers he uses the real thing, if he wants homeless children, he takes real homeless children. This is even true in some cases with respect to the leading characters.

In the United States, the change to sound pictures was made quickly, there being only the factor of entertainment involved. But in the Soviet Union where most films are educational, the needs of thousands of village reading rooms,

workers' clubs and educational institutions had to be considered, as well.

The continued production of silent films was essential to such groups. But Soviet engineers were experimenting with sound equipment; the first demonstration of sound apparatus by the engineers Shorin and Tager occurred more than three years ago. The first sound program was released in Moscow in 1930.

The earlier sound recording apparata have now been supplemented by a new and more perfect apparatus invented by Ball, a research worker of the Ukrainian Cinema Trust, in cooperation with engineer Sneshko-Blodsky, who is employed in the Cinematography Research Institute of Moscow.

The new sound apparatus is portable, light, easily installed and operated and extremely cheap, and it will greatly reduce the cost of recording sound for the cinema. The apparatus produces a very clear and natural sound. Production of this new apparatus has already been started.

While technical facilities were being perfected, the Russian directors formulated theories and plans for sound pictures. The Association of Cinematographists opened special courses on sound recording and cutting. The first fully worked out "talkie," "Road to Life," which has recently been released in America, was preceded by a very few experimental efforts. The first sound program was musical. A few films of newsreel character were made, the most important of them being "Thirteen Days," the report of the trial of engineers accused of counter-revolutionary activities. "Enthusiasm," an industrial film of the Don Basin, was produced with synchronized sound effects. With only these tentative and experimental efforts behind it, "Road to Life" contributes a new technique in the use of sound.

"Road to Life" was directed by Nikolai Ekk, a young man who formerly was an assistant to Meyerhold in directing stage productions. This first talking picture is built on a technique of "sound montage," comparable to the visual "montage" which was the peculiar contribution of the Russian directors to the art of the silent film. The sound—whether dialogue, music, or natural sounds, is part of the fundamental structure of the picture.

There is dialogue only when the characters would naturally speak. As much of the story as may be is told by pantomime and by staccato camera shots pieced together in that "impression-sequence" that makes "montage." In some parts of the picture it seems as if the director had been as sparing of his sound effects as an orchestra leader of his drums; in other parts the dialogue tumbles out of the screen in rich, full-throated Russian clamor.

Ekk uses his sound in two ways. First, it is an accompaniment to and an integral part of sequence, the audible effects being woven inextricably into the visual. Second, sound is used contrapuntally, the relation of the audible to the visual being one of contrast and emphasis.

The director occasionally makes use of inserted titles, to advance his plot in order to relieve his characters from the necessity of giving general information. He has introduced also an anonymous vioce, which either tells what is happening or points the social lesson of the incident.

The picture has been prepared for American audiences with English titles superimposed on the film, so that the dialogue of the actors is translated as it is spoken.

The picture tells the story of the regeneration of the *bezprizornie* (homeless children), and is acted by a cast of former *bezprizornie*. It shows the Soviet method of reclaiming the "wild boys" through work and responsibility rather than punishment. While the social message of the picture is emphatic, it is shown through a stirring tale leading through the early scenes of wild and picturesque adventure to the even more dramatic growth of the new community built up by the boys themselves. At the present writing, "Road to Life" has been shown in sixteen cities in America.

"The Cossacks of the Don," which recently opened in New York, is a dramatization of a novel by Shokolov, "The Quiet River Don." It is a tale of Cossack life just before the war. It was directed by Olga Preobrazhenskaya, who directed "The Village of Sin."

Amkino Corporation will release about thirty-five feature films in the United States this year. Part of these will be sound pictures. In addition Amkino will distribute newsreels, "sound shorts" and educational pictures. Many of the "shorts," are half newsreel—half ethnographic studies of remote places.

Some of the features soon to be seen in America are as follows:

"Alone," directed by Trauberg and Kozintzev, who made "The New Babylon," is a story of the struggle for "the new life" in the remote Altai mountains. Most of its cast are nomad shepherds. "Close Ranks," directed by Protozanov, shows an episode from the play, "The Armored Train." "The Soil is Thirsty" shows the operation of the Five-Year Plan in faraway Turkestan, among a backward and primitive people. It was directed by Reisman.

A film especially appropriate for schools is "Killing to Live," a nature picture, which is available as a silent film or with a synchronized lecture. It is based on biological theory—the survival of the fittest—and was made with wild animals in remote parts of Russia and Asia.

"Palace of Soviets" Competition

THE simple and beautiful design of Hector O. Hamilton, a young American architect of East Orange, New Jersey, was one of the three to share the first prize for the "Palace of Soviets" competition, according to the decision of the Soviet committee of judges announced on February 28. The other first prizes, which are for 12,000 rubles ($6,180), each went to the Soviet architects, I. V. Zhotlovsky and B. M. Yofan.

Altogether 272 designs were submitted by Soviet and foreign architects. Over a hundred were submitted by workers' groups. Twelve Americans participated in the competition.

In addition to the three first prizes, three designs received awards of 10,000 rubles each, five received awards of 5,000 each, and five received awards of 3,000 each. The design presented by the American architects Alfred Kastner and Oscar Stonorov, was one of those to receive a 5,000 ruble award. The designers of twenty-one additional projects received awards consisting of scholarships, sets of architects' materials, and smaller sums of money.

Honorable mention was given to the designs of the American architects Thomas Lamb and Joseph Urban, which were among those specially commissioned by the committee in charge, and to six other foreign architects. It was stated that features of these designs receiving honorable mention would be used in the final project.

It was also announced that 60,000 rubles would be used for the purpose of buying designs and models which, while not receiving prizes, contained important details which might be useful in the actual construction of the Palace of Soviets.

While praising the excellence of many of the projects submitted, the construction committee held that none of the projects completely expressed the "monumentalism, simplicity and perfection of architectural form symbolizing the greatness of our socialist construction" desired. It has therefore been decided to continue the competition, and the winners of awards have been appointed members of a committee to work out final plans and specifications for the Palace of Soviets. Mr. Hamilton has been invited to the Soviet Union to work with a group of Russian architects on the draughting of final plans.

The Palace of Soviets, which will be located on the bank of the Moscow River, near the center of the city, is designed to be used for mass congresses, meetings and demonstrations. The specifications call for two large halls, one with a seating capacity of 15,000, and one with a capacity of 5,900, the latter to be used chiefly for national congresses and conferences. There will also be a library for 500,000 volumes, reading rooms, exhibition halls, small assembly rooms, headquarters for foreign diplomatic corps, press rooms, etc.

G. M. Krjijanovsky is chairman of the committee of prominent Soviet architects, scientists, engineers, artists, writers, and others, who constituted the committee of judges. Among them were A. V. Lunacharsky, A. E. Fersman, V. I. Mezhlauk, A. N. Tolstoy, V. E. Meyerhold, C. S. Stanislavsky, and A. Fadeyev.

Prostitution Disappearing

EACH year there is less prostitution in the cities of the Soviet Union. In pre-war Moscow, when the population was hardly more than half of what it is today, there were 15,000 registered prostitutes in that city alone. In January of last year a thorough survey was made of Moscow for the purpose of finding out how many women were engaged in prostitution and giving them an opportunity of entering the prophylactic homes where they are given whatever medical treatment is necessary, are taught a trade, and assisted in finding regular employment. The survey revealed about seven hundred prostitutes among the three million inhabitants of Moscow, and established beyond question the fact that with the elimination of unemployment the chief cause of prostitution had been removed.

In the "Central Women's Prophylactor" in Moscow there are now 533 women undergoing treatment and training. They all work in the various shops maintained by the institution at sewing, weaving, box-making or other trades. Dormitories are provided for the women and they receive regular wages, averaging about fifty rubles a month of which half is retained by the institution for food and maintenance.

Great attention is paid in the prophylactor to cultural work of all kinds. Those who are illiterate are taught to read and write. There are general educational courses for the more advanced, and there are classes in hygiene, and physical culture and music "circles." The women publish their own wall-newspaper "The New Road." There is a women's delegates section, which studies social and political problems, and a Communist Youth nucleus.

In addition to the Central Prophylactor, there is also a model prophylactor which accommodates one hundred women. These prophylactors are perhaps the only institutions in Moscow which are not in the throes of a housing crisis, which is the best of evidence of the fact that prostitution is diminishing. There is plenty of room in them.

The Soviet Union and Japan

A leading editorial published in the Moscow Izvestia of March 4, and reprinted in all leading Soviet newspapers the following day.

MORE than five months have passed since the Japanese troops occupied the capital of Manchuria—Mukden, and the armed conflict in the Far East, which has been taking on ever more extensive proportions, commenced. Since that time there has not been a day that has not brought further aggravation of the situation in the Far East, there has not been a telegram that has not brought new evidence of the extraordinarily grave import of the events which are taking place. It is quite natural that public opinion in the Soviet Union should follow with special attention events which are in part unfolding at the very borders of the U.S.S.R.

From the first days of the Far Eastern conflict the U. S. S. R. has maintained a position of strict neutrality. The sympathies of the workers of the Soviet Union for the Chinese people, wasted with misery under the yoke of imperialist exploitation is, of course, an indisputable fact. But this sympathy for the struggle of liberation of the Chinese workers and peasants has not in any degree infringed the unchanging policy of strict non-interference which naturally follows from the general peaceful policy of the Soviet Union. As a result of this consistent position of the Soviet government with regard to events in Manchuria, all the provocative anti-Soviet slanderous attempts have one after another been dissipated. It is enough to recall the fate of the widespread slanderous campaign about the alleged aid given by the Soviet Union to General Ma, a campaign finally exposed before the world. The Soviet policy of non-interference and preservation of peace has received literally universal recognition, even from the adversaries of the Soviet Union. This policy pursued by the U.S.S.R. finally received recognition from the mouth of Japanese Foreign Minister Yoshizawa, who acknowledged in the Japanese parliament that the Japanese government recognized that the Soviet government had maintained a position of strict non-interference.

Nonetheless, we are witnessing a further revival of anti-Soviet intrigues in Manchuria. We are witnessing a whole series of provocative measures, the significance of which must on no account be underestimated. An abnormal situation is being created at our Far Eastern borders, requiring serious attention from us. A report published today of a statement made by a representative of the Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs may serve as an illustration of this unhealthy atmosphere. The latter took as the basis for his statement information received from the Japanese Consul General at Vladivostok who, in turn, having obviously no other sources, attributed it to "a reliable foreigner." The character of this information, built up of malicious lies and obvious falsifications, completely gives away its specific aims. There is therefore no necessity to deny the provocative reports to the effect that in the very near future a Japanese-Soviet collision will take place because, in the opinion of this "foreigner," "the Bolsheviks hate the Japanese," any more than it is necessary to deny the false reports of the concentration of a Soviet army of 100,000 in the region of Vladivostok.

But at the present moment we are interested not merely in this circumstance. What interests us more is the fact that Japanese politicians, in estimating the situation in the Far East, scoop up material from poisoned sources instead of paying the necessary attention to facts. These facts testify, on the one hand, to the consistently peaceful position of the Soviet Union, and on the other to a development of events which must give pause to every real proponent of peace. A careful analysis of these facts which we are now undertaking to clarify, shows that the situation with which the Soviet Union is faced in the Far East requires that it strengthen its defenses, protect its border from outside attack, in particular through the strengthening of the military garrisons on the Far Eastern borders of the U.S.S.R. This certainly we have no intention of hiding. The Soviet government, pursuing an open and consistent peaceful policy has no reason to hide from the masses how it estimates the Far Eastern situation. And this estimate, a conscientious analysis of the situation, shows that the very least the Soviet Union must do at the present moment is to take all the necessary and possible measures for the protection of its frontiers from outside attack.

Actually, do not the facts indeed give evidence of this? Have we not in the course of the past months, weeks and days, observed the most serious increase in constantly arising new anti-Soviet provocations? We cannot ignore the fact that very responsible representatives of Japanese military circles, and not military circles alone, put the question openly of an attack on the U.S.S.R. and of wresting from it the Maritime Province and Transbaikal. We have at our disposal documents proceeding from representatives of high

military circles of Japan and containing plans of attack on the U.S.S.R. and seizure of its territory.

One of these documents says:

> As to the question of whether Japan should go to war with the Soviet Union or not, I consider it necessary that Japan should adopt a strong policy in relation to the Soviet Union, and should be ready to start a war at any moment. The cardinal aim of this war must be not so much the protection of Japan from communism as the conquest of the Soviet Far East and Eastern Siberia.

In another document it is stated:

> A Japanese-Soviet war, considering the condition of the armed forces of the U.S.S.R. and the situation in foreign countries, must be undertaken as soon as possible. We must realize the fact that the longer it is put off the more favorable will the situation be for them. I consider it necessary that the imperial government should pursue a policy of beginning a war with the U.S.S.R. at the earliest possible moment.

In the same document the statement appears:

> It is entirely possible that, in spite of our strategy of smashing right through and attempting to finish things up as quickly as possible, in view of various conditions we shall not be able to carry on the war in complete accordance with our intended plan of action. The extremely important question of the final aim of our military operations arises. Obviously we shall have to advance as far as Lake Baikal. As regards advancing farther westward, that must depend on the general situation which will have been created by that time, and in particular on the condition of the countries which attack from the west. In the event that we stop at the Transbaikal railroad line, Japan will have to include the occupied Far Eastern region entirely within the dominion of the empire. Our troops must be sent into this territory as military colonizers, that is, for a long period. We must be prepared in carrying out this occupation to watch for the further development of events. In view of the fact that it will be difficult for Japan to inflict a mortal blow on the Soviet Union by means of war in the Far East, one of the most important aspects of our war must be strategic propaganda, through which we must draw her western neighbors and other countries into war with the U.S.S.R. and bring about ruin within the U.S.S.R. by making use of White groups both within and without the Union, as well as foreigners and all anti-Soviet elements. The present situation in the U.S.S.R. is very favorable to the carrying out of such a combination.

Finally, one more extract in the same spirit:

> Considering the general condition of the country, we may conclude that at the present time the Soviet Union has not the strength to carry on a war. The present moment is an exceptionally favorable one for our empire to undertake the solution of the Far Eastern problem. The western countries bordering on the U.S.S.R. (Poland, Rumania) now have an opportunity to attack in concert with us, but this opportunity will gradually diminish with each year.

The contents of these documents may perhaps be considered as merely the expression of the personal opinions of their authors. But the authors of these aggressive plans hold too responsible positions for even their personal opinions not to have grave political importance and not to compel us to regard the events occurring near our Far Eastern borders with the necessary vigilance and attention.

No unbiased politican can ignore the symptomatic meaning of the fact that during the past two months the Japanese government has not deemed it necessary to reply to the Soviet proposal for a non-aggression pact.

Extremely characteristic also are the anti-Soviet intrigues in Japan in connection with the fishing question. The campaign, propelled by very influential Japanese circles, is connected with the fisheries convention only in so far as it is clearly designed to disrupt that convention, the strict observance of which the Soviet government has considered and does consider absolutely essential. This campaign has nothing whatever to do with the question of fishing, but is an expression of the aggressive plans of those Japanese circles which would like to have free mastery of the Far Eastern waters and to carry out "yet wider schemes of conquest."

It is also clear that those who inspire Japanese policy in Manchuria cannot evade the responsibility for the anti-Soviet activities of the White guards, thus restored to hope. The Japanese government circles, for all their vaunted "lack of information" regarding the work of the White émigrés in Manchuria, cannot, we imagine, deny the fact that the activities of the White guards revived just after the occupation of Manchuria by Japanese troops and are increasing in direct proportion to the strengthening of Japanese influence in Manchuria. An endless number of indications of the fact that the aggressive activities of the White guards in Manchuria were directly connected with the Japanese occupation, could be cited.

Needless to say, the White émigrés themselves write of this with complete candor. Reports of the role of Japan as the protector of the anti-Soviet work of the White guards are being given in literally all the émigré organizations in Paris. As far back as January *Vozrozhdenie* wrote: "Japanese men-of-affairs have constantly emphasized the fact that they place epsecially high hopes on the Russians who are hostile to the U.S.S.R."

The connection between the Japanese plans and the anti-Soviet intrigures of the White guards is being constantly emphasized by foreign observers also. Thus, for instance, toward the end of February, the *New York Herald Tribune* wrote: "The enthusiasm with which the big 'White' colony welcomed the Japanese to Harbin certainly suggests that Japan has whispered promises to that ever-hopeful group." The Paris correspondent of the German newspaper, *Berliner Berzenzeitung* reported on February 28: "The White guards have accomplished a great deal: a new and dangerous center of agitation has been created on the Soviet border." And finally, we

may quote the semi-official Japanese newspaper at Dairen, *Manchu-Nippo*, which pointed out that "the White guard movement has shown an extraordinary revival since the moment the new government was organized in Manchuria."

Such are the facts, a sober appraisal of which reveals a strengthening of aggressive tendencies against the U.S.S.R. in Manchuria under the Japanese occupation. Such are the facts which demand vigilance and the necessary measures for the protection of the territory of the U.S.S.R. from attempts at invasion from outside.

The peaceful policy of the U.S.S.R. is not a policy of ignoring the facts. We have repeatedly pointed out that the Soviet Union will not yield to provocation and that at the same time the U.S.S.R. is able to expose and to defeat in good time provocation being prepared against it. The Soviet government has pursued, is pursuing and will continue to pursue a strict policy of peace and non-interference in the events taking place in China. But this by no means signifies that the Soviet Union will permit anyone whomsoever to violate the security of Soviet frontiers, to invade Soviet territory or to seize even the tiniest portion of Soviet land.

"We do not want a single spot of foreign soil, nor will we give up to anyone a single inch of our own territory." (Stalin).

Japanese-Soviet Conversations

THE MOSCOW *Izvestia* of February 26 published a statement to the effect that on February 24 Karakhan, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U.S.S.R., had received the Japanese Ambassador, Hirota, and had asked for clarification on the following four points:

Soviet Queries to Japan

1. The Japanese command at Harbin addressed a request to the Chinese Eastern Railroad to supply seventeen troop trains to transport soldiers to Imienpo and further in the direction of Pogranichnaya under the pretext of defending the lives of Japanese residents. The ambassador was told that this request for transport was not for the ordinary transport of troops such as has taken place up until now, since it is now proposed to send troops to the Soviet border. Such a matter is not within the authority of the administration of the Chinese Eastern Railroad. The Soviet government would like to know whether this request of the Japanese command was made with the knowledge of the Japanese government. If so, the Soviet government requests a clarification of this matter.

2. The Japanese command in Harbin proposed to the administration of the Chinese Eastern Railroad that a contract be concluded for the transport of Japanese soldiers over the entire line of the Chinese Eastern at a reduced rate of fifty per cent and for free transportation of the Japanese troops designated to guard the railroad. The ambassador was informed that the proposed agreement was not of a technical but of a political character and that it also involved the existing treaties between the U.S.S.R. and Japan on the one hand and between the U.S.S.R. and China on the other, and that therefore this question was not within the authority of the administration of the Chinese Eastern Railroad which is a commercial enterprise. The Soviet government asks whether the Japanese government knows about this proposal and requests clarification.

3. The ambassador was further informed of the growing activities of the Whites in Manchuria under the protection and direct support of the Japanese and his attention directed to the fact that these facts did not coincide with assurances made by Hirota to Litvinov and Karakhan to the effect that White Russians are not supported by the Japanese. On behalf of the Soviet government Karakhan requested the ambassador for an explanation regarding the activity of the Whites.

4. Finally, Karakhan asked the ambassador for information about the newly organized Manchurian state and its character.

The Japanese ambassador, Hirota, promised to refer all these questions immediately to the Japanese government.

Japanese Reply

On February 29 the Moscow *Izvestia* published an account of the interview that took place between Japanese ambassador Hirota and assistant foreign commissar Karakhan on February 27, when the former presented the answers of the Japanese government to the questions asked by Karakhan on February 24. The statement of ambassador Hirota follows:

"1. Regarding the second point of the inquiry of the Soviet government regarding the proposal of the Japanese command to the administration of the Chinese Eastern Railroad to conclude a contract for the transportation of troops, the Japanese government knows nothing of this and is inquiring of the Japanese authorities in Manchuria about this.

"2. Concerning the activities of White guards and the formation of a new state the Japanese government will send supplementary telegraphic instructions.

"3. With regard to the question of the transportation of Japanese troops by the eastern line of the Chinese Eastern Railroad, the ambassador has been instructed to make the following explanation:

"As a result of the changing state of affairs in

the district of the eastern section of the Chinese Eastern Railroad, the Japanese subjects residing there have been forced to flee to Harbin and other peaceful points in Manchuria. However there remain in these sections more than twenty thousand Japanese subjects (including Koreans). These Japanese subjects cannot flee from this region because of their large number and it is therefore necessary for the Japanese command to send troops to defend them.

"These troops are not intended to be sent to the Soviet frontier. They will be sent to the region of Imienpo and, in case of extreme necessity will possibly be sent to Hailin.

"In view of this the Japanese government has instructed its ambassador to negotiate with the Soviet government on this matter and to request the Soviet government to instruct its representatives in Manchuria that the question of the use of the eastern section of the Chinese Eastern Railroad for the transport of Japanese troops, has been affirmatively decided.

"The Japanese command certainly respects the interests and rights of the U.S.S.R. in Northern Manchuria and has demonstrated this in connection with the sending of troops to Tsitsihar and Harbin. The Japanese government requests the government of the U.S.S.R. to have no fear that the Japanese forces will violate the interests and rights of the U.S.S.R. on the Chinese Eastern Railroad. The Japanese government assures the Soviet government that these interests and rights will be fully respected. The sole aim of despatching troops east of Harbin is to save Japanese subjects.

"The Japanese government therefore requests permission of the government of the U.S.S.R. to transport Japanese troops to Imienpo or to Hailin at the utmost, just as was previously done in the case of Tsitsihar and Harbin."

Statement of Karakhan

On the same day Mr. Karakhan presented to the Japanese ambassador the following answer:

"In response to the request of the Japanese government for permission to transport Japanese troops on the Chinese Eastern Railroad from Harbin to Imienpo, and, at the farthest, to Hailin, the Soviet government has instructed me to make the following statement to you:

"The transport of Japanese troops on the Chinese Eastern Railroad is to a certain extent contrary to the agreement concluded between the U.S.S.R. and Japan in Peking in 1925 on the basis of which the Treaty of Portsmouth remains in force. However, in view of the Japanese government's reference to the special circumstances which prompted it to make such a request of the Soviet government, and, especially, in view of the fact that the Chinese authorities in Manchuria and the Chinese part of the administration of the Chinese Eastern Railroad applied to the board for permission to transport Japanese troops on the eastern line of the railroad, the Soviet government agrees, by way of exceptional and temporary measures, to instruct the Soviet representatives on the administration of the Chinese Eastern Railroad that permission is granted for the transport of a limited number of Japanese troops from Harbin to Imienpo, and, in case of extreme necessity only, to Hailin.

"The Soviet government makes its agreement to the transport of Japanese troops to the above mentioned stations, conditional on the assurance being given by the Japanese government that the rights and interests of the U.S.S.R. on the Chinese Eastern Railroad will not in any circumstances be violated by the Japanese authorities and command."

In addition, Mr. Karakhan put before the Japanese ambassador the following two questions concerning the Treaty of Portsmouth with the request that they be conveyed to the Japanese government:

"1. Under article 7 of the Treaty of Portsmouth, Russia and Japan undertook to operate the railroads in Manchuria for commercial and industrial purposes only and 'in no way for strategical objects.' The frequent communications of the Japanese government with the request regarding the transport of troops over the Chinese Eastern Railroad, and the actual transport of these troops over the railroad, i.e. the utilization of this road by Japan for strategical purposes, approaches the conditions provided against in the above-mentioned article 7 of the Treaty of Portsmouth, and the Soviet government considers that such facts lead to a violation of the said treaty.

"The Soviet government strictly observes this as it does other articles of the Treaty of Portsmouth, and instructs me to ask the Japanese government whether it can expect that the Japanese government and command will also observe article 7 of the treaty in relation to the Chinese Eastern Railroad.

"2. The Soviet government is reliably informed that recently Japanese troops have been concentrating in regions bordering on the Soviet-Korean frontier. According to article 2 of the Treaty of Portsmouth, both parties undertake 'to abstain on the Russo-Korean frontier, from taking any military measure which may menace the security of Russian or Korean territory.' The Soviet government, strictly observing this obligation under the Treaty of Portsmouth, would like to have an explanation from the Japanese government in connection with the massing of Japanese troops at the Soviet-Korean frontier."

The Japanese ambassador promised to wire these questions immediately to Tokyo.

Book Review

"WORKING FOR THE SOVIETS. AN AMERICAN ENGINEER IN RUSSIA," By Walter Arnold Rukeyser. Covici-Friede, New York, 1932. $3.

For two years Mr. Rukeyser was employed at the asbestos mines at Uralasbest, first in an advisory and later in a supervisory capacity. His book is a straightforward and sincere narrative of his experiences. It is an interesting story of one of the many individual dramas of industrial development taking place in the Soviet Union today. To our mind the author somewhat overemphasizes the mystery and Sherlock Holmes stuff which seems to attract some American writers in dealing with the Soviet Union. However this does not affect the body of the book as a first-hand document.

In view of some recent inanities circulated in the United States on working conditions in the Soviet Union, it is relevant to quote a few passages from Mr. Rukeyser's chapter on the state of the workers:

"At Asbest, upon my first arrival there in 1929, I saw the workers living for the greater part under the conditions that existed when the mines were under private ownership. Most of them were quartered in large log houses consisting usually of one huge room, either unpartitioned or divided by flimsy curtains. An entire family—man, wife, and children—would have a space possibly six feet by twelve in which to live, sleep, and cook. The beds were composed of boards covered by a heap of rags. The workers seldom if ever undressed. There was no attempt at providing latrines or other like facilities. Some families which we observed were living in a sort of earth hovel; others in huts half of which were hardly more than excavations in the ground, rudely roofed over. Today these shelters, where they have not been entirely removed, are being used for cattle.

"In 1929 the trust embarked upon an ambitious program to provide new housing in the form of communal apartments and individual houses to take care of between 13,000 to 15,000 workers and their families — probably some 40,000 persons in all. A new town site was planned and laid out at some distance from the mines and to the windward of any dust arising from the milling operations. . . .

"The average wage for a mine worker at Asbest closely approximates 100 rubles a month. For his quarters he is charged a very small rental, which is on a sliding scale depending upon his earnings. Thus a man earning 100 rubles a month may pay 5 for a certain apartment; whereas a man earning 200 rubles would pay possibly 10 or 12 for the same quarters. This is more commonly true in the cities than in the newly developed industrial centers, for in the latter the type of quarters furnished varies according to the class of work done (communism?). A mine worker, for example, will live in a multiple-family house, whereas an engineer, who may earn up to 800 rubles a month, will have a single or two family bungalow. The layout of the two-family houses resembles that of similar dwellings here in America. The houses are all lighted with electricity, for which a purely nominal charge is made; all have bathrooms and kitchens and outbuildings for live stock; all are surrounded by ample ground for gardens. Water and sewage systems are being installed as rapidly as possible. . . .

"There seems to be a commonly accepted idea in this country that the Russian workman is kept in virtual bondage—that he cannot change his employment or move from place to place. I have been asked over here if it were true that 'squads of workers were watched by the military equipped with guns to prevent them from quitting their jobs.' Nothing could be farther from the truth. I am not attempting to describe the conditions under which the former kulaks are employed. I know nothing at first hand about these conditions. But as for our workers at Asbest—and there are some 13,000 of them—I can vouch for the fact that there exists nothing even approximating forced labor. As nearly as I could dig out from our employment records, I should say that we have at least a 100 per cent labor turnover yearly."

Recent Magazine Articles on the Soviet Union

American Opportunities in U.S.S.R.

"An American Toolmaker in Russia," by Walter Wells. American Machinist, November 26, 1931.

An interesting, straightforward description of living and working conditions of an American worker who spent a year in the U.S.S.R.

"Russia Offers Large Opportunity for American Industry," by Hugh L. Cooper. Electric World, December 26, 1931.

Statistics on electrification in the Soviet Union and work at Dnieprostroy described by the American engineer heading its construction and a plea for the U. S. to participate in the Soviet market.

"With Foreign Markets Fading U. S. Watches Russian Prospect," Business Week, February 24, 1932.

American manufacturers informed as to Soviet sales in European markets.

"American Engineers in Russia," by John M. Carmody. Factory and Industrial Management, March, 1932.

The conditions facing American engineers in the U.S.S.R. and a summing up of Soviet engineers.

Children

"Russian Youngsters at Work and Play." The Literary Digest, January 30, 1932.

Extracts from recent magazine articles on children and educational projects in the Soviet Union.

"Making Communists of Soviet Children," by Margaret Bourke-White. New York Times Magazine, March 6, 1932.

Care and education of children in the U.S.S.R.

"This is the heyday of the child in Soviet Russia. Children enjoy a special position and special privileges. They get the best of everything. . . ."

Culture

"Beginnings of United Library Service in U.S.S.R.," by Harriet G. Eddy. Library Journal, January 5, 1932.

An illustrated account of the spread of libraries throughout the Soviet Union and the training of library specialists.

"The Museum of Modern Western Painting in Moscow," by John Becker. Creative Art, March, 1932.

The first of two articles on what the author describes as "the most important collection of modern paintings in the world," with reproductions.

"Nothing Bores the Russian Audience," by Margaret Bourke-White. New York Times Magazine, March 13, 1932.

A picture of the Russian audience at opera, play, circus, children's theater and political meeting.

"Problems of Soviet Writers," by Louis Fischer. New York Herald Tribune Books, March 6 and March 14, 1932.

A discussion of some of the distinguishing features of present-day Soviet literature.

The Planned State

"Russia, the Planned State, as Viewed by a Scientist," by Professor Julian Huxley. The New York Times, Sunday, January 3, 1932.

The English biologist and writer finds Russia making steady progress through applying the scientific method in human affairs.

"Pitfalls of Soviet Planning," by Alzada Comstock. Current History, March, 1932.

Gloomy conclusions about Soviet planning from reports of mistakes taken from Soviet sources which might rather be taken as an indication that the U.S.S.R. is aware of its own mistakes and attempting to remedy them.

"Second Five-Year Plan of Soviets Promises Comforts for Workers." The Business Week, March 2, 1932.

Some comments on preliminary reports of the new plan.

"Housing projects and consumer industries center of program characterized by its sobriety."

"Russia's Economic Inventions," by George Soule. The New Republic, March 30, 1932.

Main outlines of Soviet planning examined with the purpose of determining what aspects of it might be applicable in America.

Public Health

"Russia—A Nation of Adolescents," by Frankwood E. Williams, M. D. Survey-Graphic, April, 1932.

Medical organization, mental-hygiene activities, combatting of prostitution and alcoholism and the Soviet attitude toward the individual discussed by the American psychiatrist.

"The Ukraine." Journal of the American Medical Association, January 2, 1932.

The regular correspondent of this journal writes from Odessa of the improvement in living conditions in the Ukraine; planning of scientific research in public health; blood transfusion.

Social Problems

"We Are All Bolsheviks," by Louis Fischer. The Nation, February 3, 1932.

New social forces at work among the Turks in Baku. "A nationality learning to walk culturally."

"Marriage and Morals in Russia," by Maxwell S. Stewart. Christian Century, February 10, 1932.

The healthy attitude toward marriage and divorce since the revolution.

"Black Bread and Tea—Plus," by Ella Winter. Asia, March, 1932.

An illuminating account of how the members of a typical worker's family in Moscow live and work and play, illustrated by a series of actual photographs from the life of such a family.

Town and Country Planning

"City Planning in Soviet Russia," by Robert Whitten. City Planning, July, 1931.

A description of the socialist cities and of projected plans for new industrial and agricultural centers, well illustrated.

"Russia Fits Architecture to Her Plan," by Clough Williams-Ellis. New York Times Magazine, January 31, 1932.

A British architect reports on a tour of inspection of the new construction projects under the Five-Year Plan. "—the impulsive Russians are actually and everywhere putting into immediate practice whatever seemed best and most essential in the town and country planning theories of England, Germany and America."

U.S.S.R. In Construction

"Into Siberia and Out Again," by John M. Carmody. Factory and Industrial Management, December, 1931.

One of a series of articles describing new Soviet industrial developments.

"Russia Begins to Manage," by Walter N. Polakov, Factory and Industrial Management, February, 1932.

The requirements for making Soviet industry efficient, outlined by a former management consultant to the Supreme Economic Council.

"Down the Volga," by John M. Carmody. Factory and Industrial Management, February, 1932.

An account of a boat trip and visits to villages and industrial centers along the way.

"Magnitogorsk," by John M. Carmody. Factory and Industrial Management, March, 1932.

Some notes on a visit to one of the biggest steel plants in the world in construction.

"The Cotton Empire of the U.S.S.R.," by Valentine V. Tchikoff. Asia, April, 1932.

A member of a group of American irrigation engineers working for the Soviet government in Turkestan, writes of the development of cotton in Central Asia.

Various

"If the Soviet Should Fall," by Louis Fischer. The Nation, February 24, 1932.

Speculations regarding some of the difficulties which would be attendant upon any effort to reestablish capitalism in Russia.

"Why Do We Boycott Russia?" Editorial article in the New Republic, March 16, 1932.

A plea to cease boycotting Russia in the interests of United States neutrality in the event of a Russo-Japanese conflict.

"Where the Worker Can Drop the Boss," by Margaret Bourke-White. The New York Times Magazine, March 27, 1932.

New relations between men and machinery, management and labor.

"The Political Structure of the Soviet State—The Communist Party," by Vera Micheles Dean, with the aid of the Research Staff of the Foreign Policy Association. Foreign Policy Reports, March 16, 1932.

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The Situation in Manchuria

In the April issue of the SOVIET UNION REVIEW *the queries and counter-queries exchanged between the Soviet and Japanese Governments on February 24 and 29 and the answers given by both governments were published. The Moscow Izvestia of March 22 published a statement with regard to supplementary explanations received from the Japanese government, a translation of which is printed below.*

SUPPLEMENTARY explanations and assurances have been received from the Japanese government, with regard to the questions addressed to the Japanese Government by Mr. Karakhan, Assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, in his interview with the Japanese ambassador, Hirota, on the activities of White guards, the new state in Manchuria, and the violation of the Portsmouth Treaty, already reported in the press.

As to the activities of the White guards the Japanese ambassador, Mr. Hirota, at the behest of his government, made a statement in which he denied that "recently the Japanese authorities have been rendering direct support to Russian White guard organizations in Manchuria." In his statement he further denied the numerous reports that have appeared in the foreign and Soviet press regarding aggressive activities of White guards in Manchuria supported by the Japanese. In particular the statement of the Japanese ambassador confirms the declaration of the Japanese war department published in Tokyo on February 27 that "there is no basis whatever to press reports alleging that Japanese troops in Manchuria, directing the Whites, are organizing a White guard division, with the aim of threatening the Soviet border," and further, that "if reports of the presence among the Whites of elements which under cover of the name of the Japanese army are preparing malicious intrigues, correspond to the facts, then the military authorities are prepared to take decisive measures to put an end to this."

Finally, the Japanese ambassador, in his statement of March 19th, assured the Soviet represen-

tative in the name of the Japanese government that "the Kwantung army, closely watching the activities of the White Russians, is ready, in case of necessity, to apply appropriate repressive measures against any political activities or, in particular, military activities carried on by the Whites against the U.S.S.R."

This is in accord with the statement made by the Japanese ambassador to Karakhan on March 15 that "if the Whites undertake anything against the U.S.S.R., Japan will not permit it."

On the question of the new state in Manchuria the Japanese ambassador gave the following elucidation of the position of the Japanese government. If the new government in Manchuria will abide by the treaty obligations to Japan, and guarantees the security of the life and property of Japanese subjects, and if the new government will strive to develop a friendly attitude toward Japan, then Japan will welcome such a government.

As regards its relations with other countries, the new state of Manchuria, according to the statement of the Japanese ambassador will be guided in its policy by the principle of "the open door" and "equal opportunities." The Japanese ambassador informed Mr. Karakhan that the new government had not been recognized by Japan. The Japanese government is for the present merely "watching the course of events in Manchuria."

Concerning the question about the Treaty of Portsmouth the Japanese ambassador, on instructions from his government, gave explanations on March 5 and March 19. The Japanese government sees no violation of the Treaty of Portsmouth in the transport and concentration of troops by way of the Chinese Eastern Railroad, inasmuch as this transporting, according to Mr. Hirota's explanation, has been done not for stragetic purposes, but for the purpose of protecting the life and property of Japanese residents.

In justification of the guarding of the Chinese Eastern Railroad with Japanese troops, the Japanese government explained that in connection with the events in Manchuria the railroad guard of the southern section of the road had disappeared and that since there was danger of attacks by bandits and of interference with the movement of trains it had been necessary for the Japanese troops to undertake the guarding of the southern section of the line themselves. Since March 3 the Japanese troops have ceased to act as guards, and Kirin troops are now guarding the line.

Assuring the Soviet government that Japan has loyally observed and will continue to observe the Portsmouth Treaty, the Japanese ambassador declared to Mr. Karakhan that Japan pursues no strategic aims on the Chinese Eastern Railway and that "the Japanese Government has not the slightest intention of leaving its troops along the line of the Chinese Eastern Railroad."

The Japanese government gave the following clarification of the question regarding the concentration of Japanese troops at the Soviet-Korean border. In the statement made by the Japanese ambassador to Karakhan on March 5, the Japanese government, not denying the concentration of troops at the Soviet-Korean border, declared that this was not done for any purpose which would endanger Soviet territory. In its statement of March 19 the Japanese government pointed out the fact that there was only a border guard in that territory and declared that since the time of the resumption of diplomatic relations between the U.S.S.R. and Japan, the latter had not increased her troops at the Soviet border.

To the counter inquiry of the Japanese government regarding the concentration of Soviet troops at the Soviet-Korean border and the building there of an airdrome, an inquiry transmitted by the Japanese ambassador, Hirota, on March 19, Mr. Karakhan stated that the information of the Japanese government on this matter was without foundation since there was no concentration of Soviet troops on the Soviet-Korean border and none was proposed, nor were any other measures counter to the Portsmouth Treaty proposed. The Soviet government, pursuing a consistent policy of peace, strictly observes the Portsmouth Treaty, declared Mr. Karakhan, and hopes that the Japanese government and its representatives in Manchuria will also observe the obligations which rest on Japan under the Portsmouth Treaty.

PROVOCATIVE ACTS

Moscow *Izvestia* of April 15, in a leading editorial, called attention to increasing provocative acts in Manchuria in which White guard (Tsarist émigré) bands operated to create disorders which were then attributed to "Reds." The newspaper described the situation as "serious." It says:

"Obviously controlled by a single directing hand, one group of White bandits organizes itself into a band of 'terrorists,' another 'pursues' them, and a third describes in the press the horrors of the 'Red terror' in Manchuria. At the same time, Ataman Semionov openly carries on negotiations in Tokyo with influential Japanese circles. The provocative attempt to blow up the Sungari river bridge on the Chinese Eastern Railroad served as a sort of signal not only for the local Manchurian press but for the Japanese press as well to develop a new anti-Soviet campaign, making use of the 'events' staged in Manchuria for this purpose.

"The Japanese newspapers are beginning to talk very mysteriously about 'the intrigues of agents of a certain country.' The Mukden cor-

respondent of the paper 'Dzi-Dzi' and the Changchun correspondent of the Dempo Psushin news agency are linking up in their dispatches the unsuccessful attempt of the White guards to blow up the Sungari bridge, the railroad wreck near Harbin and the completely nonsensical rumors regarding the presence of the notorious General Ma in the U.S.S.R. in order to demand 'decisiveness from the Japanese authorities in Manchuria with regard to a certain country.' The Japanese correspondents, with the delicacy of behemoths, are trying to become diplomats, saying that 'a certain country has undertaken the organization of destructive acts of Red terror.' And the 'Dzi-Dzi' adds unequivocally: 'The shadow thrown on diplomatic relations with a certain country, attracts serious attention.'

"It is not difficult to understand that all these revolting and provocative reports are intended to cast a very black cloud over the relations of Japan with, not 'a certain country' of unknown identity, but with none other than the Soviet Union. True, the spreaders of these provocative rumors, were not very adept in carrying out even this crude, elementary problem. Along with reports about 'a certain country' other 'political conceptions' also appear. Thus, for instance, the newspaper 'Harbin Times,' as may be seen from the telegram from Khabarovsk published today, lays the guilt for the organization of the explosions on the Chinese Eastern Railroad, to the combined intrigues of the 'Eastern section of the Comintern, Chang Hsueh-liang and the Kuomintang.' It is only to be wondered at that this newspaper forgot to mention also the roles of Gandhi and Hitler in preparing the blowing up of the Sungari bridge.

"Why do the Harbin papers have recourse to such wild inventions to explain the attempts to blow up the bridge on the Chinese Eastern Railroad? These fabrications are necessary for the simple reason that the actual state of affairs is more than clear to any impartial observer. In view of the fact that the unknown person, in attempting to blow up the bridge, was forced to kill the guard who was a Soviet citizen, while the other guard, a White, remained unharmed, that the explosion was averted by the immediate and vigorous action of the railroad administration and yet at the same time the staff of the guards failed to provide the necessary specialists to remove the dynamite, that the participants in the attempted wrecking were able to conceal themselves easily, and that the investigation was carried on by White guards who took this occasion to torture entirely innocent Soviet citizens, then is it not quite clear what position is to be expected from the Japanese and White guard papers in this affair? Is it not quite obvious that they will declare anyone they are ordered to, guilty of the attempt, anyone, that is, except its real organizers—the White guard provocateurs?"

Now, the editorial continues, General Ma is reported in the Manchurian press to be organizing a campaign against the Japanese and the new Government, and it is even reported that he has established himself on the Soviet side of the border in Blagoveshchensk. The paper points out that General Ma is not and never has been in Soviet territory. It concludes that these various machinations and mendacities are obviously intended to give the impression that the Manchurian authorities and the army of occupation are engaged in protecting the country from menacing "Red plots," and that all this is window-dressing for the League of Nations Commission investigating Manchuria.

The editorial concludes:

"The attempt to attribute adventurist plans to the Soviet Union will not succeed. The provocateurs and their instigators in the Far East wish to fan the Manchurian events into a military conflagration. But those who, consciously aggravating the already strained situation in Manchuria, wish to explode this powder magazine with the help of provocation, will fail. The Soviet Union will expose to the end all these manoeuvers. The Soviet Union will not permit itself to be budged by the adventurers and the provocateurs from the firm position of neutrality which it has occupied from the very beginning of the Manchurian conflict, from the peaceful position which accords with its foreign policy."

Since the above editorial was printed dispatches in the American press from Harbin and Tokyo have reported further provocative acts of the new Manchurian officials. On April 12 a section of the Chinese Eastern Railway was blown up near Harbin and a Japanese troop train was reported wrecked. The late reports state that Manchurian police have made wholesale arrests of Soviet citizens, including employees of the railway.

In its issue of April 18, *Izvestia*, in another editorial, cited further provocative efforts in connection with the Manchurian situation.

". . . The Japanese press has, for a long period, been fed with anti-Soviet inventions, stupid mendacities, distorting the peaceful position of the Soviet Union and arousing Japanese public opinion against the U.S.S.R. This has been one of the manoeuvers of those who are working up public opinion in Japan.

"Another manoeuver about which we consider it necessary to speak very definitely today, is the complete silence with regard to the point of view of the Soviet Union. Not one of the Japanese papers has printed a single one of the recent Soviet denials of the complete falsity of the anti-Soviet reports from Manchuria. Not one paper printed in the Japanese language has found it possible to publish the contents of the leading editorial in *Izvestia* of April 15, in which the false reports to the effect that 'Soviet agents are

carrying on destructive work in Manchuria' were exposed and denied clearly and decisively. Not a single Japanese paper has found it possible either to explain fully the 'versatile activities' of the notorious General Ma or even simply to report the Soviet denials of the false information from Manchuria regarding 'the connections of General Ma with the U.S.S.R.' We must emphasize, finally, that not a single one of the Japanese papers has printed a line even about such a matter as the Soviet denial of the fabricated 'interview' with Mr. Litvinov. And further the newspaper 'Dzi-Dzi' which printed this 'interview,' printed a new and elaborated version of this fictitious interview even after the categorical denial of Tass.

"These tactics of silence and misrepresentation of the viewpoint of the Soviet Union, in connection with the ceaseless circulation of anti-Soviet rumors, force us to give serious attention to the plans of the Japanese ruling circles. . . ."

FALSE REPORTS

The Moscow *Izvestia* of April 15 carried the following denial by Tass of the rumors regarding General Ma's connections with the Soviet Union:

"Tass has been authorized to deny the false reports circulated by certain foreign telegraph agencies and newspapers with regard to the presence of General Ma in Blagoveshchensk and his connections with the Soviet Union. General Ma is not and never has been either in Blagoveshchensk or at any other point on the territory of the Soviet Union.

"Reports of the existence of any connections whatever between General Ma and any representatives whatsoever of the Soviet government are provocative and absolutely false.

"In the opinion of authoritative circles, the sources of these rumors are the same as five months ago when the Japanese military supplied Ma with arms from Dairen and the responsibility for this was laid on the U.S.S.R."

The Moscow *Izvestia* of April 17 carried the following denial by Tass of the alleged interview of Japanese correspondents in Geneva with Mr. Litvinov:

"Tass has been instructed to deny categorically the absolutely false and unfounded reports which have appeared in the Japanese papers regarding the interview on events in the Far East alleged to have been given by Mr. Litvinov to the Geneva correspondent of the newspaper 'Dzi-Dzi.'

"Mr. Litvinov has had no conversations and given no interviews on Far Eastern affairs or on any other questions with the correspondent of 'Dzi-Dzi' or with any other Japanese correspondent either in Geneva or in any other place.

"The deliberately false nature of this information and its purpose is sufficiently clear in the light of the attempts on the part of certain Japanese papers which have recently been carrying on an anti-Soviet campaign in connection with the destructive activities of the White guards in Manchuria, to make use of this fabricated interview for their provocative and alarmist propaganda."

MISUSE OF TELEGRAPHIC CODE PRIVILEGES

The Moscow *Izvestia* of April 18 carried the following statement from Tass with regard to the request of the Narkomindel to the Manchurian government for the recall of the Chinese Consul in Blagoveshchensk in connection with his misuse of telegraphic code privileges:

"It has become known to the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs that the Chinese consul in Blagoveshchensk has been making use of his privilege of sending coded telegraphic messages in order to broadcast to all corners of China and other countries all kinds of appeals over the signature of General Ma, who is in hiding in Heilungkiang province, in northwestern Manchuria.

"Considering that this constitutes abuse on the part of the Chinese consul in Blagoveshchensk of the privilege accorded him, and that this may injure the policy of strict non-interference in Manchurian affairs carried on by the Soviet government, the Narkomindel has requested the Manchurian government to recall the present Chinese consul in Blagoveshchensk and to replace him with another. At the same time orders have been given to cut off temporarily the transmission of all telegrams emanating from the Chinese consul in Blagoveshchensk."

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EXPEDITION TO THE SOVIET ARCTIC

The Soviet State Travel Bureau "Intourist" is organizing an expedition to the Soviet Arctic for this summer, on the ice-breaker Malygin, similar to the expedition undertaken last year. The route will be from Archangel to Franz-Josef Land. On the return voyage the ice-breaker will make for Aldger Island and the Cape of Desire, with a visit to the newly opened meteorological station at the latter point planned. The expedition will proceed further along the east shore of Novaya Zemlya, through the Matochkin Shar, and after visiting several places en route will proceed to Murmansk.

The members of the expedition will visit several scientific stations and acquaint themselves with scientific work in the far North. Glacier trips, bear, walrus, wild reindeer and bird hunting will be arranged. The American explorer Fiala is reported to have signed up for the expedition.

10 Years of German-Soviet Relations

On April 16, the tenth anniversary of the signing of the Treaty of Rapallo, Izvestia published the following editorial:

TEN years ago, in the Italian city of Rapallo, a treaty was signed between the U.S.S.R. and Germany in settlement of the problems which divided both countries on the completion of the war. The Rapallo treaty, restoring diplomatic and consular relations between Germany and the R.S.F.S.R., laid a solid foundation for the further development of friendly relations and close economic contacts between the Soviet Union and the German Republic. Such were the immediate contents and significance of the Rapallo treaty. However, this alone does not exhaust the historic role of Rapallo. The signing of the Rapallo treaty on April 16, 1922, was unquestionably an event of outstanding significance not merely in the foreign policy of the Soviet Union, not only in the post-war policy of Germany, but in the history of general international relations following the war. . . .

The historical importance of the Rapallo treaty consists primarily in the fact that it has served as a model of how relations can be established between two countries with divergent social and political systems, but with common interests in economic matters and foreign policy at a particular period. . . .

The Rapallo treaty thus marked a turning point in the relations between the Soviet republic and the capitalist countries. The value of the Rapallo treaty lies in the fact that it has made it possible to establish relations between the U.S.S.R. and Germany and to develop them favorably over a ten-year period on the basis of a real equality of rights and consideration of the interests of both countries. . . .

The profound importance of the Rapallo policy is made particularly clear by the circumstance that on the day of the tenth anniversary of Rapallo it is possible, without any fear of injuring the mutual relations between the two countries, to state that the Rapallo treaty has met serious obstacles in the past and may again. The policy of powers interested in endangering Soviet-German relations, the intrigues of groups attempting to disrupt the peaceful relations between our countries, the influence of separate groups in Germany who put the satisfaction of their narrow group interests above the general state interests —all these have stood in the way of the Rapallo policy. The contradictory social and political system of both countries and their different courses of development have also, to be sure, hindered at times the rate of development of Soviet-German relations on the basis of Rapallo desirable for both countries.

All this is true. But none the less, we believe that on the day of the tenth anniversary of the Rapallo treaty, it may be said with firm conviction that the relations between the U.S.S.R. and Germany will continue to be strengthened and developed on the basis of the principles of Rapallo. The prerequisite for this is the experience of ten years of political and economic connections and the good-will of both sides. We believe that our viewpoint will meet with complete understanding on the part of the German leaders who are close to the problem of Soviet-German relations.

We mark the anniversary of the Rapallo treaty in an extraordinarily complicated and strained international situation. The imperialists, finding themselves in no condition to take any measure whatever which might soften the catastrophic results of the crisis, are thinking of war as "a way out of the crisis." The peaceful relations between countries are severely endangered. War is going on in the Far East, organizers of anti-Soviet provocative acts are swarming at the Soviet borders. Under these conditions the struggle against the war danger, the struggle for the preservation of peace, is first and foremost on the order of the day.

In its struggle for peace the Soviet Union strives in every way to achieve the maximum degree of normality possible in its relations with separate capitalist countries, and for this purpose has adopted the policy of concluding bilateral non-aggression and neutrality treaties. On the day of the tenth anniversary of the Rapallo treaty it should be brought out that on the basis of this treaty another Soviet-German agreement was concluded six years ago—the so-called Berlin Neutrality Treaty, an extension of which is being formulated at the present time. Thus the Rapallo treaty, the first real peace treaty concluded after the war, becomes again, at the moment of its tenth anniversary, a most important peace factor.

LITVINOV ON THE RAPALLO TREATY

In connection with the tenth anniversary of the signing of the Rapallo Treaty Mr. Litvinov received the representatives of the Soviet and German press in Geneva and made a statement in which he said in part as follows:

"In order to estimate the significance of the Rapallo treaty, it is necessary to consider the situation at the moment of its conclusion. This event took place four years after the completion of the World War, when, in spite of the formal

conclusion of peace, it was still impossible to speak of the establishment of real peaceful and normal relations between the Soviet Union, Germany, and the other countries.

"Both the Soviet Union and Germany were at that time in a particularly isolated situation, and under considerable pressure from all sides. From all appearances either of these two governments might at that time have been drawn into a general hostile front against the other. But they preferred to hold out the hand of friendship to each other and to declare their desire to forget the recent oppressive past, to wipe out all mutual claims and to lay the foundation for new relations, peaceful and normal in fact, and international cooperation. This step, in the case of both countries, was dictated by a correct understanding of their own interests of self-preservation and development. This step was actually something quite new in the history of international relations and therefore its meaning was not correctly understood by everyone. The treaty, for instance, was lacking in any sharp points directed against any other countries, and therefore it was suspected that secret articles or supplementary agreements had been added, which actually was not the case. This was the first important political agreement which guaranteed the interests of the contracting parties but did not injure the interests of any other countries.

"Looking back now over the past ten years, it is impossible to deny that the agreement has fully justified itself. It drew both countries out of their isolated situation, it strengthened their international position and weakened the pressure of the rest of the world against them. Burdened by no old claims of the war or post-war period, the relations of the two governments were able to develop on a firm and normal basis, which resulted in a comparatively short period in the revival of economic relations between them, which not merely reached but surpassed the level of the pre-war period. The trade between the two countries occupies a very important place in the economic structure of both. It is impossible to doubt that this economic cooperation has been mutually advantageous, particularly under the conditions of the present economic crisis.

"The Rapallo treaty is further noteworthy in that it was concluded at the moment when doubt as to the possibility of establishing normal relations and peaceful cooperation between the Soviet government and capitalist countries was especially strong.

"This doubt must be completely dissipated by the experience of the past ten years. It seems to me that Germany at the present time might wish nothing better than to be able to declare that she has had as few misunderstandings and mutual claims with the capitalist countries as she has had with the Soviet Union. Soviet-German relations based on the Rapallo treaty, have until now been one of the pillars of European peace. These pillars would have been stronger and peace would have been more certain, if such relations existed between all countries. From this point of view it can only be regretted, that the other participants in the Genoa conference did not consider it necessary to conclude among themselves a general agreement on the basis of the Rapallo treaty.

"The strength and importance of this treaty lies in the fact that instead of the partial settlement of mutual claims with the inevitable revisions and further settlement, causing endless friction, the Gordian knot of the past was cut by the complete annulment of these claims. . . .

"The Rapallo treaty has again proved that the courageous, decisive, and radical settlement of international questions is at the same time the most simple and the most practical settlement."

GERMAN-SOVIET TRADE

Economic relations between Germany and the Soviet Union, begun shortly after the conclusion of peace, have been developed under a temporary trade agreement of May 6, 1921, under the Rapallo treaty of April 16, 1922, and under the economic treaty of October 12, 1925. The Rapallo treaty forms the basis of trade and diplomatic relations between the two countries.

Article 1 of the economic treaty of October 12, 1925, contained the following paragraph:

"The High Contracting Parties will attempt in every way to assist in the development of mutual trade relations, to achieve the greatest possible stability in trade turnover and, in proportion to successes in economic restoration, to bring up mutual imports and exports to the pre-war level, and in so doing they will be governed by considerations of an economic nature."

In the economic agreement of 1925 the first attempt was made, in the spirit of and on the basis of the Rapallo treaty, to settle the problems of economic relations between capitalist countries and the Soviet Union as completely as possible within the forms of international law. The fact that this treaty has existed for seven years, notwithstanding the provision that it might be terminated on six months' notice, is proof of the economic importance of the Rapallo treaty.

In the period between the conclusion of the Rapallo treaty and of the economic agreement, that is, the period during which the Rapallo treaty served as an economic agreement, trade turnover between the two countries increased from 197,000,000 rubles (1922-23) to 367,000,000 (1924-25), with a total favorable balance for Germany for the three-year period of about 125,-

000,000 rubles. Following the conclusion of the economic agreement in 1925 the volume of trade between the two countries has increased as follows:

	Rubles
1925-26	374,000,000
1926-27	478,000,000
1927-28	417,000,000
1928-29	465,000,000
1929-30	501,000,000
1931	545,000,000

The total balance in Germany's favor during this period amounted to 200,000,000 rubles.

The agreement in 1926 whereby the German government granted a 300,000,000 marks credits to finance Soviet purchases in Germany, led to the placing during 1926 of Soviet orders amounting to 250,000,000 rubles, a record sum, not exceeded again until 1930, which was a great help to German industry at a time of severe crisis, as well as providing the Soviet Union with important equipment in preparation for the first five-year plan.

The temporary falling off of Soviet orders which naturally followed these especially large purchases occasioned Germany some uneasiness and led to economic conversations which were successfully concluded by the signing of the Moscow protocol on December 21, 1928, which reaffirmed the economic policy of Rapallo and the Economic Agreement of 1925. On January 25, 1929, an agreement was concluded between Germany and the Soviet Union, providing for a conciliation commission to take up questions of dispute between the two countries and to prevent the development of any situation which might injure trade relations. Since 1928 the rate of increase in the volume of trade has been steadily upward, due to the increase in Soviet orders in Germany. German purchases in the Soviet Union have recently decreased. In 1930, Soviet orders to Germany amounted to 262,000,000 rubles, and in 1931, on the basis of the credit agreement of April 14, of that year, they reached 426,000,000 rubles, making the Soviet Union one of the chief markets for German products, thus providing work for German industry, especially machine construction, in a period of growing weakness of both her domestic and foreign markets. The policy of guaranteeing Soviet credits has been continued by the German government, and the difficulties of commercial financing of Soviet orders have thus been partially overcome. In this respect the mutual efforts of the U.S.S.R. and Germany to find a way for the normal and useful development of relations between a capitalist and socialist country have served as an example for other countries.

Germany's foreign trade statistics for 1931 show that 28 per cent of all German machinery exports went to the Soviet Union. The customs statistics of the U.S.S.R. show that German goods entering the U.S.S.R. amounted to 250,800,000 rubles in 1930, and 410,600,000 rubles in 1931. The share of Germany in Soviet imports increased from 24 per cent in 1930 to 37 per cent in 1931. The main articles imported into the U.S.S.R. from Germany for those two years were as follows:

	1930	1931
	In rubles	
Ferrous metals	13,000,000	62,000,000
Non-ferrous metals	5,800,000	12,400,000
Iron and steel goods	22,800,000	58,300,000
Machinery and apparatus	77,300,000	133,700,000
Machinery parts	30,000,000	43,800,000

The Soviet Union Honors Goethe

ON March 22, the centennial of Goethe's death, literary, cultural and scientific groups throughout the Soviet Union did honor to the great German poet.

OGIZ (the State Publishing House) marked the anniversary by the issuance of the first two volumes of the new thirteen volume edition of the works of Goethe which is now in preparation under the general editorship of L. B. Kamenev, Anatole Lunacharsky, and M. N. Rozanov.

Most of Goethe's works have been retranslated for this new edition, in which some of the foremost Soviet poets, translators and students of Goethe are assisting, and many of Goethe's works never before translated into Russian are being included. The volumes will be illustrated with portraits, facsimiles of poems in Goethe's handwriting and reproductions of drawings by Goethe. One of the first two volumes just issued is devoted to his lyrics and the other to some of his earlier writings and epic poems.

The magazine *Literaturnoe Nasledstvo* (Literary Heritage), the organ of the Russian Association of Proletarian Writers and of the Institute of Literature and Art of the Communist Academy, has issued a special Goethe number, which will include much hiterto unpublished Goetheana.

Among the articles appearing in this number are "Goethe, His Times and His Society," by Lunacharsky, "Goethe and Modern Times," by

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Goethe Centennial Meeting in Hall of Columns, Moscow, March 26

A. Auerbach, and an article on the "Literary Heritage of Goethe in the U.S.S.R." A section entitled "Goethe and the Russian People" includes much unpublished material on Goethe's meetings with Russian writers, scientists and artists as recorded in correspondence and reminiscences.

"Goethe and Russian Critics" analyzes critical writings on Goethe which have appeared in Russian from Goethe's own time down to the present day. Russian translations of Goethe are discussed in a section on "Goethe in Russian Poetry" and translations by Chernishevsky, Tiutchev and Alexey Tolstoy are here published for the first time, as well as a translation by Briussov of the second part of "Faust." Other articles are "Goethe Necrology in the Russian Press," "Goethe and the Russian Academy of Sciences," and "Goethe and Russian Music." In an article entitled "Study and Publications on Goethe in the West," F. P. Schiller surveys recent literature on Goethe.

Many other articles on Goethe appeared in Soviet magazines and newspapers. The Moscow *Izvestia* on March 22 and 23, devoted a full page to the Goethe anniversary as well as publishing a number of articles and speeches in subsequent issues.

Despite the gap between the political ideology of Goethe and the leaders of Soviet thought today, Goethe's life represents the embodiment of the Soviet ideal of the doer-artist, and the exuberance and energy of his life and work strikes an answering chord in Soviet writers. Especially interesting in this respect is the article by Marietta Shaginian, "Goethe-Praktik," in *Izvestia* for March 26. Shaginian herself, a gifted Armenian writer, one of the *poputchiki* (fellow-travelers), has developed from a mere observer and recorder to a participant in socialist construction, and her latest book, "Hydro-Central," is the result of her two years of work in a hydro-electric power station. She describes how the young Goethe began his plans for the reconstruction of the Duchy of Weimar by developing its heavy industries. How, along with his administrative work he gained a concrete knowledge of the country, how he called in specialists in every field, became a geologist the better to develop the mines, put the Duchy on a firm budget, built roads and canals and an excellent park system, established trade schools for soldiers' children, the while lecturing on anatomy at the University and directing a theater. From the profound effect of this vital experience, this work with concrete materials, on all his literary and artistic work, Shaginian draws a lesson for the writers and artists of today.

The Goethe centennial was also marked by special meetings in different parts of the country. On March 22 a Goethe meeting was held in the Hall of Columns in Moscow under the auspices of the Commissariat for Education, the Communist Academy and the State Publishing House and a group of scientific and literary organizations. Andrey Bubnov, Soviet Commissar for Education, presided, Lunacharsky, Auerbach and others spoke, and a concert by the Moscow Philharmonic orchestra followed.

Another meeting and concert was held in Moscow on March 26 by VOKS (Society for Cultural

Relations with Foreign Countries). The meeting was attended by members of the diplomatic corps, foreign correspondents, and representatives of Soviet literature, art and science. The All-Ukrainian Academy of Sciences arranged a meeting in Kiev and the Ukrainian State Library organized a special Goethe exhibit for the occasion.

The Leningrad State Library prepared an extensive exhibit devoted to the life and work of Goethe, including rare editions, original manuscripts, letters and some new documents found in the archives of the Academy of Sciences relating to the election of Goethe as an honorary member of the Academy. An exhibit, "Goethe and the Theater," was shown by the State Theatrical Library connected with the Maly Theater in Moscow. A number of special radio programs devoted to Goethe were broadcast in connection with the centennial.

Soviet Arms Reduction Plan

Address of Maxim Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, at the meeting of the General Commission of the Disarmament Conference at Geneva, April 12, on the question of Article I of the Draft Convention, setting forth the arms reduction principles of the conference.

IT seems to me that I have shown sufficiently clearly by my statements at the plenary sessions of the conference and in the general commission, the end towards which the Soviet delegation is working. All its efforts are aimed at one goal—to organize solid peace between nations, and to make it impossible for states to wage war against each other. With this end in view the Soviet delegation made a proposal for total disarmament which, however, the conference rejected. I am convinced that, although the discussion of the Soviet proposal occupied very little of the conference's time and its rejection still less, future historians will be bound to admit that the conference accomplished an extremely important if negative stage of its work during the very first weeks of its existence in rejecting a problem, the solution of which would have rendered the conference truly epoch-making and distinguished it from all other international conferences which have ever taken place, and, most important of all, would have answered the demands and aspirations of all nations.

Having now entered upon a new stage of its work the conference is setting itself an infinitely less ambitious problem—the problem of partial disarmament. I have already had occasion to point out that no reduction of armaments whatsoever, whether quantitative or qualitative, could result in the abolition of or abstention from war. This does not, however, cause the Soviet delegation, in discussing definite points with regard to the reduction of armaments, to lose sight of the principal aim it has set itself, namely, the speediest possible effective creation of security—if only relative—against war. The Soviet delegation can therefore only propose such reduction of armaments as might be considered as the initial and first important stage in total disarmament, the remaining stages to follow with the shortest possible intervals. The Soviet delegation moreover attributes the utmost importance to such initial reduction of armaments as should at least place difficulties in the way of the conduct of war in the near future.

It would seem obvious, from all that I have said, that the Soviet delegation objects to all possible attempts—and it looks as if there would be no lack of such attempts—to narrow down the task of the conference to the limitation of armaments. . . .

The Soviet delegation rejects limitation of armaments if only because, far from representing a step forward along the path of disarmament, it does not even diminish either the possibility or the horrors of war. Eighteen years ago the general level of armaments throughout the world was, both as to quantity and quality, lower than it is now, and yet it allowed of the development of a world war with all the horrors which are still fresh in the memory of mankind. But these horrors pale before the picture of a new war which the present condition of war materials presents to our imagination. Limitation of armaments at the present level would not diminish the possibility of a new war breaking out, exceeding in scope the last World War, and the potential forces of death and destruction would be much greater than were those in the late war.

Limitation of armaments at the existing level could only effect the limitation of war budgets in certain conditions. And even this very doubtful limitation could only be achieved after the fulfillment of a number of supplementary conditions (abolition of secret funds for armaments, elimination from budgets of civil departments of expenditure on armaments, etc.). We must not forget, however, that we are not at an economic, but at a disarmament conference, which is bound to set itself aims quite different from those of budgetary economies. Moreover, the present economic crisis and the financial position of most

states are themselves setting limits to the further raising of war-budgets, especially in states where 25, 30 and even 50 per cent of the budget goes for military requirements.

It is for these considerations that the Soviet delegation proposes to put an end, once and for all, to the ambiguities arising out of the simultaneous employment of the terms "limitation" and "reduction." To reduce means also to limit, but to limit does not necessarily mean to reduce. That is why we propose that only the term "reduction" be used in article 1, and throughout the draft convention.

But not all reduction is worthy of the name. What we want is a reduction which could be taken as an effective beginning of disarmament. What we want is a reduction which general staffs and not merely finance ministers and tax-payers would really feel. What we want is a reduction which would sow confusion in general staffs, force them to revise all their war strategy and thus make the planning and conduct of war difficult if only until further steps have been taken towards disarmament. I by no means propose that the conference should declare war on general staffs. I realize perfectly that these staffs have no separate existence, and that they are government organs. At first glance it may seem a little strange to propose that governments should hamper the work of their own organs. But this apparent paradox arises out of the ambiguous situation created by the fact that on the one hand all states declare their devotion to the cause of peace and formally renounce war as an instrument of national policy (although hitherto war between nations has never been used for any other purpose), and on the other hand refuse to abolish their armies, the only *raison d'être* of which can be war. In these circumstances we are forced to propose to governments, inasmuch as for one reason or another they refuse to abolish their armies, at least to take measures to make war difficult. That is why we are insisting on such reduction of armaments which would affect all their branches. This reduction must be extended to the strength of armies as a whole, to troops in the home country and colonies, to the number or organized military units, to trained reserves. This numerical reduction must be linked up with the reduction of all forms of war material and military stocks. Hence arises our second proposal to the conference—to resolve not only upon reduction of armaments but upon their substantial reduction.

We come now to the problem of methods of reduction. In my opinion only two such methods exist. The first would be to establish individually for each state numerical reduction or some percentage of reduction of armed forces, taking into account its geographical situation, population, length of frontiers and many other factors, usually grouped under the word "security." . . . It is difficult, well-nigh impossible, to conceive of an agreement between all states represented at the conference on the basis of such individual allocation of armed forces for sixty-four states, not to mention the fact that the working out of such a method of reduction, would, at the best, invoke several years of discussion, during which all the divergences between states and groups of states would inevitably make themselves felt with special violence. This would hardly be conducive to a peaceful atmosphere at the conference.

I should like to say, that in objecting to the individual method of reduction the Soviet delegation is by no means inspired by egoistical national interests. If it wanted to get the balance of armaments changed in favor of its own state, it would ask nothing better than disarmament on the basis of security factors. Indeed I should have no difficulty in proving, on the basis of length of frontiers, distances, population, railways, the absence of any military alliances, the hostile attitude of other states, justification, not for diminution, but for an increase in the defense power of the country I represent, especially now, in view of the possible dangers to it, with which the obscure development of events in the Far East may be fraught. But the Soviet delegation has not come to this conference to make stipulations of this sort, but to help to find some method of reduction which would not alter the existing balance of armaments, would be impartial and would therefore evoke the least possible controversy.

The only method combining these advantages is that of the proportional reduction of armaments. This is the only method which would be detrimental to no state, and at the same time benefit no state at the expense of another. The balance of armaments would remain the same and the gain would be common to all in the increase of general security ensuing upon the diminution of the possibilities of war and the accompanying reduction of military expenditure.

I may be told, as I have already been told in the preparatory commission that such a method would legalize and perpetuate existing inequalities and injustice with regard to armaments. We do not deny the existence of much unfairness in this world, but at the same time we see no likelihood of this or any other conference righting all historical wrongs or putting an end to all divergences between states.

We consider, however, the strict application of the principle of proportion to all states equally, both the very powerful and the weakest, as unjust. The greater the power of a state, of an imperialist state, the greater the danger it represents, the greater its potential aggressiveness. On the other hand small armies constitute no such danger, arouse no fears of aggression and,

should they be reduced, the states possessing them might remain almost defenseless. We, therefore, admit the necessity of differentiating the application of the principle of proportion by dividing states into three groups. The first would consist of states with armies of not more than 30,000, to be left untouched for the time. The second would consist of states with armies from 30,000 to 200,000, which would be required to reduce their armies in progressive ratio, according to the diagram shown in document 82. Thus an army of 50,000 would be reduced by about 5 per cent, an army of 100,000 by 20 per cent, of 150,000 by 35 per cent, 170,000—40 per cent and so on. The third group would cover states with land armies of upwards of 200,000, to be reduced by 50 per cent.

I may be asked why I have chosen such figures as 30,000 and 200,000 when dividing states into groups, why these and no other figures. Such a question would of course be legitimate whatever figures we chose, for there is no generally acknowledged mathematical definition of great aggressive armies or small and purely defensive armies. We are forced, therefore, to take figures which appear to the Soviet delegation to be fair and to meet the case best. It will be seen that, with the figures chosen by us, the army in the state which I represent would come under the heading of those to be subjected to the maximum reduction of 50 per cent. This does not mean that I thereby admit that the army of the Soviet state, numerically strong as it is, constitutes a threat of aggression as do those of big imperialist states. This is not so, for the Soviet state does not pursue and by its very nature cannot pursue any imperialist aims, or aspire towards the conquest of new territories or colonies, has never sent and is not sending troops or warships to foreign territories for the defense of its citizens or so-called national interests. I do, however, include my own country in the group of states whose armies would come under the maximum reduction, on strictly mathematical grounds.

I have spoken of land forces, but we propose to apply the same principle, with other figures, to the reduction of naval and air forces, in accordance with the charts contained in document 82. [A supplement to the Soviet draft convention.Ed.]

You may have noticed that the present method of reduction proposed by the Soviet delegation differs somewhat from the corresponding proposals made by it to the preparatory commission. Then also we divided states into three groups, but proposed to establish a single ratio of reduction for all the states in each group. It was rightly pointed out to us in the preparatory commission that under such a plan a state with an army of say 190,000 would have to reduce it 33 percent, while a state with only 10,000 more and therefore belonging to another group, would have to reduce its army 50 per cent. We took this argument into account, and are now proposing a stricter principle of progressive proportion, so that the ratio of reduction should not differ too markedly for states, which by reason of the size of their armies happen to be immediately under and over the line dividing states into categories.

While eliminating from the scheme of reduction states with small armies, or establishing for them a trifling percentage of reduction we must of course make a proviso for cases of several such states combining their armies and thus constituting a threat for other states, whose armies have been subjected to greater reduction. We propose in cases of such alliances to base the ratio of reduction on figures representing the total armed forces of the states belonging to any such alliance.

Further, acknowledging the principle of equality for all states, we propose to leave out of our scheme of reduction the armaments of states which have already been subjected to reduction on the basis of international treaties, and which should be limited on principles applicable to all states.

I have only been able to analyze two methods of reduction—one taken for granted by many delegates in the preparatory commission although not as yet embodied in a formal proposal, the individual method—and the other, that proposed by the Soviet delegation. I have not of course overlooked the extremely interesting proposal made to the conference by the Turkish delegation, to which I should like to revert after it has been moved and explained by the Turkish delegation. Our attitude towards the principle of equality upon which this proposal is based is one of sympathetic approval, but much will depend on the level of armaments which will form the basis of such equality and the extent of reduction of armaments to which it will lead in the near future. It must moreover be clear that the principle of equality should imply the absolute renunciation of any military alliances and agreements whatsoever, since, given the equality of armies in all states an alliance of any two states might threaten any other third state. I would only add that the logical application of the proportional principle would lead at a certain stage to the equalization desired by the Turkish delegation and would, I think, bring the Turkish and Soviet proposals very near to each other.

No other methods have been suggested here so far as I am aware.

I am, however, profoundly convinced that, should the states represented here sincerely agree to a reduction of armaments, their delegations would have to admit the method of reduction proposed by the Soviet delegation, as the only one which is both practical and fair. Delegations may agree to the reduction of armaments on

principle, but if methods for reduction are not proposed at the same time, or if methods are proposed which are obviously unfair and therefore unacceptable, any reduction will be frustrated. This is why the Soviet delegation considers it essential that not only reduction and even substantial reduction but also the methods for such reduction be mentioned in article 1 of the draft convention. . . . We do not, of course, insist on the immediate acceptance of these details and figures, considering it sufficient if the basic principles—compulsory reduction, substantial reduction and reduction on the progressive-proportional principle—are embodied in article 1, which should give at least general directions to the technical commissions. In accordance with what I have said the Soviet delegation therefore proposes that article 1 of the draft convention should be worded as follows:

"The high contracting parties agree to effect a substantial reduction of existing armaments on the progressive-proportional principle as provided in this convention."

This article is meant to apply to the quantitative reduction of armaments, but it by no means excludes either the qualitative reduction or the abolition of armaments. It is thus not in the least opposed to the proposals which were the subject of discussion at yesterday's meeting of the general commission.

I hasten to state that I have no objections whatever to these proposals, the more that they were made by the Soviet delegation itself at the preparatory commission, in its second draft convention which provided for the total abolition both of poison gas and of tanks, while as to heavy artillery we proposed abolishing it at a caliber considerably lower than 155 mm. Now also we shall propose lowering caliber the more that descriptions of 155 mm. guns, with a range of 26 kilometers, and capable of projecting shell up to 50 kilograms, are already to be found in military text-books. In our proposals, however, the abolition of heavy artillery, tanks and poison gas was not isolated, but was combined with the abolition of other forms of aggressive armaments also, and the general reduction of all armed forces and materials.

Isolated proposals for the abolition of any given kind of armaments, far from simplifying the problem are on the contrary likely to meet with serious obstacles, for the relation of various sorts and categories of armaments is not the same for all states and therefore the abolition of one kind of armaments might affect the power of defense of states variously. Yesterday, for instance, the strengthening of the feeling of security thanks to the abolition of heavy artillery and tanks was mentioned here. This might be true for states having only land frontiers, but it is not true for states having coastal frontiers also, and subjected to possible attack from extremely mobile heavy artillery on men-of-war.

I am by no means speaking in order to find fault with the proposals made, or rather repeated here yesterday, with regard to the abolition of certain kinds of weapons of aggression. . . . All I want is to draw the attention of the commission to the relative meaning of security. It seems to me dangerous to make use of security as an argument in favor of this or that proposal for the reduction of armaments, for we have had plenty of examples at the preparatory commission and during the present conference of such arguments being employed against any sort of abolition or even reduction of armaments.

The general commission seems to have made up its mind to come to grips with the question of disarmament after the Easter vacation. Now it has to honor the bill it has issued and it will only be able to do that when it proceeds to the solution of the fundamental questions of disarmament. It must be admitted that during its first two months the conference has but skirted these questions. It has decided only one important question, that of total disarmament, but this was, unfortunately, a negative decision. The conference is now faced with another question of enormous importance and will have to give a straight answer to it: this question is—are the states represented ready, if only partially, to reduce, and that substantially, their armaments? If the answer is again negative it will be impossible to conceal the failure of the conference by any side issues such as resolutions and decisions on moral disarmament, security, or even the abolition of some form of weapons or other. If, on the contrary, the problem of the substantial reduction of all armaments is solved, the states represented will have displayed their good-will sufficiently to prevent problems of lesser importance from constituting any sort of difficulty.

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GENEVA CONVENTION ON IMPROVING THE LOT OF WOUNDED AND SICK IN ACTIVE ARMIES

On March 26, 1932, the Geneva convention on improving the lot of wounded and sick in active armies, concluded July 27, 1929, went into effect for the U.S.S.R. On May 12, 1930, the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. passed a resolution agreeing to the adherance of the U.S.S.R. to this convention, and on August 25, 1931, Maxim Litvinov made a statement constituting the official adherence of the U.S.S.R. to the convention. The text of the convention is published in full in Russian and in French in Ordinance 60, of "Sobranye Zakonov i Resporiazhenie" of the U.S.S.R., Section II, No. 4, March 10, 1932.

INTERNATIONAL COUNTERFEIT MONEY CONVENTION

On January 17, 1932, the International Convention on combatting counterfeit money signed in Geneva on April 20, 1929, by Gregory Lashkevich and Nikolay Liubimov on behalf of the U.S.S.R., went into effect for the Soviet Union. The convention was ratified by the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. in Moscow on May 16, 1931. The complete text of the convention, including the reservations of the U.S.S.R. was published in French, English and Russian in "Sobranye Zakonov i Rasporiazhenie" (Collected Laws and Ordinances) of the U.S.S.R., No. 5, Section 2, for March 29, 1932, Ordinance 62.

SOKOLNIKOV ON BRITISH-SOVIET TRADE

Gregory Sokolnikov, diplomatic representative of the Soviet Union in Great Britain, and Alexander Ozersky, Soviet trade representative, were guests at a banquet held in London early in April by an association of the leading British machine construction firms.

In their speeches the members of the association emphasized the importance of the Soviet market to the British machine construction and electro-technical industry and pointed out that the association was working for more extensive financing of Soviet orders by the government and the banks.

In his answering speech Sokolnikov emphasized the fact that in 1931 sixty per cent of the entire export of the British machine construction industry went to the Soviet market. He declared that the Soviet Union alone had increased its demands for machinery and equipment and that "the world crisis stopped at the Soviet borders." Sokolnikov further pointed out that attempts to boycott the U.S.S.R. economically and financially were very stupid since they meant greater losses to those countries attempting to limit trade with the U.S.S.R. than to the Soviet Union itself. In conclusion he stated that the representatives of the British machine construction industry had taken a position that would assist the development of normal economic relations between the U.S.S.R. and England.

TWO TERRORISTS CONVICTED

On April 16 the Military Tribunal of the Supreme Court of the Soviet Union found Judas Stern and his associate Sergey Vassiliev guilty of attempting to assassinate Dr. Fritz von Twardowski, Counselor to the German Embassy in Moscow, and of participating in a counter-revolutionary conspiracy, and sentenced both to death.

At the trial the defendants confessed to participation in a plot to assassinate the German Ambassador, Dr. von Dirksen, and thereby create a diplomatic rupture between Germany and the Soviet Union, disorder Soviet foreign relations and promote armed intervention against the Soviet Government. In accordance with the plan Stern waylaid the Ambassador's automobile March 5 and fired five shots at the occupant, wounding him slightly in the neck and more severely in the left hand. The occupant happened to be Dr. von Twardowski instead of Dr. von Dirksen. The would-be assassin was immediately apprehended.

Evidence at the trial showed that the two conspirators were linked with a band of terrorists organized in 1928 by Vsevolod Liubarski, a Pole, who came to Moscow from Warsaw as a diplomatic courier. In August, 1928, one of the members of this group assassinated Chief Inspector Shaposhnikov of the Political Administration of the Red Army. Thereafter the leaders of the gang were apprehended and convicted, but some of the members eluded the police and continued their plots.

SOVIET-POLISH BORDER AGREEMENT

On April 10 an agreement was signed in Moscow between representatives of Poland and of the U.S.S.R. regarding legal relations on the Soviet-Polish border. The agreement is subject to ratification by both countries.

CHANGES IN SOVIET FOREIGN SERVICE

On December 19, D. A. Uglev was relieved of the post of Trade Representative of the U.S.S.R. in the Tana-Tuva Republic and U. P. Lebedev was appointed Trade Representative in his stead.

On January 29, Vladimir Fedorovich Ivanov was relieved of his duties as trade representative of the U.S.S.R. in Austria and Nikolay Stepanovich Popov was appointed to this post in his stead.

Soyuzphoto

A shock worker in the new Moscow ball-bearing factory

Soviet Engineers and Technicians

DURING the past two years there has been a pronounced increase in the number of engineers and technicians in the Soviet Union. In 1929 the total number of specialists engaged in the entire national economy was 300,000. By the beginning of 1932 there were over 600,000.

Ever-growing numbers of engineers, technicians and highly skilled workers are being trained in Soviet universities and technical schools. In 1932, 175,000 technicians will be graduated from the technicums, over twice as many as in 1931. The workers' faculties will graduate 121,000, or 80 per cent more than the preceding year, while 364,000 skilled workers will complete their training in factory and shop schools, four times as many as in 1931.

By the end of 1932 the combined enrollment of all higher educational institutions, technicums, workers' faculties and factory and shop schools, will amount to 4,000,000, as against 2,700,000 in 1931.

In pre-revolutionary days there were altogether 124,000 students in higher educational institutions, and most of these students received only a general education, without specializing in any particular field. There were only twelve higher technical institutions in Russia in 1914-15 with about 20,000 students. At the end of 1930 there were in the U.S.S.R. 243 higher technical institutions, with 148,468 students. Of the 394,000 students attending higher educational institutions in 1931, all were receiving special training as well as general higher education. In order to bring the higher educational institutions into closer contact with the productive life of the country the universities, formerly containing many different faculties, have been reorganized into specialized colleges directly connected with the economic organizations, and all students spend from forty to fifty per cent of their time doing practical work in connection with their chosen industry or profession.

Thus we have the double process taking place of the schools and colleges, on the one hand, turning their attention to practical problems and working in close contact with the economic life of the country, and on the other, we find industrial enterprises encompassing more and more educational activities within their own institutions, so that extensive educational opportunities are offered to workers while they are actually on the job. An example of this is the Moscow tool factory, where 71 per cent of the workers are taking courses in the factory school.

In line with the new policy inaugurated last summer of increased attention to the living conditions of technicians and engineers and the professional classes generally, measures have recently been taken to provide increased housing accommodations for this group. On March 25 a decree was passed by the Sovnarkom instructing the proper authorities to undertake the construction of 102 houses, containing 11,500 three and four room apartments with kitchen, bath and all modern improvements, for the use of specialists. Ten such apartment houses, containing three hundred apartments each, are to be put up in Moscow, five in Leningrad, one each in Stalingrad and Kharkov, and smaller ones are to be constructed in sixty-three other cities and towns. The construction is to be subsidized by the central government, and Gosplan is instructed to provide the necessary materials to start work this spring and take into account the necessary materials in drawing up plans for 1933.

Soyuzphoto

Future technicians at the Baku Oil Institute

During the past two years the type of engineers and technical workers has undergone considerable change. Those known as "praktiki," that is to say, workers who have received their training for technical and engineering work while actually on the job, have increased from 25 per cent to 47.8 per cent of the total number. The number of young people among the specialists has greatly increased. In 1929 the propor-

tion of engineers and technicians with a "production record" of less than five years was 19.3 per cent of the total. It is now 35.8 per cent. The proportion of such workers under thirty years old is 41.3 per cent. During the past two years the number of specialists coming from workers' families has grown from 26.7 to 39.2 per cent.

Expenditures for the training of specialists and skilled workers were three times as great in 1931 as in the preceding year—1,826,000,000 rubles against 632,000,000 rubles, while capital construction work for this purpose amounted to 354,-000,000 rubles in 1931 against 50,0000,000 rubles in 1930.

Newspapers in the U.S.S.R.

ACCORDING to the latest figures there are now 2,230 central, regional and district newspapers being published in the Soviet Union, with a total circulation of 33,000,000 copies. This figure includes newspapers published every three days and "five-day weeklies" as well as dailies. There are about three times as many newspapers and more than ten times as many newspaper readers as there were in pre-revolutionary times.

The circulation of the newspapers published in Moscow reaches many millions of copies. *Pravda* has a circulation of 2,200,000, *Izvestia*, 2,000,000. *Pravda* and *Izvestia* are published in other cities simultaneously with the Moscow edition. *Izvestia* is sent by wire from Moscow to Leningrad by a system of facsimile transmission, and is reprinted in Leningrad from photographs. Airplanes carry the matrixes of both *Pravda* and *Izvestia* to other cities where these papers are published on the same day they appear in Moscow.

The circulation of the larger local provincial papers runs into hundreds of thousands of copies. The circulation of the *Leningrad Pravda* is 240,-000, of the *Uralsky Rabochy*, published in Sverdlovsk, 125,000, etc.

There are about thirty newspapers published in Moscow alone. In addition to the two chief newspapers, *Izvestia* and *Pravda*, the official organs respectively of the Soviet government and of the Communist Party, there are many newspapers devoted to the interests of special groups. *Krestianskaya Gazeta* (The Peasants' Gazette) issued once every three days, has a circulation of over 3,000,000. In addition to its Moscow edition it prints fifteen regional editions.

Among the daily papers published in Moscow are *Economicheskaya Zhizn*, organ of the State Planning Commission and the Commissariat for Finance; *Za Industrializatsia*, organ of the People's Commissariat for Heavy Industries; *Trud*, trade union daily; *Krasnaya Zviezda*, the Red Army paper; *Rabochaya Moskva*, published by the Moscow Trade Union Council; *Komsomolskaya Pravda*, the organ of the Communist youth and *Sotzialisticheskoe Zemledelie*, published by the Commissariat for Agriculture.

All these papers record in detail the day-to-day progress and difficulties in every field of socialist construction. More and more sketches and articles by the foremost Soviet writers, who have taken not merely to visiting but to actually working on the factories and farms, are found in the pages of the newspapers. Glowing accounts of heroic achievement alternate with merciless self-criticism.

One of the chief features of all Soviet newspapers is the rabkor and selkor (workers' and peasants' correspondents) movement. There are now some 2,000,000 such correspondents throughout the country contributing to the newspapers. They write about conditions in their particular

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Preparing the wall-newspaper on the "Gigant" sovhoz

locality or factory, carry on campaigns to raise production, and so on.

In addition to the regular press there are thousands of daily and weekly sheets printed in factories, state farms and collectives. At the beginning of 1931 there were 1,200 such factory papers, with a circulation of about 2,000,000, and about 500 collective and state farm papers, with a circulation of over a million. During seeding and harvesting campaigns traveling newspaper vans go through the country districts publishing newspapers for the population.

Wall newspapers are to be found on the bulletin boards of all Soviet institutions whether factory, farm, school or government office. These are large, hand decorated and usually hand painted sheets, with drawings, cartoons, sketches, poems and so on dealing with local problems or special campaigns.

A number of newspapers are published for foreigners working in the Soviet Union. The first experiment of this kind was the *Moskauer Rundschau*, a German language weekly newspaper edited by Otto Pohl. Beginning with a circulation of 7,000, its readers, both within and without the Soviet Union, had reached 17,000 by the beginning of 1932. In 1930 the *Moscow News*, a five-day weekly, designed chiefly for English-speaking specialists working in the U.S.S.R., was established. Its projected circulation of 3,000 soon grew to 10,000, and has now reached 16,000. Its editor-in-chief is Victor Vacsov, and associate editors Anna Louise Strong and Charles Ashleigh. The *Workers' News*, for English speaking skilled workers was started soon after the *Moscow News*.*

There are 600 or more newspapers published in over sixty different languages for the various minor nationalities within the Soviet Union, who had formerly no press of their own to speak of. In Central Asia, for example, there were 49 different papers published in 1931, in the Uzbek, Tadjik, Turkoman, Kirghiz, Kazak and other languages.

At a recent congress of worker and peasant correspondents in the Volga German Republic it was reported that the circulation of the newspapers had increased from 15,000 to 70,000 since the last congress a few years ago, whereas in pre-war days the circulation of newspapers in the Volga German district never exceeded 5,000.

Four newspapers and magazines are printed in German for the republic as a whole, and a daily Russian newspaper *Trudovaya Pravda* is printed. There are also ten district newspapers in the German republic, practically every collective and industrial enterprise has its wall newspaper, and many of the machine and tractor stations, state farms and factories and shops have local sheets.

International Polar Year

PREPARATIONS are under way in the Soviet Union for the carrying out of the second International Polar Year. The Polar Commission of the Academy of Sciences, the All-Union Arctic Institute and other scientific groups are at work on material connected with the establishment of new meteorological stations, the organization of polar expeditions and methods of observation.

Meteorological observations will be carried on over a period of thirteen months beginning with August 1, 1932, in the Arctic, and with January 1, 1933, in the Antarctic. Forty countries are expected to participate in the second Polar Year. In addition to the sixty polar stations already existing in the Arctic regions, of which more than one-third belong to the U.S.S.R., it is proposed to organize twenty more in the course of the year, of which thirteen will be constructed in the Soviet sector of the Arctic.

In addition to these, three more mountain stations will be constructed—on Franz Josef Land, on the northern island of Novaya Zemlya and on Chukotsky Peninsula. A number of stations will also be constructed in the zone adjacent to the polar zone. It is also planned to establish stations supplied with radio apparatus on the ice-floes with the help of dirigibles.

The Soviet Arctic Commission, under the chairmanship of S. S. Kamenev, has outlined the following plan for the participation of the U.S.S.R. in Arctic exploration during the coming year.

In addition to extending the already existing stations a large radio station will be constructed this year on Cape Cheliuskin—on the northernmost extremity of Asia. This station, which is situated in a place difficult of navigation—some years the straits are ice-bound throughout the year—will occupy a central place among all the stations on the Asiatic coast. Dr. B. D. Georgievsk, who has already spent one winter as physician on Franz Josef Land, has been appointed chief of the station. Stations will also be equipped on Cape North (at the mouth of the Lena River) and on Kotel Island. These stations

*Since this was written these two newspapers have been merged into a daily, *The Moscow Daily News*.

will play an important role in the exploration of the mouth of the Lena for the purpose of finding an outlet to the sea for Yakutia.

In the southern part of the Kara Sea a station will be opened on Biely Island. The northernmost radio station will be established on Rudolf Land, northern latitude 82°.

The colony at Pacific Bay (Franz Josef Land) will be provided with airplanes this year for scientific and exploratory flights.

The Arctic Institute will establish a high mountain station on the summit of the glacier at Novaya Zemlya. The work will be directed by Ermolayev, who will make use of the experience of Wegener who worked two years ago in Greenland. All the stations will be supplied with the radio-probes invented by Professor Molchanov, which gave such excellent results on their tests during the flight of the Graf Zeppelin to the arctic last summer. This apparatus rises to the stratosphere where it records the temperature and other meteorological elements.

Two expeditions are being prepared for this year on the ice-breakers "Sibiriakov" and "Rusanov," which will cover about 10,000 kilometers. The "Sibiriakov" will take a course from Archangel around the north coast of Asia to the Behring Straits and then to Vladivostok. The "Rusanov" will accompany the "Sibiriakov" through the Kara Sea to North Land, where both ice-breakers will make their way to the station and replace the group stationed there which by that time will have finished its exploration work and mapped out more than 25,000 square kilometers.

After the exchange has taken place both ice-breakers will pass through the most dangerous section of the trip—around the northern end of Asia to Cape Cheliuskin. If they are not able to make their way through the Vilkitz Straits, separating Northern Land from Asia, then they will make an attempt to go through the Shokal Straits, dividing Northern Land. Up until now it has been supposed that this was not straits, but a bay. The existence of straits was discovered by G. A. Ushakov, and his discovery was confirmed by the photographs taken from the dirigible in 1931. Until now no ship has navigated these waters.

At Cape Cheliuskin the ice-breaker "Rusanov" will land a group of colonists and will construct a radio station, while the "Sibiriakov" will go on further to the Behring Straits. After finishing its work the "Rusanov" will go to the mouth of the Yenesei, take on coal and then return to Archangel.

On board the "Sibiriakov" will be an airplane in command of the well-known polar flyer, I. K. Ivanov. In addition observations of the ice will be made by planes of the Komseverput fleet, flying from Dixon Island.

The general direction of the expeditions and Arctic operations will be in the hands of Prof. O. Y. Schmidt. The director of the scientific work on the "Sibiriakov" will be Professor V. Y. Vize. Captain V. I. Voronin, formerly captain of the ice-breaker "Sedov," and considered the best ice-breaker captain of the North, will be in command of the "Sibiriakov." Professor R. L. Samoilovich will head the "Rusanov" expedition.

The ice-breaker "Sibiriakov" will explore sections of the polar seas either entirely unvisited or visited very rarely, the Sea of Laptev and the East-Siberian Sea. The passage around Cape Cheliuskin to the mouth of the Lena will make it possible to bring up the question of establishing regular communications between Yakutia and the western part of the U.S.S.R., and open up tremendous prospects for the economic development of the Yakutian Republic. To the "Sibiriakov" will fall, too, the solution of the question as to the existence of Andreyev Land and Stannikov Land which are supposed to have been seen many years ago but the exact whereabouts of which is unknown. It is believed that the expedition will discover a large number of new islands.

The possibility of having to winter in the Arctic is always present in connection with Polar navigation. All three expeditions which have previously taken the northeastern passage have wintered in the ice: the Nordenscheld expedition in 1878-79, the ice-breakers "Taimir" and "Vaigach" in 1913-15 and the Amundsen expedition in 1918-20. But there is reason to hope that this expedition may escape spending the winter in the Arctic since the ice-breakers are of new construction, and supplied with powerful radio stations and airplanes for ice observation. In addition, the Soviet fleet and scientific workers have had valuable experience in Arctic navigation. All these factors taken together as well as the exceptional abilities of Captain Voronin give every reason to hope for success. In any case, the ice-breakers will be supplied with a fifteen months' reserve of food and clothing. The departure of the "Sibiriakov" and "Rusanov" from Archangel is set for July 20.

Another expedition is planned by the Arctic Institute on the ice-breaker "Krassin." The "Krassin" is scheduled to leave Archangel in July, taking with it two airplanes and supplies and polar equipment for three years. It will skirt the shores of Franz Josef or North Land and attempt to reach the farthest north parallel this summer. If this is impossible, it will establish winter quarters, and the airplanes will make a series of flights to various points in the central polar basin. The scientists accompanying the expedition will take part in the flights and stops of several days will be made on each in order to get the fullest possible scientific data. Magnetic variations will be studied with the aim of making

a magnetic map of the Arctic regions as a basis for organizing an air route from Europe to America through the central polar basin. Extensive meterological observations will be made and special studies made of the upper and lower strata of the atmosphere.

In addition to the expeditions sent out by the All-Union Arctic Institute, the Hydrographic administration is equipping an expedition on the ship "Taimir" for exploration of the northeast section of the Kara Sea.

Reconstruction of Moscow Stations

THE railroad stations of Moscow have recently undergone a complete reorganization. They have been cleaned up, renovated, and enlarged. Whole floors, formerly used by various offices, have been made over into new waiting rooms, greatly relieving the congestion that formerly existed.

In the Northern Station, for instance, office space has been reduced from 8,724 to 850 square kilometers, and passenger space enlarged proportionately.

Similar work has been done in all the other Moscow stations and the space thus freed has been converted into waiting rooms for passengers, with special accommodations for traveling families. Previously, no arrangements whatever have been made in the railroad stations for the comfort of mothers traveling with infants and young children. Each station in Moscow is now equipped with large, light, comfortable rooms for mothers and babies.

"Attention, Comrade passengers!" you will be greeted by the loud speaker as you enter the general waiting room in any of the Moscow stations.

"Go up to the second floor! There is ready for you a rest room, with couches, a reading room, barber shop, dining room, showers. Comrade passenger, pass the time until the departure of your train in cultural surroundings!

"Mothers and children! There is a separate rest room for you. You may leave your children in the children's room until train time. They will be cared for, fed and entertained under the supervision of a doctor. There are cribs for the children and baths. Do not make your children suffer down here among the grown-ups. Take them upstairs!"

In the room upstairs all is quiet and order. The loud speaker announces only the arrival and departure of trains.

"Comrade passengers! Within five minutes train 42 may be boarded. Mothers with children do not need to hurry. You will be seated first. There is plenty of time."

A nurse is stationed at the entrance of each of these rooms to examine the child before it is placed in the special children's room. If the child has been taken sick on the road, the mother receives medical advice and aid. There are two or three isolation rooms in each station for children showing signs of contagious diseases.

In all the larger Moscow stations these mothers' and infants' rooms are equipped with hot and cold shower baths, and special bath rooms and toilets for children.

In addition to the general rest room for mothers and children, with which a play room and dining room are connected, there is also in each station a sleeping room fitted out with iron cribs and oilcloth-covered mattresses and pillows which may be easily disinfected after each child. Here the children may be left to rest or sleep for several hours. Special arrangements have been made for food for mothers and children, and nursing mothers may obtain a substantial meal for thirty kopeks.

In addition to a trained nurse, each room also has a teacher on duty who organizes games and reading for the children. Facilities are made for the mothers to rest and feed their children, and if they wish, they may leave their children in charge of the nurse for several hours. Mothers with children under seven may procure their tickets ahead of time without having to wait in line, through these rooms, and may also go aboard the train ahead of the other passengers.

So successful have these new arrangements proved in the Moscow stations that plans are already under way to take similar steps to ease conditions in the crowded stations outside of Moscow, especially such junctions as Omsk, Briansk, Rostov, Kharkov, Novosibirsk, and others. In some of them such arrangements have already been made, but on a more primitive scale.

The mothers' and infants' rooms are under the direct supervision of the railroad health departments.

Cultural Development of the Nationalities

THE ARMENIAN STATE THEATER

THE First State Theater of Armenia, designated as a theater of "tremendous cultural and political significance" by the jury of the first all-Union art olympiad, has recently celebrated the completion of ten years of activity, during which time it has put on eighty-four different plays.

The development of the Armenian State Theater may be divided into three periods. The first, during the years 1921-1926, was characterized by a narrow academic approach to problems of the stage and the production of a number of plays unsatisfactory from both an artistic and ideological viewpoint, all of them completely removed from contemporary problems.

During the second period, from 1926 to 1928, a distinct change took place in the work of the theater. Along with the classics the works of modern Soviet dramatists began to appear—"Purga," "Liubov Yarovaya," "Rychi, Kitai!" "Miatezh," and others. A group of gifted young artists developed, who attempted to introduce an original repertoire.

In the third period, beginning in 1928, the theater has succeeded in linking up its work with questions of socialist construction. In addition to translations of revolutionary plays from the Russian a number of plays by young Armenian dramatists have been added to the repertoire. A number of successful attempts have been made to give modern productions to the Armenian classics.

Manzelian and Avetian, two veteran actors of the theater, were awarded life pensions in celebration of the anniversary.

KAZAK FOLK SONGS

A new collection of Kazak folk songs, gathered by Alexander Satayevitch, has recently appeared.

The first collection of Kazak folk songs to be made was that by Satayevitch from 1921 to 1923, when he covered thousands of miles of steppe territory, inhabited by six million Kazaks. Their songs—legends and fairy tales with musical accompaniment, are richly fantastic and picturesque and the melodies often very beautiful. The Kazaks regard their songs highly. "The singer," so runs one of their sayings, "is a person to whom much is accessible which to us is a closed book."

In spite of the deep significance of music in the life of the Kazaks little scientific research had been carried on in their folk songs until 1925 except for a few defectively noted melodies. Satayevitch's first collection, which appeared in 1925, contained a thousand melodies. The chief source

Soyuzphoto

A group of Ukrainian dancers

of collection was Orenburg, formerly the capital of Kazakstan. Assistants were found largely among the young students there. Since 1926 Satayevitch has taken longer trips by horseback into the steppes, thus being deprived of the use of mechanical recording instruments such as the phonograph and having to depend on his sharp ear and rhythmic sense.

Both collections, that of 1925 and that of 1931, give a wide number of different types of songs in which the peculiarity of their melodic-rhythmic structure has remained unchanged. It is interesting that in contrast with the chromatic scoring considered in opera and concert as "typically Eastern," the Kazak folk song shows a marked leaning toward the purely diatonic. Rhythmically the structure is characterized by a double repetition of the principal motive.

There are three instruments: the syibezgy, kobis and dombra. The syibezgy is a sort of clarinet with twelve holes, the kobis is a stringed instrument with a pear-shaped body covered with camel-skin for purposes of resonance. Instead of catgut the instrument is provided with horsehair. The dombra, the favorite and most widely used instrument, resembles the mandolin, with a long board strung with catgut.

ART OLYMPIAD IN THE NORTH CAUCASUS

Last fall Rostov-on-Don was the scene of an art Olympiad of North Caucasian peoples. Fifteen peoples were represented, including Ossetians, Ingushi, Kabardini, Karabashi, Adygeans, Chechens, and Daghestani. This olympiad followed a number of local native olympiads in the individual territories of the participants.

The strangest contrasts were in evidence. One girl singer was always chaperoned by her mother

when she sang, since according to Caucasian custom a woman may not appear publicly without her mother. This same young girl, however, sang with great enthusiasm a song entitled "The Five-Year Plan in Four Years."

The Chechens, to honor the fourteenth anniversary of the revolution, brought a stringed orchestra composed of kolhoz peasants, the first of its kind and organized only a month before. Otherwise the music of these peoples is chiefly of an individual and improvisatory character.

There were ensembles of musicians who played on curious instruments made of gun-barrels. A symphony orchestra played Adygean melodies in an almost modern arrangement. As one of the speakers stated, the aim of the North Caucasian peoples seems to be to put the treasures of their music into European form.

The first place in music was awarded to the Daghestani who sent a men's choir of five voices and a soloist. The choir sang songs of Lenin, of the Five-Year Plan and of the heroes of 1905.

From the musical standpoint the characteristic of all these songs is a struggle between the traditional eastern singing and a new form. A typical survival in the new songs is the four-four time which only recently had begun to give way to other melodic types. The polyphony of most of the three-voiced choirs shows relationship with mediæval forms. However, comparative research of song composition has only recently been initiated and the Art Section of the Commissariat of Education has undertaken its development together with the future backing of Caucasian Olympiads.

The book exhibit at the olympiad revealed that a number of important writers are developing among the mountain peoples of the North Caucasus. Among them are Kerashev in Adigeh, Karakotov in Karachai, Shogentsukov in Kabardi, Farniev, Bessayev and Epkiev in Ossetia, Aduev in Chechen and Tsadsky, Fatakhan and Gabiyev in Daghestan. A number of interesting sculptural works were exhibited by Tavasiyev, Khokov and Djamalov.

Five of the peoples represented sent national dramatic troupes who presented plays by native dramatists.

MUSIC IN THE LAND OF OIL AND COTTON

The Azerbaidjan Soviet Republic is one of the most interesting although least studied centers of musical art in the Soviet Union. This land of oil and cotton, situated on the great trade route from Asia to Europe, has for many centuries been the scene of a ceaseless migration of peoples attracted by the natural riches of the country. As the point of conflicting trade interests of its neighbors, the territory of Azerbaidjan became the arena of conflicts between Persians, Byzantines, Arabs, and, in later times, the Turks. As in the field of literature so in music the Arabian-Persian tradition has made itself most strongly felt.

However, it would be entirely incorrect to judge the music of Azerbaidjan only on the basis of its classical forms, although it is mainly these that have been studied and preserved by the few musical ethnologists who have been concerned with the music of Azerbaidjan. In the post-October period a striking change has taken place in the music of Azerbaidjan—a break with the former lyrical tendencies. The old attitude toward music solely as a means of gentle, lulling diversion has disappeared. In the music of Azerbaidjan, more especially in its mass songs, social motives, buried for hundreds of years in ornate and flowery style, have begun to appear. At the present time a campaign is afoot in the collectives to gather songs and poems expressing the collective consciousness of the Azerbaidjan peasants.

Eugene Braudo, a Soviet music critic who has recently made a trip to Azerbaidjan to study its music, writes:

"When one first comes to Azerbaidjan one is struck by the extraordinarily intense creative activity of the masses. The Turks sing much and

Soyuzphoto

A maker of musical instruments in Uzbekistan

eagerly, constantly improvising new and colorful melodies as they go along, executing them with great assurance as to rhythm and great purity of tone. Here should be noted the tendency of the Turks as of all the Transcaucasian peoples, to 'microtomy,' that is, the use of very brief intervals, breaking up the melodic interval familiar to western ears into still smaller fragments. The revolutionizing of Azerbaidjan melodies in the post-October period has been characterized by the transition from this florid and fantastic style to simple, regular tunes based on energetic movement and longer intervals. The old professional musical ornamentation has disappeared as completely and tracklessly as the weird Arabian characters and delicately curved arabesques. The working peasantry of Azerbaidjan even before sang much more simple and emotionally expressive songs than the professional minstrels who served the ruling classes with their art. The carriers of this peasant music, which has not been studied nearly enough, are the *ashugi* (groups of musicians).

"In 1928 there was a gathering of the Turkish *ashugi* in Baku, which revealed a number of revolutionary themes among their songs. Both singers and instrumentalists, the *ashugi* gather large audiences around them, both in the villages and cities. In Surukhanakh, amid the forest of oil towers we saw a large crowd gathered around a group of these singer-players, listening intently to their songs. Unfortunately we were unable to establish definitely whether the melodies carried down from the past of Azerbaidjan into the *ashugi* had been carefully traced and studied. The only collection of Azerbaidjan folk songs at our disposal, that published by the People's Commissariat for Education of the Azerbaidjan Republic under the editorship of Muslim Magomayev, with the exception of a few separate songs, does not give any clear picture of social thematics as a whole. Furthermore the harmonization in this collection has not been entirely successful and the songs have lost much of their original expressive power. While we have excellent collections of Turcoman and Kazak songs, Azerbaidjan is behind in this respect and still awaits a scientifically trained compiler who will be able to recreate the picture of present day, collectivized Azerbaidjan in its mass songs. At the present time, we have learned, from examining some of the manuscript material, the musical division of the Azerbaidjan scientific research institute is preparing a new collection of Turkish mass songs much nearer in content to the spirit of socialist Azerbaidjan. The extremely interesting work of Bergelson in laying the foundation for a scientific history of the music of Azerbaidjan, not yet completed, should also be noted.

"In the summer months a symphony orchestra plays regularly in the public park at Baku, the chief workers' center in Azerbaidjan, and a State Opera Company, very popular with the workers, plays in Baku during the winter months.

"In the songs of the young Turkish composers, Asapha Zainaly and Rifatov, and in the performances of the young singer of the people, Suria Khanum, the motives of the new socialist life are being worked out. At the same time valuable examples from the past are being collected and are being performed by well organized orchestras of the symphony type, such as the Oriental Orchestra directed by Dr. Johannessian."

THE MUSIC OF WHITE RUSSIA

White Russia—today a forepost of Soviet culture in the West, was one of the most bitterly oppressed countries of Tsarist Russia, politically and nationally. Its previous accomplishments in music brought forth nothing of the first rank. The best which the White Russians have brought to Moscow in the last decade are their folk songs, full of the melancholy undertones so highly characteristic of the White Russian song. These songs are melodically very primitive and executed with sharp tonal contrasts. The arrangements by Prokhorov, Aladov, Turenkov and Zegorov are chiefly lyrical.

The conservatory in Minsk is the center of higher musical culture in White Russia. It has 300 pupils, chiefly of proletarian origin. An opera studio has been in existence in Minsk since 1929, the basis of a future operatic theater. Previously White Russia had no permanent opera troupe. Performances were given only by visiting artists. There is little symphonic music in White Russia. A small number of orchestra concerts are given, under the direction of Mikhailov, the permanent director.

The national instrumental ensembles are very interesting. A large number of cymbals, primitive whistling instruments and a graceful mediaeval organ compose an orchestra of peculiarly metallic and resonant tone uniformity. The music is rhythmically varied and shows a strong western influence.

FIRST OSSETIAN THEATER

In Ordjonikidze (formerly Vladikavkaz), the first theater giving plays in the Ossetian language has been established. A competition has been arranged for the best play written in Ossetian on the theme of the struggle of the Ossetians for emancipation, the revolution and socialism. Five money prizes are offered for the best plays, the first prize to be 1,800 rubles.

An Ossetian department has been opened in Moscow in connection with the Central Dramatic Technicum, and sixty young Ossetians are already there studying dramatic art.

Seeded Area and Crop Figures

The following tables are taken from "The National Economy of the U.S.S.R.—Statistical Year-Book for 1932," recently published by the Central Administration of Economic Accounting of the U.S.S.R.

SEEDED AREA OF U.S.S.R.

In Hectares

	Harvest of 1930				Harvest of 1931			
	State Farms	*Collectives*	*Individual Peasants*	*Total*	*State Farms*	*Collectives*	*Individual Peasants*	*Total*
Winter rye	321,000	2,900,000	24,330,700	27,551,700	643,000	13,589,600	13,077,100	27,309,700
Winter wheat	529,900	2,256,100	6,670,400	9,456,400	1,061,000	7,494,200	3,250,500	11,805,700
Winter barley	0,200	44,500	359,900	404,600	12,000	160,800	179,600	352,400
Spring rye	0,200	75,100	356,400	431,700	3,600	178,900	180,000	362,500
Spring wheat	1,549,800	11,589,700	9,977,800	23,117,300	3,551,200	18,050,600	3,853,100	25,454,900
Spring barley	250,400	3,074,200	3,470,500	6,795,100	490,600	4,049,100	1,928,300	6,468,000
Oats	538,400	4,085,700	12,546,500	17,170,600	1,255,500	9,220,700	6,721,300	17,197,500
Buckwheat	18,500	310,900	1,833,100	2,162,500	86,200	774,200	1,042,700	1,903,100
Millet	85,400	1,426,400	3,652,300	5,164,100	229,800	3,179,800	1,845,300	5,254,900
Corn	48,700	1,446,600	2,019,700	3,515,000	198,500	2,788,900	955,000	3,942,400
Other crops	165,300	661,100	1,955,500	2,781,900	303,300	2,296,200	1,840,000	4,439,500
Total	3,507,800	27,870,300	67,172,800	98,550,900	7,834,700	61,783,000	34,872,900	104,490,600

CROP PRODUCTION OF U.S.S.R. FOR 1930

In Metric Tons

	State Farms	*Collectives*	*Individual Peasants*	*Total*	*Total for 1929*
Winter rye	532,870	2,771,710	20,118,020	23,422,600	19,941,510
Winter wheat	766,270	2,449,430	6,786,970	10,002,670	5,182,190
Winter barley	240	36,620	329,370	366,230	348,920
Spring rye	250	64,230	315,260	379,740	417,630
Spring wheat	1,034,050	8,292,650	7,591,470	16,918,170	13,695,630
Spring barley	275,190	2,907,500	3,224,160	6,406,850	6,864,610
Oats	575,660	4,134,300	11,914,960	16,624,920	15,739,260
Buckwheat	11,400	195,960	1,078,990	1,286,350	1,513,800
Millet	34,060	769,880	2,369,680	3,173,620	3,112,670
Corn	38,440	943,340	1,685,750	2,667,530	3,018,660
Other crops	187,290	653,780	1,655,230	2,496,300	1,906,630
Total	3,455,720	23,219,400	57,069,860	83,744,980	71,741,510

Book Notes

"RUSSIA: MARKET OR MENACE?" by Thomas D. Campbell, Longmans, Green and Co., New York, 1932. $2.

Mr. Campbell, proprietor of the largest grain farm in the United States, and a pioneer in large-scale, mechanized farming, visited the Soviet Union in 1929 and again in 1930, on invitation of the Soviet Grain Trust, as a consultant in connection with agricultural problems. His book is a plain-spoken account of what he saw, with some interesting interpretive material giving a survey of Soviet conditions and objectives and comparisons with standards and values under the old regime. Mr. Campbell, like other western Americans who retain something of the pioneer spirit, was equipped for a real appraisal of pioneering problems in a country wholly alien to his experience, and he did not permit the strangeness of the environment to throw him off the track when he got down to sizing up real values. Hence his book is a genuine contribution. Persons interested in the attitude of workers toward their jobs in the Soviet Union will find a lot of first-hand illuminating material in the volume.

The book contains maps, and a number of photographs most of which were taken by the author.

"PROTECTION OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN SOVIET RUSSIA," by Alice Withrow Field. Dutton, New York, 1932. $3.

This is the most thorough and detailed study that has appeared in English of what is being done in the Soviet Union in the care of women and children. Beginning with the underlying theories and the legal basis on which woman's position of complete equality is being developed in the U.S.S.R., Mrs. Field proceeds to an explicit analysis of what is actually being done. She de-

scribes marriage and divorce laws, the special measures for the protection of pregnant women and mothers, and the whole system of institutions for the care of mothers and children, birth control clinics, maternity consultations, and so on. Especially valuable is the section on creches in which the entire regime through all the stages of the child's development up to three years is set forth in minute detail. The book is supplemented by a series of clinical charts and certificates used by Soviet institutions and bibliographies in Russian and English.

ROAD THROUGH KARA-KUM DESERT

Preliminary work has been started on making a road through the desert of Kara-Kum in Turkestan. Up until now certain sections of this region have been considered practically impassable. Caravans have been able to make their way through the desert only with the help of the most experienced guides.

The plan is to build a road of five hundred kilometers through the sandy waste. Surveying parties of several hundred men are already at work laying out its course.

RECENT ADMINISTRATIVE AND GEOGRAPHIC CHANGES

The Kara-Kalpak Autonomous Oblast has been reorganized into an Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic within the R.S.F.S.R.

The administrative center of the Kara-Kalpak autonomous republic will be the settlement Nukus, which will at the same time be reorganized into a city.

The Daghestan Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic has been included as a part of the North Caucasus region because of coincidence of economic and geographic interests.

The city of Tver in Moscow oblast has been renamed Kalinin, and Tver rayon, in which it is situated, has been renamed Kalinin rayon.

The city of Vladikavkaz in the North Caucasus has been renamed Ordjonikidze.

The city of Pokrovsk in the autonomous German Republic on the Volga has been renamed Engels.

New settlements in the territory of the Kolsko-Loparsko rayon in Leningrad oblast, near the Khibinsk apatite deposits, have been reorganized into the city of Khibinogorsk.

The city of Sheglovsk in the West Siberian region has been renamed Kemerovo.

The city of Sarai-Komar in Tadjikistan has been renamed Baumanabad.

The city of Stalingrad has been made the central city of the Nizhni-Novgorod region in place of Saratov because of the growing industrial importance of Stalingrad.

RECENT ADMINISTRATIVE APPOINTMENTS

On January 9, A. P. Smirnov was confirmed by the TSIK (Central Executive Committee of U.S.S.R.) as chairman of the All-Union Council of Communal Economy under the TSIK, with S. N. Vlasenko, E. V. Luganovsky and N. P. Komarov as vice chairmen. The council is made up of seventy-six members.

On February 14, V. V. Kuibyshev was appointed chairman of the new Committee on Agricultural Procurements which has been organized under STO (Council of Labor and Defense) to direct the government purchasing of agricultural products.

On February 7, Bulat Ivan Lazarevich was appointed President of the Supreme Court of the R.S.F.S.R.

Y. E. Rudzutak has been appointed chairman of the committee on producers' cooperatives and handicraft industries under STO (Council of Labor and Defense).

The Sovnarkom of the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper), has appointed M. P. Tomsky chairman of OGIZ (United State Publishing House) in place of A. B. Khalatov.

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At a Young Pioneers' Camp in the Crimea

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Ninth Trade Union Congress

THE Ninth All-Union Congress of Trade Unions opened in Moscow on April 20 with addresses by N. M. Shvernik, Secretary of the All-Union Council of Trade Unions, and by Viacheslav Molotov, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars. One thousand four hundred delegates, representing 16,500,000 trade union members from all parts of the Soviet Union, attended the congress.

The report of the All-Union Council of Trade Unions prepared for the congress and the address of N. M. Shvernik to the delegates, summed up the activities of the trade unions and labor conditions generally since the Eighth Trade Union Congress which was held in Moscow in December, 1928. The following material is taken from these reports:

Progress Since 1928

The number of workers and employees has increased from 11,590,000 in 1928 to 18,600,000 in 1931 and is expected to reach 21,000,000 this year. There were 11,300,000 employed workers in Russia in 1913. Trade Union membership has increased from 10,900,000 in 1928 to 16,500,000 at the beginning of 1932. Unemployment has been completely wiped out. The seven-hour working-day has been extended to 83.1 per cent of the industrial workers. The wage fund of the workers and employees in the general national budget has increased from 8,112,000,000 rubles in 1928 to 19,942,000,000 in 1931 and is scheduled to be 26,100,000,000 in 1932. Large sums have been invested in new housing construction, in developing cooperative restaurants, in the organization of truck farms to supply workers, in the building of new clubs and institutions for child care and for the protection of labor.

Socialist competition and shock brigades, which have developed so extensively during the past few years, have been one of the chief factors in improving labor discipline and increasing productivity. Sixty-four per cent of the workers in socialized industry are *udarniki* (shock brigade members). Out of the socialist competition, in which various groups or factories vie with each other to complete or surpass their part of the Five-Year Plan, has grown, as a voluntary move-

Sayuzphoto

The Presidium of the IX Trade Union Congress, Bolshoy Theatre, Moscow, April 20

ment among the workers, the "vstrechnie plan" or "counter-plan." This means that the workers set for themselves their own goals of production, usually much higher than those set by the Five-Year Plan. This system has contributed greatly to the success of the new industrial undertakings. The first turbine of Dnieprostroy, for example, was mounted in 36 days instead of in 90 as called for by the plan.

Still another form of socialist competition which developed during the past year is that of *hozraschet* (economic accounting) brigades, through which the workers themselves take the initiative in reducing costs and helping the institution or factory employing them to put its work on a basis of economic accounting. (See Soviet Union Review for May, 1931, page 113). There were ten such brigades at the beginning of 1931, with 130 workers. On April 1, 1932, there were 155,000, with a million and a half members.

Workers' Production Conferences

The method of carrying on workers' production conferences, a unique feature of the Soviet labor situation, has been completely reorganized as a result of socialist competition. Since the first years of the revolution production meetings have been held regularly in all economic organizations as a means of acquainting the workers thoroughly with all production problems of their enterprise. As a basis for discussion at these meetings, the books are open to the workers for inspection, as well as all the facts concerning raw materials, equipment and program of work. All problems concerning the work of the enterprise are thoroughly thrashed out by management and workers together. These production meetings, instead of being general meetings of the factory as a whole, have been largely transferred to the factory departments, which permits a more detailed and efficient consideration of production problems, and makes it possible for many more workers to be active participants. Through these departmental production conferences the workers become interested in working out methods of rationalization of the different labor processes. Hundreds of thousands of "rationalization proposals" have been received from the workers as a result of these meetings, which, during 1931, effected an economy of 33,093,000 rubles in seventy large undertakings investigated.

Twenty-nine per cent of the workers in all industries had organized themselves into shock brigades on January 1, 1930. By January 1, 1932, 72.3 per cent of the workers were so organized, and more than half of the engineers and technicians.

One of the chief tasks of the trade unions has been to help carry out the six points outlined by Stalin last June as necessary for the proper functioning of the Soviet economic structure, particularly the one concerned with increasing individual responsibility and giving wider scope to specialists. During 1932 the unions will concentrate on raising the productivity of labor, decreasing costs and improving the quality of goods.

Wages and Living Conditions

In the period since the Eighth Trade Union

Congress the average annual wage throughout the entire national economy has increased from 702 rubles to 1,101 rubles, or 56.8 per cent, and the plan for 1932 calls for an increase to 1,202 rubles.

The following table shows the increase in wages in the different branches of industry during the past four years:

Branch of Industry	Average Monthly Wage (in Rubles)			Percentage of Increase over 1928		Order According to Wage Levels		
	1928	1931	Plan for 1932	1931	1932	1928	1931	1932
1. Machine construction	92.94	120.87	136.08	30.1	46.4	1	1	1
2. Printing	90.34	109.00	109.75	20.7	21.5	2	2	8
3. Shoe industry	86.72	96.54	103.88	11.3	19.8	3	8	9
4. Working up metals	85.82	108.40	121.40	26.3	41.5	4	3	4
5. Leather and fur	85.70	95.25	102.49	11.1	19.6	5	9	10
6. Chemical	82.09	99.83	110.50	21.6	34.6	6	7	7
7. Working up oil	81.30	105.75	118.90	30.1	46.3	7	5	6
8. Clothing	79.79	82.80	88.60	3.8	11.0	8	14	14
9. Obtaining oil	77.95	106.12	119.30	36.1	53.0	9	4	5
10. Ferrous Metallurgy	75.61	102.94	132.73	36.1	75.5	10	6	2
11. Food industry (not including sugar)	73.37	87.94	95.59	19.9	30.3	11	12	11
12. Paper	67.04	91.10	88.92	35.9	32.6	12	11	13
13. Wool	63.73	74.66	82.13	17.2	28.9	13	15	15
14. Coal	63.27	93.95	122.50	48.5	90.5	14	10	3
15. Wood-working	60.98	85.09	89.42	39.5	46.6	15	13	12
16. Cotton cloth	59.89	70.03	78.43	16.9	31.0	16	16	16
17. Linen	41.58	58.54	65.04	36.0	56.4	17	17	17
Average for 17 branches	70.94	96.01	111.37	35.3	57.0			

Particularly striking have been the wage increases for the professional classes. The pay of educational workers has increased by 111 per cent over the 1928 level, and that of medical workers by 64 per cent. In general the average monthly wage of all employed persons has increased 71.2 per cent since 1928. The policy has been to do away with the tendency toward equalization of wages of skilled and unskilled labor, and the piece work system has been widely introduced.

During the present, concluding year of the Five-Year Plan, the average annual wage in all branches is 20.9 per cent higher than that established by the Five-Year Plan for 1933.

The growth in the material well-being of the working class of the Soviet Union can by no means be judged by the growth in individual wages alone. Social insurance, medical aid, and other forms of so-called "socialized wages," amounted in 1931 to over one third of the individual wages. The most important factor of all in the increased well-being of the workers is the complete liquidation of unemployment and the increase in the family budget through the employment of all the able-bodied members of the family, which has meant an average addition of 53 per cent to the income of the worker's family since 1928.

Social Work of the Trade Unions

Total appropriations for the construction of houses, schools, hospitals, creches, public baths, etc., have increased from 3,371,000,000 rubles in 1927-28 to 9,733,000,000 rubles in 1932. For housing alone, 511,000,000 rubles was spent in 1929-30, 910,000,000 in 1931, and the plan for 1932 calls for 1,900,000,000.

In the period from 1928 to 1931 new housing was provided for about 3,000,000 persons, and according to the plans under way for 1932, an additional 3,000,000 people will be accommodated in the new housing projects under construction this year. The housing cooperatives, which have a membership of about 1,800,000, have attracted an additional 118,900,000 rubles into housing construction through their share-holders.

Capital investments in communal enterprises have increased as follows: in 1928-29, 288,000,000 rubles; in 1929-30, 420,000,000 rubles; in 1931, 425,000,000 rubles; in 1932 (according to plan), 950,000,000 rubles.

In 1930, 29,000,000 rubles was spent in the construction of baths, in 1931, 35,000,000 rubles and in 1932 the plan provides for an expenditure of 50,000,000 rubles. In 1930, 8,000,000 rubles was invested in construction of public laundries, in 1931, 12,000,000, and 27,000,000 rubles will be spent for this purpose in 1932.

The trade union organizations have been especially active in helping to put through measures to improve communal service for women, who made up 32.2 per cent of the total number of workers in 1931 as against 28.4 per cent in 1930. In 1930, 12,000,000 rubles was invested in the construction of creches in industrial centers, in 1931, 47,000,000 rubles and in 1932 the investment of 51,000,000 rubles is planned. In 1929 the number of places in permanent creches in cities was 56,945, while this year it is being increased to 385,000. Pre-school institutions were provided for 476,000 children in cities and industrial towns in 1929; for 1,894,160 in 1931,

and it is proposed to provide accommodations for over 3,000,000 children this year. In 1931 the trade unions spent 8,000,000 rubles of their own funds for pre-school child care, and they have assigned 14,100,000 rubles for this purpose in 1932.

Social Insurance

The social insurance system has been reorganized so that each leading branch of industry has its own social insurance system, and paying offices have been established at the factories, new construction projects and state farms. The number of insured has increased from 12,700,000 persons in 1929 to 17,150,000 in 1931, and is expected to reach 20,700,000 this year. The social insurance budget increased from 1,425,000,000 rubles in 1928-29 to 2,573,000,000 rubles in 1931, and the present planned budget for this year is 3,534,000,000 rubles, as against 1,950,000,000 rubles in the original plan. In 1932 about forty per cent of the entire social insurance budget will go for medical and prophylactic health work and for improvements in living conditions.

Considerable success has been achieved in combatting illness among the workers. In 1928, 540,000 workers went through the rest homes, resorts and sanatoria, in 1931, 1,600,000, and the number will reach 2,300,000 this year.

The whole system of medical and prophylactic aid among the workers has improved and health institutions have been moved closer to industry. In 1929 there were 2,216 "health points" established right at the place of work. This year there will be 5,414. Appropriations for prophylactic measures have increased from 89,000,000 rubles in 1928-29 to 151,500,000 rubles in 1932.

Expenditures for labor protection and safety devices have increased from 57,000,000 rubles in 1928 to 169,500,000 rubles in 1932 and the work of the trade unions in this field has been greatly strengthened.

The effect of these measures may be gauged by the fact that in the period from 1924-25 to 1929-30 the mortality per thousand of insured workers decreased from 6 to 4.3 per cent, and the number of days of absence from work due to temporary incapacity decreased from 1,061 per thousand in 1929-30 to 960 in 1931.

According to the decision of the Fifth Plenum of the Council of Trade Unions, 929 mutual-aid branches were organized in the leading heavy industries, with a membership of 2,311,000 workers. These organizations are subsidized by the trade unions and social insurance. In 1931, their expenditures, in the form of loans to workers, totalled 14,000,000 rubles.

Consumers' Goods and Food

Distribution of consumers' goods to the workers has been handled largely through the ZRK (factory and shop cooperatives) which have been organized in all industrial undertakings having at least 2,000 workers. A special institute of price inspectors has been organized in connection with the factory and shop committees.

The trade unions have taken an active part in developing cooperative truck farming in the outskirts of cities and industrial towns. Over 100,000,000 rubles of trade union funds has been assigned for this purpose, workers have been drawn into voluntary work in truck garden cultivation and as a result the area under workers' gardens has increased from 47,000,000 hectares in 1930 to 333,000,000 in 1931, and 430,000,000 hectares are planned for workers' truck gardens in 1932. The workers' meat supply is to be more than doubled during the present year.

Socialized restaurants have grown rapidly during the past three years, increasing from 1,855 in 1928 to 16,698 at the beginning of 1932, and the capacity for meals served daily has correspondingly increased from 559,600 to 31,774,000. The trade unions are giving their attention not merely to increasing the number of socialized restaurants but to improving the quality of food, the sanitary conditions and service.

Cultural Work of the Unions

The trade unions have been one of the chief primary agencies in introducing universal compulsory education and are reducing adult illiteracy. Illiteracy among trade union members was down to 20 per cent in 1931, and the trade unions are endeavoring to have their members 100 per cent literate by the fifteenth anniversary of the revolution.

Since the Eighth Trade Union Congress in 1928, 500 new workers' clubs have been built, bringing the total number up to 4,200. The number of trade union libraries has been increased to 25,000 (71 per cent of all urban libraries are trade union libraries). There are 91,000 Red Corners, and 5,500 trade union cinemas. The total expenditures of the trade unions for cultural work, including the training of trade union workers, will amount to 683,000,000 rubles in 1932 against 160,000,000 rubles in 1928.

The number of students in the factory and shop schools has increased from 77,000 in 1928 to 1,099,000 at the end of 1931, and it is expected that they will satisfy the needs of industry of skilled workers by 40 per cent this year. Short term courses for workers to increase their skill increased from 60,000 in 1928-29 to 463,000 in 1931.

Labor Turnover

The nomadic tendencies of the Russian workers which lead them from time to time to leave one industry for some new project on the rumor that housing conditions are better there or life more exciting, has meant a serious problem of labor turnover. This has been partially relieved by the

improved living conditions everywhere, and by the system of contracts between industrial enterprises and agricultural collectives which have a labor surplus due to mechanization. This is a purely voluntary arrangement, the number of workers provided by a given collective being based on the number of its members who are willing to enter a given industry. Contracts are concluded whereby the worker agrees to accept employment for a definite period and is guaranteed certain privileges with regard to housing, supplies, and tax exemption. In addition, the enterprise agrees to provide certain services for the collective. In this way 150,000 workers were drawn into the Donbas coal industry during 1931, and over 100,000 Central Volga peasants accepted employment in the new construction projects in that region.

During 1931, 25,000 industrial workers were sent through the trade unions for permanent work in the collectives, and 90,000 industrial workers volunteered for temporary work to help in the organization of collectives and in carrying on the seeding and harvesting campaigns.

Cultural Progress in the U.S.S.R.

NOTEWORTHY advances have been made in the past few years in diminishing illiteracy among the general Soviet population, establishing universal compulsory primary education and in training skilled workers and specialists.

During 1929-30 ten million literate and semi-literate adults took courses in the "likpunkts" (liquidation of illiteracy points), and in 1931, 15,000,000. As a result, the number of illiterates among the adults, which amounted to three-fourths of the population of Russia in 1913, has now dropped to 25 per cent. According to the plan, almost the entire adult population under fifty will be literate by the end of the present year.

The following table published in the Narkomindel bulletin for April 20, 1932, shows the increase in the number of children in primary and intermediate schools. (The figures include over-age children taking elementary courses):

Number of Students in Schools

	1930	1931	1932 (Plan)
In Primary Schools	18,466,000	19,757,000	20,031,000
City	2,719,000	3,205,000	3,286,000
Country	15,747,000	16,552,000	16,745,000
In Intermediate Schools	2,002,000	3,069,000	4,676,000
City	1,166,000	1,422,000	1,631,000
Country	836,000	1,647,000	3,045,000
Total	20,468,000	22,826,000	24,707,000
City	3,885,000	4,627,000	4,927,000
Country	16,583,000	18,199,000	19,780,000

Thus, whereas in 1914-15 elementary education embraced only 7,800,000 children, by 1931 this figure had almost tripled.

By the end of 1932 the program of compulsory universal education will include all children from eight to twelve years old (attending the four-year elementary schools) throughout the entire Union. In the industrial centers and workers' towns universal compulsory education was extended to the seven-year schools as early as 1930. By the autumn of 1932 compulsory seven-year education is expected to be established one hundred per cent in workers' towns and cities and 70 per cent in the villages.

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Practical work at the "Dynamo" Factory School

Along with the spread of universal elementary education, great progress has been made in reorganizing all the schools along polytechnical lines. This has been achieved by linking up the schools directly with industrial enterprises, collectives, state farms and machine and tractor stations, by organizing productive labor for the students in close connection with their theoretical studies and by giving the students a definite place in the economic structure. This process has been completed in practically all of the schools.

In 1931, 364,000 students were studying in the 536 higher educational institutions of the U.S.S.R., 716,600 in the technicums, and 333,000 in the workers' faculties, whereas in pre-revolutionary times altogether 124,000 students were enrolled in the higher educational institutions in all fields.

At the end of the 1932 school year 56,000 students

will be graduated from the higher educational institutions; 175,000 from the technicums; 121,000 from the workers' faculties; 364,000 from the factory and shop schools. Thus 716,000 new specialists, of the highest and medium qualifications will enter the various branches of economic, social and cultural construction.

Especially vigorous is the development of the special institutions training the skilled workers and specialists for industry, transport and communications. In Tsarist Russia in 1914-15 there were but twelve higher technical schools with 20,000 students. In the U.S.S.R. at the end of 1930 there were 243 higher technical institutions, with over 148,000 students. The number of industrial technicums grew in 1931 to 1,173, with over 276,000 students—eighteen times more than in Tsarist days.

The chief institutions preparing students to enter the higher educational institutions, other than the regular polytechnical schools, are the day and evening workers' faculties and many special preparatory courses for workers and their children whose earlier education has been deficient.

In addition to these forms of training skilled workers there are also a number of other institutions for technical training, for example: (1) The system of supplementary workers' education for the training and retraining of adult workers; (2) correspondence courses; (3) courses arranged by the Central Institute of Labor to train workers for special branches of industry in which there is a deficit of labor.

An entirely new form of workers' education is the "enterprise-school" which combines study with regular work on the job. In these schools all the workers in a given factory or enterprise are given an opportunity to study, while continuing their work, in courses encompassing all phases of technical education. During 1931 over 1,600,000 workers attended such courses, or 65 per cent of all those employed in the industries under the Supreme Economic Council.

In order to insure a closer contact of special technical schools with productive processes, the higher educational institutions and technicums have this year been reorganized. The former higher educational institutions which included many different faculties have been split up into separate specialized colleges and placed under control of the economic organizations in the corresponding field. In this way it is possible to adjust tecnnical education to the concrete requirements in a given industry or profession.

The type of study in the higher technical schools and technicums has undergone a radical change. "Continuous production practice" has been introduced, which means that the students spend from forty to fifty per cent of their time on actual productive work which is closely linked up with their studies. The lecture system has been reduced to a minimum.

The material situation of the students is better than it was. Not only do students receive their education and supplies entirely free, but 75 per cent of the students in the higher schools and 100 per cent of the students in the workers' faculties receive special stipends from the government to take care of their living expenses while studying.

While the colleges are still somewhat crowded, this condition is being rapidly remedied and in the past few years many new students' dormitories have been built with baths, laundries, clubs, libraries, restaurants, etc., where students are provided with rooms, furniture and service at a rate not exceeding ten per cent of their stipend.

The advance in education has been accompanied by widespread development of the arts, and 1931 was marked by an increase in theaters, cinema and all forms of artistic expression by the masses.

In industrial centers such as Leningrad, Moscow, the Donetz Basin and Stalingrad, many new people's houses, clubs, "palaces of culture," and theaters have been built. The most backward of the nationalities now have their own theaters. There are altogether forty-five national theaters, in which thirty-three distinct languages are represented, including Buriat-Mongolian, Yakutsk, Kalmyk, Chinese, Korean, the Tartar State Opera Theater, and so on.

In the R.S.F.S.R. alone cinema audiences numbered 817,000,000 in 1931 against 473,000,000 in 1930, and dramatic and musical audiences 70,000,000 against 30,000,000 in 1930.

In 1930 there were in the R.S.F.S.R. 56,000 village theatrical circles with 1,100,000 participants; in 1931 there were 106,000 circles with two million members.

The number of young workers' theaters in 1929-1930 was sixty-five with one thousand participants; in 1930-1931 there were 132 with 5,000 taking part. In 1929 the provinces were entertained by 173 newly created theaters, in 1930 by 330 and in 1931 by 481. The total number of visitors for all theaters and theatrical organizations in the Soviet Union was 312 million in 1927-1928 and 1,264,000,000 in 1931.

Recent Agricultural Decrees

A NUMBER of decrees have been issued in the past few months designed to make things easier for agricultural collectives and individual working peasants by decreasing taxation along certain lines, reducing the amount of grain and livestock to be sold to the government and permitting the sale of the surplus through collective stores and booths and in the market.

The new agricultural tax law issued on May 4 and published in the Soviet press on May 6 provides for a total sum of 500,000,000 rubles—the same as last year's tax. Since the actual money income of the peasants has increased this year—it is estimated that it will reach about 22,400,000,000 rubles as against 19,100,000,000 rubles in 1930—the actual rate of taxation is somewhat less. The new tax, which provides special exemptions not merely for collectives and their members but for individual farmers, is aimed to strengthen the collectives, extend the seeded area, particularly with regard to technical crops, encourage the livestock industry, increase truck farming and stimulate trade.

Particular emphasis is laid, also, on the improvement in the quality of agricultural work and in methods of cost accounting. Rewards in the form of tax reductions up to 25 per cent are offered to those collectives which fulfill their obligations with regard to selling grain to the government on time and have all their reports in order. The 25 per cent remains in the collective treasury for payment of bonuses to brigades and shock workers.

The funds gathered in the form of the agricultural tax go entirely for the needs of the local Soviet budgets and are one of the main sources of financing social, cultural and economic construction in the village. Half of the tax is payable on November 1 and the remaining half on December 15. No other taxes are levied on the village population except for water, in districts where irrigation is necessary, fishing rights in certain sections, and on the turnover of industrial undertakings.

Instead of the principle of the former agricultural tax laws exempting from taxation a certain minimum income per person, the rayon and village tax commissions are now given the right to free entirely from taxes the poorer collectives and peasants, at their discretion.

The agricultural tax is levied on each separate collective on the basis of its total income, excluding their "inviolable" (reserve) funds, and other social funds and all productive expenditures for

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Callisthenics comes to the Kolhoz

non-agricultural enterprises of the collective. The most favored group in the taxation program are the agricultural communes and artels,* the latter being the most common form of collective organization. The peasant associations, a more primitive type of collective, come next, then the poor and middle individual peasant, and finally the kulaks.

All the income of the collectives derived from the sale of their agricultural products through their own shops or in the markets, according to the new law is completely exempt from taxation, and income from products marketed by individual peasants through the stores and booths of the agricultural collectives is exempt.

Among the other exemptions provided for the collectives are as follows: All cattle, poultry and bees are exempt from taxation, all increase in seeded area on hitherto unworked land is tax-free, all sugar beets, and all increases in flax and hemp sowing. Cotton, in new districts—such as the Ukraine, North Caucasus, Crimea, Daghestan and Astrakhan rayon—is exempt for a period of five years from the first sowing. Other technical crops are taxed on the same basis as grain. Collective groups settling in new areas according to the colonization plan are exempted entirely of taxation for a period of years—the number of years varying in accordance with the difficulties they are up against in clearing land, climatic conditions, etc. Colonization in particularly remote and wild districts is encouraged by exemptions running as high as fifteen years.

The income of individual collective members on their non-socialized agricultural activities, based on a table of norms worked out for each district, is taxed on a sliding scale beginning at 4 rubles on an income from 50 to 100 rubles, with 2 kopeks added for each additional ruble, and the income for individual working farmers is taxed 7 rubles on 100 to 150 rubles with 5 kopeks for each additional ruble over 100. Reductions are made for each member of the family unable to work. Individual collective members contracting to work for state enterprises are freed from the agricultural tax.

Many of the exemptions applied to collectives apply also to the poor and middle individual peasants, who are taxed on seeded land, meadows, all cattle but pigs, and on their gardens, orchards and tobacco fields. In the case of individual peasants any increase of seeded area of individual peasants on virgin land is exempt, sugar beets are exempt, all flax and hemp on new land, cotton in new cotton districts is exempt for the first five years, technical crops are taxed at the same rate as ordinary crops, and individual colonizers are exempted for a certain period of years. All of these exemptions and a few additional ones apply to the non-socialized agricultural work of collective members.

Kulak farms are taxed individually according to their actual income.

A further measure to increase the flow of goods and products between city and country is embodied in the decree of May 6, issued jointly by the Council of People's Commissars and the Central Committee of the Communist Party reducing the State procurements of grain from the collectives. The decree states that procurements amounted to 10,800,000 metric tons in 1928, when the grain was still provided largely by the individual peasants, and increased to 22,100,000 tons in 1930, and in 1931, in spite of the drouth which lowered the harvest in the Eastern sections of the U.S.S.R., amounted to 22,900,000. The development of the sovhozes into large grain factories capable of supplying the government with large quantities of grain on the one hand, and the increased output of Soviet industry on the other, make it desirable to increase the facilities of the collectives to sell their goods on the open market, thereby adding to the agricultural supplies for the cities and increasing the purchasing power of the collectives. The decree therefore provides that agricultural procurements from collectives and individual peasants shall be reduced from the actual program of 22,400,000 tons last year to 18,000,000 for 1932, while the program for the sovhozes shall be increased from 1,770,000 tons to 2,474,000 tons. On the completion of the government grain purchasing cam-

* For description of different types of collectives and their activities see "Progress and Organization of Collective Farms," Economic Review of the Soviet Union, June 1, 1932.

Agricultural Experiment Station at Sovhoz "Verblud" *Soyuzphoto*

paign and the organization of the seed fund, the collectives and their members are to have full right to sell their surplus at their discretion both in the markets and in their own stores. Local government organs are instructed to assist them in every way possible.

On May 10 a decree was issued cutting in half the government plan for cattle buying for the remaining third quarter of 1932 for collectives, collective members and individual peasants—making it 716,000 tons instead of the actual plan of 1,414,000 tons, at the same time increasing the plan for the sovhozes from 90,000 to 138,000 tons, and permitting the free sale of livestock after the fulfillment of the government plan.

On May 20 a further decree was issued to facilitate the free sale of agricultural products and livestock by the removal of all existing taxes and collections on agricultural trading by collectives and their members and individual peasants in market places, railroad stations and other places in grain, bread, meat, eggs, poultry, dairy products, fruits, vegetables, etc., except for local collections for upkeep and cleaning of market places. Local Soviets are instructed to reduce to the minimum rents for stores and stalls to collectives for the sale of agricultural products, and the same tax exemptions are to be extended to stores and booths operated by collectives as in the case of cooperatives. Products may be sold at the open market price except in the case of collective combinations, which may charge prices not higher than the average prices of government trade. Middle-men and speculators are not permitted to operate.

The Soviet Far East

WHAT is now the Far Eastern Region of the R.S.F.S.R., the farthest from the center and the youngest of the Soviet regions, is also one of the largest and potentially one of the richest sections of the country. It covers an area of 2,333,537 kilometers, one-ninth of the entire territory of the U.S.S.R., and is exceeded in size only by Yakutia, Kazakstan and the East Siberian region. Over a hundred different nationalities live within its borders, in its interior one might travel on foot or by horse for days without meeting another human being. While comparatively undeveloped, it has all the natural resources to satisfy its own needs and much more, and holds great promise for the future.

In pre-revolutionary times the Russian Far East was hardly more than a military and prison camp which economically was entirely dependent on Central Russia. The World War, civil war and intervention completely destroyed what little economic development there was, and it was not until the organization of the Soviet Government there that the real economic development of the region began.

From the end of 1918 almost to the end of 1922 the Russian Far East was occupied by foreign troops. Foreign military intervention was responsible for the isolation of that territory from Soviet Russia. On this account it was difficult to establish a unified government. This was to some extent accomplished in 1920, with the organization of the Far Eastern Republic. The territory of the Republic included the Pribaikal, Zabaikal, Amur, Priamur (including Russian Sakhalin) and the Maritime provinces. In November, 1922, when the last of the interventionary troops (the Japanese) had withdrawn, the Republic merged with the R.S.F.S.R., becoming its Far Eastern Area. In January, 1926, this area was reorganized into

The Port of Vladivostok Sovuzphoto

the Far Eastern Region, in connection with the general redistricting program. The former Pribaikal and Zabaikai provinces are now, respectively, part of the Buriat Mongolian Autonomous Republic and a section of the East Siberian Region of the R.S.F.S.R. The former Amur, Priamur and Maritime provinces, and the northern part of Sakhalin Island are a part of the present Far Eastern Region. Also included in it is the most northeasterly section of the U.S.S.R., washed by the Arctic Ocean and the Behring Sea, of which the Chukotka peninsula, up near Alaska, is the shoulder and Kamchatka peninsula, jutting out into the Pacific, the arm. This is joined to the southern part of the Far Eastern Region by a strip of land east of Yakutia bordering on the Sea of Okhotsk. In the south the Far Eastern Region borders on Mongolia, Manchuria and Korea. The administrative center of the region is Khabarovsk, which is 8,400 kilometers from Moscow, and the largest city is Vladivostok, with a population of 128,600 on January 1, 1931, the eastern terminus of the Trans-Siberian and Chinese Eastern Railways, and the chief Pacific port of the U.S.S.R.

The population of the region is gradually increasing. It was 1,291,850 according to the census of 1926, and 1,510,000 on April 1, 1930. A colonization program, including the Jewish migration to Biro-Bidjan and agricultural collectives, as well as the quickened industrial expansion, have further increased the population.

Economic comparisons with pre-war days are difficult owing to the many administrative changes the region has undergone, and to the fact that there was very little real economic development in Tsarist days. Even such every-day necessities as soap, fats and leather had to be imported from Central Russia or neighboring countries. The natural wealth of the region was wastefully exploited with the help of the cheap labor of its Oriental inhabitants and prisoners. No large sums of capital were invested. Even coal and timber, which are especially abundant, were imported. Foreign intervention ruined whatever little had been accomplished.

Economic restoration began in 1923, immediately after the inclusion of the region within Soviet Russia, and by 1926-27 industrial production had in the main reached the pre-war level. But really intensive industrial development began only with the Five-Year Plan. If we take the total industrial production in 1926-27 (which would be about the same as 1913) as 100, by 1927-28 it had reached 171, by 1928-29, 230, by 1929-30, 302, and by 1930-31, 373. The number of industrial workers increased 252 per cent in the same period. The total value of industrial production in 1931 amounted to 195,000,000 rubles.

During the first year of the Five-Year Plan eighty-seven new enterprises were constructed—mainly in the lumber, fish, and coal industries.

One of the chief branches of industry in the region is fishing, which has been not only restored but technically reorganized as a large-scale Soviet industry. The fishing industry now controls a fishing fleet of 2,790 units, ten large "floating canneries" for the crab industry, and seven fish canning plants. In 1924 the Soviet catch for the Far Eastern Region amounted to 13,200 tons, in 1928 to 97,300, in 1930 to 247,400 and in 1931 to 300,000 tons. The plan for 1932 envisages a catch of 450,000 tons. At the present time many improvements are being made in the fishing industry. New canning factories are in construction and the entire fishing fleet is being mechanized and renovated.

Equally important work has been done in lumbering. Between 1923 and 1931 the timber output of the region has increased by 300 per cent. Dal-les-prom has become one of the strongest lumber trusts in the Union. There are now in the region fifteen saw mills, including five very powerful mills with modern equipment. Great progress has been made in the mechanization of the lumbering processes.

Under construction at the present time in the region are three factories for the manufacture of standard houses, and a large paper "combinat." The powerful Ussurisk lumber combinat is nearing completion, and preparations for the Nikolayevsk-Amur combinat are under way. A total of 16,000,000 rubles is being invested in the sawmill industry of the region this year. Over 7,000,000 rubles is being invested in other building material industries, and two large new brick kilns have started operations.

The coal industry of the Far Eastern Region produced 1,800,000 tons in 1931, eighteen times more than the coal production of 1916. The plan for 1932 calls for 4,400,000 tons.

During the first three years of the operation of the Five-Year Plan in the region, the production of cement has increased by 130 per cent. A 20,000,000 ruble cement mill is being built at Spassk with a capacity of 2,000,000 barrels of cement. The first section of the mill will start operations next December.

Oil production, of which there was none in Tsarist days, increased seven and a half times in the first three years of the plan, and is expected to reach 200,000 tons this year. An oil refinery is being built at Khabarovsk at a cost of 21,000,000 rubles, which will be completed by March of next year. It will refine 350,000 tons of oil annually.

By the end of 1932 the Artemov district electric power station with a capacity of 24,000 kilowatts, will be put into operation.

Manufacture of simpler types of agricultural machinery has been commenced, production of

wood chemicals, and of oil from soy beans. Sugar mills, flour mills, fish-net factories, vegetable and meat canning plants are being developed, as well as factories manufacturing articles of daily use.

Construction of a shipyard on the Amur River, which will be the largest in the Soviet Union, has already been commenced. About 20,000 workers will be employed on it this year, and its cost will be about 90,000,000 rubles.

As a result of this rapid industrial growth, the relative position of industry and agriculture in the region has changed sharply. In the past few years the share of industry in the entire production of the region has increased from 36 to 58 per cent.

Agriculturally the region has also made great strides forward. Sixty-seven per cent of the peasant farms are organized into collectives, and over eighty per cent of the seeded area has been sown by collectives. A number of large state grain farms have been established as well as a number of specialized state farms. No technical crops at all were grown in the region before the revolution. The area sown to such crops has doubled in the past three years. In mechanization of agriculture the Far Eastern Region is abreast of the most advanced sections of the U.S.S.R. In the past two years 55 machine and tractor stations have been established. In 1931 3,700 tractors worked the Far Eastern fields—there were 400 in 1929. In 1931, 226 combines were operating. The seeded area of the state farms has increased twelve-fold in three years, and of the collectives, ten-fold. This year, for the first time, sugar-beets, tobacco, flax and hemp are being planted. Rice culture is being extended.

This economic growth is being aided by extensive development of scientific research work in the region, especially in the sphere of studying productive resources. Work along these lines undertaken in 1931 by the Academy of Sciences revealed valuable new mineral resources, many plants useful for medical and industrial purposes, established new areas suitable for rice cultivation, and explored the sea basins with the aim of making improvements in the fisheries. A branch of the Academy of Sciences has been organized this year in the Far East with a number of special institutes which are carrying on investigations in hitherto unexplored parts of the region.

While the geological committee has registered forty-eight different kinds of useful minerals of which there are large supplies in the region, not more than five per cent of the region has been geologically explored. It is believed that there is an abundance of iron, gold, salt, precious stones and vast stores of coal.

Northern Sakhalin, one of the most important industrial sections of the Far Eastern Region, is very rich in fuel resources, especially oil. The possibilities for development are already attracting new settlers, and the population of Northern Sakhalin has doubled since 1927.

In the second Five-Year Plan it is expected to increase the oil output of the entire region about ten times—from 200,000 to 2,000,000 tons, and coal from 4,400,000 to 25,000,000 tons by 1937. By the most conservative estimate there are about one million square kilometers of timber in the Far Eastern Region, containing some sixty varieties of trees, and on this basis it is expected to increase the lumber output five-fold in the next Five-Year Plan, while it is hoped to triple agricultural production. The many rivers, and the great coal and peat resources provide the basis for extensive power development, and the capacity of the Far Eastern power stations is scheduled to reach 500,000 kilowatts by the end of the second Five-Year Plan.

Jews in the Soviet Union

THE development of the Five-Year Plan has opened new paths to the Jewish population of the Soviet Union. Their participation in all branches of industry and agriculture, both practically closed to them in Tsarist days, is encouraged and facilitated. All social and political disabilities were removed following the revolution and anti-Semitism in any form is severely punished. Educational opportunities are offered on an equal basis with all other groups in the Soviet Union, with a new emphasis on technical training.

The entrance into industry of the Jewish youth and poor elements in the small towns has considerably changed the social structure of the Jewish population. While the small-trading element predominated in the past, the majority is now for the most part employed in productive labor. By the middle of 1931 approximately forty-seven per cent of the entire working Jewish population were so employed, and in the same year 300,000 Jewish workers were engaged in industrial enterprises as compared with 153,000 in pre-revolutionary times.

One of the outstanding characteristics of this increase of Jewish workers is the growing proportion entering large-scale industry. Metallurgy, coal mining and transport, all of which were

A Jewish kolhoz prepares for field work *Soyuzphoto*

barred to Jews before the revolution, and new construction undertakings like Magnitostroy, Nizhni-Novgorod, etc., now employ an increasing number of Jewish workers and engineers. In 1931 there were 179,000 Jewish workers in large-scale industry as compared with 23,000 in pre-revolutionary days.

Parallel with this growth thousands of Jewish youths have been given technical and industrial training through the cooperation of Komzet (Government Committee for Settling the Jews on the Land) and of Ozet (Society for Attracting Jews to Agriculture). By August 1930, 33,450 Jewish young people were taking courses of the Central Labor Institute and of industrial and transport factory and shop schools and working as apprentices.

Through funds provided by Komzet and Ozet educational and cultural work has showed much progress. In the Ukraine, where 5.4 per cent of the population is Jewish, these funds have helped to establish 105 primary and intermediate schools, five agricultural schools and one agricultural institute, thirty-two libraries, seventy-three village reading rooms and People's Houses, fifteen liquidation of illiteracy points, and fifteen playgrounds for children. In the Crimea, where the Jews compose 5.16 per cent of the population, there are 64 primary schools for them, an agricultural and a pedagogical technicum, ten village reading rooms, thirty libraries, eighteen liquidation of illiteracy points and twenty-seven playgrounds for children.

Both the Ukraine and the Crimea have national Jewish rayons, the former three and the latter one. The settlement of the Jewish population on the land in compact groups made possible the formation of the Jewish administrative rayons, Kalinindorf, Stalindorf and Novozlatopol, in the Ukraine, and Freidorf in the Crimea. By the end of 1931 there were 5,739 Jewish families settled in the three Ukrainian regions and 2,000 families in the Crimea. The total Jewish peasantry in all the republics of the Soviet Union now numbers 300,000. Pre-revolutionary Jewish peasants were counted at 52,758. In the three main Jewish settlements of the Ukraine approximately five and a half thousand new houses have been built, and collectives formed. Livestock-breeding and vineyards are being developed. By 1930 in the Ukraine and Crimea alone 120,000 hectares of sown land was put into use by the Jewish settlers, with a tractor for every thirty-seven households. Experience has shown that the Jewish peasantry quickly acclimates itself to agricultural work. The percentage of collectivization of Jewish peasant farms is high, almost 100 per cent in the Ukraine and the Crimea and completely so in Biro-Bidjan.

The scarcity of land for Jewish settlement in the European part of the Soviet Union compelled search elsewhere for a large area available for this purpose. This was found in Biro-Bidjan in the Far Eastern Region. Biro-Bidjan, which borders on Manchuria, occupies somewhat less than four million hectares, about three times the size of Palestine. It has a population of about 38,000 persons, or more than a square kilometer to a person. Its name was taken from two rivers, the Bira and the Bidjan, which cross it and fall into the Amur river. About 80,000 kilometers have been set aside for Jewish colonization and there are now 6,000 Jews on the land. Half the area, two million hectares, is suitable for agriculture. The other half is forest land. The ground is very fertile, allowing the cultivation of rice, soy beans and Chinese beans and grains. Much lumber, both for building and export purposes is provided by the forests of fir, pine, maple, ash, oak and other varieties.

Biro-Bidjan's most important feature, however, is not only its marked suitability for agriculture, but its possession of all the prerequisites necessary for its transformation into a center of large-scale industry in the Far Eastern Region. Geological investigations show the presence of hundreds of millions of tons of ore, and valuable deposits of graphite and anthracite coal.

In the four years since the Biro-Bidjan rayon was assigned by the Soviet government for the settlement of working Jews there has been steady

economic development. There were in 1930, six sovhozes (state farms), of which two, in particular, have proved highly successful, the grain and soy bean state farm and the rice sovhoz. A dairy sovhoz and stock-breeding sovhoz were formed in 1930. A poultry sovhoz and a hog sovhoz, formed in the winter of 1930-1931 are the latest additions to agricultural construction in the territory. The state farms are being mechanized as rapidly as possible, and tractor stations have been organized to serve them. Many of the Jewish young people are sent to tractor schools and are providing a trained mechanical personnel.

Handicraft shops and artels have been formed, chiefly woodworking. Industrial enterprises, though still in their infancy, include a limestone plant and a chemical plant for manufacturing tar and turpentine. Construction of a metallurgical plant is now being discussed to utilize the huge supplies of graphite. The center of the rayon, Tikhonka, has erected an electric power station, a large furniture factory, a brick plant and a printing plant. The district telephone, telegraph, radio and postal offices are located here. Trains running from the western border of the Soviet Union through Moscow to Vladivostok stop at Tikhonka in addition to the daily mail and passenger trains from Moscow and Siberian centers.

The Central Executive Committee of the Soviet government passed a decree in 1931 setting the end of 1933 as the date for "the formation in the Biro-Bidjan rayon of a Jewish autonomous administrative territorial unit in the Far Eastern Region," provided it is sufficiently populated by that time. In 1931, Biro-Bidjan was opened to foreign Jewish workers. There are now about eighty from the Argentine and Germany and more than 300 from Lithuania, and requests for settlement have been received from groups in the United States and Western Europe.

In Biro-Bidjan as well as in the Jewish administrative units in the Ukraine and Crimea, and in sections thickly settled by Jews in White Russia and other republics, Jewish is the national language. Schools, courts and government organs use Jewish and newspapers are printed in it. Biro-Bidjan has two newspapers, one in Jewish and one in Russian. Three daily Jewish papers appear in Moscow, Minsk and Kharkov. In addition, in 1930, there were seven local Jewish newspapers, five monthly magazines and seven weekly periodicals, as well as numerous wall papers and popular pamphlets issued by Ozet on technical, economic and agricultural subjects. There are in Biro-Bidjan three primary schools and five village reading-rooms, and the first agricultural technicum was opened in 1931.

In the cultural and scientific field, special sections have been created in both the White Russian Academy of Science and in the All-Ukrainian Academy of Science, the first to study the history of the Jews, the Jewish language and literature, the second, in addition to studying Jewish culture to prepare scientific workers for Jewish educational institutions. The Jewish Scientific Research Institute publishes a philological periodical, "Jewish Speech." A special society for the study of the Jewish language and literature likewise exists in the R.S.F.S.R. and since 1929 has been publishing scientific year-books.

Ten years after the revolution three national Jewish theaters were playing in Moscow, in White Russia and in the Ukraine. There are also a travelling Jewish theater, two state vocal ensembles, a Jewish music school and a theatrical technicum, and numerous dramatic circles organized in Jewish clubs.

Growth of Consumer's Goods

WHILE special emphasis has been laid on the manufacture of the means of production in the Soviet Union during the past few years, the volume of consumers' goods to satisfy the growing needs of the Soviet population has been increasing steadily, and still greater efforts in this direction are being made this year.

In 1931 the production of light industry under the Supreme Economic Council amounted to 7,635,900,000 rubles, 13 per cent more than in 1930. The plan for the total output of light industry for 1932 calls for an increase of almost 29 per cent over the actual production of 1931.

Cotton cloth production, which was 2,246,000,000 meters in 1931, is scheduled to reach 3,061,000,000 meters this year. The raw material base of the cotton industry has been greatly strengthened. The textile factories used only 168,000 metric tons of Soviet-grown cotton in the year 1926-27, and 305,000 tons in 1931.

Among other branches of light industry in which production is being greatly expanded, the leather and shoe industry should be noted. In 1928, 26,800,000 pairs of shoes were produced, in 1931, 76,800,000 pairs, and the figure set for production by Soviet shoe factories and handicraft cooperatives in 1932 is over 91,000,000. In 1913 the total shoe production in Tsarist Russia amounted to 16,900,000 pairs. In 1928, 37,700,000 pairs of rubbers were made in the Soviet Union, in 1931, 53,900,000 pairs, and 75,000,000 pairs are to be produced this year, almost three times the 1913 figure.

Production in the clothing industry has increased from 597,000,000 rubles in 1928 to 1,133,000,000 rubles in 1931, and it is proposed to double the production of last year in 1932. In 1931 the production of soap was double that of 1913.

The production of the food industries also increases from year to year. In 1931 the industries

under the People's Commissariat for Supplies produced food amounting to 5,156,300,000 rubles, 26.4 per cent more than that of the previous year, and the increase slated for the present year is 36 per cent. Particularly striking is the increase in the canning industry which is to produce upwards of a billion cans this year, and of the meat packing industry. The role of large bakeries in bread making is growing. In 1931 their output amounted to 1,050,000,000 rubles. This year it is set at 1,475,000,000 rubles. Between 1925 and 1929, 61 large new bakeries were constructed, and by the end of this year 220 more, which are now either completed or under construction, will be added to this number.

This increase in the output of consumers' goods has naturally resulted in an increase in the internal trade turn-over, which mounted to 16,000,000,000 rubles in 1928, to 27,200,000,000 rubles in 1931, and will be increased to 38,000,000,000 rubles this year according to the plan.

Academy of Sciences Elects New Members

AT the end of March the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. held a session at which twenty-four new members of the academy were elected. The new members are: in the physical science group, N. N. Semashko and S. I. Vavilov; in the chemical science group, A. M. Frumkin; in the biological science group, A. A. Bogomoletz and A. A. Richter; in the philosophic science group, V. V. Adoratsky; in the group of historical sciences, I. I. Tumenev; in the group of Orientology, I. I. Meshaninov; in the group of social-economic sciences, V. V. Ossinsky and M. A. Saveliev; in the group of technical sciences, I. G. Alexandrov, I. P. Bardin, A. A. Boikov, E. V. Britske, B. E. Vedeneyev, A. V. Winter, G. O. Graftio, M. A. Pavlov, P. V. Grebenshikov, N. N. Pavlovsky, Tulaikov, Chernyshev, A. A. Shenfer, and S. V. Lebedev. Romain Rolland was among those elected to honorable membership in the academy.

An agreement for mutual socialist assistance was signed between the Academy of Sciences and the People's Commissariat for Heavy Industry whereby the academy undertakes to serve the needs of heavy industry in every way possible and to take an active part in working out important measures in different branches of industry, especially in chemistry, fuel, electric power and metallurgy. Similar agreements will be entered into with the Commissariats for Agriculture and Lumber, and with other organizations.

Papers were delivered by Academician Vernadsky on radio-activity and the new tasks of geology. He propounded a new view regarding the definition of geological time and the creation of a radio-active map of the geosphere.

Other papers were read by Academician Severtzev, director of the laboratory of evolutionary morphology of the Academy of Sciences, regarding the evolutionary process on the basis of a study of the morphology of animals and man; by Academician Nadson, who dealt with the effect of metals on living organisms with which they do not come into the direct contact; and by Academician Mensbyr, who dealt with desert birds found on the Asiatic continent.

Professor Marr, Vice-President of the Academy, presented the directives for the work of the Academy in the second Five-Year Plan.

At another recent session of the Academy of Sciences it was voted to prepare for a special session of the Academy of Sciences devoted to the achievements of Soviet science in connection with the fifteenth anniversary of the revolution which falls on next November 7.

The Academy of Sciences has decided to open new branches in all the most important centers of the U.S.S.R., including the Urals, Kazakstan and the Far Eastern Region. Academician Komarov has been appointed chairman of the Far Eastern branch and Academician Fersman head of the Ural branch.

The Institute of New Russian Literature has been reorganized into the Institute of Russian Literature which will study the entire history of Russian literature. Anatole Lunacharsky has been elected head of this institute.

In honor of the 60th birthday of G. M. Krjijanovsky, one of the vice-chairmen of the Academy of Sciences, the Academy voted to establish a special Krjijanovsky Power Institute to be directed by him.

The Academy of Sciences receives vigorous support from the Soviet Government and has been assigned a budget of 8,715,000 rubles for its work in 1932.

Branch of Academy of Sciences in Novosibirsk

A group of representatives of the Academy of Sciences is making preparations for the organization of a branch of the Academy in Novosibirsk, center of the West Siberian region.

The establishment of such a branch marks a turning point in the work of all the scientific research organizations of the region, as its activities will embrace all the practical problems of the economic development of the region.

During the present year the academy will organize a number of scientific research expeditions in the region. They will explore the coal resources in Barzas, Scheglovsk and Bielov, iron deposits in Gorni Shori and new semi-mineral ores in the district of Zalair. Salt deposits will be sought in the region of Barnaul and Kulund, and vauxite will be sought in Angersky district.

In the beginning of May a session of the academy was held to consider a number of economic questions vital to the region.

A Hospital on Chukotka

Adapted from an article in "Nashi Dostizhenia" for December, 1931, by T. Semushkin, telling of his experiences in starting a new cultural base on the Chukotsky Peninsula, the northernmost part of the Far Eastern Region of the R.S.F.S.R., not far from the Alaskan coast.

FOR five days the fierce Arctic wind has swept over the limitless Chukotsky tundra. Its whistling, its wild howling, has driven all living things to shelter. Only the blood-thirsty polar wolf remains to howl near the reindeer herd in such bad weather. The reindeer are huddled into a tight knot. The herdsman is with them. It is a long time since he has had hot tea to drink, and for several days he has not really slept. The herdsman sleeps in the snow under the belly of a reindeer. The tundra has frozen over. Even the coast Chukchi do not leave their *yarangs* (native wigwams), which are half buried in the snow. The canvas, stretched over the skeleton of the *yarang*, billows out, slashes against the frame, is all but torn off and blown away. The tightly fastened boat has already been torn from its mooring and carried away.

In one of the *yarangs* lies a Chukchanka (woman of the Chukchi tribe) about to give birth. Courageously she awaits the coming of her baby. No one helps her—indeed, who could help her? She will have her fourth child in torture. Even the *shaman* (native medicine man), beating for three days past on his drum, has not helped. That means it is useless. That means she must die a slow and tortured death. The only way the natives know of putting an end to such torture is by strangling the sufferer. But she does not wish to say the fatal word which would cause her relatives to crush out her life.

She is still very young and she does not wish to die. She still has a confused hope of a successful birth. And no one may take her life without her consent. The women of the other *yarangs* may not even consult each other as to how things are with the woman. To go into a neighboring *yarang* would mean to risk never returning. And yet the whole settlement knows that the new human being has not yet been born.

On the fourth day the women venture out from their *yarangs* for a "midwives' conference." The women have belts fastened around their waists leading back into their *yarangs*, so they will not be blown from their feet or lose their way.

Within the *yarang* of the expectant mother a group of women of the most diverse ages has gathered. With their awkward bundled figures they look like some fabulous witches.

"We must deliver the baby. . . ." The woman groans no longer, but her heart is still beating, she wishes to live. Leaving their wraps at the entrance, the four "accoucheurs" creep along the floor. The woman lies on reindeer skins. Her whole body is covered with seasoned reindeer wool. Soon the simple midwives' instruments appear—a board three-quarters of a meter long, the type used for curing sealskins. The woman is straightened out, the board placed over her abdomen. One woman holds her feet, another her hands, and two others press down on the board, beginning at her breast. . . .

So a new being is born in the tundra, to the frenzied howling of the blizzard and of the mother. This was the natural order of things. Until the coming of the Soviet government there was not a single hospital on Chukotsky Peninsula.

Eczema and scurvy were frequent guests in the Chukotsky dwellings. "White civilization," penetrating the north, sapped all the juice from these people, leaving in exchange alcohol and European diseases in addition to the native ones.

The healing of all illness was left to the shamans, who have developed into a special caste of adroit and crafty conjurors and jugglers. The lack of any cultural facilities for the people has greatly strengthened their authority.

"Oh, I am a great person!" one shaman said to me. "I heal people, I heal reindeers. The walrus and the whale come at my call!"

"He must be pacified—presents must be given him. If he is insulted, he will summon the evil spirit, and perhaps you will get sick"—a native told me.

The very primitive intelligence of the natives, who do not know the explanation of even the simplest natural manifestations, falters before this all-powerful person, submits to him completely.

All the influence of the shamans has been built upon the fears of the natives, which has still further undermined their health. These 40,000 people scattered along the shores of the Arctic ocean and over the cold tundras, formerly had not even a semi-literate *feldscher* to help them, and sickness continued to spread.

The fresh wind of October reached Chukotka only in 1925. By 1926 a special commission was searching the shores of the peninsula for a place to build a "cultural base."

In the summer of 1927 there arrived at the gloomy shores of the Lavrentian Bay a Japanese ship carrying Soviet citizens and freight. A heavy storm came up and an icy rain set in. The ship strained at its anchor in the bay. It was impossible to unload. The captain did not wish to wait for the end of the storm and prepared

to carry all the materials for culture base and buildings away from Chukotka again.

The waves were pounding madly against the shore, sending torrents of spray into the air. The director of the cultural base made his decision.

"Unload everything into the sea! The waves will carry everything ashore."

The ropes were cut—and hospital, school and houses flew from the ship into the sea. The storm seized the logs and boards and hurled them on the shore.

The whole shore was strewn with building material. The storm did its work well. Only a very small part of the building material was carried out of the bay into the Behring Sea. With the greatest difficulty the ship landed the party of builders and again went its way into the warm waters of Japan.

Building operations were rushed. The building season here is especially short. The men worked at top speed. And by the beginning of the long polar winter a row of buildings stood among the shores and the wet tundra of the wild Chukotka shores.

The natives had never seen anything like this on their land. They felt that with the appearance of these "white houses" their own lives must change, too. Dozens of natives flocked to the shore of the Bay of Lavrentia and helped to build the "cultural base."

The winter was spent in finishing the inside of the houses, in building furniture and equipment. There was much to be done. The buildings had to be heated, the walls had to be lined with cardboard a centimeter thick, every square inch had to be painted. A large hospital was built, and a boarding school. Most of the natives understood the usefulness of this. But the shamans carried on disruptive work among the population. And when next year a group of medical personnel arrived with the first ship, there was little work for them to do. The large hospital building, with its spick and span wards, its dispensary and its staff of specialists, stood empty.

The Russian Red Cross unit which preceded the hospital in this district organized its medical aid chiefly along lines of giving out simple remedies. But the natives would not follow instructions and the drugs administered had little effect since the sick natives remained in their unsanitary huts and there was no way of giving them real care.

It was no simple matter to get the natives to come to the hospital and put them to bed. Weary of inactivity the doctors marked off the days of their oppressive sojourn in this desolate land like school children waiting for their vacation. The sick would not come to the hospital. Therefore it was necessary for the hospital to go to them. The entire local society was organized, those who could make themselves understood by the natives were sent around to visit them.

In order to take a boy or girl to the hospital for treatment, it was necessary to take the mother and father and whole family as well. This system had to be followed until the confidence of the natives was gained. Under this arrangement the hospital presented a unique spectacle. Anyone entering the hospital beheld the following picture: In one ward, a boy, really ill. Comfortably disposed in the other wards around him, his whole family, all in good health. But the Chukchanka cannot sit idle, so the women have brought their usual work to the hospital, and the ward is filled with reindeer and seal skins. In the middle of the floor sits the half-naked Chukchanka cutting out something from a skin. The healthy youngsters crawl around on the skins, and on the bed sits the husband, his eyes fixed on the ceiling, smoking his pipe. The whole family lives at the expense of the hospital. They appear regularly for all meals. The sick boy had been ill for a long time of an infection before he was taken to the hospital. The shaman had treated him by chanting and beating his drum. But his chanting did not ease the child's pain. In the hospital he began to improve. This militated against the shaman's methods and the authority of the hospital increased. The doctors began to feel that their coming was justified. New patients began to appear, surrounded by their families.

But it soon became evident that if this method were continued the hospital would simply become an asylum for the whole population. Some new system had to be worked out. At a meeting of the Soviet of the cultural base it was decided to send the entire medical personnel around to the outlying settlements to see what could be done. Eye disease was very prevalent among the natives, especially in the northwestern section of the Chukotsky peninsula. The natives had an extremely original way of treating it. The afflicted one would sit in a boat, dipping the end of a rope into the water and wiping his eyes with it. The eye-doctor of the base was not over-eager for the expedition, fearing he would not get back in time to catch the boat that would take him back to civilization. But under general persuasion the plan was carried out and the oculist set forth on a journey to the far shores of the Arctic Ocean. He was gone three months and at last returned whole and unharmed, and so pleased with the results of his work that he immediately set out for the southern part of the peninsula.

One of the most important functions of the hospital—maternity cases—made no headway at all for a long time. During the whole first year not a single Chukchanka came to the hospital to give birth.

The second year, when a new medical staff had come, a woman just about to give birth was brought to the hospital on a sledge, in defiance of the shaman's orders. Everything went splendidly, and since this was not the woman's first

baby the comparison between the shaman's methods and those of the hospital was quite clear to her. The next day word spread through all the settlements that a Chukchanka had given birth to a boy-child in the *yarang* of the white people This was indeed a great triumph, for the Chukchis consider the birth of a girl only half sucessful! The women began to come to the hospital and were given instructions in hygiene by Rultyna, a Chukchanka who had given birth at the hospital.

And so, little by little, the hospital won its way. Dudinsky, the accoucheur, traveled to a neighboring village, to attend a woman in a difficult maternity case, but was not permitted to enter the *yarang* by the father, a powerful shaman. But when the young husband could stand watching his wife's suffering no longer he set off himself secretly to fetch the accoucheur. It was necessary to sacrifice the baby to save the mother's life. The shaman tried to use this incident to fight the hospital, but its position was already secure.

Soviet Foreign Relations

VISIT OF TURKISH DELEGATION

The recent visit of a group of Turkish officials, headed by Ismet Pasha, chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Turkish Republic, to the U.S.S.R., resulted in a further strengthening of the bonds of friendship between the two countries, and the extension of an $8,000,000 credit to Turkey by the Soviet Union for the purchase of Soviet goods.

On April 26 Ismet Pasha, and Tewfik Rushdibey, Turkish Minister for Foreign Affairs, accompanied by a group of Turkish members of parliament, government officials, industrialists, correspondents and others arrived in Odessa on the Soviet ship which had brought them from Stamboul. After being entertained by Soviet officials in Odessa and Kiev, the Turkish guests arrived in Moscow by special train on April 28.

They were greeted at the station by Viacheslav Molotov, chairman of the Council of Peoples Commissars, Maxim Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, and other leading Soviet officials, as well as by representatives of the foreign diplomatic corps.

Soyuzphoto

Ismet Pasha, Turkish Premier, with Karakhan and Kalinin

History of Turkish-Soviet Relations

In an editorial welcoming the Turkish delegation to Moscow, *Izvestia* of April 28 said in part:

"The present visit of the Turkish premier to Moscow, is not a mere incident growing out of the international situation of today, but is the logical outgrowth of the entire history of the new Turkey and her relations with the Soviet Union . . .

"In spite of the differences in social systems the Soviet Republic and the new Turkey, while cooperating in the fields of foreign policy, have steadfastly pursued the correct course of maintaining the right and possibility of independent internal construction.

"The workers of the Soviet Union, in taking power into their hands, were faced with the stupendous task of restoring a national economy destroyed by the imperialist and civil wars and reconstructing it on a socialist basis. The policy of non-interference in the internal affairs of other governments, and non-participation in any groupings whatever of an international character, which by their very nature lead to military conflicts, has developed inevitably out of the tasks which the October revolution laid upon the workers of the Soviet Union.

"The young Turkish Republic was also faced with the problem of restoring and developing its national economy under new conditions, as well as with the task of carrying out important reforms in all spheres of the political, economic and cultural life of the country. The Turkish Republic, therefore, has also striven to secure peaceful conditions for its development . . .

"Both the Soviet Union and Turkey, interested in maintaining peace, have replaced the imper-

ialist policy of alliances by a policy of concluding treaties on neutrality, non-aggression and non-participation in groupings hostile to the other side. The first treaty of this type was the Soviet-Turkish pact of 1925 on neutrality and non-aggression.

"In December 1929, Karakhan and Tewfik Rushdi-bey signed a Soviet-Turkish protocol in Angora, which not merely prolonged the action of the Kellogg Pact but widened the application of the latter, charging each of the contracting parties not to carry on negotiations with the neighbors of the other party and not to conclude any agreement without the consent of the other side. The Soviet-Turkish pact was renewed during the visit of Mr. Litvinov to Angora in 1930. This policy has shown its viability as a means of insuring peace . . .

"At the present moment," the editorial concludes, "the international situation is especially alarming. The most intense vigilance is needed to preserve the peace. The importance of Soviet-Turkish friendship as an instrument of peace is increased. The present visit to Moscow of the head of the Turkish government and of a number of important deputies of the Turkish parliament, and their inspection of all aspects of socialist construction will unquestionably lead to an increase in mutual understanding of all that touches the problems of their peaceful construction.

"Foreign policy must, to a greater extent than ever before, create and maintain all the conditions for this peaceful construction. We welcome the leaders of the friendly Turkish Republic to the capital of the Soviet Union. We are convinced that this visit will lead to still further strengthening of Soviet-Turkish friendship which is so highly valued by the peoples of the U.S.S.R. and of Turkey."

On the evening of their arrival Molotov, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars, was host at a banquet for the Turkish guests in the Kremlin, attended by the entire diplomatic corps. During the following days other official functions were held, and every facility was provided for the Turkish guests to inspect Soviet institutions and industries.

On the first of May a reception was given to the Turkish delegation by the All-Union Chamber of Commerce, attended by officials of all the leading government commissariats. The economic situation and prospects of the U.S.S.R. and opportunities for the development of trade between the two countries were outlined. Ismet Pasha, in response to the speeches, said in part:

Speech of Ismet Pasha

"We have followed the successes of the Soviet Union in the economic and cultural fields with great satisfaction. What we have been able to see in your country has merely confirmed our impressions of your successes. It is superfluous to remark that we, your friends, rejoice to see this progress.

"We have seen that you have consciously deprived yourselves of certain things in order to achieve the goal you have set for yourselves, and we have understood the feelings that have inspired you . . .

"We should like to make use of the achievements of the national economy of the Soviet Union for the development of our own national economy. Soviet industry has already learned how to manufacture very fine goods which we would prefer to purchase from you than from abroad. I suppose that it will be no less agreeable to you to give to Turkey the fruits of your labor. I can see no obstacle to the successful development of trade between us. These fellow-travelers and myself have become convinced that the development of cooperation between Bolshevist Russia and Nationalist Turkey is entirely possible in the interests of both countries . . ."

Results of Turkish Visit

On May 8, Tass issued the following announcement with regard to the results of the visit of the Turkish delegation to the U.S.S.R.:

"During the period of their visit to the U.S.S.R. the president of the Council of Ministers of the Turkish Republic, Ismet Pasha, and the Turkish Minister of Foreign Affairs, Tewfik Rushdi-bey, held many conversations with all the responsible leaders of the Soviet government, in which the ambassadors of both countries participated.

"These conversations had an exceptionally hearty and friendly character and made it possible to give the widest consideration both to the international problems of interest to both sides and to questions of the direct mutual relations between the two countries. On the basis of the complete accord established, it is now possible to state that the policy of close cooperation between the two countries in the past has completely justified itself and that the present international situation as well as the interests of universal peace, dictate the necessity not merely of maintaining but of extending that cooperation.

"Special attention was given to problems of economic and cultural connections between Turkey and the U.S.S.R. The opportunity given for the Turkish guests to acquaint themselves directly with the economic construction going on in the U.S.S.R. and the work of Soviet science, revealed in many cases the great similarity of the problems of both countries in these fields, and the practical possibilities for wider and more effective contacts.

"An agreement in principle was reached on the measures which would further this practical contact, and to this end the Soviet government opened a long-term credit of $8,000,000 for ob-

taining the newest products of Soviet manufacture, to be paid in kind in annual instalments.

"It was also agreed that it would be useful to deepen the cultural contacts between the two countries, especially by more vital and direct contacts between the scientific institutes of both countries."

CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN LEAGUE OF NATIONS' SECRETARY AND LITVINOV

On April 20, Sir Eric Drummond, General Secretary of the League of Nations, sent a communication to Mr. M. M. Litvinov with the following contents:

"Lord Lytton, Chairman of the Commission which is now in the Far East for the purpose of preparing a report to the Council of the League on questions of dispute between China and Japan, has confidentially notified me that, in the opinion of the commission, its problem in Manchuria would be simplified if it could procure information and evidence from Soviet citizens in official positions in Manchuria. Lord Lytton asks whether the Soviet Government would have any objection to the making of such inquiries. I shall be grateful to you for any assistance and advice you might give us on this mater."

On April 22, Mr. Litvinov answered as follows:

"In answer to your letter of April 20, I have the honor to inform you that the Soviet Government would be ready to cooperate in any way possible with any commission which sincerely desired to ascertain the real condition of affairs in Manchuria and really wished to settle the military conflicts taking place in China.

"However, the Soviet Government, not being a member of the League of Nations and not having taken part in the consideration of events taking place in China, nor in the organization of the Lord Lytton Commission, and not having its representative on the commission, is thus deprived of the possibility of insuring the proper attitude toward information given by representatives of the U.S.S.R., and could therefore not take upon itself responsibility for conclusions which might be drawn by the League of Nations Commission.

"Under these conditions, the Soviet Government considers itself constrained to answer your request in the negative."

LITIVINOV ADDRESSES PRESS LUNCHEON

On April 22 the Geneva Association of journalists assigned to the League of Nations held a luncheon in honor of delegates to the disarmament conference at which brief addresses were given by representatives of the leading nations.

In response to the introductory speech of the chairman, Mr. Litvinov brought out the fact that the press at times had recourse to extremely aggressive methods of warfare in giving biased information, in particular with regard to the disarmament conference.

"In listening to the various schemes for internationalization," Mr. Litvinov declared, "I have sometimes wondered whether the internationalization of the press should not be commenced by a system whereby, for instance, French readers would get all their information about the Geneva Conference from the German press, Italian readers from the French press, the English readers from, let us say, the Soviet press—would not that have simplified the work of the conference? Unquestionably yes, had such a system been possible, which, unfortunately, it was not.

"It must not be forgotten," continued Mr. Litvinov, "that, although representatives of all countries have attended this conference and that, although there are responsible government officials among them, the people whom they represent are not present. The people may find out about what happens at the conference only through the press, and the attitude of the people toward what happens at the conference must have a great influence on it."

Mr. Litvinov said further:

"After a few weeks of the conference it must be clear to everyone how deeply the idea of the necessity of disarmament is rooted in every country and how inextricably this idea is interwoven with all the systems existing in the majority of countries. It is incorrect to give the impression that war breaks out unexpectedly, without any preparation. On the contrary, wars are always the result of long and careful preparations, and these preparations may be generalized in one word—armament. The organization of war consists in the maintenance and increase of armaments. If there were no armaments it would be impossible to organize warfare.

"As long as armaments exist, it will be impossible to organize peace. The consequences of the the war and the post-war period continue to hang over the conference. There are numerous contradictions between the governments. This circumstance in itself works against the success of the conference although, according to my convictions, this should not be so. Still more striking is the estrangement between certain countries which is actually unfounded and inexplicable, and which moreover is not merely unfounded, but takes place in spite of the numerous and convincing reasons for cooperation rather than estrangement.

"It is evident that this conference will sit for a long time. One Swiss newspaper has suggested that the conference may last a good hundred years. There was a hundred-year war, why not a hundred-year disarmament conference? Certainly we should not oppose that if the hundred-year conference were tantamount to a hundred years of peace. Unfortunately we already know that that is not so.

"From the present conference," concluded Mr. Litvinov, "some very instructive lessons might be gleaned, if this material were studied with complete honesty. The whole world should know just what are the difficulties which the conference has brought to light, how they were called forth, how they can be eliminated. The problems before the conference cannot be solved by a hundred delegates, but need the cooperation of the outside world. This cooperation can be achieved only through the open, straightforward recounting of what takes place at the conference, and in that should consist the responsible task of the press."

SOVIET-ESTHONIAN NON-AGGRESSION PACT

On May 4 a treaty of non-aggression and the peaceful settlement of conflicts was signed at the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs in Moscow, by representatives of the U.S.S.R. and of the Esthonian Republic. The complete text of the treaty follows:

TREATY OF NON-AGGRESSION AND PEACEFUL SETTLEMENT OF DISPUTES CONCLUDED BETWEEN THE UNION OF THE SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS AND ESTHONIA

The Central Executive Committee of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on one side and the Head of the Esthonian Republic on the other, being convinced that the establishment of the precise conditions contributing towards strenghening of friendly relations existing between both High Contracting Parties corresponds to their interests, animated by the desire to contribute thus to the maintenance of universal peace, takng into consideration that the Treaty of Peace of February 2, 1920, is still the unshakable basis of their mutual relations and obligations, declaring that not one of the international obligations previously undertaken by either of the High Contracting Parties interferes with the peaceful development of their mutual relations nor contradicts the present Treaty, wishing to supplement and make exact in their relations the treaty for renunciation of war signed in Paris on August 27, 1928, have decided to conclude the present Treaty and have appointed for this purpose their plenipotentiaries, to wit.:

The Central Executive Committee of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics—Maxim Litvinov, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs and Member of the Central Executive Committee of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and

Head of the Esthonian Republic—Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Julius Seljamaa.

These plenipotentiaries upon exchange of their credentials found in good and proper form, agreed upon the following provisions:

Article 1

Both High Contracting Parties mutually guarantee the inviolability of the frontiers existing between them and established in the Treaty of Peace signed on February 2, 1920, and undertake to refrain from any act of aggression against each other or from any act of violence directed against the integrity and inviolability of the territory or against the political independence of the other Contracting Party independent of the fact whether such aggression or such action is undertaken separately or together with other powers and whether or not war be declared.

Article 2

Each of the High Contracting Parties undertakes not to participate in any political agreements manifestly directed against the other Party in the sense of aggression and also in coalitions of the same nature, which have as their object the subjection of the other Party to economic or financial boycott.

Article 3

The undertakings mentioned in the previous articles of the present Treaty can in no case violate or modify the rights and the International obligations resulting to both High Contracting Parties from the Treaties concluded or obligations undertaken prior to the entering into force of the present Treaty in so far as they contain no elements of aggression as defined in the present Treaty.

Article 4

Taking into consideration the obligations undertaken in the present Treaty, the High Contracting Parties bind themselves to submit all disputable questions, independent of their nature and origin, which may arise between them after the entering into force of the present treaty and which may not be regulated within a reasonable period of time through ordinary diplomatic procedure, to conciliation procedure in a mixed conciliation commission, whose composition, powers and order of procedure will be fixed in a special convention which both Parties undertake to conclude as soon as possible and which will enter into force simultaneously with the present Treaty.

Article 5

The present Treaty is made out in two copies in the Russian and Esthonian languages and both texts have equal force. The Treaty will be ratified within the shortest possible period and its ratification instruments will be exchanged between the High Contracting Parties in Tallin within 45 days from the date of the ratification of the present Treaty by the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and Esthonia.

Article 6

The present Treaty will enter into effect from the moment of the exchange of the ratification instruments and will remain in force during three years from this date.

Each of the High Contracting Parties will have the right to renounce the Treaty by giving previous notice six months prior to the expiration of this period or without observing the period of notice should the other High Contracting Party commit aggression against a third state. Unless denounced by either of the High Contracting Parties the term of its effect will be considered automatically prolonged for two years, similarly the Treaty will be considered prolonged each time for a further two years if renunciation of it by one of the High Contracting Parties as provided for by the present article does not follow.

In witness whereof the plenipotentiaries named above have signed the present Treaty and have attached their seals thereto.

This Treaty is made out in Moscow, in two copies, on May 4, 1932.

MAXIM LITVINOV.
JULIUS SELJAMAA.
(Signed)

Following the signing of the non-aggression treaty letters were exchanged between Mr. Seljamaa and Mr. Litvinov, in which both sides agreed to take as the basis of negotiations for the Conciliation Commission mentioned in Article 4 of the above treaty, the principles laid down in the Conciliation Convention concluded between the U.S.S.R. and Germany and in the theses agreed upon by the U.S.S.R. and France.

FOREIGN TRADE IN 1931

The Soviet foreign trade turnover for 1931, according to figures made public by the U.S.S.R. Chamber of Commerce, amounted to 1,916,244,000 rubles ($986,865,660), as compared with 2,144,196,000 rubles ($1,104,260,940) in 1930. The falling off of upwards of 10 per cent in value was due to the marked decline in world prices. In volume exports increased 21.7 per cent as compared with 1930 and imports increased 24.8 per cent.

The value of exports was 811,210,000 rubles ($417,773,150), as compared with 1,085,371,000 rubles ($558,966,065) in 1930. The value of imports was 1,105,034,000 rubles ($569,092,510), as compared with 1,058,825,000 rubles ($545,294,875) in 1930. Thus there was an unfavorable trade balance for the year of 294,161,000 rubles ($151,319,360). The export figures, however, do not include exports of gold.

Principal exports in point of value were grain 150,937,000 rubles, oil products 115,663,000 rubles, lumber 67,507,000 rubles, furs 56,199,000 rubles. Principal imports were industrial machinery and parts 331,160,000 rubles, ferrous metals 124,560,000 rubles, articles manufactured of iron and steel 90,870,000 rubles, tractors and parts 79,627,000 rubles, electrical machinery and apparatus 53,481,000 rubles.

Exports of grain showed an increase of 6 per cent over 1930, being 5,059,396 metric tons instead of 4,768,299 metric tons, though the fall in world prices brought the aggregate price total well below 1930. While exports of rye nearly doubled in 1931, exports of wheat showed a slight falling off of 1.3 per cent, 2,498,958 metric tons (91,700,000 bushels), as compared with 2,530,935 metric tons (92,900,000 bushels) in 1930

AMERICAN EXPORTS TO U.S.S.R.

The Soviet Union was the leading foreign customer for American industrial machinery in 1931, according to a survey of foreign markets published in "Commerce Reports" for May 16. The Soviet Union took machinery worth $37,749,493, or 27.4 per cent of the total American exports. In 1930 the Soviet Union took 18 per cent of the total exports and in 1929 it took 5.3 per cent. Exports to the Soviet Union fell off 5 per cent in 1930. Exports to all other countries fell off 45 per cent. In 1929 the Soviet Union stood third on the American export list for industrial machinery, behind both Canada and the United Kingdom. In 1930 it passed the United Kingdom and moved to second place. In 1931 it moved to first place, largely as a result of orders placed late in 1930 and early in 1931. More than half the American industrial machinery exported to Europe in 1931 went to the Soviet Union.

In agricultural machinery the Soviet Union stood first on the American export list both in 1930 and 1931. During these two years half of the exports of American agricultural machinery went to the Soviet Union.

The falling off in Soviet orders in the United States during the past year has been reflected in a sharp drop in exports to the Soviet Union in 1932. The total of American exports of all classes to the Soviet Union (European portion) for the first quarter of 1932 was $3,659,046, as compared with $44,012,702 for the same period of 1931, according to the figures of the Department of Commerce.

The foreign trade figures of the German Government for the first quarter of 1932 show that the Soviet Union has become Germany's leading foreign customer. German exports to the Soviet Union during the quarter were 181,000,000 marks, or approximately $43,500,000. In other words, German exports to the Soviet Union for the period were twelve times the value of American exports to the Soviet Union. In 1930 American exports to the Soviet Union were greater than the German exports.

EXPORTS OF METAL WORKING MACHINERY

"Commerce Reports" for May 30 contains a survey of American exports of metal-working machinery in the last four years, showing that during 1931 and 1930 the Soviet Union was the leading foreign customer for machinery of this type. In 1928 the Soviet Union stood sixth on the list and in 1929 fourth. In 1928 the Soviet Union took 3.5 per cent of American exports of industrial machinery, in 1929 it took 6.4 per cent, in 1930 it took 33.8 per cent, and in 1931 it took 56.0 per cent. Exports to the Soviet Union in 1931 were $22,493,390, and to the United Kingdom, the second best customer, $7,040,024.

SOVIET-FINNISH NON-AGGRESSION PACT

On April 27, the Finnish Diet unanimously confirmed the Soviet-Finnish Non-Aggression Pact concluded on January 21 of this year. At the same time the Finnish Diet confirmed the Supplementary Convention on conciliation procedure. Members of all parties, in speaking for the pact, urged the necessity of supporting and improving peaceful and neighborly relations between the U.S.S.R. and Finland, and of developing trade between the two countries.

SOVIET-PERSIAN TRADE TREATY RATIFIED

On March 1, the Persian National Assembly at Teheran ratified the Soviet-Persian treaty on colonization, trade and navigation which was signed at Teheran, October 27, 1931.

Book Review

"RURAL RUSSIA UNDER THE OLD REGIME," by Geroid Tanquary Robinson. Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1932. $4.

Professor Robinson's book will be of great value to persons interested in the background of the Russian revolution. It is designated by its author "a history of the landlord-peasant world and a prologue to the peasant revolution of 1917." This description is adequate. The volume is scholarly, thorough and affords an excellent example of literary compression. It fills a distinct historical need.

Professor Robinson's modest prefatory pages indicate that he has spent years of research on this volume. His preparatory labors included a period of travel in the Russian countryside and two years spent in the examination, in the Soviet Union, of private and public collections of documents pertaining to the Revolution of 1917. During his visit Professor Robinson secured much material not hitherto accessible to foreigners. Another volume is to follow on the peasants in the revolution.

Professor Robinson is wholly objective in his treatment, but no one who reads his careful study can fail to be impresesd by the tragic situation of the great mass of the peasantry under Tsarism. According to the statistics of various *gubernias* it is clear that rents, taxes and other charges swallowed up as much as or more than the poorer peasant's meager earnings from his strips of land and he fell ever more heavily into debt. Proportionately he was usually taxed more heavily than the larger proprietors. Very few of the peasants had any adequate farm equipment (there were less than 200 tractors in the entire country, all on large estates). Horseless peasant families were many and landless peasants not a few. If a poor peasant hired himself out as a farmhand he was clapped into jail if he quit his job for any reason. The death rate among the peasantry was double that of rural England.

Professor Robinson's book is equipped with a glossary, an appendix with ample chapter notes, a full Russian bibliography and a good index. There are interesting photographic illustrations.

CIVILIAN DOCUMENTS FOR RUSSIANS

Many inquiries have been received by the Soviet Union Information Bureau from former Russian citizens as to how to obtain from the U.S.S.R. civilian documents such as marriage certificates, birth certificates, death certificates, school and college certificates of graduation, etc. Such certificates may be obtained by application to the office of the Russian Red Cross Societies, 1776 Broadway, New York, N. Y.

DARWIN HONORED

The fiftieth anniversary of the death of Charles Darwin was widely celebrated throughout the Soviet Union on April 18. In Moscow, Leningrad, Saratov, Kharkov, Nizhni-Novgorod and other large cities meetings were held by scientific organizations, and lectures on Darwin were given in many factories and workers' clubs.

A number of special exhibits were opened in connection with the anniversary. The State Anthropological Museum in Moscow arranged an exhibit on the Origin of Man, the Moscow State University, with the assistance of the Moscow libraries, held an exhibit of books by and about Darwin, and the State University in Leningrad held an exhibit on "Darwin and Socialist construction."

New editions of Darwin's works and volumes dealing with Darwinian theories are being issued. A special collection on Darwin has been prepared for scientific workers, as well as popular pamphlets containing summaries of the main features of Darwin's contribution to science. A large number of articles on Darwin and his work have been published in Soviet magazines and newspapers in connection with the anniversary and a new film based on Darwin's theories, entitled "Natural Selection and the Struggle for Existence," has been released.

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Victory on the Dnieper

By M. LARTZEV

The story of the construction of the 800,000 h. p. Dnieprostroy hydro-electric station as told by a Soviet writer in the magazine "Prozhektor." The power station sent out its first current at the preliminary opening on May 1 and is scheduled to open officially August 1.

ON a gloomy autumn day on the right bank of Dnieper, fifteen kilometers from the city of Zaporozhe, called Alexandrovsk in Tsarist times, a meeting was held and the flag of construction was raised. That was over four years ago, on the tenth anniversary of the October revolution, November 7, 1927. So was laid the first stone in the construction of the largest hydro-electric station in the world—Dnieprostroy.

And on March 28, 1932, the following radio went out from Dnieprostroy:

"Kichkass, March 28.

"TODAY AT 5:20 P. M. THE LAST CUBIC METER OF CEMENT WAS POURED. THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE GREATEST DAM IN THE WORLD IS IN THE MAIN COMPLETED. THE WATER OF THE DNIEPER HAS BEEN RAISED TO 44 METERS ABOVE SEA LEVEL. THE DNIEPER FLOWS THROUGH THE SOLID CEMENT ABUTMENTS OF THE DAM."

The idea of building a dam and a series of canals along the Dnieper has long been considered. As far back as 1785 the Russian engineer Faleyev attempted to regulate the most dangerous sections of the Dnieper rapids by the removal of rocks and scale. In 1824 the engineer Shishov, on the instructions of the Tsarist government, worked out a project for the construction of canals which would enable ships to pass the rapids. Subsequently a whole series of projects was developed, not one of which was carried out. It was not until after the October revolution that it became possible to construct this gigantic enterprise, at a cost of about $110,000,000, which not only will eventually mean a water-way from the Black Sea to the Baltic, but will serve the intensive industrial development of a rich region, and will include a whole group of new factories and enterprises using the cheap current of the Dnieper hydro-electric station.

It is interesting to note that the plan for the construction of Dnieprostroy was ratified as far back as 1920, in the year when the Soviet republic was weakened by hunger, destruction and civil war, when the economic blockade was squeezing it in an iron ring and the government did not have an extra million rubles for even the most essential expenditures. But in 1921 investigations were started for the construction of Dniepro-

stroy, technical surveys were made, the district surrounding the future station was thoroughly studied, the land was marked out and preliminary plans laid for the great construction project. On February 7, 1927, the Sovnarkom of the U.S.S.R. appointed the administration of Dnieprostroy and in the same year the foundation of the Dnieper hydro-electric station was laid. In ten years the country had been able to gather sufficient funds and strength to commence construction on a scale that would not have been even dreamed of before. Indeed, in each of the nine turbines of Dnieprostroy is contained power in excess of the entire power of the Volkhov hydro-electric station on which, in its time, the greatest possible efforts were concentrated, and it seemed a miracle that, under the conditions of poverty and destitution that then existed, the country was able to complete that piece of construction.

Now, when the main work on the construction of the Dnieper *combinat* has already been completed, it is difficult to imagine what vast quantities of materials have gone into it. Over a million cubic meters of concrete were laid. The pouring of the concrete began in July, 1929. In the course of the building season it was necessary to fill the forms of the buttresses of the dam with concrete and to finish this work before freezing time. At that time they did not yet have before them the heroic example of concrete pouring which led to a new world record. At that time 400 and later 600 cubic meters per day were poured. But that was not enough and in September socialist competition began at Dnieprostroy. At first it embraced not more than 10,000 workers. In the first ranks of those taking part in socialist competition were the Comsomol shock brigades. They doubled the productivity of the stone crushers and tripled the output of the concrete factory, supplying the concrete workers with a sufficient quantity of materials.

The right and left banks began a contest. With each day the productivity of labor rose. Both banks maintained uninterrupted contact with each other, constantly increasing their results. A system of electric signals was established. For each hundred cubic meters of concrete poured, a green light flashed, for each three hundred, a red light. When the norm was exceeded, a red star glowed on the shore.

The first victory was won by the right bank. When the red star glowed, thousands of workers gathered around it, and an improvised meeting was held. But four days later the red star burned on the left bank and both banks having exceeded their own norms, established new records, fought as they would on the firing line, sending forth their scouts, working out the most improved methods of pouring concrete, surprising even the American engineers.

By the end of September the *Dnieprostroytsi* had beaten the American record for concrete pouring. In one month they poured 57,000 cubic meters of concrete, while the world record, achieved by America, was 52,000 cubic meters a month. But the next year—1930—left far behind the record of the preceding year. In the beginning of that year the sluice on the left course was completed and the Dnieper was turned leftward—into a new course. Then began the most serious part of the work—pouring the concrete in the central part of the dam. The plan for this was based on figures which to many specialists, both Soviet and American, seemed fantastic and impossible. Up until that time 380,000 cubic meters, the amount poured in the dam of the Wilson hydro-electric station, had been considered a high figure for concrete pouring during the building season. That dam was built by Colonel Cooper, chief consulting engineer of Dnieprostroy. According to the plan drawn up with his participation 427,000 cubic meters were to be poured during the construction season of 1930, but the workers put forward a counter-plan of 500,000 cubic meters, and the struggle to fulfill that plan was an example of heroism and shock work unparalleled even for Dnieprostroy. On Lenin day over a hundred new shock brigades with 4,000 members were formed. Hundreds of

Soyuzphoto

Dnieprostroy Dam before completion

the best *udarniki* (shock troop workers) joined the Party. The Comsomols enrolled en masse in the ranks of the *udarniki* and so, in a great burst of zeal, began a period of intense and uninterrupted work. Each day, each month the amount of concrete poured was increased. In October 110,000 cubic meters was laid, almost double the amount of the same month the previous year. The counter-plan of 500,000 cubic meters was surpassed and in spite of the terrific tempo of the work, the quality of the concrete was very high and the percentage of spoilage very low. The work was organized in three shifts. Collective responsibility was instituted in the brigades and slackers and shirkers were unheard of. Before a brigade worker could be called to account by the administration, he had to answer to his comrades, for whatever he did affected his whole brigade, his whole collective. Through the months and years of the building of the dam were created battle-tested ranks of masons, concrete gangs, metallists, blasters, locksmiths, many thousands of them, united by one idea, inspired by one enthusiasm.

The gigantic dam of Dnieprostroy has made a difference of over thirty meters between the upper and lower level of the river. The great mass of water falling over the dam, creates enormous pressure which the turbines of the hydro-electric station transforms into mechanical power, producing what is expected to be the cheapest electric current in the world.

The base of the hydro-electric station set up on the right bank continues the wall of the dam and lengthens the concrete wall dividing the Dnieper to a kilometer. Deep under the water in the concrete wall are nine round flood-gates of more than seven-and-a-half meters in diameter, leading into pressure pipes which carry the water into the turbines which generate the power. On the opening of Dnieprostroy five turbines out of the nine will be in operation. On the left bank is a deep canal, cut out of solid granite, and the lock is made up of three gigantic steps, each 120 meters in length. The upper gate of the lock is at the level of the dam, and the lower gate is at the level of the river below the rapids, and the canal is continued through solid granite from that point. The lock will permit the passage of two ships simultaneously, and so for the first time there will be a direct water-way on the Dnieper.

Gone are the days when goods had to be transported for miles along the shore. Raw materials for the Dnieper *combinat* and its production will be transported by a cheap water route. From Orsk to Kherson a wide water-way will be opened which will be united to a system of other waterways, making a continuous route between the Black and Baltic Seas.

The power of the Dnieper electrical station will be used immediately. The Dnieper industrial *combinat* will consist of the power station and a series of factories—coking-chemical, aluminum, metallurgical, slag and cement plants, repair shops and an iron-smelting mill. The cheap power of the Dnieper hydro-electric station will set in motion the machines and lathes of all these plants and in addition to this will supply current to Kharkov, Dniepropetrovsk and other industrial centers, and to the state farms and collectives as well.

The metallurgical plant "Zaporozhstal" will consist of four blast furnaces, ten stationary 150-ton marten ovens, seven hundred-ton ladles, three electrical ovens, a blooming mill, rolling mills, and a department for making instrument steel. The capacity of the mill will be 1,250,000 tons of pig iron and over a million tons of steel a year. This plant will turn out exceptionally high grade metal. During the present year two blast furnaces will be put into operation, eight marten ovens, the blooming mill and four rolling mills.

Second in importance in the Dnieprocombinat system will be the smelter, with an annual capacity of 80,000 tons of ferro-manganese, 20,000 tons of ferro-silicates, 4,000 tons of ferro-chromium, and 1,600 tons of ferro-wolfram. The importance of iron-alloys is obvious. They increase the durability and quality of steel and the new plant will meet the requirements of the country in iron-alloys.

The Dnieper aluminum plants will also be of the greatest importance. There will be three plants which should produce about 20,000 tons of aluminum a year. The cost of these plants will be 80,000,000 rubles. There will also be in the Dnieper *combinat* plants for the production of construction materials: slag-cement, brick, limestone, and other materials. These plants will produce 2,600,000 barrels of slag, 30,000,000 bricks, 200,000 tons of limestone, and 150,000 tons of firebrick a year. And finally, the central repair shop of the Dnieper *combinat*, which will consist of an iron-foundry, a steel-foundry, a copper-foundry, blacksmith and mechanical departments, and will serve all the enterprises of the gigantic *combinat*.

All of these plants, which will make use of the Dnieper current, are already going up on the shores of the Dnieper, construction is being completed at high speed and the foremost of them, the iron-alloy plant, the aluminum plants and the repair shops will start operations simultaneously with the Dnieper power station.

The Zaporozhe metallurgical plant will produce 1,050,000 tons of pig-iron annually. Situated 170 kilometers from Krivoy Rog where there is an inexhaustible supply of iron ore, and connected with Krivoy Rog by a main trunk line, this plant marks a new step in the development of Soviet ferrous-metallurgy. Dnieprostal will give to the country annually 360,000 tons of high quality

steel which until now has had to be imported from abroad. The instrumental, construction and chromium-nickel steel will be used for the manufacture of complex mechanisms and machines. The production in the Soviet Union of these high grades of steel will make possible the manufacture of many things never before produced in the Soviet Union. The aluminum plants will finally free us from the necessity of importing aluminum from capitalist countries and save us tens of millions in valuta. Aluminum, the light metal of the future, is more and more replacing heavy metals, and its importance in industry is rapidly increasing.

And so this colossal *combinat*, the greatest in the world in its extent, the variety of its production and its technical possibilities, enters the ranks of the other industrial giants of the U.S.S.R.

Working under exceptionally difficult conditions, without experience, the Soviet workers displayed a high degree of labor heroism. In February, notwithstanding the frost and the wind, the builders of the Dnieper dam laid 14,320 cubic meters of concrete. In those days there was severe frost, and icy winds of such strength raged that three-hundred-pood buckets of cement were shaken about like shavings. And in those days the foremost brigades of cement workers, working in the wind and frost, greatly exceeded the program.

All efforts were strained to the utmost for the final attack on the dam, and with the pouring of the last cubic meter of concrete the workers and engineers of the Soviet Union demonstrated their ability not merely to master the newest technical methods, but to surpass in some respects the scientific and technical achievements of the foremost capitalist countries. Against the advice of the foreign specialists the Soviet engineers, headed by comrades Winter and Vedeneyev, decided that the cementing should be done simultaneously with the concrete pouring, and this made possible the completion of the dam on March 28.

The pouring of the last cubic meter of concrete was turned into a holiday for all Dnieprostroy. Thousands of workers and engineers gathered to watch the completion of the huge dam which had meant over four years of unremitting labor on the part of its builders. The best of the Comsomol shock troops were given the honor of pouring the last cubic meters. At five o'clock the chief construction staff headed by comrades Winter, Vedeneyev and Mikhailov and other officials appeared on the dam. The brigades worked swiftly and expertly. The concrete flowed steadily from the crane. At 5:55 on the right bank appeared the crew with the last kegs of cement. It was greeted with a salute of guns, and a great cry of rejoicing went up from the crowd. At 6:15 the last keg of concrete was poured into Comsomol Crane No. 35. And so was completed the construction of the greatest dam in the world, six months ahead of the date set by the government for its completion.

Soviet Magazines

WE have just been through a great pile of Soviet magazines covering many fields, samples ordered at random from the list of upwards of 2,000 magazines published today in the Soviet Union. Some of them are of beautiful format, printed on excellent paper, with fine photography and graphic work, selling for a ruble or more a copy. Some of them are on inferior paper, unpretentiously printed, using the simplest language, language the most barely literate may understand, selling for a few kopeks.

All the magazines are given over to planning. By this is meant not just the schedules of this or that industry, so many tons of coal to be produced, so many head of cattle to be bred, though there is plenty of that, but the re-planning of all life, for planning in the Soviet Union does not apply to the economic sphere alone, but to the whole social structure.

Highly specialized as most of the magazines are, no department of life is treated as isolated from the rest of life. Its part in the general scheme of things is always emphasized. There is invariably an article linking up work in any specialized field with the general program of socialist construction. So that, picking up one of these Soviet magazines, if you are a cement worker, a child, a railroad conductor, a teacher, a cook, a physicist, a trained nurse, a diver, a swineherd, a violinist, a type-setter, or a builder of bridges, you will feel how essential is your special job, however humble, to the general scheme.

The progress of the industrial giants, watched by the whole country with breathless interest, beats through them all. If in one journal you read of the industrial developments at Magnitostroy (the great iron and steel plant in the Urals), the blowing-in of the first blast furnace, in another you read of the city plans for the

workers' town going up around it, in another of the group of writers and artists who have gone there to write poems and novels about it, in another of the education of its workers, in another of its pre-school institutions, in another of its factory kitchens. Some of the magazines concentrate on reporting facts, some on making them picturesque, some on revealing flaws. Some are devoted wholly to exhortation to do better work, to fulfill the program, to eliminate waste, to wipe out illiteracy.

Early in 1930 Gosplan made a special analysis which covered 1,328 of the 1,700 magazines being printed at that time. This study showed that by far the greatest number of magazines were of a scientific nature. The proportion of different types of magazines published at that time was as follows:

	Per Cent
Scientific	32.7
General (including culture, education, labor, health, physical culture, etc.)	18.2
Economics	10.4
Professional and trade	8.9
Party	7.2
Literature and art	5.4
Cooperative	4.5
Soviet problems	4.5

However, while the largest number of journals were scientific, in circulation the scientific journals occupied only sixth place, because many of them were so highly specialized as to interest only limited groups. In annual circulation and in the number of printed pages first place was occupied by the literary and artistic magazines, which make up more than one-third of the total magazine circulation.

Magazines of all types have increased since the survey was made, and the literary and art magazines undoubtedly occupy a still larger place now than formerly. With the growth of the collective movement and the increased literacy of the village population there has been a great increase in magazines designed for the village. There are, for instance, thirty-three periodicals devoted to agriculture alone. Particularly rapid is the increase of magazines among the national minority groups. In 1911, 81 per cent of all the magazines were published in what is now the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper), while in 1930 only 72 per cent of the total number were published in this republic.

The periodical catalogue of "Gosizdat" (Government Publishing Company) for 1932 lists twenty-seven different magazines devoted to literature and the arts, and there are a number issued by other publishing houses.

Among the literary magazines are a number of excellent weeklies and monthlies. *Prozhektor*, published twice a month, is one of the most popular. Profusely illustrated with photographs and drawings, it contains some of the best descriptive writing of the new factories and farms and developments in remote sections of the country, full of picturesque detail. Certain issues are devoted to special subjects—one to cotton, one to tourism, one to the Red Army, and so on. *Ogoniok*, a popular weekly, has more pictures, briefer articles, more news of other countries, and specializes in sketches written by workers on the job.

Most of the best Soviet literary talent is grouped around the two monthlies, *Krasnaya Nov* (Red Virgin Soil) and *Novy Mir* (The New World). *Krasnaya Nov*, formerly edited by A. K. Voronsky, the well-known Soviet critic, is the organ of the "Federation of United Soviet Writers." Among its editors are Vsevolod Ivanov, Leonid Leonov and A. Fadeyev. Here one finds mostly the work of the *poputchiki* (fellow-travelers)—the name given to the group of Soviet writers who, while not identifying themselves completely with the new régime, are nevertheless willing to "travel along with it." It publishes novels, short stories, sketches, poems, critical articles and occasional articles on foreign affairs. The January, 1932, issue contains the first installment of "Vremya Vpered!" ("Forward, Time!"), a novel by Valentine Katayev, a poem by Boris Pasternak, "Spain," by Ilya Ehrenburg, "At the Haying," by Piotr Oreshin, "Manchuria and the Colonial Policy of Japan," by Sen Katayama, "Ten Years of the Vakhtangov Theater," by N. Ossinsky, a chapter from a new biographical romance on Dostoyevsky, by Leonid Grossman, an article on recent discussions in the All-Union Society of Proletarian Writers, an article on Joseph Paul-Boncour, the French deputy, a critical article on the work of Marietta Shaginian, an article on "The Growth of Romantic Lyrics," by Myshkovskaya, an article on England, and a number of book reviews. During the coming year Maxim Gorky and Yury Libedinsky (author of "The Week") will be among the contributors.

Novy Mir, whose chief editor up to the time of his death last February, was Viacheslav Polonsky, the critic, is edited by a board consisting of I. M. Gronsky (editor of *Izvestia*), A. G. Malyshkin and N. I. Solovev, and is very similar to *Krasnaya Nov*. Running through the list of contents and of authors for the past year one finds the same authors contributing to both magazines, the same type of contents. *Novy Mir* is perhaps a shade to the left of *Krasnaya Nov*, a little closer to the realities of Soviet life, with more political articles, a greater variety of stories and sketches about what is going on today in all parts of the Soviet Union, more articles on scientific matters. During 1932 *Novy Mir* will publish a number of new novels: "Power," by Gladkov, author of "Cement"; "Piatiletka," by N. Aseyev; "The Flowering of Virgin Soil," by M. Sholokov, author of "The Quiet Don"; the second part of

Alexey Tolstoy's novel "Peter the First," and a new novel by him, "Izhorsky Zavod"; also stories and novels are announced by Isaac Babel, author of "Red Cavalry," by Novikov-Priboy, Yury Olesha, Konstantin Finn, Andrey Biely, Boris Pilniak, Vladimir Lidin, Anatole Lunacharsky, Karl Radek, Romain Rolland, and others.

The December, 1931, issue contains extracts from a novel on the Turgenev brothers by Anatol Vinogradov, some unpublished material about Pushkin, a survey of recent Soviet literature and art, some sketches on the awakening of remote sections of the Soviet Union, verses on the Caucasus by Pasternak, a review of a new book on Stendahl, a critical survey of present-day Kirghiz literature, an article on electrons, a review of new English and American books, the end of Alexey Tolstoy's novel, "Black Gold," and a number of sketches and short stories.

Oktiabr, the organ of the All-Union and the Moscow Associations of Proletarian writers, is also described on its cover as a "literary, artistic, social and political journal," and covers much the same ground as the others, but it is very much to the left of *Krasnaya Nov* and *Novy Mir.* Its chief editor is F. Panferov, author of "Brusski," and its chief contributors are writers who are close to the workers, or from the ranks of the workers themselves. It publishes some quite long novels and novelettes, critical articles, many sketches, which have become one of the most popular forms of writing in the Soviet Union, discussions of literary policy, reports of literary conferences, etc. Among its contributors are V. Kirshon, O. Falk, Michael Gold, Efrem Polonsky, A. Karavayeva, and Artem Vessioly.

Nashi Dostizhenia (Our Achievements) was founded by Maxim Gorky in 1929. Returning to the U.S.S.R., after a long absence, he was overwhelmed by all that had been accomplished but felt that through the prevalence of "self-criticism," defects and mistakes were emphasized to such an extent that sometimes the other side of the picture was quite obscured. Therefore he started this monthly magazine—"to show the growth and the success of our labors, our accomplishments in every field, in creating new values, in building a new state, in combatting all that we have inherited from bourgeois society." This magazine, therefore, goes in for facts and figures, for statistical and general descriptive articles, both long and short, on everything that is going on, written in a popular and readable way, usually contributed by the people actually engaged in the work they are describing.

Molodaya Guardia (The Young Guard) is a literary journal published by the Communist Party and the Communist Youth League, and is much more on the political side than the above magazines. Around this magazine are grouped

Cover design of a recent number of the magazine "The Siberian Hunter and Fisherman"

most of the young Communist writers and poets, and those closest to the party point of view. The January, 1932, number publishes material on current political issues in the U.S.S.R.; a poem about Harlan County, Kentucky, by N. Aseyev, "Song of the 42nd Parallel"; a short story about the civil war by V. Stavsky; a novel, "Rabfak" (workers' faculty), by M. Zavialov; some translations of modern Tadjik poetry; the story of a German working youth, translated; discussions of political and of construction problems; sketches about *udarniki* (shock brigade workers); an article on "The Hegelian Heritage and Marxism-Leninism"; articles on problems of Soviet art; a discussion of literary tendencies; reviews of current books.

Na Literaturnom Postu (At the Literary Post) is a journal of Marxian criticism, founded in 1923, which appears every ten days. Its editorial board includes L. Auerbach, Bela Illesh, V. Kirshon, B. Kovalenko, Y. Libedinsky, F. Panferov, A. Fadeyev, and others. This journal stands for the party line in literature, for a new type of writer who will be not a mere "observer" and "guest writer," but who shall be connected with the daily struggle of the working class, and for a new type of critic, who also will not be a mere passive observer but a participant in the struggle for the new type of literature. From this point

Soyuzphoto

A traveling library distributes books and magazines among kolhoz workers

of view current literary tendencies and groups, and individual writers and their works are discussed in the pages of this magazine.

Another magazine specializing in criticism from the Marxian point of view is the *Marxist-Leninist Review of the Arts* (formerly *The Press and Revolution*), published by the Institute of Literature and Art of the Communist Academy. This magazine is much broader in scope than *At the Literary Post*, and applies the Marxian standards not merely to literature, but to all the arts. The first issue for 1932, for instance, in addition to a long leading article by Sergey Dinamov on the tasks of Marxist criticism, and other articles on literary theory, contains a critical article on the work of the Soviet artist Deinek, an article on problems of modern theater construction, articles on musical questions, and so on. Art, drama, music and literature are all discussed from a political point view.

In addition to these more pretentious literary magazines a number of *Roman Gazettes* are published in which the best literature of the past and present is made available for the masses in the cheapest possible form.

Of the comic weeklies *Crocodile* is the one most seen in the tram-cars and waiting rooms. Its mordant humor is directed chiefly against inefficiency and bureaucracy. It satirizes relics of the old régime, old traditions, and is equally merciless with the mistakes of the new. Its illustrations are as striking as the earlier Soviet posters.

A large number of magazines deal with the arts in general. *For Proletarian Art*, the journal of the Russian Associated Proletarian Artists, surveys the mass work in the arts, the art circles in factories and workers' clubs. The number at hand has an article on posters and cartoons, another on contributions by workers' groups to the "Palace of Soviets" Competition, a critical article on a recent exhibition of Soviet sculpture, a discussion of frescoes as one of the most important forms of proletarian art. The way in which Soviet artists and writers are identifying themselves with practical problems is illustrated in a number of articles. When water transport was slowed up on the Volga last summer from Astrakhan to Nijni-Novgorod, an artists' brigade set forth with plenty of statistical material as well as paints and brushes. Up and down the river they went making posters and placards and slogans to urge on the transport workers. When freight piled up at the Petrovsk wharf, the artists' brigade issued a special challenge to the river workers. They, the artists, would produce so many posters, so many wall newspapers, so many entertainments within a certain period, if the workers would "liquidate this crisis." There are also accounts of the artists' and actors' brigades which journey to the villages at seeding and harvest time, putting on plays and exhibitions, giving graphic illustration of new methods, carrying valuable experiences from one collective or state farm to another, helping in the organization of clubs and libraries.

The *Artists' Brigade* is the monthly publication of the "Federation of United Workers of Mass Art." The particular number in this collection is devoted chiefly to posters. Whatever national campaign is afoot is immediately reflected in large striking posters which appear like magic in all parts of the country. Many of the best of the country's artists have turned to the making of posters as one of the best means of bringing art to the masses. For some years the quality of Soviet posters was below standard, but recently, with the many phases of the Five-Year Plan offering material of the most dramatic nature, they have recaptured the vigor and sweep of those made in the early days of the revolution. A recent number of "The Artists' Brigade" shows the contribution of the artists to "Dirigible Week," for which they made posters, banners and models.

The architectural problems of the new workers' clubs are discussed. The writer points out that since no buildings of quite this type have ever before been constructed, modern architecture has nothing suitable to offer Soviet architects in working out new forms, and as a result the main idea has been to make the new workers' clubs different from any other buildings that ever were, frequently resulting in bizarre effects. The author pleads for greater simplicity and taste, and more attention to the use for which the club buildings are designed. One section is given over to material from "artist-correspondents."

For Proletarian Music, organ of the "Russian Association of Proletarian Musicians," is a small magazine, selling for 15 kopeks, on cheap paper, but well printed. The number at hand tells of a trip around Europe made by seventy-four Moscow *udarniki*, who won the trip as a prize for their good work, on the ship "Ukraine," and of how they sang the new Soviet songs for the workers of European cities, and learned their songs in return. On their return they issued a request to the proletarian composers for more songs of the new day. There are reports on the activities of the musical circles, on new mass songs, on music and the Red Army. "Shubert and His Songs" is the title of another article. A report is given of the development of music among the national minorities, the growth of national orchestras and the great musical activity in the new schools in these districts, of which Kabardino-Balkaro is a striking example. These peoples are having their national songs, never before written down, printed for them in their own language. A similar journal, *The Proletarian Musician*, has articles on modern composition, on Beethoven (greatly loved in the Soviet Union), "Music on the Eve of the French Revolution," contribution from local "music correspondents," and the notes of two new marching songs with fresh, swinging tunes.

Proletarskoye Kino, monthly journal of "The Associated Workers of Revolutionary Cinematography," is concerned not at all with the private lives of the film stars. Individual actors and actresses are hardly mentioned (and this is true of all other Soviet journals dealing with the cinema). Indeed, there are few "stars" in Soviet pictures. Since the pictures deal with real events, their casts are made up largely of people doing the things they do in real life. The articles in this magazine are concerned with the social message of the film, and of the importance of studying the audience and its reactions, through questionnaires and meetings, and even of getting reactions from sections of the audiences-to-be before the film is completed. Lunacharsky contributes an article on "Comedy and Satire in the Cinema," there are various discussions of educational and scientific films, an article on film production in America, an account of Eisenstein's experiences in Hollywood, and so on.

Art for the Masses, a small, cheap magazine published monthly by the Peasants' Gazette, is designed for village circulation, gives instructions in simple language regarding the formation of art circles in the villages, how to get up wall newspapers, exhibits, carnivals, plays, how to celebrate the various national holidays. It contains an article on the puppet shows so popular in the villages, and a description of a festival arranged by a group of Comsomols who presented a play by an Ossetian author in a mountain village in South Ossetia—the play, the first given in this village, was preceded by music and dancing in the streets. One section is devoted to the use of leisure in the village, suggesting games, entertainments and sports.

Soviet Theater, an illustrated monthly, described on its cover "a social-political journal on questions of the theater," is the best medium for keeping in touch with current theatrical mat-

Soyuzphoto

Children's Library at a Moscow textile factory workers' club

ters. The number examined publishes a critical article on Mayakovsky's "Mystery Bouffé," one of the first fruits of the October revolution in the drama, which played first in Leningrad in November, 1918; an article on the work of TRAM (the Young Workers' Theater) and some of its recent productions; an article on "Mechanism and Formalism in the Meyerhold Theater"; an article on the Jewish Theater in Moscow; and an article on Yury Oleshi's play "Spissok Blagodeyani" ("List of Benefits"), dealing with the inner struggles of a member of the intelligentsia in trying to adjust herself to the new régime, which has been playing this year at the Meyerhold Theater.

Soviet Architecture, a bi-monthly magazine, was started in 1931 as a clearing house for opinion on the planning and construction of the new socialist communities. It is full of fascinating plans and sketches for workers' towns, apartment houses, clubs, theaters, parks. The first article in the first number on "Main Problems of Housing Construction in the U.S.S.R.," by N. Miliutin discusses the new problems of architecture connected with the changing social forms. He points out that the rising standards of living and the development of socialized forms of serving the daily needs of the population—(communal restaurants, laundries, crèches and clubs) change the whole aspect of the home. In the cities and to a growing extent in the country, too, the families of the workers have become almost entirely social and consuming rather than economic and producing units. At the same time the family remains as the fundamental social unit, and retains many of its old individualistic habits of living along with the new socialized forms. This necessitates a transition type of apartment house where forms of socialized service are provided, and facilities for individual housekeeping as well. A program for such transition type apartment houses as well as for more completely communized dwellings drawn up by the housing department of the Communist Academy is also published. In all the plans for new dwellings and towns one finds that the guiding principle is functionalism, and except for an occasional grotesquerie, there is a dramatic simplicity about most of the designs. Light, air, plenty of green space are the chief goals in all their planning, and there is an effort to avoid the development of crowded industrial centers. One also finds a growing tendency among Soviet architects to approach their problems from the angle of town-planning rather than that of the single building.

There are hundreds of scientific and technical magazines, covering every conceivable subject for both the student and the lay reader. *Nauchnoe Slovo* (Scientific Word) is a well printed bi-monthly concerned with general scientific problems. The one at hand has an article on problems of power, especially the possibilities in the development of solar energy; an article on "The Stars," taken from Sir James Jeans' book; an article on acoustics; a survey of modern opinions on the structure of the nervous system, and briefer notes on astronomy, biology, glands, physiological fatigue, and book reviews.

The Scientific Worker, published by the scientific section of the educational workers' union of the U.S.S.R. is a bi-monthly dealing mainly with methods of scientific work in the Soviet Union.

A popular scientific monthly with the bold name *Hochu Vsye Znat* (I want to know everything), reviews new scientific achievements in the U.S.S.R. and elsewhere, publishes detailed diagrams on how to make all kinds of tools and instruments, carries correspondence courses in carpentry, geology, mathematics, German, and other subjects.

Knowledge is Power is a bi-weekly popular scientific journal for young people which publishes adventure stories built around scientific achievements as well as a lot of practical information. A new scientific magazine, *Socialist Reconstruction and Science,* to be published ten times a year, under the editorship of Nikolay Bukharin, has recently been issued.

Soviet Regional Exploration is the organ of the regional study groups whose work of studying the history, natural resources and all phases of the life of their section of the country is reflected in the regional museums, which give a complete picture of each region and so play an important part in the planning program.

There are numerous magazines dealing with problems of health. *On the Health Protection Front,* a monthly published by the Commissariat of Health of the R.S.F.S.R., deals with practical problems of public health. A recent number is given over largely to problems of diet, and of improving food and sanitary conditions in cooperative restaurants. *Socialist Health Protection,* published by the Leningrad Health Department, covers similar ground. The number examined contained articles on general public health measures, sanitary education, medical work in the collectives and state farms, prophylactic work in workers' districts, rationalization of labor of medical workers. *Hygiene and Epidemology* is a monthly magazine containing highly technical papers by doctors and scientists. A number of special magazines deal with problems of maternity and child welfare. *Culture and Life* is an illustrated weekly concerned with day to day problems of health and hygiene.

Much valuable material on education in the Soviet Union is to be found in the various educational journals. One of the best of these is *On the Road to the New School,* published by the Commissariat for Education, which deals with

the problems of reorganizing the Soviet school system into a "unified system of polytechnical education," the word polytechnical being used not, as in America, to mean training in many special trades, but the training of all children from the very first years of their schooling in certain fundamental principles which are at the basis of all labor. This magazine contains articles by leading Soviet educators on the content of the school program, methodology and the whole pedagogical process. *Education of the Nationalities* deals with the cultural work among the national minority groups and has much rich material about the pioneer educational work being done in remote sections of Central Asia and the Far North. *Communist Education* is the magazine which serves as a political guide for teachers.

Every phase of education, from pre-school up through the universities has its special magazines. There are several devoted to problems of adult education. A number of magazines deal with extra-curricular activities for children, and there are a number of gay and colorful journals to increase children's delight in the universe around them.

Magazines specializing on economic and political questions are too numerous to attempt to deal with in this survey. Problems of planning, of industrialization, of scientific management, finance, trade, labor—all these are dealt with fully in the pages of many magazines. Of the political journals the bi-weekly *Bolshevik*, organ of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, is the most widely read.

Going through these magazines one gets a strong sense of collective creative effort, in which these writers are themselves taking part. Crude as much of the writing may be, since the older writers have been so aloof from the aspects of life of which they are now called upon to write, and must handle unfamiliar material, and the young writers have not yet mastered the technique of writing, both types of writers are beginning to handle their medium more surely and more expertly, to distill the dramatic and the significant out of the changing and dynamic events of which they are a part.

Socialist Cities and Town Planning

A great deal is heard in the Soviet Union about "socialist cities," the "city of the future," "agro-industrial combinats," the "elimination of the difference between town and country." Architects and engineers are at work on models and plans for these socialist cities. A special commissariat has been organized to handle problems of municipal economy. An Academy of Communal Economy has been established as a scientific research center for working out the basic principles and type of planning of new settlements and the reconstructing of old ones. The buildings in these cities are to provide an abundance of air and sunlight and space. Housekeeping arrangements are to be largely socialized through communal restaurants and laundries, though the dwellings are to be so built as to permit individual housekeeping for those who wish. Schools, day-nurseries, libraries, clubs, theaters, sport grounds and parks are included in all the plans. The dwellings are to be near the place of work, which is to be approached through parks and lanes of trees. Unnatural concentration of human masses is to be avoided. By the planned placing of industries based on equal distribution of the productive powers of the country and the fullest possible use of natural resources, it is believed this can be achieved. Industrial centers are to be surrounded by extensive agricultural zones. Agricultural enterprises are to develop industries to use their products at the point of production. And so, town and country will each acquire the best characteristics of the other and eventually merge so that there will be no such strict differentiation as there is now.

Meantime, the new industrial giants draw 10,000, 100,000 workers and their families to some spot where men have not lived before in large numbers. Right out of barren wastes are springing huge new industries, and thousands of people to build and operate the factories must be housed quickly. Socialist cities must be built before the plans for socialist cities can be perfected. But if these new cities are far behind the plans for the socialist cities of the future, so also are they far beyond the huddled settlements of the past which they are replacing. Clough Williams-Ellis, the British architect, writing of the new city at Dnieprostroy, says:

> "Everything necessary for the reception of this population was being prepared ahead—schools and crèches, kindergartens and hotels, clubs, cinemas, theaters, recreation grounds, cooperative shops, etc. In the set-up is included everything, in fact, that we should consider necessary for civilized living, always with the exception of churches. Even avenues of trees, grass-plots and flower-beds seemed to be considered 'necessaries' by the Russians, while in one factory I was startled to hear the local general manager being told off by High Authority because he had been pushing on with the

Construction camp and beginnings of a socialist town at the Kuznetskstroy iron and

completion of his foundry and machine shops at the expense of the crèche and kindergarten attached thereto. . . ."*

Mr. Williams goes on to say that the type of architecture is largely Germanic, "efficient, cut-to-the-bone modernist stuff, relying on fitness or function to give it whatever beauty it may possess," and that no authentic Soviet style has yet been worked out. The haste with which the new cities must go up leaves little time for finishing touches, the plans must be carried out by unskilled workmen, often the materials called for are not immediately available. And yet, he continues, architecture, as everything else, is a real and vivid possession of the people, and he feels that beautiful and graceful forms will develop out of the "architectural telegraphese" of the present period—since, although there is little beauty in the architecture of the present period, there is also no vulgarity.

Socialist planning and re-building are being applied in so far as possible to all the old cities, as well as to the new — Moscow, Leningrad, Kharkov, Baku, Nijni - Novgorod, Kiev, Sverdlovsk, Novosibirsk, Tashkent, Ivanovo - Voznesensk—all these are being completely transformed—and in the meantime fifty or more entirely new cities are rising around the new giant industrial plants. Coincident with the development of new industrial centers the large state farms and collectives and the machine and tractor stations which are applying the methods of industry to agriculture, are concentrating the agricultural population into more compact units and transforming the whole face of the countryside. As local industries directly connected with agriculture are developed these centers of mechanized agriculture will form the basis of hundreds of new towns in the agricultural districts.

Before the war the urban population of Russia was 21,000,000; by 1931 it had increased to over 34,000,000. According to the all-Union census of 1926 there were in the U.S.S.R. thirty-one cities with populations of 100,000 or over. According to the city census of 1931 there were altogether forty-five such cities. But to-day Magnitogorsk, Shakhta, Stalinsk and a number of others have entered this category. The cities of old Russia with a population of 100,000 or more could almost be counted on the fingers. The large industrial centers were just great sprawling villages, and were not even considered as cities. There were the "settlements" of the Donetz Basin, the "plants" of the Urals, or the "mines" of Siberia. Ivanovo - Voznesensk was known as the Russian Manchester. Places were referred to in terms of what they produced rather than of the people who live in them.

Since the revolution these old workers' settlements have been transformed into cities and the mud hovels and rude huts where the workers lived before, so inadequate that in many places floor space was used in day and night shifts, have been replaced by great blocks of new workers' apartment houses. Dirty,muddy, unkempt and utterly lacking in any improvements before the revolution, these cities now have not only modern utilities of all kinds, but hundreds of schools, universities, and scientific research institutions, not to mention such things as clubs, auto-busses, tramways, airdromes, day-nurseries, water systems, hospitals, street lamps and parks.

From year to year the capital investment in Soviet cities increases. In 1928-29, 415,000,000

*New York Times Magazine, February 31, 1932.

ed plant in West Siberia. Three years ago this was a barren, uninhabited desert. *Soyuzphoto*

rubles was invested in housing construction, 250,000,000 in communal construction. In 1929-30, including the special quarter, 730,000,000 rubles was invested in housing and 300,000,000 in communal construction. Last year the figure was 1,000,000,000 rubles for housing and almost half a billion for communal construction. Finally, the plan for the current year provides for capital investment of 2,750,000,000 rubles, of which 950,000,000 rubles will go for communal construction.

The public utilities of Tsarist Russia were very limited. For example, Petersburg, Moscow, Ekaterinoslav, Kharkov, Kiev, Piatigorsk were practically the only cities which had street-car lines before the revolution. To-day the list includes Baku, Bolshoye Zaporozhe, Voronezh, Grozny, Makayevka, Minsk, Molotovo, Noginsk, Perm, Sverdlovsk, Smolensk, Stalino, Staraya Russia, Tula, Cheliabinsk, Shakhta, Erivan—dozens of Soviet cities either have or are building tramway systems.

In the nineteenth century there were sewerage systems only in those places where the Tsar's palaces were located. In Petersburg the sewerage system had been "temporary" for a hundred years before the revolution. In Moscow there was a sewerage system for the central part of the city only. In Kiev, Tiflis, Rostov-on-the-Don and Kharkov there were sewerage systems only in the bourgeois sections, none in the working-class districts.

Seventy cities, both old and new, now have adequate sewerage systems. The same is true with regard to water supply. Since the revolution about 200 new water systems have been constructed, and the improved sanitary conditions resulting from this and other measures have reduced the mortality in Soviet cities to half the pre-war level.

In the summer of 1931 the central committee of the Communist Party passed a resolution calling for widespread improvements in Moscow and Leningrad and the cities generally throughout the U.S.S.R., as a result of which great transformations have been achieved.

Moscow, of course, is terribly overcrowded, and while an enormous amount of repairing and building has been done, it has not kept pace with the growing population. Prior to the revolution the population of Moscow was 1,618,000. In 1920 it dropped to 1,027,000. By 1931 it reached 2,800,000. During the past year about 75,000 people in Moscow have received new, well-built quarters. Many old houses have been torn down and modern apartments erected, and additions are being built on many others. A forest of new workers' settlements has arisen on the outskirts of Moscow near to the industrial plants. During 1932 new quarters for 250,000 people will be provided in Moscow. Gone are cobble-stones of old Moscow. Hundreds of thousands of square meters of street paving have been laid. New electric lamps brighten the streets. The squares are flooded with arc lights. New water supply and sewerage systems have improved sanitation, and central heating plants for whole groups of houses have been installed in the center of the city. Hundreds of new trams, auto-busses and taxis have eased the traffic system. Excavations for the Moscow subway, to be completed by January, 1934, have commenced in the Sokolniki section. Preparations are under way to build a canal uniting the Moscow River with the Volga. Work has commenced on the Palace of Soviets, final plans for which have been worked out under

the direction of Hector Hamilton, the young American architect whose model won the prize in the international competition. This will be a huge structure with great auditoriums and parade grounds for national congresses and demonstrations, and will house many of the government offices now scattered about the city.

Modernized and improved as Moscow has become, the flavor of old Moscow is still there. The Kremlin remains, with its domes and towers and rosy crenellated walls, the Red Square remains, well-paved now, with Lenin's tomb of red and black marble, massive and simple, blending beautifully into this historic background. All the best of the past is being carefully preserved. Some of the "forty-times-forty" churches have gone, but many still remain. All changes are now being made according to a very definite plan for the future development of Moscow and brigades of engineers and architects are working out plans for its further improvement, under the architectural and planning section of the Moscow Soviet. The amount of green space and parks has been greatly increased, and the vast Park of Culture and Rest provides spacious recreation grounds for adults and children. While extra stories are being added to many of the old buildings to relieve the housing situation, sky-scrapers are being consciously avoided.

In Leningrad, too, great changes are taking place. In 1922 there were only 700,000 people left in Leningrad—one-fourth of its former population—most of which had been drawn away by the civil war and intervention and the transfer of government headquarters to Moscow. By 1931, with the development of its industries—chiefly metallurgy, electro-technical and machine construction, it had reached a population of 2,228,300. Two hundred entirely new industries have grown up in Leningrad since the beginning of the Five-Year Plan, and in addition to its importance as an industrial center, Leningrad has also become one of the leading cultural and scientific centers of the country. Leningrad, too, has its new water supply and sewerage systems, new trams and electric railways, new pavements and lights, new workers' apartments. Leningrad port has been reconstructed. Much, too, has been done in park development, and the new housing sections are surrounded and intersected by green spaces. A hundred thousand trees were planted recently during a two-weeks' drive to "turn the city green."

Socialist planning and rebuilding are also being applied in so far as possible to the other old cities — Kharkov, Baku, Nijni-Novgorod, Kiev, Sverdlovsk, Novosibirsk, Tashkent, Ivanovo-Voznesensk, Odessa, Stalingrad, Cheliabinsk, and others. Scientific plans have been drawn up for the future development of all of these cities, always with the idea of avoiding too great heaping up of the population, increasing the amount of green space within the city, and developing the agricultural zone right around it. Especially striking has been the growth of Novosibirsk, capital of the West Siberian region, which in 1920 had 67,000 inhabitants and now has 215,000. A huge plant for mining equipment is being built here, at a cost of 100,000,000 rubles, which will eventually employ 20,000 workers. A combine factory is in construction, with a capacity of 25,000 combines a year, which will turn out its first combine the end of this year. A large tractor factory for the Soviet Caterpillar 36 tractor is going up, and a paper industry is being developed. This industrial development has been accompanied by extensive housing development, new hotels and clubs, a palace of science and culture, a park of culture and rest, a physical culture stadium, rest homes, theaters, the first sound picture house in Siberia, and the fourth largest radio broadcasting station in the Soviet Union is located here.

The Moscow *Pravda* recently published brief descriptions of the more important of the socialist cities developing in connection with the new industrial projects. We quote a few of them below as an example of what is going on in all parts of the Soviet Union:

Novoe-Zaporozhe, Ukraine: Five years ago nothing but empty steppe and rustling grasses. Now a city has grown up—Novoe-Zaporozhe. Next to the largest hydroelectric station in Europe, the Dnieper power plant and the plants of the Dnieper *combinat* being constructed around it, fifteen large workers' settlements have been built. These settlements are called "temporary," but their houses are strongly built, they are supplied with water systems, sewerage, electricity and central heating. About a hundred thousand persons are now living in these settlements.

According to the plan the city of "Bolshoye Zaporozhe" is to grow until it can accommodate a population of 250,000. This plan is already being realized. The first settlement, beginning at the dam, has already a solid foundation of many storied stone houses. A Palace of Soviets, a hospital, a polyclinic, a People's House, a hotel, a school, a technical school with mechanical, electro-technical and construction departments, are all in operation.

Under construction are central baths and laundries, children's establishments for every quarter, government stores, a theater. Along Eighth Prodolny—a broad, wide road leading straight to Staroye Zaporozhe, a tramway line is being rapidly constructed. Busses go back and forth. Grass and shrubbery and trees are being planted in the new boulevards and squares. Pavements

are being laid. Electric lamps burn brightly all night.

Magnitogorsk, Ural Region: Just three years ago the first tents were pitched at the foot of Magneto mountain, marking the beginning of a colossal construction project. To-day the first Magnitogorsk blast furnace is producing pig-iron, the coking-chemical combine is working at full speed, and beside them a new city has risen.

Many of the builders are still living in barracks. But large sections of brick and stone houses have been constructed, there is a city theater, a circus, theaters showing sound and silent films, a construction institute with a technicum, primary and secondary schools, a hospital and dispensary, day nurseries and kindergartens—their own daily newspaper—"The Magnitogorsk Worker."

City construction on a large scale has commenced only during the present year. Thirty-five million rubles has been assigned for housing construction, 2,000,000 rubles for the construction of permanent water-supply systems, 700,000 rubles for auto-transport lines within the city, the same amount for baths and laundries and about 3,000,000 rubles for bridges, parks and other improvements.

The city is being laid out in districts for units of 9,600 people, each district to have its own shops and cultural and social institutions. The houses are of two kinds, some containing apartments with kitchen and bathroom, and others individual rooms without housekeeping facilities. A system of underground water-supply is being installed, and flowers and shrubs will bloom in the large sections of the city given over to parks, gardens and playgrounds.

Cheremkhovo, East Siberia: Not long ago a "deaf" little Siberian village, Cheremkhovo is today one of the largest cities in the East Siberian region. In the second piatiletka it will develop into the largest coal and metal center of East Siberia.

By the end of 1934 the construction of a hydro-electric station will be completed at Cheremkhovo, with a capacity of 50,000 kilowatts, which will be increased to 300,000 kilowatts by the end of the second piatiletka. This power station will be the cornerstone of the huge Angarstroy project. It will serve a metallurgical plant with a capacity of 1,150,000 tons of metal, as well as zinc and lead, aluminum and machine construction plants.

The small village of yesterday has grown into a town of 40,000. As a city, Cheremkhovo still lacks many improvements. But the important role of the Cheremkhovo Basin guarantees its future.

Khibinogorsk, Leningrad Oblast: In 1929 there were simply a few tents of the nomadic Lopars in the place where today a city is rising in connection with the development of the Khibinsk apatite deposits. A new city is rapidly growing up within the Arctic Circle. In January, 1930, there were altogether only 160 inhabitants in Khibinogorsk, at the beginning of 1931 there were already 15,000, today there is a permanent population of over 40,000. Houses of all kinds are going up, home-built and standardized types, the local stone, khibinite, being used for many of them. Modern improvements are being installed, and bus lines are operating.

Kemerovo, Western Siberia: Kemerovo is one of the new industrial centers of the Kuznetsk Basin. The coal industry is here supplemented by a powerful chemical industry. In 1923 there were 11,000 inhabitants in Kemerovo, last year about 48,000, and by January 1st of the present year, over 90,000. Housing is going forward rapidly and 2,000,000 rubles is being spent on public utilities this year.

Igarka, East Siberia: Igarka is only three years old.

Within the Arctic Circle, at the mouth of the Yenisei, at the entrance to Kara Sea, the settlement of Igarka, three years back, consisted of a

Soyuzphoto

The Red Square, Moscow, during a recent sport demonstration

few dug-outs, nothing more. Today in Igarka there are hundreds of new comfortable, warm homes, in which a permanent population of about 13,000 are housed. By autumn it is expected that this population, judging by present indications, will be from 18 to 20,000.

Along the Yenisei and its tributaries great quantities of lumber are floated. Igarka takes the logs, saws them up in its three saw-mills, one of which is equipped according to the last word of technique, and loads them on the ships which come right to its wharves from the sea. There is now a temporary port at Igarka, but a seaport is under construction so that ocean liners will be able to come right to Igarka in the future.

On summer nights Igarka is lighted by the midnight sun, in winter, by electricity from its own power station. A new and more powerful electrical station is now under construction.

This year 1,600,000 rubles has been assigned for housing and improvements. A new House of Soviets and Palace of Labor are being built, and a large new theater has been opened. There is a technicum, a high school and a number of elementary schools. During the long arctic evenings thirteen different courses in different fields were held. There is a hospital, dispensary and public baths. By 1937 it is expected that the permanent population of Igarka will reach from 50 to 60,000. It will then be the most populous industrial city within the Arctic Circle in the world.

Novy Chardzhui, Turkmenistan: Before the overthrow of the Emir in 1920, Chardzhui was a part of Bukhara and was governed by an absolute satrap. Old Chardzhui was a typical old Asian city, with narrow streets, and very dirty.

Beside it Novy Chardzhui is being built, a city planned for 90,000 inhabitants. This year a building to house government departments will go up, an apartment house for specialists, a printing combinat, a mill combinat and a refrigerating system. After that a silk spinning plant will be built. A building material factory is under construction. In the future it is planned to build large paper, textile, stocking and artificial fibre mills here.

Stalinabad, Tadjikistan: Formerly the *kishlak* (mountain village) Dushambe. Today, the capital of the Tadjik Republic. There were 600 inhabitants in Dushambe before the revolution. In Soviet Stalinabad today there is a permanent population of 60,000.

A new railroad station and two new theaters have been built. There are now in Stalinabad a branch of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R., a workers' club, a Red Army House, a hospital, schools and day nurseries. The streets and the new houses are electrically lighted. There are auto busses. Squares and parks have been laid out and planted with grass and shrubbery. The industrial base of Stalinabad, the Vakshstroy hydro-electric station is on the border of Afghanistan and is connected with the largest irrigation works in the U.S.S.R., as well as a machine shop and a factory manufacturing construction parts.

Frunze, Kirghizia: In Central Asia there was a Russian county seat named Pishpek, with a population of from five to six thousand persons. Now, in place of Pishpek, we have the city of Frunze, with almost a hundred thousand inhabitants, the capital of Soviet Kirghizia.

A number of industries have been started: a new machine shop, sugar factory, textile mill, pharmaceutic factory, cannery, rice-cleaning plant, a macaroni factory, a meat packing plant and several brick kilns. Thirteen kilometers from Frunze is its power base—the Novaya Alamedinskaya hydro-electric station. Many public utilities are in operation, a factory kitchen, new station, public baths and laundry, a regional museum, a higher scientific research institute, a government house, women's normal and medical technicums—for the native women, a branch of the State Printing House, agricultural and other colleges, a national theater, a workers' theater, a State circus, five cinema theaters, a park, a new hotel, clubs and a system of children's institutions.

Kounrad, Kazakstan: On the north shore of Lake Balkhash Soviet geologists found huge reserves of copper ore, and so Balkhashstroy, a giant copper combinat was started here, and with this development a new city is growing up. This year 24,000,000 rubles will be spent on housing and public utilities. The water system of Kounrad will be more powerful than the present Moscow system and the hydro-electric station to be built here will be almost as powerful as Dnieprostroy. The new city is planned for 50,000 inhabitants.

Kandalaksha, Karelia: Before the revolution Kandalaksha was a little fishing village without the sign of an industry. After the civil war was over a large saw-mill was constructed here, a fish-canning mill was built, and a new town for a working population of 12,000 grew up.

Kandalaksha is growing rapidly. The powerful Northern Chemical combinat which will work up Khibinsk apatite and nepheline, is being developed. The combinat will be served by three electro-centrals with a total capacity of 264,000 kilowatts; all three of them are on the river Niva. Two of them are already in construction, one will be completed by January 1, 1933. Kandalaksha is being transformed into a large arctic city which will have a population of 90,000 at the end of the second piatiletka.

Transcaucasia

TRANSCAUCASIA, or the Transcaucasian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic as it is officially known, is the third largest in population and fourth largest in size of the seven republics which compose the U.S.S.R. The Federation was formed in March, 1922, and is one of the younger members of the Soviet Union although its history stretches far back into the mists of Greek antiquity. The three republics of Georgia, Azerbaidjan and Armenia form the Federation. Georgia is the largest, with regard to its population of 2,924,600, according to figures for the middle of 1931, and second in size, covering 70,200 square kilometers. Azerbaidjan ranks first in size, with an area of 86,000 square kilometers and second in population, which is 2,578,400. Armenia is the smallest of the three republics, with an area of 31,000 square kilometers and a population of 1,013,800. Georgia contains the Abkhasian S.S.R., Adjaristan Autonomous republic and South Ossetian autonomous area; and Azerbaidjan contains the Nakhichevan autonomous republic and Mt. Karabakh autonomous area.

More than fifty nationalities live in Transcaucasia in a land of extreme beauty and rich natural resources. The Caucasus mountains stretch from the northwestern part of Georgia to the eastern part of Azerbaidjan. They contain some of the highest peaks in Europe, including Mt. Elbruz, which is 18,345 feet high, and twenty-two peaks, all of which exceed 13,000 feet. The Caspian Sea washes the eastern shore of Azerbaidjan and the Black Sea the western shore of Georgia. The Kura and Araxes are the two largest rivers. The climate is very varied, ranging from sub-tropical in western Georgia to extreme dryness in the Armenian highlands and perpetual snow on the towering mountain tops.

Waves of peoples flowed from Asia for over a thousand years through the present territory of Transcaucasia. Even before Alexander the Great conquered Georgia in 323 B. C. the Greeks wrote of the Caucasus as the home of the Golden Fleece and it was there also that the Greek poets chained Prometheus to a mountain top. Centuries later in 7 B. C. the Scythians invaded eastern Transcaucasia and within a few years' time Georgia and Armenia fell under the rule of Rome and then of the Eastern Empire. The Khazars, the Huns and Varangians swept through Georgia and in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries the Turks and Mongols raged over the land which already was the refuge of so many different peoples. The Georgians comprise 31 per cent of the population of Transcaucasia, the Turks 29 per cent, Armenians 23 per cent, and Russians 6 per cent. The remaining 11 per cent includes Greeks, Abkhasians, Adjarians, Aisors or Assyrians, Kurds, Ossetians, Talyshes, Tats, mountain Jews and others.

Transcaucasia was the scene of unceasing struggles even after its conquest by the Russians in the first half of the nineteenth century. The Tsarist government found it easier to rule a disunited, quarrelling, religiously fanatic population. They promoted this policy by making the native beys and mullahs Tsarist officials and by an almost complete lack of any education for others than the children of these officials. Racial animosities continued through the revolution of 1917, the short rule of the Mussavatisti (national Turkish bourgeois party) in Azerbaidjan, of the Dashnaks in Armenia and the Mensheviks in Georgia, until 1922, adding turmoil and bloodshed to already exhausted and economically backward countries.

For hundreds of centuries the rich natural resources of Transcaucasia were barely tapped. Prior to the introduction of the Soviet government oil production was the chief industry and agricultural production composed 80 per cent of the national economy. Today the percentages are reversed and industrial production is 71 per cent and agricultural 29 per cent of the national economy. Industrial production was ten times greater in 1931 than in 1920, having a value of 1,270,400,000 rubles last year. Oil is the chief industry and occupied headlines not only in the Soviet, but in the European and American press when the Five-Year Plan for oil was fulfilled in two and a half years by the Azneft (Azerbaidjan Oil Trust). Baku, the capital of Azerbaidjan, is the city of "black gold," and together with Tiflis, the capital both of Transcaucasia and of Georgia, contains more than half the urban population of the Federation. The oil reserves are estimated at 1475 million tons. Wide mechanization of the oil fields has been introduced and the most modern technique applied to increase production.

The development of coal mining is proceeding at full speed, and copper and zinc mines are also being exploited. The Chiaturi manganese deposits in Georgia are the most important in the world and the largest in the Soviet Union. A new metallurgical plant will be built in Georgia in 1933 to provide piping and equipment for the oil and other industries. Its fuel will be supplied by the coal mines of Tkvarchely which contain a deposit of 110,000,000 tons.

The production of building materials, such as granite, pumice and tuff is being hastened. A cement plant was recently completed in Georgia with an annual capacity of one and a half million barrels. Its output in 1931 was 1,144,500 buckets.

Always known for its handicraft work in weaving—Caucasian shawls are famous for their vivid

colors and texture — Transcaucasia is now developing the textile and silk industries. Two textile mills of 100,000 spindles each were recently completed in Gandja, one of the chief cities of Azerbaidjan, and in Leninakhan in Armenia. Sericulture is being developed intensively to increase silk production.

Power resources are being intensively developed. Oil, coal, gas and water power are each playing a part in the industrial program. Plans are now under discussion for the use of peat also as a source of power. The natural gasses are found largely in the region of Baku and the Baku Soviet has worked out a plan to utilize them in meeting the city's power needs by the end of 1934. The water power resources are the most important. A conservative estimate of the potential water power of Transcaucasia puts the figure at three million kilowatts with a production capacity of 40 billion kilowatts hours per year. This is all the more significant in that large districts of Transcaucasia require irrigation for the successful carrying on of agriculture.

The capacity of pre-war power stations in Transcaucasia was 75,000 kilowatts. In the nine years of Soviet government this figure was tripled, reaching 216,000 kilowatts in 1931, with a production of 650 million kilowatt hours as compared with 529 million in 1930. Since 1926 some fourteen new power stations have been built or are now under construction in the three republics. Of these the largest are the hydroelectric stations of Khram, with 70,000 kilowatt power, Rion with 48,000 kilowatt power and the Zemo-Avchely or Zagez as it is called in abbreviated form, with 37,500 kilowatt power. These three are in Georgia. A powerful station of 140,000 kilowatt power is being built in Gandja in Azerbaidjan, which is a textile, chemical and mining center and Armenia includes the Dzoragez and Kanakir hydroelectric stations.

The net of electrification centers which is feeding the growing industries of Transcaucasia is an indispensable factor in the intensive agricultural development under way. Scarcely any part of the Soviet Union has such varied crops and branches of agriculture in a territory corresponding to the 187,200 square kilometers covered by Transcaucasia. The shores of the Black Sea provide excellent conditions for the cultivation of sub-tropical plants such as tea and citrus fruits, for tobacco and medicinal drugs. In Azerbaidjan and Armenia cotton fields stretch for miles on end and vineyards and fruit-orchards dot the landscape. Cattle-breeding and dairying which were among the most backward branches, are being modernized.

The Five-Year Plan is strenuously pulling Transcaucasia from its primitive agricultural state into socialized forms. A number of large cotton, tobacco, tea, sugar, fruit and cattle sovhozes have been formed and new crops such as rubber cultivated. The sown area in state farms jumped from 2,900 hectares in 1927 to 98,000 hectares in 1931, and the plan for 1932 calls for 300,000 hectares. The area sown to cotton in sovhozes in 1931 was 22,000 hectares, and for 1932 is intended to be 62,000; to tea, 9,600 hectares in 1931 and 16,500 is planned for 1932 as compared with 1,900 in 1927. In 1929 there were fifty grain sovhozes, in 1931, 172 with a sown area of 41,000 hectares and in 1932 the plan calls for 258 sovhozes with a sown area of 104,300 hectares.

The latest figure for collectivization lists 43 per cent of all peasant households in the ranks of the collectives and more than 60 per cent of the cotton and 64 per cent of the tea regions collectivized. In 1930 there were 292,000 hectares, in 1931, 783,000 hectares of sown area in the collective sector and this figure is expected to reach 1,450,000 hectares in 1932. The collectivized area sown to cotton in 1931 was 150,000 hectares as against 41,000 in 1930; to tea, 12,500 hectares in 1931 and 4,900 in 1930; to tobacco, 9,800 hectares for 1931 and 3,200 for 1930. Significant successes have also been achieved in the improved breeding and socialization of stock-breeding.

In the ten years since the Soviet power was established in Transcaucasia agricultural equipment has passed from the lowest stage of the handmade plow to the technical complexity of the tractor. The collectivized sector was served in 1930 by 30 machine and tractor stations which, in 1931, supplied 4,200 tractors. The plan provides for 20 new stations and 1,800 new tractors this year, to serve 1,500,000 hectares or 52 per cent of the entire sown area. In 1931 nearly four million rubles were spent for rural electrification. Grain elevators, sugar, vegetable-oil, canning and dairy plants are being constructed. Capital investment in such plants was 6,300,000 rubles in 1930, 15,500,000 rubles in 1931 and according to the plan, will be 43,000,000 rubles in 1932.

The agricultural achievements of Transcaucasia may be seen in the growth of the sown area from 1,990,000 hectares in 1927 to 2,383,000 hectares in 1931 and 2,967,000 hectares as planned for 1932. Irrigated land covered 866,500 hectares in 1916 and 1,026,500 hectares in 1931.

Schools for the mass of the people were almost as much a rarity in Transcaucasia prior to the revolution as machine and tractor or hydroelectric stations. Illiteracy was widely prevalent. There were no universities and technical institutions were limited to two or three agricultural schools. Universal compulsory education was introduced in 1930 and by 1931 there were 700,000 children of school age in educational institutions. Last year 15 million rubles was assigned for the construction of primary and secondary schools.

Georgia and Armenia will have complete universal compulsory education at the end of this year and Azerbaidjan in 1933. Instruction in the schools among the national minorities is carried on in their own language. The adoption of the new Turkish alphabet in Azerbaidjan has led to an intensive cultural revolution and numerous nationalities which previously never had an alphabet are now writing and reading in their own.

There are now 22 universities, 21 workers' faculties, engineering, agricultural and pedagogical technicums, dozens of libraries and hundreds of village reading rooms, liquidation of illiteracy points for adults, drama, literary and art circles, radio points and even traveling moving picture outfits. Georgia has a number of scientific institutions and museums, including the Geophysical Laboratory, the Historical-Ethnographic Museum, the Biological Station in Batum, the Geographical Association and the Institute of Caucasian Languages.

Newspapers and books were few and far between in Tsarist times. They were printed almost wholly in Russian. There were six newspapers in Transcaucasia prior to the revolution, with a circulation of 80,000. At the beginning of 1932, 97 newspapers were published in 14 languages, with a circulation of 1,200,000. The majority of newspapers appear in the Georgian, Turkish, and Armenian languages. The growth of the press among the nationalities is an achievement of which the Soviet government is particularly proud since many of them, such as the Abkhasians and Ossetians, did not have an alphabet before the revolution or under the Mensheviks. In a number of districts newspapers are published simultaneously in several languages, as for example in Armenian, Turkish and Georgian, in Russian, Georgian and Ossetian, and in Turkish and mountain Hebrew.

In pre-revolutionary days there was one publishing house in all of Transcaucasia. In 1931 there were 20 which issued 3,399 different titles and published 16,759,000 books. Particular attention is given to the publication of text-books, technical and agricultural literature and the classics of Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaidjan, whose literature has an age-old history. A considerable amount of modern literature has also been published in Georgia. Plans are now under way to issue a Soviet encyclopedia in Georgian, Armenian and Turkish.

With all the hammering and drilling now resounding from the Black Sea to the Caspian Sea the arts, literary, dramatic, graphic and musical, have entered a new phase. Young artists are finding inspiration in the reconstruction of their country and their work has drawn much favorable attention. At the same time study of Georgia's ancient art is being carefully pursued. A number of the younger artists have made brilliant names for themselves in the field of scenic design and stage settings. The Georgian and Armenian theaters show a high level of acting, directing and staging and were received with loud praise in Moscow when they participated in the Theatrical Olympiad held there two years ago.

Schools, books, newspapers, lectures, the radio and theater are firing a tremendous barrage at the ignorance, fanaticism and passivity inherited from years of Tsarist misrule and centuries of oppression by Mohammedan beys and mullahs. Where Asia meets Europe in Transcaucasia women were held of little worth and treated accordingly. The educational campaign under the Soviet government has been systematically directed toward freeing the women from the *parandjah* (veil) and the slavery it implied. Laws were entered in the statute books of Georgia three years ago making the kidnapping of a woman for purpose of marriage, a common native custom, punishable by a maximum imprisonment of five years.

Transcaucasia's heritage of backwardness in hygiene and public health is being vigorously combatted by the government authorities. Hospitals, ambulatoria, clinics and dispensaries have been established and the number of visits which the population pays to doctors is increasing yearly. Special attention is given to the care of mothers and children. In 1931 there were nine children's prophylactic ambulatoria, four mothers' and infants' homes and hundreds of maternity beds both in urban and village hospitals. Georgia is famous for its health resorts and mineral springs. Former palaces of the nobility have been turned into sanatoria and new sanatoria built to meet the applications from every part of the Soviet Union.

The figures indexing Transcaucasia's progress which look so prosaic, are living realities to the peoples participating in this forward march. They mean the awakening of century-old subdued nationalities to a socialized life.

Litvinov on American Proposal

Speech of Mr. M. M. Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, at the meeting of the General Commission of the Disarmament Conference at Geneva, June 22, at which President Hoover's proposal for arms reduction was presented.

I am convinced that many delegates besides myself are extremely obliged to our chairman for the opportunity of once again establishing official contact with one another, even though this be so unexpectedly and indeed dramatically.

I am sure we are all glad to be reminded that we are here on the banks of the lake of Geneva not as tourists, and not as curious persons, snatching rumours from the air of conversations between representatives of a few governments with regard to disarmament. We are all very pleased, I am certain, to be reminded that we ourselves are members of this Disarmament Conference.

I will take the liberty of using this occasion to make some general observations about the state of affairs at this Conference. There is no doubt whatsoever that all delegations recognize the state of affairs to be extremely unsatisfactory albeit this recognition has not yet found formal and active expression.

After all, the fifth month of the Conference is nearly over, yet we cannot register even the slightest progress or the most insignificant of results. At the first sessions of the Conference, and of its General Commission, there were revealed substantial differences between the delegations, and those differences would still seem to be maintained in full force. At all events, officially we know nothing of any alleviation of those differences.

I wish to emphasize that these are not differences between two or three States, whose joint efforts would amply suffice to promote a general advance in the work of the Conference. The differences exist between nearly all delegations.

I will try to make this point clearer. When any State objects to this or that form of disarmament, it finds itself at variance with all those States which agree to that particular form of disarmament. When a new proposal arises for some form of disarmament, and this proposal is not accepted by all delegations, one can speak of differences between the author of the particular proposal concerned and the other delegations, and not any particular States selected at random.

When I speak of the lack of results, I am far from ignoring the vast labors in recent months of the so-called technical commissions. Eloquent evidence of their work is afforded by those 500 documents circulated among the delegations, constituting a monumental pile which has attained, so I am told, the height of 75 centimeters.

The question is, however, whether these labors bear any relation to the Conference, and whether they will be made use of by the Conference. The commissions, for example, occupied themselves with the problem of determining aggressive types of armament—when as yet there is no general decision, acceptable to all the delegations, unconditionally to renounce any aggressive type of armament.

The commissions were concerned with the question of internationalizing aviation, when there is no general agreement as to such internationalization, and when, on the contrary, objections to it have been very sharply expressed.

I shall not multiply these examples. It is sufficient to say that the labors of the Commissions were entirely academic in character. The members of the commissions were well aware of this. They could not shake off the ever present doubt as to whether all their work was not in vain. Surely it is clear that this was bound to affect the tempo and character of their work, as well as the submission of particular documents, information, etc., to the commissions by the various States.

But it is not only on the questions discussed in the commissions that there are no decisions of principle by the Conference. There is still no decision on the main and cardinal question facing the Conference. Summoned after the most protracted preparations, lasting almost ten years, the Disarmament Conference has no reply in the fifth month of its existence to the question: are all the States represented here agreeable to any disarmament, or any reduction of armament, at all? And this is the reason for the abnormal position which has been reached.

I have in mind when I say this the direct material reduction of armaments, and not measures of an economic character, such, for example, as the reduction of budgets, which may result not so much from a conference as rather from the economic and financial situation of individual countries, or of all countries.

Of course, when other results are lacking, the reduction of military budgets may be regarded in some circles as a success of the Conference. But the peoples of the State which I represent, as indeed the peoples of the whole world, will be interested not in alleged successes of the Conference, but in genuine successes of disarmament. There is ground for fear that a situation may be created in which the conceptions of the success

of the Conference and the success of disarmament will not coincide.

I have thought it necessary to make these observations in the hope that my remarks will serve as a certain stimulus for reviving and redirecting the work of the Conference, along new lines and by new methods. But even if my hope proves unjustified, I shall be satisfied that by my declaration, at all events, I shall remove any responsibility from the Soviet delegation for an absolutely unsatisfactory state of affairs.

The Soviet delegation, like every other, must give an account of itself to the peoples who sent it here. We cannot put them off for five months with brief reports to the effect that all is quiet on the Geneva front. We also cannot tell them that, although we ourselves are doing nothing at Geneva, the representatives of a few States are thinking and working for us, and that we are awaiting their decisions. If we do that, the peoples, both great and small, may regard this as disrespectful, not only to their representatives, but to themselves.

The Soviet delegation is a part of the Conference, it takes part in all its commissions and in the Bureau, and this may lead to wrong conclusions as to a certain share of responsibility of the Soviet delegation for the barrenness of the work so far. In reality, the Soviet delegation cannot bear any of this responsibility, because not one of its main proposals has been accepted by the Conference, not one of the questions which it put forward is being discussed and investigated, and none of the methods which it recommended has been adopted.

The Soviet delegation has declared, and declares today, that the State which it represents agrees to complete disarmament, to partial disarmament, to quantitative and qualitative disarmament: and that it is prepared to go as far in this direction as the agreement of other States will permit. Only when all the other States publicly make the same, or even similar, declarations at this Conference itself, will it be possible to say that the work of the Conference has really begun.

I consider that the time has come, here and now, to make that beginning.

I welcome the proposals which have just been made by the American delegation the more because to some extent they proceed along the same lines, though not so far, as the Soviet proposals which were made here and were not supported. I welcome these proposals because they include some of the important principles which the Soviet delegation put forward in the Preparatory Commission and here at the Conference—namely, the principle of the objective method of proportional reduction while maintaining relativity as between the various States, attempts to infringe which might render the work of the Conference completely fruitless.

The American proposals, however, include points which distinguished them from the Soviet proposals, and which of course must become the subject of open discussion. I shall not touch upon these details now, and shall return to them at the proper time, when the discussion is opened. For my part, I should propose that this discussion be not too long postponed, so that the delegations may as soon as possible express at least their attitude in principle to the proposals which we have just heard, and that in this way at least we may make a beginning of the Conference.

HEJAZ DELEGATION VISITS MOSCOW

On May 29 a delegation from the independent Arabian state known as the Kingdom of Hejaz and of Nejd, arrived in Moscow on a visit to further the friendly relations between the people of Arabia and of the U.S.S.R. The delegation, headed by Emir Feisal, the son of King Ibn Saud and Foreign Minister of Hejaz, was met at the station by officials of the Narkomindel and spent several days in Moscow during which they were received by Molotov, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars and other Soviet officials, and visited Soviet institutions.

Official relations were first established between the Soviet Union and Hejaz in 1924, with King Husein. When Husein abdicated in 1926 and Ibn Saud became king, relations were continued, and the Soviet Union recognized the transfer of Hejaz from a sultanate to a kingdom in 1927. Trade relations have developed steadily between the two countries.

SOVIET-ESTHONIAN CONCILIATION CONVENTION

On June 16 in the Narkomindel a conciliation convention was signed between the U.S.S.R. and Esthonia. This convention was provided for in Article 4 of the Soviet-Esthonian pact on non-aggression and the peaceful solution of conflicts concluded on May 4 of the present year. This convention will enter into effect simultaneously with the pact, after its ratification.

RATIFICATION OF TURKISH-SOVIET PROTOCOL

On June 19 the Turkish Parliament ratified the Turkish-Soviet protocol of October 30, 1931, on prolonging the convention of friendship and neutrality signed on December 17, 1925, with its supplements, and also prolonging the maritime protocol of March 7, 1931.

CHANGES IN SOVIET FOREIGN SERVICE

Mr. F. F. Kilevitz has been appointed Trade Representative of the U.S.S.R. in Czechoslovakia.

Mr. L. L. Nepomniashy has been appointed Trade Representative of the U.S.S.R. in Denmark to replace Mr. A. I. Belakovsky.

Four New Oil Fields Discovered

RECENT discoveries of new oil fields in the Soviet Union have revealed that Soviet oil reserves have been greatly underestimated in the past. The discovery of three rich new oil fields in the Ural region was announced at a meeting of the Academy of Sciences at Sverdlovsk on June 11, and the discovery of a fourth large field was announced in the press a few days later.

The new fields are at Sterlitamak, Bashkiria, in the Emba River district, in the Ukhtinsk district, Northern Urals, and at Cherdyn, north of Sverdlovsk.

The Bashkiria deposits are estimated at hundreds of millions of tons and the oil is of a very high quality.

Hitherto it was thought that there was oil only in the southern part of the Emba River section, but large reserves have now been found in the northern part as well, bringing the total Emba River oil reserves to an estimated total of from 400,000,000 to 500,000,000 tons. The newly discovered fields place the Emba region among the foremost oil districts of the world. Over 200 outlets have already been registered. Plans are under way for the widespread development of these fields, and production will be commenced in 1933. Oil pipe lines to carry the oil eastward and an oil refinery are already being constructed, and a new railroad between Ufa and Sterlitamak is being constructed.

The third new district is in Ukhtinsk rayon in the Northern Region. The reserves of this district have not yet been estimated, but are thought to be very extensive.

The Cherdyn fields, north of Sverdlovsk, are on practically the same meridian as the Sterlitamak and Emba fields and the oil is of identical quality, confirming the view that the oil in the Urals is located not in scattered sections, but derives from a central source. The whole western slope of the Urals from the Caspian to the Arctic Sea shows signs of oil and extensive prospecting will be undertaken throughout this region.

These new oil fields are strategically located in a district where huge new industries are being developed. The Urals are rich in minerals of all kinds, and are becoming an important center for metallurgy and machine building. The new fields will save the expense of transporting Baku and Grozny oil to the east and release the product of those fields for export.

The Oil Geological Institute began a systematic program of prospecting for oil in 1930 and since then has located many new fields in the old districts as well as in entirely new sections. Many other sections of the U.S.S.R. which have not been thoroughly explored show signs of oil and it is expected that further rich reserves will be located.

Book Notes

"THIS IS RUSSIA," by George Earle Raiguel and William Kistler Huff. The Penn Publishing Company, Philadelphia, 1932. $5.

In their preface Messrs. Raiguel and Huff explain that they were familiar with the Russia of the Tsars, that they were in Siberia during the Kolchak adventure and that they visited the Soviet Union in 1923 and again in 1931.

The authors have attempted a sort of glorified guide book, posing present problems and achievements against "the background of political struggle and the developed culture as represented by Russian art, literature and music." While the formula seems a bit complicated, the objective is fairly well achieved. The several chapters on Leningrad and Moscow should be of value to the intelligent tourist. Those on the arts are interesting, perhaps to a narrower public. The book is urban in tone and makes no attempt at an appraisal of the vast Soviet hinterland. Some of the criticisms on present-day conditions as they affect the stranger are pretty severe, but the writing carries an impression of sincerity. For tourists who want suggestions beyond those of the ordinary guide book the volume is well worth while.

The book contains pictorial maps of Leningrad and Moscow and many photographic illustrations, and it is well indexed.

"THE DECISIVE YEAR," by Ellery Walter. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1932. $3.00.

Mr. Walter's publishers advertise him in their blurb as "the only foreign newspaper man permitted to visit Siberia unescorted by an official interpreter." Since we have met several American newspaper men who have rambled about Siberia with no interpreter whatever, the blurb seemed a bit odd. However from the number of gross errors of fact in the book one can readily believe that Mr. Walter dispensed with all interpretation, official or otherwise.

For example, on a single page, page 237, the author makes the following misstatements:

1. "Very little of it (Soviet oil production) is left for home consumption." The fact is that in 1931 production was 23,100,000 metric tons and exports were 5,200,000 metric tons.

2. "Today Italy, Greece, France, Spain and

India are the main outlets for Russian oil." In fact the main outlets are, in the order named, England, Italy, France, Germany, Denmark. England, the principal market for Soviet oil, which for the past few years has taken 20 per cent of the exports, is not even mentioned by Mr. Walter. Greece, which he lists second, is merely a minor customer generally listed among "other countries."

3. ". . . tankers of Russian oil have found their way into Detroit." In fact no Soviet oil has been shipped to Detroit.

This sort of reporting hardly needs comment.

"MACHINES AND MEN IN RUSSIA," by Louis Fischer. With photographs by Margaret Bourke-White. Harrison Smith, New York. $2.50.

Mr. Fischer's new book is both descriptive and analytic. It is divided into two sections, the first devoted to the rise of the machine in the Soviet Union, with colorful first-hand descriptions of a number of the new giant enterprises scattered over the country; the second part given over to equally colorful glimpses of day-to-day life in rapid transition, mostly in remote parts of the Union, along with chapters on some of the Soviet leaders. The book thus covers a wide range. There is much background material scattered throughout the volume. Mr. Fischer's intimacy with life in the Soviet Union, his knowledge of Soviet purposes and their application and his sense of historical perspective contribute to make his book valuable and entertaining.

"WHAT TIME IS IT?" and "BLACK ON WHITE," by M. Ilin. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia and London, 1932. $1.50 each.

These are two children's books by the author of "New Russia's Primer," M. Ilin, a gifted young Russian engineer who is the most popular writer for young people on the Soviet Union. "What Time Is It?" is a delightful and illuminating account of all the ways man has used to tell time through the ages. "Black on White," the story of books, traces the development of modern alphabets out of the picture writing of the ancients and describes the many ways man has used to communicate his thoughts.

These stories are told with such charm and skill and are full of so much information and humor that they will delight all ages. They are excellent examples of the type of books for young people that are being made in the Soviet Union—stories about real life and the real world, so written that they are linked directly to the child's own experiences. Both books have the original Russian illustrations by N. Lapshin.

LITERARY EXHIBITS

An exhibit of the literary works of the members of the All-Russian Union of Soviet writers has recently opened at the Dom Gertzena in Moscow.

In the field of *belles lettres* the works of Leonid Leonov, Vsevolod Ivanov, Pavlenko, Lavrenev, Boris Pilniak and other Soviet writers are well represented. There is an interesting exhibit of the foreign translations of books by Vladimir Lidin which have appeared in the German, French, English, Italian, Japanese and Jewish languages. Works of Sayanov, Kamensky and Vera Inber translated into a number of foreign languages were also exhibited.

In the dramatic section places of importance are held by dramatic works of U. Nikitin, author of "The Firing Line," Kitrenev, author of "Yasnaya Log" and "Liubov Yarovaya," and Yury Oleshi, author of "Spissok Blagodeyanie."

Of special interest is the map showing the trips made by writers during the past two years to study various regions, under the auspices of the regional exploration section of the Union of Soviet authors. During this period Sakhalin, Novaya Zemlya, the Far Eastern Region, Lake Issyk-Kyl, North Kolsky peninsula and other little known parts of the Soviet Union were visited and written about.

Altogether during 1930-31 the members of the Union produced 644 different titles.

NEW PAVLOV INSTITUTE NEARS COMPLETION

Construction work has been completed on the "Pavlov Biological Station," the new scientific institution established especially for the work of Professor Pavlov. The chemical, pathological-anatomical and bacteriological laboratories are being equipped with the most perfected devices modern technique has to offer to provide full scope to Professor Pavlov's genius.

NEXT SOVIET CENSUS IN 1934

The Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. has decided that a general census of the population of the country shall be started in December, 1933, and completed in the course of 1934. The Central Administration of Economic Accounting has been instructed to work out the necessary plans.

A Correction

On page 120 of the May issue it was erroneously stated that the city of Stalingrad had been made the center of the Nijni-Novgorod region in place of Saratov. Instead of Nijni-Novgorod region, read Lower Volga region.

Recent Magazine Articles on the Soviet Union

A list of the more important articles which have appeared since the April issue of the SOVIET UNION REVIEW.

Agriculture

"Russian Agricultural Journals and Russian Agricultural Bibliography." The Agricultural Index, March, 1932.
Some notes on source material on Soviet agriculture.

"The Sheep Industry in Russia," by J. W. Pincus. The National Wool Grower, March, 1932.

"Soviet Scientific Institutions Devoted to Seeds and Plants," by J. W. Pincus. Seed World, April 1, 1932.

"Pioneers Among the Soviets," by Harry F. Ward. The Nation, June 22, 1932.
A description of the agricultural communes as " . . . an admirable example of that combination of personal and small group initiative with governmental direction and expansion which is characteristic of Soviet administration."

American Relations

Special Russian Issue of The Nation. May 18, 1932.
Articles on trade and diplomatic relations.

"Catastrophe in Siberia," by Jonathan Mitchell. The New Republic, June 8, 1932.
Some aspects of the Far Eastern situation.

Cultural Problems

"The Soviet Idea in Literature,' by John Cournos. Current History, April, 1932.
An interesting but somewhat too rigid interpretation.

"Soviet Recognition of the Intellectual," by Louis Fischer. Current History, May, 1932.
Improved conditions for intellectuals described.

"Cultural Recognition of Russia," by Joseph Barnes. The Nation, May 18, 1932.
"With every tourist who goes to Russia our cultural recognition of the new regime becomes more complete."

"The Artist in Soviet Russia," by Louis Lozowick. The Nation, July 13, 1932.
"In Soviet Russia the starving artist has gone out of fashion . . . and his place has been taken by . . . the public agent actively participating in the social life of which he forms an integral part."

Economic Problems

"Soviet Economy in a New Phase," by Bruce Hopper. Foreign Affairs, April, 1932.
A careful student of the Soviet situation evaluates the present period as one in which attention is turned from the machine to the human beings who operate it.

"Prerequisites and Aims of Soviet Planning," by Peter A. Bogdanov. The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. July, 1932.
" . . . the aim of the Soviet system in coordinating society's activities on a planned basis is to advance the welfare of the vast masses of its individual members."

Disarmament

"Russia and Disarmament," Unity, April 25, 1932.
I. "Disarmament—An Address by Mr. Litvinov." (Address at luncheon given by American Committee and the International Club at Geneva.)
II. "The Russian Disarmament Proposals—Facing Realities," by Wilfred Wellock.

Nationalities

"A Jewish Home in Russia," by William Zukerman. The Nation, May 11, 1932.
Progress toward a Jewish Republic in Biro-Bidjan on the basis of planned colonization by Jews from within and without the Soviet Union.

"The Jews and the Five-Year Plan," by Louis Fischer. The Nation, May 25, 1932.
New avenues for urban employment and colonization.

"At the Gates of Hindustan," by Joshua Kunitz. The New Republic, June 29, 1932.
Basic principles and implications of communism as applied to the newest of the constituent republics—Tadjikistan.

Oil

"Soviet Export Head Defines Position." World Petroleum, April, 1932.
Riabovol explains that the Soviet expansion program is inspired by industrial requirements.

"They Have Had to Count Russia in on the World Oil Market." Business Week, May 18, 1932.
A discussion of the place of the U.S.S.R. in the world oil situation in connection with the International Oil Conference.

"Oil Conference Failure Shows Soviets' Bargaining Advantage." The Business Week, June 10, 1932.
Oil conference cited as example of need for Soviet cooperation in world economic matters.

Trade

"Russia's Challenge in Wheat," by Richard J. Mayer. Barron's, April 11, 1932.
The growing domestic consumption of wheat as an important factor in keeping Soviet exports down.

"Soviets' Second Plan Promises Orders Tempting to Americans." The Business Week, April 27, 1932.

"Russia Could Help Us," by Mauritz A. Hallgren. The Nation, May 18, 1932.
A plea for the development of trade and diplomatic relations. " . . . Russia is the only active market of importance to be found in the world today."

"At Least Russia's Trade Is Fast Winning Recognition." The Business Week, June 1, 1932.
Developments directing American attention to the weight of Soviet influence on world business.

"Russia's Credit Problem," by Sir George Paish. The Living Age, July, 1932.
The British economist finds the economic position of the Soviet Union strengthened by the Five-Year Plan and urges agreements on debts and credits.

"Russia Looks Like a Good Risk to Germany's Eager Exporters." The Business Week, July 6, 1932.
Concerning the new contract between Germany and Moscow for $75,000,000 of materials from German plants.

Travelers' Impressions

"Impressions from a Russian Notebook," by Julian S. Huxley. The Yale Review. Spring, 1932.

"The Volga," by Waldo Frank. Harper's Magazine, June, 1932.

"Russian Pilgrimage," by Waldo Frank. The New Republic, July 6, 1932.
1. "Faces in Leningrad." The first of a series of sketches—" . . . every kind of face, as in all the world, except the face of money."

Various

"What It Means To You," by Maurice Hindus. The American Magazine, March, 1932.
Things about the Soviet Union of special interest to Americans.

"Socialist Towns: A New Development of Housing Policy in the U.S.S.R.," by G. Mequet. International Labour Review, May, 1932.
Historical survey, new conditions, conflicting tendencies, measures to bring order into operations and recently completed schemes.

"The Significance of Dictatorship," by Frankwood E. Williams, M. D. Survey Graphic, May, 1932.
Russia and Italy through the eyes of an American psychiatrist; with special reference to different attitudes toward women and toward education.

"Toys Cast in the Bolshevik Mold," by Rose Lee. New York Times Magazine, May 29, 1932.
About the new toys of the Soviet Union designed to make children feel that they are a part of the new world.

"Magnitogorsk: Epic of Soviet Labor," by Miles M. Sherover. Current History, July, 1932.
The story of the biggest construction job in the U.S.S.R. excellently told by an American engineer.

"Medical and Other Conditions in Soviet Russia," by Lewellys F. Barker, M. D. The Scientific Monthly, July, 1932.
The Emeritus Professor of Medicine of Johns Hopkins University discusses nationalization of medicine, medical education and disease prevention.

"What Is Soviet Russia?" by Louis Fischer. The Nation, July 6, 1932.
A few fallacies about the Soviet Union spiked.

"Missionaries of American Technique in Russia," by William Henry Chamberlin. Asia, July-August, 1932.
The place of the American specialist and engineer in the development of the Five-Year Plan.

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—*from "U.S.S.R. in Construction"*

"Shock troop" harvest workers on a collective farm

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Economic Geography of the USSR

Notes on the conference of Gosplan on the Distribution of Productive Forces held in Moscow at the end of April, 1932, translated from an article by Eugene Mar and A. Grinev in "Nashi Dostizhenia" for May, 1932, and supplemented by newspaper reports of the conference.

A HUGE MAP of Russia hangs before the conference, but on that variegated map it is difficult to discover the points to which the speakers addressing the All-Union conference on the distribution of productive forces are referring. The speakers mention new cities which do not show on the map and canals which are nowhere indicated.

Geography has always lagged behind life. But such a yawning gap as there is now between geography and life has never before existed. The old geography books, through whose pages generations of school children have journeyed, are dying on the dusty shelves of the second hand book shops. But many absurdities from the old geography, from the economic geography of imperialist Russia, remain.

The producers of cotton—the Central Asian peasants, wear clothing woven from the very cotton they produce—but woven in Ivanovo-Voznesensk, a thousand miles from Central Asia. Empty canning tins come to our Far Eeastern seacoast from Odessa—because that region has no metallurgical industry of its own.

That is the result of the predatory policy of the Russian imperialists, who maintained our border regions in the condition of colonies. Such a distribution of productive forces was possible only under the conditions of economic anarchy of old Russia.

The task of the Soviet government is to distribute the productive forces of the country equally, to develop the regions of the minor nationalities and the backward sections, and to bring industry, in accordance with Lenin's idea, near to the sources of raw material and wherever possible near the point of consumption. The problem of equal distribution of productive forces will be at the basis of the second *piatiletka* (five-year plan).

The all-union conference on this problem made the first outlines of such a distribution. The conference heard sixty-seven reports. Distinguished academicians of world-wide renown took part in its deliberations. Rich material for the new economic geography of the Union was gathered, on the basis of which the working plans for the second *piatiletka* will be developed.

The conference, which marked a historic step in planning, was held under the auspices of Gosplan and gathered together all the scientific forces of the country. The planning bodies of every separate republic and region were represented, the Academy of Sciences, scientific insti-

tutes, the Lenin Agricultural Academy, the Geological Society and the various people's commissariats. The main conference had been preceeded by conferences on the different sections of the country and so had to deal not merely with raw material for discussion but with well-considered plans.

Distribution of Productive Forces in Second Piatiletka

The first task of the conference was to determine as accurately as possible the natural resources at the disposal of the U.S.S.R. Reports were presented on the economic geography of all the main regions and the conference took inventory of the riches on the surface of Soviet territory, those between the earth, and the potential power of its colossal water resources—its rivers, lakes and seas.

The next problem was a consideration of the technical policy whereby these natural forces would be transformed into productive forces. In the case of the first five-year plan it was necessary to stress the development of projects which would give the quickest results. While several big industrial *combinats* have been started the emphasis has been on single large enterprises. In the second *piatiletka* a much more fully coordinated program will be worked out, fitting into the whole scheme of reorganizing the country on a socialist basis and raising the well-being of the workers two or three times above the present level. In developing the districts where great stores of raw materials are to be found, the plan will be based not on separate units of production, but on the whole group of enterprises working up and manufacturing the basic products and the by-products of the region, with a single system of auxiliary enterprises, all served by a central power station, a single system of transport, and a single system of food supply and social and cultural institutions.

In the case of the Ural-Kuznetsky *combinat,* where the first blast furnaces are already in operation, two large industrial regions are combined into a single economic and technical complex. The great reserves of coal in Kuznetsk are sent to fire the furnaces where the iron ore from Magnitogorsk is being smelted, and the same trains carry back ore for the Kuznetsk furnaces. In the second five-year plan this *combinat* will be developed into the chief base for supplying the whole Soviet Union with high quality of metal and there will be added to it machine construction plants, mining equipment factories, an extensive chemical and lumber industry. Agriculture will be developed close to the industrial settlements, and light industries to work up the products of agriculture for local needs will be a part of the scheme.

The development of new industrial centers throughout the Union will mean a more equalized distribution of the population. Further industrial projects have already been prohibited in such crowded centers as Leningrad and Moscow, and the new centers will not be permitted to become unwieldy. The second *piatiletka* will go farther along the line of eliminating the differences between town and country. Industry will go out into the agricultural districts and agriculture will approach industry through greater mechanization. Agricultural production is also to proceed on a more planned basis with greater specialization, so that crops will be grown under the best possible conditions. Technical crops for light industry will be developed and concentrated in the regions where they grow best and new factories built to work them up at the point of production.

Reserve Power

Great stress was laid on the sources of power available, since the machinery of the second five-year plan will require an immense amount of electrical power. Academician Joffe reported to the conference on the countless stores of power in the Soviet Union. In addition to the vast reserves of water power he said there were many other sources still untapped. For example, only a negligible part of the power sent forth by that general power base of the human race—the sun—is used. Even plants use only about 25 per cent of the power available to them. It is possible to encourage those plants which have a healthy appetite for the sun and therefore grow quickly. They should replace the sickly, slow-growing plants which are of little use. A heliostation for the direct use of solar-power is already in use in Central Asia. This year preliminary experiments are being made in the utilization of the sun's rays, next year experimental stations will be established and it is hoped by 1934 to proceed to the industrial use of solar power.

Academician Joffe also indicated the possibility of generating power through the artificial regulation of rainfall. If the clouds could be made to discharge their moisture in higher places—for instance, in the mountains, that would be a new source of hydraulic power. During the war thousands of kilometers of barbed wire were used for the destruction of human life. Academician Joffe believes that the same quantity of wire would be entirely sufficient, with the help of electricity, to discharge the clouds over mountains, so regulating mountain streams and increasing their power. It would also be quite possible to organize chemical attacks on glaciers, covering them, for example, with ordinary soot, in order to hasten the melting of the ice. How much power could be acquired as a result of such an attack on nature!

At Balaklava, in the Crimea, a wind-power station is being set up. Here the ingenius

hydro - accumulators make it possible for us to combat the chief defect of the wind, its irregularity. The power of the wind is used to force water to a great height. When the wind dies down the falling of the water replaces the decreased energy of the wind-power. Thus the power of the wind, which filled the sails of the first vessel will be used to turn the wheels of machinery.

To new sources of natural power must be added the power available from the difference in temperature between water and air. This difference produces an enormous quantity of heat. A cold river might be used to warm a city. There is also the question of using refrigeration to cool water or air and harnessing the extracted warmth to a motor to furnish heat. The ebb and flow of the seas and of the narrow fiords of Murmansk may also be used as a source of power. Soviet physicists are making their first experiments in releasing the energy of the atom. The possibility of eventually harnessing atmospheric electricity was also suggested by Joffe.

Soyuzphoto

Where the first polar hydroelectric station will be erected on the river Niv

But even with regard to those forms of power in the use of which skill and technical experience have already been achieved, there are entirely sufficient reserves. That was made clear at the conference. The country entered upon the first five-year plan for coal with only the Donetz Basin. Now there is also the coal of Kuznetsk, and the cheapest coal in the world at Cherembas, Karaganda. A study of the Tungus Basin shows that it is in a position to double the world stores of coal.

In pre-war Russia there were no hydroelectric stations at all. Now, after Volkhovstroy, the Dnieper station has already been completed. Next in order is Sulakstroy, in the Caucasus. The Central Committee of the party has made a decision providing for the erection of three hydroelectric stations on the upper and lower Volga of a total capacity of a million kilowatts. This decision lays the basis for a vast reconstruction of the Volga which will completely transform the whole river and its shores. The famous Volga landscape will undergo great changes. Machinery will be the chief freight of the Volga merchant fleet. The Volga region will become an important center of machine construction.

The Nizhni-Novgorod automobile giant is already operating. A carburetor plant is under construction in Samara. In Khalilov-Orsk rayon high quality steel will be produced in the second five-year plan.

As a result of our reconstruction work we shall be able to increase the depth of the Volga in the second five-year plan, to change its level. We shall regulate the rate of its flow as steam is regulated in a locomotive's furnace. Until now the Volga has been merely a gigantic waterway. But belted with powerful concrete dams it will provide enormous power for the industries of the region.

Even the vegetation on the shores of the Volga will undergo a change. Famine has shown its face more often here than any other place. Drouth has been the neighbor of this river, which has hoarded the wealth of its waters as a merchant hoards grain in his shed in famine time. In his project for the Larger Volga, Professor Chaplygin proposed the erection of nine power stations on the Volga. The Volga will be stored up in these stations, providing an immense amount of power. This project provides for the irrigation by mechanical methods of two and a half million hectares of arid land. Another project, that of the engineer Avdeyev-Anov, provides for raising the level of the river so that 40,000,000 hectares of drought-subject land will be watered by its natural flow.

Vast new oil fields were opened up last spring, and there are still great untouched stores. Over a period of thirty-seven years the northern part of the Caspian sea will be transformed into dry land. It will give up one-third of its area, where

great reserves of oil are stored under the depths of the sea. Such a change would take thousands of years by natural processes.

Even the *sukhovei* (hoŭ, dry wind), so cursed by the population of the region, will be used as a source of power to operate wind-driven motors which will pump up water for irrigation.

Angara-Yenesei Power Project

The conference gave a great deal of attention to the Angara river, in East Siberia, which has a potential power estimated to be equal to all the water-power of France and one-third of the water-power of America.

In 1885 the Tsarist Government turned over the Angara river to the shipowner A. M. Sibiriakov with full traffic privileges, his only obligation being to spend 10,000 rubles a year on river improvement. This year the Soviet government has spent 5,000,000 rubles on investigating and planning work alone for the Bolshoy Angara-Yenesei project.

The first step in its development will be the erection of a huge hydroelectric station of from 300 to 500,000 h. p. Around it will be developed mining and metallurgical industries, machine construction plants, and a mechanized lumber industry.

When the first rails of the Siberian railroad were laid, the Russian engineers had to use a map of Russia procured from—Berlin. That was thirty-seven years ago. Now we know a great deal more about the riches of Eastern Siberia.

The geologists at the conference spoke of the coal deposits, the iron strata, the rich mineral resources of the region. They spoke of the astounding cheapness of water power and fuel in Eastern Siberia. The coal here lies near the surface, which makes it very easy to mine.

The miners of the backward Cheremkhovsk basin have achieved a higher labor productivity than the miners of the leading, mechanized coal region—Donbas. This is due entirely to the natural condition of the East Siberian coal beds. Discussions are under way as to how best to invest the power capital of the Angara, so as to get a total output of 100 billion kilowatt hours.

Academician Fersman told of local stone, called "trap," millions of square kilometers of which are situated at the very sources of the electrical power of the Angara. The cheap power will make it possible to smelt these stones into various forms, solid railroad sleepers, strong material for construction purposes, fire-proof and acid-proof articles. Laboratory experiments along these lines have already been made. The region of Bolshoy Angarastroy will also become a center for the production of structural steel and light high-quality metals.

At one time iron products were sent to this region through Odessa—by way of the Suez Canal!

At the present time work is under way on projects for huge central power stations at Baikal, Angara, Selengin and Irkutsk.

No longer will peasants from other districts come bringing their own instruments to fell the trees of this region. Tools, machinery, equipment for construction, will be manufactured during the second five-year plan right on the spot, in the districts of the future central power station.

In the first years of the second five-year plan, roads will be cut through to the place where the future industrial combine will be situated. This vast work will draw into the region five or seven million persons.

Angarastroy already requires workers. It needs energetic investigators and skilled builders. The summons for workers for the second *piatiletka* has already gone out. In order to carry on the necessary surveying work in preparation for the second five-year plan tens of thousands of trained surveyors are needed.

Natural Resources of the U.S.S.R.

As to the extent of our country we know little more than that in occupies "one sixth of the surface of the globe." Seven authoritative organizations give seven different figures regarding the actual size of the Soviet Union. Still less do we know of the riches beneath the surface of our land. Academician Fersman told the conference that we have studied not more than five or ten per cent of the riches which we have.

But even the roughest figures of the geologists give us a colossal figure of the natural wealth of the U.S.S.R. They estimate roughly on a trillion tons of coal, 65 billion tons of peat, 37 billion tons of iron ore (exclusive of the as yet unestimated stores in the Kursk Magnetic Anomaly). There are hundreds of millions of tons of manganese, tens of millions of tons of copper, chromium, nickel and other non-ferrous metals.

Academician Fersman's report was based on a careful study of the geological past, on material gathered by Russian geologists for the last hundred years, and the work of the Soviet geologists during the last three years in particular.

With the old technical equipment of the geologists it was impossible to study properly the vast volume which the Soviet Union represents. The airplane is saving the precious currency of time for Soviet scientists. Carrying on its work of communications and transport it may also be of service in checking up Soviet resources, in giving an exact picture of the land and forest area through aerial photography.

Academician Fersman told the conference that the work of geologists, the scouts for the second five-year plan, must be guided by the principle that there are no such categories as "useful" and "useless" resources. Some use can be found

for practically everything. And those elements which cannot be found in nature can be synthetically produced.

In the case of the Khibinsk *combinat,* for example, developed in connection with the vast apatite deposits, production has been organized to use all local raw material without waste within a radius of seventy-five kilometers, and the work of the *combinat* is to be developed on local raw materials alone. Only sulphuric acid and lime were found to be lacking. Sulphuric acid was finally found locally. Lime is being sought on the spot. If it is not found it will be produced locally.

The ancient cradle of Russian metallurgy at one time was where the now forgotten Olonetz minerals, Pechorsk coal mines and the ore of the Tula basin are situated.

Scientists struggled for years under the old regime to have something done with the Kursk Magnetic Anomaly. Thanks to the work of Soviet scientists it has already been ascertained that this mineral basin will double the world's store of iron, postponing for a long time the danger of the exhaustion of the iron ore supplies.

In 1910 the stores of iron ore in the Urals were estimated at 282,000,000 tons. Now the estimate has grown to 1,935,000,000 tons. In the Angara region last year alone 500,000,000 were discovered. Near Kuznetsk, in the Shori district, about 300,000,000 have been found.

In a word, iron, Academician Fersman told the delegates to the conference, has been found where it was needed. There is no doubt of the fact that there is also iron in the old industrial regions. There is also iron in the North. The machine construction centers—the main consumers of steel and high-quality metals—must hunt for raw materials nearby, at the gates of their factories.

Russia was formerly thought to be very poor in copper. Now rich deposits of copper have been discovered in Kounrad and Almalyk. Kazakstan, in the second *piatiletka,* will be transformed into an important industrial center, where copper and lead will be mined. Kazakstan will become the main non-ferrous metallurgy base in the whole Soviet Union.

The titano-magnetite of the Urals is not a sudden discovery. The heels of the explorers have more than once come down on this mineral and kicked it away. Now 200,000,000 tons of titano-magnetite have been found in the Urals, from which will be made iron, titano-belila and vanadium.

Development of Central Asia

In the East, that region of oppressed Tsarist colonies, the foundation stones of industry are being laid.

". . . In saving Samarkand for ourselves, we would be able to leave Bukhara without bread and water, condemning it to famine and thirst. And that would give us the possibility, your imperial highness, of regulating the passions of a fanatical population by means of a salutary diet . . .," wrote General Perovsky, conqueror of Turkestan, to the Tsar in 1839.

On that old map, in that region where the Tsarist soldiers barred the way of grain and water with their rifle butts, a new line has been drawn—the Turksib railroad. Siberia is stretching forth her hands to Central Asian republics. The Turksib is carrying trains bearing lumber and grain from Siberia to Central Asia.

The Russian cotton planters managed so badly that it was more profitable to import American cotton from across the ocean. Cotton purchased in America cost the Muscovite merchants much less than cotton obtained in Turkestan.

The revolution changed the aspect of the old map.

Tashkent, Ferghana, Samarkand were once the religious capitals of Central Asia. Here the gloomy, monastic orders carried on their propaganda. Only religious schools existed. Now there are in Central Asia twenty-five higher educational institutions with 13,000 students.

In the first year of the second *piatiletka* complete literacy is envisaged for the population of the Central Asian republics, a region where not so long ago complete illiteracy reigned.

In Ferghana a textile factory built in the first *piatiletka* is operating. Near Tashkent it has been decided to construct a textile combinat which will produce 70,000,000 meters of goods a year.

In order to clothe the workers of the entire country it is estimated that 1,000,000 tons of cotton will be needed in the second five-year plan. Of this amount, 750,000 are to come from Central Asia. Textiles for the local population will be worked up right on the spot, next to the raw materials. And trains will bring machinery and equipment to Central Asia along that new black line on the map.

The Central Asiatic republics will have their own coal and oil. Under the surface of Central Asia there are three billion tons of coal. During the last year of the second *piatiletka* Central Asia is scheduled to pump out of the earth 3,000,000 tons of its own oil.

With the copper smelting combinat in Almalyk, pewter and zinc works in Karamazar, antimony, mercury, radium and gold in Tadzhikistan, Central Asia will become a powerful base for non-ferrous metals in the second five-year plan. An enormous amount of electrical power will be needed to push forward that branch of industry.

At the disposition of Central Asia there are power resources amounting to 40,000,000 h. p., an amount increasing by leaps and bounds. In the second *piatiletka* 300,000 hectares of cotton will have to be worked up with the help of electricity. The industrial population of this remade region will attain 3,000,000 persons. The old cities will burst their walls. New cities will grow up around the construction projects at Vakhsh in Almalyk and Chirchik.

Productive Forces of the Far East and Far North

The Far Eastern Region deserves its name. Freight cars arrive here on the hundredth day from the central railroad junctions. Letters from Moscow reach Canada more quickly than Blagoveschensk on the Amur. But the whole Union is vitally interested in this region.

Each year a whole new generation of trees of 80,000,000 cubic meters grows up. In the second *piatiletka* the region must develop its own wood-working industry, its own wood chemical industry. Formerly it was "Alexandrovsk Center," the hard labor prison. Now Alexandrovsk will become the center of the Far Eastern coal industry.

Canning tins are now transported here from R.S.F.S.R. Salt is carried from the Crimea. In order to develop its own lumber and fishing industries the Far East must have its own metallurgy. Rock salt must be sought on the Okhotsky coast, salt must be mined in the Amur bays.

The Nikolsk-Ussurisk Central Executive Committee built an irrigation system for its rice fields. The first harvest returned all the expenses—with interest. This region will quickly return everything that is spent on it.

The extreme North is an entirely new region for the distribution of productive powers. It contains 80 per cent of all the timber resources of the country. Among the natural resources of the North is everything from gold to graphite. Only the sea routes to these riches are blocked by thousands of miles of ice and the land routes are covered with snow.

This still tightly closed storehouse of the Union can furnish quantities of timber, nepheline, coal for ship furnaces, fur and fish.

Our second *piatiletka* will be the first *piatiletka* for the north. The conditions of work there are extraordinarily difficult. The rigorous labors of the builders of the Soviet Arctic must be lightened. In the second five-year plan a mechanized fishing fleet will be established. Airplanes will be used for hunting purposes.

The key to still other riches is hidden in the North—the weather. By establishing meteorological observation points in the Arctic region changes in the weather can be forecast over long periods.

Through the North it is possible to establish a continuous waterway to the Pacific Ocean through Soviet seas. The way to the Kara sea is already well mastered. It remains to join West to East. The main air highway of the future, the shortest route from London to Tokyo will pass through Novaya Zemlya.

Transformation of Old Industrial Districts

What has been written above pertains largely to the "new recruits" of industrialization, to the regions which are to be completely remade in the second *piatiletka*. But the aspect of the old industrial districts as well will be completely changed in the second *piatiletka*.

Ivanovo industrial district will no longer be limited to the role of the all-Union weaving center but, has begun to construct its own machine building and chemical shops.

In the first five-year plan the Lower Volga was characterized as an agricultural district. It was supposed that this region did not have mineral raw materials and power resources of its own. In the second *piatiletka* a chemical industry will be established here on the basis of a new type of raw material—schist. Vast mineral riches have been opened up in Khalilov-Orsk district. A huge factory for the production of high quality metal will be established here.

The Ural-Kuznetsk industrial highways will strengthen the circulation throughout all these districts, bringing to life dozens of new productive enterprises. The scaffolding has already been placed in the mines and shafts of Ural-Kuzbas. The miners are replacing the investigators in the copper deposits of Kazakstan.

The conference mobilized great scientific forces to gather material for the plan of the second *piatiletka*. The laboratories of Soviet scientists have been transformed into laboratories of the second five-year plan.

The old geography is doomed.

Soyuzphoto

First coke battery in operation at Kuznetsk

The New Educational Decree

DURING the past two years universal compulsory education for the primary grades has been successfully introduced throughout the Soviet Union and has been extended through the intermediate grades as well in industrial centers and numerous localities. The number of children in primary grades has increased during this period by more than fifty per cent. An enrollment of over 20,000,000 children is expected in the primary schools this fall—almost three times as many as attended school in 1913-14, and universal compulsory education is to be extended to all children up to seventeen years of age.

This great increase in pupils has meant a tremendous expansion of the whole educational program and the efforts of the government have been stretched to the utmost to provide the necessary new buildings and equipment and provide facilities for the training of an adequate number of teachers.

In addition to the inauguration of universal compulsory primary education, the past two years have also been marked by important changes in the educational program. In 1930 the schools were organized into a "unified system of polytechnical education," designed to provide for all children, from the very beginning of their education, training in the fundamental principles and processes at the basis of all labor. In furtherance of this aim, schools were linked up directly with factories and farms, the latter to be used as practical laboratories through excursions in the case of the younger pupils and actual participation in the labor processes in the later grades. The program was expected to provide a real coordination between theory and practice, between life in the school and the outside world.

Old school room methods were discarded as soon as the Soviet government came into power. No hard and fast educational method was adopted, Soviet educators desiring to retain a flexible system and to adapt the best in modern educational methods to Soviet conditions. Collective methods of study were stressed, groups of children working together on some special project, with the teacher on hand to guide and assist.

In developing the new program the problem has been to achieve that correct balance between group and individual work which has been one of the chief concerns of all modern educators. It has now been found that in breaking away from old methods, collective methods have been emphasized at the expense in some cases of the individual. The system of "brigades" of workers in industry, formed to carry out definite production tasks had its reflection in the formation of "brigades" of school children which in many schools became an obligatory and permanent method of organization, the brigade as a whole being responsible for the fulfillment of certain school tasks and projects. This was all very well in the case of the brighter students with plenty of initiative, but disastrous in the case of the more diffident or plodding type of child, or the child requiring special handling, as the achievement of the group as a whole was stressed at the expense of the progress of the individual.

As soon as this situation became apparent the Central Committee of the Communist Party took steps to correct it, and on August 25 published their decision for the guidance of the Narkompros (Commissariat for Education) in working out a more adequate school program. The decree does not, as it was interpreted in some quarters, signify any about-face in the educational program, or the abandonment of any specific method of teaching, since no one method had ever been adopted. It does provide for improvements and greater flexibility in the application of the new principles of education, for greater attention to individual needs, more thorough handling of routine subjects and a greater degree of discipline. The main provisions of the decree are herewith outlined.

The decree begins by commending the definite progress made in the introduction of universal compulsory education for the primary grades and in the transition to the systematic study of the sciences on the basis of a definite study plan and program. It points out, however, that certain defects in the school system which have been under consideration for the past few years have not yet been completely eliminated, namely, that the schools do not yet provide sufficient general knowledge, nor have they satisfactorily solved the problem of preparing for the higher schools entirely literate students well equipped with the fundamentals of physics, chemistry, mathematics, language, geography, etc.

This situation is attributed in the decree mainly to defects in the program, especially for the intermediate classes, unsatisfactory methods of school work, insufficient direction on the part of the Narkompros and its local organs, lack of discipline, and faulty coordination of the different steps in the school system.

Study Programs

The decree is divided into four parts, the first of which is concerned with programs of study.

Specific defects in the educational program are outlined. According to the decree, one of the chief faults has been the overloading of the schedule with the result that much of the ma-

terial is run through too hastily for the children to master it thoroughly. Another has been the lack of sufficient connection between the different subjects. Certain theoretical mistakes in the presentation of scientific and other subjects are mentioned, and finally the lack of a proper historical approach in the teaching of the social sciences.

In order to correct these defects the Central Committee proposes that the Narkompros reorganize the program for the primary and intermediate schools by January 1, 1933, and suggests certain principles to be followed in working out the program.

It proposes a redistribution of the materials for the programs in mathematics, physics, chemistry and biology for the intermediate grades, and the better adaptation of the scope and character of this material to the age requirements of the children in these groups. At the same time it advocates a reduction in the requirements in these branches in order to absolutely guarantee a thorough and sound understanding and knowledge of the fundamentals of each science. Greater coordination is called for in the subjects of mathematics, physics and chemistry, and also in the programs on history, social science and literature in the intermediate grades. In physics it is emphasized that in addition to modern theories on the laws of energy and matter a thorough knowledge of the classical schools of thought, somewhat neglected in the previous programs, be required. An increase in the number of hours devoted to mathematics and a presentation of the mathematics courses in the primary and intermediate grades so as to insure adequate preparation for the next steps in professional training, is advocated.

While actual problems of contemporary life are to remain the center of the school program, the decree calls for greater attention to historical development than has been the case in the past. It outlines especially the need for a distinct strengthening of the historical elements in the programs for social science, language, literature and geography, and the illustration of the main divisions and themes of these subjects by the necessary factual material, historical excursions and comparisons.

The most important facts regarding the national culture of the peoples of the U.S.S.R., their literature, art, historical development, and also the elements of regional study of the U.S.S.R. (natural features, industries, social and economic development, etc.) are to be made a part of the program for social science, literature, language, geography and history. Geography must include both physical and economic geography, first of the U.S.S.R. as a whole, and of each of the republics, and then of other countries. Thorough knowledge of one foreign language is to be assured for every student on completing the intermediate grades.

The decree then points out that since great importance is attached to methods of labor in the polytechnical school, it is necessary to reconstruct the program on the study of labor in such a way as to achieve a real unity between study and productive work, and training in both theory and practice of the main branches of industry, guided by Lenin's instructions that the principle of polytechnism "requires not the study of all processes, but of the *fundamental processes* of modern industry in general." (Memorandum of Lenin on the report of the Narkompros at the seventh meeting of the VTSIK, September 26-27, 1920).

This, of course, is precisely what has already been attempted through linking up the schools directly with industrial and agricultural enterprises as well as in the workshops and fields of the schools themselves. The former method has met with varying degrees of success depending on the ability of the teachers and the cooperation received from the enterprise in question. The decree merely requires that out of the experience already gained more explicit instructions as to ways and means be developed, and that a detailed program of the minimum knowledge of the various processes of industry and agriculture be worked out. Pupils in the intermediate grades must master the use of the principal tools and learn how to work with metal, wood and other materials. In this connection greater use of the materials of socialist construction is advocated.

This, too, simply means a more thorough and effective application of the already established principle of drawing on the actual processes of life and work in the surrounding community for illustration of and material for school projects, whether it be Dnieprostroy, Magnitogorsk, a state farm or the local tramway system.

Strengthening of the School Regime

The second section of the decree takes up questions of organization and discipline. It points out that there has been definite improvement in organization of school work since the decision of the Central Committee of September 5, 1931, that a stricter schedule and a more orderly regime of study had been established. However, in spite of the instructions of the Central Committee at that time to the effect that no one method of teaching, the so-called "laboratory-brigade" method of teaching has spread widely in practice and has led to the establishment of permanent and compulsory brigades of students, a method greatly abused in practice, which has resulted in lack of individual responsibility in carrying out school tasks, in lowering the role of the teacher and, many cases in the ignoring of the individual study of the pupils. The Central Committee therefore proposes that such abuses of the laboratory-brigade method be

Soyuzphoto
At a children's conference on educational problems

Soyuzphoto
Practical work in a Soviet polytechnical school

brought to an end and the teaching be so organized that the basic form of school work in the primary and intermediate schools shall be regular lessons with a given group of pupils according to a strictly determined schedule of work. Different methods of teaching are to be used, including, under the direction of the teacher, group, brigade and individual work for each pupil. Collective forms of study shall be developed in every way, avoiding, however, the practice of organizing the students into permanent and compulsory brigades.

The teachers must set forth their subjects systematically and thoroughly, training the children carefully in work with school materials and books, in different types of independent written work, in research and laboratory work. Along with this the teacher must make extensive use of methods of demonstration, experiments, excursions (to factories, museums, fields, woods, etc.); furthermore, the teachers must help the individual children in every way possible when they have difficulties in carrying out their work. The children must be systematically trained to carry on independent work in using the knowledge they acquire in the solution of actual problems, in preparing models, using land connected with the school for educational purposes, and in workshop activities.

The Narkompros and its organs are instructed to insure the directing role of the teaching personnel in all school work.

Old methods of grading and examinations have gone never to return. It has been found desirable, however, to institute a more definite system of reports on the work of individual pupils than has been customary under the new educational system. While any complex scheme and form of grading is to be avoided, teachers are to give greater attention to studying the work of each individual pupil and to checking their knowledge systematically and on this basis to estimate the degree of success of each pupil in the given subject at the end of each quarter. Examinations are to be required for all pupils at the end of the school year.

The problem of discipline is then taken up. Stricter disciplinary measures than have obtained in the past are called for in dealing with recalcitrant pupils. Social organizations, parents, Comsomols and Pioneers are to help enforce them.

The Narkompros is requested to work out within two months a plan to supply the schools with improved school materials, apparatus, laboratory and shop equipment, and also a plan of standard equipment for workrooms and school shops, including the necessary work benches, tools and materials to form a proper basis for the development of a real polytechnical school.

The Teaching Corps

In recognition of the increasing activities and responsibilities of the teachers, the Central Committee instructs the Educational Commissariats of the Union Republics, the Soviet and party organs to guarantee in every way to the teachers in their work the necessary conditions for the successful execution of their responsibilities and duties. Systematic work is to be carried on to increase their pedagogical qualifications. Regulations regarding the supplying of teachers with products and manufactured articles on the same basis as industrial workers, prompt payment of wages, attention to living conditions and teachers' families, provision for rest and leisure and careful concern for their daily needs—all these must be strictly observed.

Gosizdat (the state publishing house) is instructed to prepare sets of books most necessary for teachers in the different branches to be supplied to them at low rates. Special attention is to be paid to further training for teachers, and rewards to be provided for the best workers.

Older Groups in Intermediate Schools

Finally, in order to carry out the program with regard to providing compulsory universal and polytechnical education, free of charge, for all children of both sexes up to seventeen years of age, and in order to raise the standards of the general and polytechnical preparation of the pupils of the intermediate schools, and to eliminate the age differences between the intermediate and higher schools, beginning with the 1932-33 school year, the seven-year polytechnical school is to be reorganized into a ten-year school. On this basis the Sovnarkom (Council of People's Commissars) is requested within a month to ratify a concrete plan for the addition of an eighth grade to the seven-year school as the first step towards the establishment of the ten-year school.

Soviet Foreign Relations

DURING the summer a number of the non-aggression pacts concluded during the past year between the Soviet Union and neighboring states have entered into effect—namely, the pacts with Latvia, Finland and Esthonia. The Soviet-Polish non-aggression pact has been signed and awaits ratification. Negotiations on non-aggression pacts with Rumania, France and Japan are still pending.* Such pacts already exist with Turkey, Germany, Afghanistan, Lithuania and Persia. The Japanese-Soviet fisheries agreement was signed in August after prolonged negotiations.

LATVIAN-SOVIET NON-AGGRESSION PACT

The non-aggression pact signed between the U.S.S.R. and Latvia on February 5, 1932, and the convention on conciliation procedure concluded on June 18, between the two countries, were both ratified by a decree of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. issued on July 11. On July 18, ratification documents of the non-aggression pact and the conciliation convention were exchanged between Mr. N. N. Krestinsky, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, and Mr. Bilmanis, Latvian Ambassador, putting the pact and convention into immediate effect.

In connection with the entering into force of the Soviet-Latvian non-aggression pact, the Moscow *Izvestia* of July 30, published the following statement:

"The Soviet-Latvian non-aggression pact represents an indisputable achievement of the foreign policy of the Soviet Union. For a number of years the Soviet Government has been proposing to its nearest neighbors that non-aggression pacts be concluded. But the efforts of Soviet diplomacy in this direction have not given the desired results. The governments of the Baltic countries have suggested a number of conditions making the conclusion of such pacts dependent on the participation of other countries.

"Last year the Soviet Union again proposed the conclusion of a non-aggression pact to its neighbors. This time the initiative of the U.S.S.R. encountered greater response. Negotiations with the separate Baltic countries began to move forward, and in the course of the spring and summer of this year treaties were signed with Finland, Latvia and Esthonia, and a treaty with Poland was initialed. Of the above-mentioned countries Latvia has gone the farthest in not only ratifying, but putting into effect the Soviet-Latvian treaty.

"We welcome the conclusion of the Soviet-Latvian non-aggression treaty because it both embodies the peaceful aspirations of the Soviet Union, and strengthens peaceful relations with one of our neighbors. Soviet-Latvian relations in recent years have developed not entirely without friction. There are definite circles in Latvia which still cannot or do not wish to understand that Latvia can only be the gainer both in international political and trade and economic relations. Not so very long ago we witnessed the stubborn attacks of these Latvian circles on the Soviet-Latvian trade treaty. These circles, in attacking the trade treaty, attempted indirectly to injure Soviet-Latvian relations generally. Therefore we note with satisfaction the putting into force of the Soviet-Latvian non-aggression pact, finding in this evidence that the Latvian government has understood the necessity of cleansing and improving the political atmosphere in its relations with the Soviet Union. Only the first step necessary in this direction has been taken.

"Latvia has been the first of our neighbors to put into effect the treaty of non-aggression with the Soviet Union. We do not doubt that this example will soon be followed by the other Baltic

*Complete texts of the non-aggression pacts with Latvia, Finland, and Poland were published in the *Soviet Union Review* for March, 1932, and with Esthonia, in the *Soviet Union Review* for June, 1932.

countries and that thus will be established the system of peace pacts which the Soviet Union has been striving to attain since 1926."

FINNISH-SOVIET PACT

On July 11, the presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. ratified the treaty of non-aggression and peaceful settlement of disputes which was concluded between the Soviet Union and Finland at Helsingfors on January 21, 1932, and the convention on conciliation procedure concluded between the two countries at Helsingfors on April 22, 1932. On August 9, ratification documents were exchanged by official representatives of the Soviet and Finnish governments, putting both the treaty and convention into effect in the relations between the two countries.

ESTHONIAN-SOVIET PACT

On August 5, the presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. ratified the treaty on non-aggression and peaceful settlement of conflicts concluded between the U.S.S.R. and Esthonia in Moscow on May 4, 1932, and the convention on conciliation procedure concluded between the two countries on June 16, 1932. On August 18, the treaty and convention went into force with the exchange of ratification documents at Tallin by representatives of the Soviet and Esthonian governments.

PACT WITH POLAND SIGNED

On July 25, the Soviet-Polish non-aggression pact, which was initialed in Moscow last January 25, and published in the Soviet press January 26, was signed in Moscow by N. N. Krestinsky, assistant commissar for foreign affairs, and the Polish ambassador to Moscow, M. Patek.

SOVIET-JAPANESE FISHERIES AGREEMENT

On August 13, a special agreement was signed in Moscow between Japan and the U.S.S.R., dealing with the main questions of dispute that had arisen over the application of the fishing convention concluded between the U.S.S.R. and Japan in 1928. The agreement was signed on behalf of the U.S.S.R. by Mr. L. M. Karakhan and on behalf of Japan by Mr. Koki Hirota, ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary, thus successfully concluding negotiations which have been carried on during the past year and a half.

The Moscow *Izvestia* of August 22 published a statement by *Tass* commenting on the agreement as follows:

"The agreement between the U.S.S.R. and Japan, signed on August 13 by assistant commissar for foreign affairs, Karakhan, and the Japanese ambassador in Moscow, Hirota, settles a number of questions arising during the practical application of the fishing convention concluded between the two countries in 1928. The regulation of these questions is carried out in the agreement on the basis of strict observance of all the articles and provisions of the convention.

"The main question, interesting both Japanese and Soviet enterprises, is the question of the rental of the coastal fishing grounds from which the fishing industry is carried on in the Pacific waters of the U.S.S.R.

"The convention provided that these grounds might be obtained by auction on the basis of free competition and rented for a period of from one to five years. Exceptions are made in the case if government enterprises of the U.S.S.R. which may acquire the grounds necessary for them without auction. However, the number of these grounds has until now been limited in such a way that the enterprise in question might not make use of grounds whose total catch of fish should exceed 2,000,000 poods, or 20 per cent of the catch of all the fishing grounds. The convention provided for the possibility of exceeding that limit only on the basis of special agreement to this effect between both governments.

"The convention also provided for the possibility of renting the grounds without auction to other enterprises, but also only after agreement to this effect between the two governments.

"The signing of the new agreement extends the above-mentioned limit of the amount of the catch established for government enterprises of the U.S.S.R., increasing it to 5,000,000 poods and thus making it possible for these enterprises to considerably increase the number of grounds exploited by them.

"At the same time the agreement provides that the grounds which are now rented to Japanese citizens shall not be put up for auction until the expiration of the period of the fishing convention, i. e., in 1936. From this arrangement are excluded sixty holdings which will be put up for auction.

"The agreement establishes that thus there will be auctioned annually all newly opened grounds, sixty of the grounds now rented to Japanese citizens and grounds held by Soviet private persons and enterprises exclusive of the Soviet state enterprises.

"The agreement further notes that its signing brings to an end all disputes which have arisen between Japan and the U.S.S.R. in connection with the renting of grounds by government and other enterprises of the U.S.S.R., the terms and conditions of rental of which, according to the Japanese point of view, were established without sufficient consideration of the general interests of the Japanese enterprises.

"The agreement consists of three brief articles setting forth the above conditions, satisfying the

mutual interests of the fishing enterprises of both countries."

SOVIET-PERSIAN CONVENTION IN FORCE

On June 22 the Soviet-Persian convention on colonization, trade, and navigation, which was signed at Teheran, October 27, 1931, went into effect, on the exchange of ratification documents between L. M. Karakhan, Soviet assistant commissar for foreign affairs, and Fatulla-khan Pakrevan, Persian ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary, in Moscow.

SOVIET OIL EXPORTS

On August 8 a contract was signed in Paris between representatives of Soyuzneftexport and important French oil interests for the delivery of over two million tons of Soviet oil and oil products to France within the next five years.

On September 6, M. Charles Baron, chairman of the oil and mines commission of the French Chamber of Deputies, was received by Mr. A. P. Rosenholtz, Commissar for Foreign Trade of the U.S.S.R. In the course of the interview M. Baron pointed out that leading French circles were very interested in the development of Franco-Soviet relations. In particular he noted the success of the arrangements in operation for supplying France with Soviet oil and discussed future prospects in this direction.

On September 8, M. Matsukato and Mr. Mori, representing Japanese oil interests, arrived in Moscow to carry on negotiations with the Soyuzneft export regarding the purchase of oil products for shipment to Japan. A contract for the sale of Soviet refined oil on the Japanese market was signed on September 24 as a result of the negotiations.

IMPORTS FROM THE U. S. IN SHARP DECLINE

Detail figures on the Soviet foreign trade by countries for the first six months of this year show a striking decline in imports from the United States. Imports from the United States have fallen from $86,034,000 in the first six months of 1930, to $73,446,000 in the same period of 1931 and $9,919,000 in the same period of 1932. Imports from the other principal countries on the Soviet import list, Germany, Great Britain, Persia and Italy, showed a healthy growth during these two years. The imports from these countries during the first six months of 1932 were 62 per cent greater than during the same period of 1930. Imports from the United States for the first six months of 1932 were 89 per cent less than during the same period of 1930.

During the first six months of 1930 Soviet imports from the United States were $10,000,000 greater than those from Germany, England and Italy combined. During the first six months of 1932 Soviet imports from the United States were only 7½ per cent of the combined imports from Germany, England and Italy.

During the first six months of 1930 the United States stood first on the list of countries furnishing Soviet imports. During the same period of 1931 it was second, and in 1932 it has dropped to fourth, behind Germany, England and Persia and barely ahead of Italy.

This remarkable shift in the Soviet import list is shown statistically in the following table, giving imports from the five leading countries for the first half year in 1930, 1931 and 1932:

	1930	1931	1932
United States	$86,034,000	$73,446,000	$ 9,919,000
Germany	54,334,000	83,800,000	94,739,000
England	18,201,000	17,026,000	26,673,000
Persia	15,778,000	10,994,000	18,742,000
Italy	2,489,000	5,608,000	9,764,000

Soviet imports from all countries during the first six months of 1932 were $208,716,000. They were $266,399,000 for the same period of 1931. Soviet exports were $141,707,000 and $188,622,000 respectively for the two periods.

CHANGES IN SOVIET FOREIGN SERVICE

On June 3 P. I. Kushner was appointed trade representative of the U.S.S.R. in Lithuania, replacing N. S. Angarsky, who was relieved of the post.

On June 5 Mr. N. V. Rogozinsky was relieved of the post of trade representative of the U.S.S.R. in Norway.

Litvinov Sums Up Geneva Proceedings

Speech of Maxim Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, at the meeting of the General Commission of the Disarmament Conference at Geneva, July 21, in which he analyzes both the draft resolution introduced by Dr. Edourd Benes, Czechoslovakian foreign minister, and the six months' proceedings of the conference.

THE resolution submitted to us has been going through a process of drafting, and has been awaited by the members of the various delegations for several weeks, if not months. Apparently its aim is to represent a summary of all the achievements of the conference during the six months of its existence and of the preparatory work which preceded it, as well as a maximum program of work for the next stage of the conference. It seems to me that we are all bound to recognize that this resolution will bring bitter disappointment to all those persons and organizations who have been pinning upon the conference all their hopes of peace. It rather justifies the dismal prophecies and forebodings of those who from the very outset did not share those hopes and illusions.

Although the resolution begins with the assertion that the time has come when all nations of the world must adopt substantial and comprehensive measures of disarmament in order to consolidate the peace of the world, all the subsequent contents of the resolution represent the utter negation of that assertion. On the contrary, they would seem to constitute a recognition of the fact that the states represented at the conference have not found the time ripe for the final adoption of a single decisive step towards disarmament.

I shall take the liberty of analyzing the resolution point by point. I shall not dwell on the general declarations and vague promises as to possible decisions in the future. We have had more than enough of these declarations at the conference. Furthermore, as early as April 18 the General Commission resolved that the present conference must achieve a decisive step towards the reduction of armaments to the lowest possible level. The resolution before us merely repeats this decision as to the first decisive step, without indicating by a single figure the level to which armaments are to be reduced. I shall deal, therefore, for the time being only, with those concrete positive decisions regarding which we are informed general agreement has already been reached.

There is, unfortunately, only one such concrete decision in the resolution, namely, that concerning chemical, bacteriological and incendiary warfare. But this decision in its essential parts is contained in the convention on chemical and bacteriological warfare adopted as long ago as 1925, under the title of the Geneva Protocol. This protocol has already been ratified by thirty-four states, including the Soviet Union, Great Britain, France, Italy and Germany. Furthermore, the agreement has already entered into force between the states which have formally adopted it. If the remaining states, which have not signed or have not ratified the protocol, are in agreement with it, they have only to make a formal declaration to this effect, and the convention will receive universal application. But if, instead of this, we are now offered a vague resolution drawn up in general terms, to approve the recommendation of the technical commissions—about which still further discussions are probable, and which may assume the form of binding obligations only at some distant date—we are entitled in these circumstances to speak of a decisive step backwards and not forward. Therefore, the clause in the resolution on chemical and bacteriological warfare can hardly be placed to the credit of the present conference. I shall not dwell on the fact that this question, like other questions of the humanization of warfare, is more within the competence of the Red Cross than a disarmament conference. The Soviet delegation cannot discover in the recommendations of the technical commissions any serious improvements upon the Geneva Protocol of 1925. If there is anything new in them, it might be the subject of an additional protocol, but this is no reason for reopening the question of international obligations which already exist, and encouraging governments to withhold their adherence to and ratification of their obligations.

The clause prohibiting air attack against the civilian population is, of course, to be welcomed. But this clause, too, is more relevant to the sphere of humanization, i. e., the sphere of the Red Cross, than to the problems of disarmament; since the clause in itself does not mean the reduction of military aircraft even by a single unit. In theory it can hardly be said that the right of bombarding the civilian population was ever recognized or asserted by anyone. When the civilian population suffered in the last war as a result of aerial bombardment, the latter was usually directed against military objectives and by military and strategical considerations. So long as military aircraft, or at all events bombing aircraft, are not absolutely prohibited, there can be no guarantees whatsoever for the civilian population.

It is to be regretted that this fundamental question of the prohibition of bombing aircraft is made by the resolution contingent upon conditions which have yet to be discussed and agreed.

Even though we have not been enlightened as to the details of the prolonged and tortuous private negotiations on this question, it is no secret that serious differences exist regarding these conditions. Consequently, it seems to me premature to include this question among the points on which, it is alleged, agreement has been reached.

The resolution says nothing about the abolition of military or even bombing aircraft, whereas such a measure is the only effective method of insuring that air attacks shall stop. It is not difficult to supervise effectively the abolition of a particular form of weapon, or to discover those who violate their undertakings or commit abuses in this sphere. But there can scarcely be any guarantee against its employment in war time, notwithstanding the convention, if the prohibited weapon is in fact retained. The Soviet delegation, therefore, is in favor of the total abolition of all military aircraft, but by way of compromise it now proposes that the resolution should at least provide, among other measures, for the abolition of bombing aircraft.

With regard to tanks and heavy artillery, there is reference only to the limitation of tonnage and caliber in general; yet, here again, no one ever objected to limitation in general, either at the conference or in the commissions. But as soon as figures were mentioned, differences made their appearance. Proposals were made in the commissions, for example, to fix the limits of the tonnage of tanks and the caliber of guns at such a level as has either not yet been attained by technical development, or has only been reached experimentally. If agreement is only possible within such limits, it would be ridiculous to classify this as a reduction of existing armaments.

All these questions affect what is called qualitative disarmament. I have already had occasion to point out in this commission that qualitative disarmament in itself does not amount to a serious reduction of armaments, or to a diminished possibility of war and consequently a consolidation of peace, but the regulation of war, a new elaboration of the laws of war. The more attention we devote to qualitative disarmament to the detriment of quantitative, the more we shall be turning away from the principal task of the conference, of the present Disarmament Conference, and the more shall we be side-tracked to subjects which have engaged the attention of the Hague Conferences and Red Cross organizations. In my opinion, delegates to the Disarmament Conference should be interested in qualitative disarmament only in so far as quality becomes quantity, or when qualitative disarmament is supplementary to quantitative. The limitation of the tonnage, caliber or other characteristics of a particular weapon cannot produce appreciable results in respect of quantity.

I shall take the liberty of reminding you that all resolutions and invitations in connection with the Disarmament Conference were always understood in the sense of quantitative and not qualitative disarmament. In the Preparatory Commission, for example, the question of qualitative disarmament was hardly raised, and therefore no preparatory work was done in this direction. The Soviet delegation, therefore, considers the main defect of the resolution to be the absence of any concrete decisions whatsoever as to the quantitative reduction of armaments.

The conference is supposed to achieve a reduction of armaments, yet on the basis of the proposed resolution, we, the delegates, shall not be able to answer the natural question which will be put to us: What portion of armaments has it been decided to reduce? For there is not only no decision, but the very question itself was scarcely dealt with at the conference. However, the question itself is suggested by the very title of the conference, and by the draft convention of the Preparatory Commission, which contains a table enumerating the elements of armaments, against which the conference was to insert only the coefficients of reduction.

Recent sittings of the General Commission may have created the impression that there was no discussion of the quantitative reduction of armaments because of the absence of any relevant concrete proposals, and that only quite lately was one such proposal received, namely, from the United States delegation which, it may be supposed, arrived too late for the conference to discuss it and adopt any decisions, before breaking up for our holidays. But this is far from being the true state of affairs. As an alternative to its proposal for total general disarmament, the Soviet delegation proposed an absolutely concrete scheme for the reduction of all categories of armaments by 50 per cent. The Soviet delegation put forward this figure, not as an ultimatum, but as an expression of a substantial reduction of armaments. Had the Soviet proposal then been discussed, other delegations might have proposed other figures—33⅓ per cent, or more, or a little less. Since the conference is determined to adopt substantial and comprehensive measures of disarmament, as shown by its welcoming the proposals of the United States Government, which include reductions by one-third, it should not have been difficult to come to an agreement as to figures. Then we could really have spoken of a decisive step forward.

But even since the American proposal was put forward, nearly a month has gone by. If the General Commission had at once grappled closely with this proposal, we could have had serious results by now, again, of course, on the condition that the declarations and pledges contained in

the resolution now proposed actually correspond to the intentions of the governments here represented. Unfortunately, the conference and General Commission virtually ceased to function long ago. The delegations were condemned to complete inactivity, pending the results of certain private negotiations. Those results are now known; they are embodied in the resolution before us which may be regarded as being merely a repetition of the resolution which was adopted three months ago, to the effect that it had been decided to achieve a decisive step towards the reduction of armaments. It was then supposed that the conference would immediately set about the task of making the resolution concrete. But that did not take place, and the whole sense of the resolution now proposed lies in this: that we are asked to postpone making it concrete for another six months. What guarantees have we that we shall be more successful in this task than during the last three months? What change will there be by that time? What obstacles which have hindered concrete decisions up to now will be eliminated by then? The resolution does not say so directly, but apparently it presupposes new private negotiations, and in addition refers to special conferences and agreements by groups of states. Can any hopes be pinned to such a mode of procedure? The whole history of the problem of disarmament is a continuous series of such postponements and references to private negotiations and private conferences. If we trace the history of the Preparatory Commission, we find that it invariably adjourned its sessions and interrupted its work with a reference to private negotiations, private consultations and conferences, going on somewhere, which were to have worked out the solution of the problems on which the commission was divided, and the commission invariably reassembled to acknowledge the fruitlessness of these private consultations, and then broke up once again in anticipation of further private negotiations and consultations. But all these beneficial results of private negotiations and consultations invariably proved a mirage, a will-o'-the-wisp, just like the results of the private negotiations embodied in the resolution submitted to us. This resolution, as I have just pointed out, contains either decisions which are made to depend on conditions which are the subject of profound differences, or general indications of agreements which have been reached; but we all know from experience already how often we disagree as to what exactly we have agreed upon.

Soyuzphoto

Maxim Litvinov

The problem of disarmament has confronted the nations in all its concrete aspects for ten years. The question has been studied by the experts of every country, in the commissions and sub-commissions, in all its details. The governments of all nations have quite definite answers to this question, and the Soviet delegation considers that the moment has come when these replies should be given for all to hear, and not just anywhere, but precisely at the Disarmament Conference. Disarmament must cease to play the part of a tennis ball thrown from one commission or subcommission to another, from one conference to another, from one session to another. In six months' time the reply of the governments

will be exactly the same as it is at present, and there is no need for us to postpone it. The resolution now submitted is not a reply, but an evasion of the answer, and, therefore, in its present form must be rejected.

The Soviet delegation reckons with the obvious intention of the conference to disperse in the next few days. It does not therefore propose to move a new resolution, and, on the contrary, in a spirit of cooperation, is ready to accept the present resolution as a basis, if it gives the concrete replies in figures, at least to those points which it sets forth. The Soviet delegation proposes on the general question of the reduction of armaments, and in particular on the fundamental question of quantitative reduction, that we should not confine ourselves to vague declarations, but say with absolute clarity that the conference resolves to reduce all categories of armaments by not less than one-third. At a previous stage, the Soviet delegation proposed the same reduction on the progressive proportional principle, thinking it just and politically desirable that the most powerful states should reduce their armaments in a greater measure than other states, namely, up to 50 per cent. Not meeting with any favorable response to this proposal, however, and taking account of the fact that another state has made a step towards the Soviet scheme and proposed the reduction of all categories of armaments by one-third, and that Italy and a large number of other states have declared their support of this proposal, the Soviet delegation as a practical compromise is prepared for the first stage of reduction to content itself with the proposed reduction by one-third.

The Soviet delegation cannot, however, agree to the exemption from reduction of particular sections of the armed forces intended for police and colonial service, for this would mean the creation of a privileged position for the most powerful states which possess colonies, and which in this way would be subjected to reduction in a smaller proportion than weaker states. The Soviet state, moreover, could not sign a document which would formally sanction the methods of imperialist and colonial policy. Further, the Soviet delegation has thought just, and hopes that there will be no serious objection to this, that the weakest states, possessing not more than 30,000 troops and 100,000 tons of naval armaments, and representing no danger of aggression, should be exempted from the reduction of armaments. We also anticipate that there will be no objection to the exemption from further reduction of states which have been subjected to disarmament in virtue of international obligations. Moreover, such a measure must not by any means be to the detriment of the principle of the equality of nations, but on the contrary must be reckoned as a first step towards that equality.

Only in the event of the adoption of the Soviet amendment could the resolution be considered as a certain step forward in the cause of disarmament, and could it afford a minimum of satisfaction to the peoples who demand that disarmament. The proposed measures could be strengthened by the complete abolition and prohibition of military aircraft, the prohibition of tanks and of heavy artillery with a caliber exceeding 100 mm., as laid down in the other Soviet amendments.

May I repeat that the Soviet delegation is far from intending to limit the program of the whole conference to these measures, which it considers only to be the genuine first stage. The next session of the conference, in the opinion of the Soviet delegation, will have to occupy itself with making these measures more concrete and with discussing and preparing further measures in the same direction.

Such are the principal amendments which have been put in by the Soviet delegation to the draft resolution. So long as these amendments have not been adopted, I do not think it necessary to occupy the attention of the commission with observations on less essential points in the resolution, which are not quite acceptable for the Soviet delegation. Such, for example, are the references to Article 8 of the Covenant of the League of Nations, the attitude to which of the Soviet delegation is known from previous statements of mine, or the clause concerning the Permanent Commission, which has not been discussed at all.

The Soviet delegation fully realizes that its amendments may not be adopted unanimously, or even by a majority. If it none the less insists on a vote, it does so being profoundly convinced that even unsuccessful international conferences are of great importance, and provide much educative and valuable material for understanding the development of international life, and also for facilitating an agreement at subsequent conferences. But in order that the peoples should be able to draw these valuable lessons from international conferences, it is absolutely essential that these conferences should take place quite publicly, that all questions in dispute should be discussed and voted upon publicly, so that not only the points of agreement, but also the points of disagreement between the peoples should be clear. Only by this means can we draw the peoples themselves into co-partnership in international life, and that co-partnership is particularly necessary to solve the problem of disarmament. We cannot speak of the public character of our conference when, in the course of three months, the General Commission has met only five times, and all the discussion has been concentrated in the private negotiations of a few delegations. The Soviet delegation expresses the hope that at subsequent sessions of the conference there will be no repetition of these methods,

which affront the dignity of the delegates and of numerous countries, and, moreover, have not been justified by results.

The Soviet delegation, naturally, is concerned in the first instance to make perfectly clear to the peoples of the Soviet Union and to the world at large the position of the Soviet Government on the question of disarmament, and that it should be freed of all responsibility for the negative or insufficient results of the first stage of the conference. It hopes that it has achieved this object, because it has never lost an opportunity to declare, and in any case declares now once again, that it agrees to the most far-reaching measures of disarmament, up to and including total general disarmament. If it has had, for practical considerations, to propose measures or to agree with measures of partial disarmament, it has never abandoned its fundamental proposal for total general disarmament, which it continues to think the best measure against war and the maximum guarantee for universal peace. The demand for that guarantee is imperatively dictated by the present features of international life, which continues to be dominated by the threat of international armed conflicts. The conference assembled in the month of February, when nearly all types of armaments were in action and were achieving their destructive object. If the thunder of guns and exploding bombs has now subsided, this does not mean that the peril which they signalized has been eliminated. That resistance which even proposals for the very minimum measures of disarmament encounter at our conference shows that the governments, in spite of the Paris Pact renouncing war, in spite of the abundance of international conferences, continue to believe in war as an instrument of national policy, and that they prefer to talk to each other, even of peace and international solidarity, when armed to the teeth. The policy of concluding pacts of non-aggression as between states, which the Soviet Government is pursuing, continues to meet with obstacles thrown up by other governments. In these circumstances there are no grounds for talking of a genuine political *detente*, and the Soviet Government sees no reason for weakening its propaganda for universal peace through total general disarmament.

The Soviet proposal for total disarmament was rejected, incidentally, as extremely "impractical," in spite of the fact that the conference did not occupy itself with that proposal. Ten years of preparatory work and six months of the conference have, however, demonstrated fairly convincingly the impractical character of the other proposals which were put forward as a counterblast to the Soviet scheme. The careful study of the work of the conference and of its technical commissions must convince any impartial person of the greater practicability of the total abolition of particular categories of weapons than of the determination of their characteristics and the limitation of their dimensions. Considerations concerning relative security, concerning the infringement of established relativity, and concerning the infringement of the interests of particular countries are heard all the more loudly, the more we depart from the total abolition of particular categories of weapons.

The method of objective proportional reduction, recommended by the Soviet delegation in the Preparatory Commission and at the present conference, did not meet at first with support in any quarter. We now find this method in the proposals of the United States Government as well, to which a number of other delegations have acceded. From numerous letters and resolutions of various national and international organizations, the Soviet delegation learns with satisfaction that its position is receiving wider and wider recognition. It counts, however, not only on recognition but also on active support. The Soviet delegation will continue, in the further stages of the work of the conference, to maintain its positions firmly, and to show, on the appropriate occasions, the necessary steadfastness, in the interests of the movement against war, in the interests of genuine universal peace.

Soviet Delegation at Final Geneva Sessions

IN connection with the draft resolution registering the maximum general agreement reached in the first six months of the deliberations of the General Commission of the Disarmament Conference and laying down a program of work during the recess, presented to the delegates to vote upon before adjournment, the Soviet delegation made public on July 15 its minimum demands, without which any resolution would be unacceptable.

The Soviet delegation had, as is well known, made the principle of proportional-progressive limitation of armaments and their reduction by fifty per cent the basis of its own disarmament project, presented after its plan for total disarmament had been rejected. However, since it was apparent from the discussion of the American proposal for a one-third reduction that none of the delegates would support a greater reduction than this, the Soviet delegation declared that it was prepared to consider this "maximum" reduction, as the minimum first step in the reduc-

tion of armaments to which it was willing to adhere and on which it would insist.

The main points in the Soviet demands were as follows:

1. The quantitative reduction of all types of armaments by not less than 33⅓ per cent with exceptions for small countries and countries disarmed as a result of other international treaties;
2. Complete rejection of all bombing aviation;
3. The elimination of tanks of all categories;
4. The limitation of movable land artillery to weapons of a caliber not exceeding 100 mm. and limitation of naval artillery in accordance with the limitations of the caliber of coastal artillery;
5. Instructions to the presiding committee of the conference to prepare, in the interval between the two sessions of the conference, a practical proposal regarding the application of the principle of global reduction of naval armaments by 33⅓ per cent, and reduction of separate categories of ships.

At the session of the General Commission held on July 22 to consider the draft resolution, Maxim Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, analyzed both the resolution and the six months' proceedings of the conference. His speech in full is published elsewhere in this issue.

At the concluding sessions of the Disarmament Conference the Soviet amendments to the resolution were rejected, and the Soviet delegation was hence unable to accept the resolution.

Mr. Litvinov explained that the Soviet delegation, in voting against the part of the resolution concerned with chemical and bacteriological warfare, did so not because the Soviet Government was opposed to anything in the resolution, but because the Soviet Government had already signed the Geneva protocol containing the same elements as the resolution.

"I would not wish to release my government," he continued, "from obligations already undertaken, and replace binding obligations by a resolution binding it to nothing. When this question was considered in the preparatory commission, the governments which had not yet ratified the Geneva Convention were called upon to do so, at the suggestion of the Soviet Government. In response to this several governments ratified the convention. I am afraid that if we adopt this resolution any government which has not yet ratified the convention will find a pretext for not doing so."

In connection with the consideration of the point dealing with the question of control over the fulfillment of the draft convention and the question of instituting a "permanent committee on disarmament," Litvinov declared:

"The draft convention under discussion has never yet been considered by the conference and no opinion has been expressed regarding the value or superiority of this draft convention. The Soviet Government does not see how it can be accepted without consideration. As for a permanent commission on disarmament, that would be entirely opportune if there were any disarmament. In so far as there has been no decision on disarmament, I see no value in a permanent commission on disarmament. We must begin with disarmament. I therefore consider the institution of a permanent commission premature, to say the least."

In the discussion of the section of the resolution proposing that the questions of budgetary limitation of the production of and trade in armaments and reduction in the numerical strength of armies be turned over to a budgetary committee which would continue to function until the conference reconvened, Mr. Litvinov said:

"The resolution proposes that the budget commission should continue its work. This committee has already been working very diligently and steadily for four months. It has already produced 2,500 pages of material, concerning nine countries only, and by the time its work is finished the number of pages will probably reach six digits. I am not convinced that this work will be of any use. We have still to decide whether any degree of budget limitation will be acceptable, what form this limitation should take, whether this limitation of budgetary expenditures would be independent of the reduction of armaments. We did not oppose the participation of our representatives in the commissions while the work of the conference was in session. But it is about to bring its work to an end.

"We were therefore confronted with the question as to whether to send our representatives to that committee. My country is going through a period of gigantic reconstruction, intensive development. Our military workers do not limit their activities to military questions but take a very active part in the general construction of the country. I am not sure, therefore, whether my government will agree to free its workers for activities which might be entirely useless and fruitless. I must therefore reserve the decision on behalf of my government regarding the further participation of our workers in this committee, until the conference has adopted actual measures for disarmament. We are ready to undertake any sacrifice as long as we are convinced that it serves any end whatever connected with disarmament. But while this confusion exists we are forced to consider the question of the use of our workers and funds with extreme caution."

Mr. Litvinov then took up the question of reducing the numerical strength of armies. Remarking that the resolution emphasized the necessity of taking into consideration the conditions of defense, the number and character of the forces of each country separately, he declared:

"Of course the conditions of defense differ for

each country both with regard to the numbers and nature of its armed forces. In other words, the resolution means that limits for the reduction of the armed forces must be established for each country. It seems to me that that would be in contradiction to the American proposal in which special attention is directed to the necessity of cutting down the forces under their existing relations. This principle cannot be preserved if we begin to consider the peculiarities of each country separately."

The concluding statement of Mr. Litvinov, at the final session of the conference, was as follows:

"I declared the day before yesterday that the resolution offered by the speaker was not acceptable to the Soviet delegation. I pointed out the reasons for that and will not take the time of the commission to repeat them.

"I attempted to offer amendments to the resolution. I did not succeed in this. Notwithstanding the fact that so many delegations have stated their dissatisfaction with the resolution, it is now presented to us in its original form, unchanged. The attitude of the Soviet delegation toward the resolution is also unchanged. The Soviet delegation is forced to vote against the resolution. The Soviet delegation stands by its former position. It proposed complete disarmament, and naturally its proposal included every possible measure for the general reduction of armaments. The Soviet delegation can calmly await the agreement of other delegations to the reduction of armaments because its own agreement to such reduction is guaranteed in advance.

"However, I am very much afraid that if we do not clearly state our attitude toward the resolution, the position of the Soviet delegation might be incorrectly interpreted as a change in policy. Naturally, I wish to avoid that. In the final analysis the attitude of the various delegations to the resolution will be judged not on the basis of speeches and explanations, but on the basis of whether they voted for or against the resolution. It would be really distressing if the voting created the impression that the conference unanimously accepted the present resolution as expressing the limits of the desire of all nations for disarmament. It is absolutely necessary, in my opinion, that the whole world should know that there are delegations which do not wish to stop at these limits and wish to strain every effort to push the conference as far as possible beyond the confines of this resolution to real reduction of armaments and by short decisive steps—to complete disarmament. Only on that road is there real security for all nations. First of all, security against war, security for the independence of nations and free development in accordance with their own desires and ideals, without any obstacle or outside intervention. Only by that road can there be real equality of nations which we should like to achieve not as an equality of arms, but as an equality in disarmament. Equality achieved today may be destroyed tomorrow so long as armaments and their inevitable corollary, war, exist. I should like to believe that all those who are really interested in universal and prolonged peace, in security for all nations, and in equal rights for all nations, will see a ray of hope not in how many nations have voted for an obviously unsatisfactory resolution, but in the fact that there is at least one delegation which is always ready to unequivocally demonstrate its dissatisfaction with any mere limitation of armament and hence to work for the hastening of the time when, to take advantage of the French president's happy excursion into the realm of grammar,* the verb 'disarm' will never be used by the nations in the present or future tense, but only in the past, and only with embarrassment and shame."

In the final vote on the resolution, Mr. Litvinov declared that he voted "for disarmament, but against the resolution."

Book Reviews

"THE SOVIET WORKER," by Joseph Freeman. Liveright, Inc., New York, 1932. $2.50.

Mr. Freeman's book fills a gap among the numerous studies of the Soviet Union by American writers. It represents much painstaking research and close personal observation. The book is described in the preface as "an attempt to collate some of the more important material dealing with Soviet labor." The task has been very thoroughly accomplished.

Mr. Freeman starts with a historical summary showing the condition of workers under the Tsars. He then traces the development of Soviet economy and the Soviet planning system. With this background he proceeds to describe in detail the conditions under which the worker labors and lives in the Soviet Union. His comprehensive exposition covers labor laws, the trade unions, wages, socialized wages, hours, labor productivity, social insurance, health regulations, housing and municipal services, the cooperatives, the handicraft industries, the new socialist cities, the position of women, children and the family, the status of the minor nationalities, the distribution and consumption of goods, the training of workers, the planning of labor power, the new opportunities for education, culture and individual development.

*Mr. Litvinov refers to M. Herriot's observation that "disarm" seemed to be in all languages "an irregular verb" used only in the future tense and then never in the first person.

The book contains interesting documentary appendices, a glossary, a bibliography and an excellent index.

"A SCIENTIST AMONG THE SOVIETS," by Julian Huxley. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1932. $1.50.

Professor Huxley's little volume is the fruit of a visit to the Soviet Union in 1931 with a party of British scientific and medical men and women. The English biologist has produced one of the most interesting and thought-provoking books on the new Russia that has yet appeared from the pen of a foreigner.

"MADE IN RUSSIA," by William C. White. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1932. $2.00.

Mr. White's book, designed for children of ten years and upwards, deals mainly with the popular arts and crafts in Russia, including their historical background and development. The treatment is at once simple and colorful and the narrative is interspersed with authentic folk tales and legends. The historical chapters are balanced by brief chapters under such titles as "Tractors" and "Dynamos" which give glimpses of the evolution of the Russian village under the infiltration of the modern machine. The illustrative sketches and decorations by G. R. Wiren are appropriately Russian.

"A POCKET GUIDE TO THE SOVIET UNION." Intourist, Moscow, 1932. $2.50.

The new pocket guide in English issued by Intourist contains 700 thin-paper pages packed with facts of interest and value to the foreign tourist in the Soviet Union. The descriptive body of the book covers a wide range. There is a directory of the hotels and places of public interest (including theatres, museums, libraries, scientific and commercial institutions) of the principal cities. There is a glossary and a 25-page index. There are maps of the European and Asiatic portions of the country and of Moscow and Leningrad. A prefatory section gives background material on the economic, cultural, social, political and geographical aspects of the country.

"DAWN IN RUSSIA," by Waldo Frank. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1932. $2.25.

Mr. Frank visited the Soviet Union on what he planned to be a vacation trip. His zest for observation and study got the better of his casual intentions, and the result was a serious interpretive volume of 272 pages. His volume will have a special appeal to persons interested in aesthetic and intellectual values.

LIST OF BOOKS ON U.S.S.R.—1932

"Working for the Soviets," by Walter Arnold Rukeyser. Covici Fried, New York, 1932. $3.
"New Minds: New Men?" by Thomas Woody. Macmillan Co., New York, 1932. $4.
"Ding Goes to Russia," by Jay N. Darling. Whittelsey House, New York, 1932. $4.
"Russia," by Hans von Eckardt. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1932. $7.50.
"Russia: Market or Menace?" by Thomas D. Campbell. Longmans, Green and Co., New York, 1932. $2.
"Protection of Women and Children in Soviet Russia," by Alice Withrow Field. Dutton, New York, 1932. $3.
"Rural Russia Under the Old Regime," by Gerold Tanquary Robinson. Longmans, Green and Co., New York, 1932. $4.
"This Is Russia," by George Earle Raiguel and William Kistler Huff. The Penn Publishing Company, Philadelphia, 1932. $5.
"Machines and Men in Russia," by Louis Fischer. Harrison Smith, New York. $2.50.
"The Soviet Worker," by Joseph Freeman. Liveright, Inc., New York, 1932. $2.50.
"A Scientist Among the Soviets," by Julian Huxley. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1932. $1.50.
"Made in Russia," by William C. White. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1932. $2.
"A Pocket Guide to the Soviet Union." Intourist, Moscow, 1932. $2.50.
"Dawn in Russia," by Waldo Frank. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1932. $2.25.

Miscellaneous News

Col. Cooper and Staff Decorated by Soviet Government

On August 25 Colonel Hugh L. Cooper, chief consulting engineer for the Dnieprostroy hydroelectric project, was awarded the Order of the Red Star, one of the highest decorations bestowed by the Soviet government, for his distinguished services. Six members of his staff were awarded the Order of Lenin for their achievements.

Before leaving Moscow, Colonel Cooper made the following statement in an interview with representatives of the press:

"Our firm began its activities as engineer-consultants in the planning, direction and construction of the largest hydroelectric station in the world on the Dnieper river, at Kichkass, in Southern Ukraine, at the beginning of 1927.

"In that period the pouring of 1,600,000 cubic yards of concrete on the granite foundations was successfully achieved, requiring a type of construction unprecedented in its audacity and difficulties. The flood of May, 1930, which reached a velocity of 850,000 cubic feet a second, was a serious test and attested the success of the construction.

"In the course of 1930 the world record in

concrete pouring was broken at Dnieprostroy, where an average of about 30,000 workers were at work. The total capacity of the station is to be 810,000 h. p., of which equipment for 450,000 has already been completed. The first turbine of 80,000 h. p. was set in operation April 16.

"I have just completed a thorough examination of this undertaking and as a result of a conference between Soviet engineers and myself the People's Commissariat for Heavy Industry passed a resolution officially accepting all our work, and relieving us of further responsibility on our contract. It is necessary for us only to leave at Kichkass until May 1, 1933 (the period of expiration of the contract), our consultant in directing the exploitation of the station, Mr. Robinson. The manner in which our work was received will always leave the most splendid memories with us.

"Certainly the years that preceded this acceptance were full of days and hours of alarm, but now that the project is functioning so well, all of us, Russian and American engineers, have alike forgotten our anxieties and the final picture of our mutual efforts makes us all very happy in considering our joint work and cooperation.

"The construction, near Dnieprostroy, of a metallurgical city around the ferrous and nonferrous metal industries, which will utilize 2,500,000,000 kilowatt hours of electric power, is nearing completion. When the Soviet government accepted our work, one great unit in their five-year plan, on which so much hope has been expended, became a practical reality.

"The practical experience in the application of American methods gained here by the people of the Soviet Union, is a lever calculated to raise the living standards of the entire country—living standards which will continue to rise steadily.

"No intelligent person looking at Dnieprostroy can ever doubt that the people of the U.S.S.R. can become a strong industrial power.

"In making our farewells we congratulate them on their fine achievements and wish them every success in the future."

The final dedication ceremonies of Dnieprostroy will be held in October.

INCREASE IN SCIENTIFIC INSTITUTIONS

Gosplan of the R.S.F.S.R. has recently completed the work of surveying and systematizing all the existing scientific institutions. There are at the present time 900 of these throughout the Soviet Union, with 40,000 scientific workers. Over half a billion rubles is being expended this year on scientific work throughout the Soviet Union as a whole.

In the R.S.F.S.R. there are 235 scientific research institutes of national importance, exclusive of smaller local institutes. In these 6,500 scientific workers are employed. This represents an increase of two and a half times over the number of such institutes existing at the beginning of the five-year plan.

There are 314 local scientific research institutes, of these 84 are situated in the autonomous republics and regions.

DECREE ON COLLECTIVE LAND

On September 3 a decree was issued prohibiting withdrawal of land from agricultural collectives. The decree opened with the following paragraphs:

"In the most important agricultural rayons of the U.S.S.R. collectivization has in the main been completed. The collective peasantry in these rayons have concentrated in their own use from 80 to 90 per cent of all the government state land formerly worked by individual methods, and thereby they have done forever with that plague of individual farming—the strip system, with its scattered and distant plots of land.

"However, in many places cases have been noted of slicing off land being used by the collectives for the sovhozes; of arbitrary changing of the boundaries between the collectives; of cutting off land from the collectives in cases individual members leave the collectives, and dividing the land up among different collectives."

The decree, therefore, provides that any land held in productive use by any collective is to remain in the use of that collective. Special land commissions are to be set up for the settlement of all questions connected with the distribution of land. Local organs of the government are forbidden to turn over any land used by collectives for the use of State or Cooperative farms without special permission of the land commission. Neither may local government organs transfer land from one collective to another. Changes in the boundaries of collectives in connection with their merging or enlargement can be made only with the consent of three-fourths of the members of the collectives in question and the land commission. Changes in boundaries or the exchange of land plots between collectives must also be ratified by the proper land commission.

The most important provision of the decree is that prohibiting any change in the boundaries of the collectives in the event that separate members withdraw from the collective. Peasants withdrawing may receive their quota of land from the free land fund of the government, but on no account is any of the land in use by the collective to be turned over to their use. Land is added to the collective fund on the entry of new members into collective membership through the village Soviet by previously established methods.

Books About the U.S.S.R. in the English Language

The following list is given in chronological order.

"Ten Days that Shook the World," by John Reed. International Publishers, New York.

"Russia in 1919," by Arthur Ransome. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1919.

"The Bullitt Mission to Russia." Testimony before the Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate, of Wm. C. Bullitt. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1919

"Fighting Without a War." An Account of Military Intervention in North Russia, by Ralph Albertson. Harcourt, Brace and Howe, New York, 1920.

"The Russian Workers' Republic," by H. N. Brailsford. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1921.

"Through the Russian Revolution," by Albert Rhys Williams. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1921.

"The Russian Soviet Republic," by Edward A. Ross. The Century Co., New York, 1923.

"The First Time in History," by Anna Louise Strong. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1924.

Leon Trotsky: "Literature and Revolution," International Publishers, New York, 1925; "Lenin." Minton Balch & Co., New York, 1925; "Whither Russia?" International Publishers, New York, 1926.

"The New Theatre and Cinema in Russia," by Huntley Carter. International Publishers, New York, 1925.

"Broken Earth," by Maurice Hindus. International Publishers, New York, 1926.

"Oil Imperialism—The International Struggle for Petroleum," by Louis Fischer, International Publishers, New York, 1926.

"Modern Russian Composers," by Leonid Sabaneyef. International Publishers, New York, 1927.

"The Russian Land," by Albert Rhys Williams. New Republic, Inc., New York, 1927.

"Russia After Ten Years." Report of the American Trade Union Delegation to the Soviet Union. International Publishers, New York, 1927.

Vanguard Studies of Soviet Russia. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1927-28: "How the Soviets Work," by H. N. Brailsford.—"The Economic Organization of the Soviet Union," by Scott Nearing and Jack Hardy.—"Village Life Under the Soviets," by Karl Borders.—"Religion under the Soviets," by Julius F. Hecker.—"Soviet Russia and Her Neighbors," by R. Page Arnot.—"Soviet Trade Unions," by Robert W. Dunn.—"Women in Soviet Russia," by Jessica Smith.—"New Schools in New Russia," by Lucy L. W. Wilson.—"Health Work in Soviet Russia," by Anna J. Haines.—"Liberty under the Soviets," by Roger N. Baldwin.—"The Jews and Other Minor Nationalities under the Soviets," by Avrahm Yarmolinsky.

"Soviet Russia in the Second Decade": Edited by Stuart Chase, Robert Dunn and R. G. Tugwell of the Technical Staff of the First American Trade Union Delegation to the Soviet Union. John Day Company, New York, 1928.

"Present Day Russia," by Ivy Lee. Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.

"Labor Protection in Soviet Russia," by George M. Price. International Publishers, New York, 1928.

"Illustrated History of the Russian Revolution," 1917-1927. Ten Years' Progress Reported by Authoritative Russian Leaders. 2 Vol. International Publishers, New York, 1928.

"Russian Economic Development Since the Revolution," by Maurice Dobb. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1928.

"Guide Book to the Soviet Union." International Publishers, New York, 1928.

"American Policy Toward Russia Since 1917," by Dr. Fred L. Schuman. International Publishers, New York, 1928.

"Dreiser Looks at Russia," by Theodore Dreiser. Horace Liveright, New York, 1928.

"Lenin," by Valeriu Marcu. Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.

"Soviet Union Year Book," by A. A. Santalov and Louis Segal. George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., London, England, 1930 (May be obtained from Amkniga Corporation, 258 Fifth Avenue, New York City. $2.50).

"Impressions of Soviet Russia and the Revolutionary World," by John Dewey. New Republic, Inc., New York, 1929.

"The Soviet Union: Reference Book on the U.S.S.R." Soviet Union Information Bureau, Washington, 1929.

"Civic Training in Soviet Russia," by Samuel N. Harper. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929.

"The Curious Lottery," by Walter Duranty. Coward McCann, New York, 1929.

"Soviet Union & Peace." A collection of official documents regarding peace and disarmament, 1917-1929. International Publishers, New York, 1929.

"Revolution of 1917," by V. I. Lenin, Volume XX of Collected Works—2 vols. International Publishers, New York, 1929.

"The Soviet Union Looks Ahead." The Five-Year Plan for Economic Construction. Horace Liveright, New York, 1929.

"The Red Star in Samarkand," by Anna Louise Strong. Coward McCann, New York, 1929.

"Humanity Uprooted," by Maurice Hindus. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York, 1929.

"Voices of October—Art and Literature in Soviet Russia," by Joseph Freeman, Joshua Kunitz and Louis Lozowick. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1930. $4.

"The New Education in the Soviet Republic," by Albert P. Pinkevitch. John Day Company, New York, 1929.

"Soviet Economic Development and American Business," by Saul G. Bron. Horace Liveright, New York, 1930.

"Soviet Russia—A Living Record and a History," by W. H. Chamberlain. Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1930, $5.

"Russia Today and Yesterday," by Dr. E. J. Dillon. Doubleday Doran, New York, 1930. $3.50.

"A Ford Crosses Soviet Russia," by George S. Counts. Stratford Co., Boston, Mass., 1930.

"The Soviets in World Affairs," 2 vols., by Louis Fischer. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York, 1930. $10.00.

"Memories of Lenin," by Nadezhda K. Krupskaya. International Publishers, New York, 1930. $1.50.

"The Five-Year Plan of the Soviet Union," by G. T. Grinko. International Publishers, New York, 1930. $3.50

"The Russian Experiment," by Arthur Feller. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1930. $3.

"Piatiletka: Russia's 5-Year Plan," by Michael Farbman. New Republic, Inc., New York, 1931. $1.

"The Soviet Challenge to America," by George S. Counts, Associate Director International Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University. John Day Company, N. Y., 1931. $4.

"The Challenge of Russia," by Sherwood Eddy. Farrar and Rinehart, New York, 1931. $2.50.

"The Economic Life of Soviet Russia," by Calvin B. Hoover, Ph. D., Professor of Economics, Duke University. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1931. $3.

"Russia's Productive System," by Emile Burns. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 1931.

"The Red Trade Menace," by H. R. Knickerboker. Dodd, Mead and Company, New York, 1931. $2.50.

"Soviet Foreign Trade, Menace or Promise," by Budish and Shipman. Horace Liveright, New York, 1931. $2.50.

"Progress in the Soviet Union," charts and diagrams compiled by Albert A. Johnson. A. A. Johnson and Associates, Springfield, Mass., 1931.

"Making Bolsheviks," by Samuel N. Harper, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1931. $2.00.

"The Road to the Grey Pamir," by Anna Louise Strong. Little, Brown and Co., Boston, 1931. $3.00.

"Why Recognize Russia?" by Louis Fischer. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York, 1931. $2.00.

"New Russia's Primer—The Story of the Five-Year Plan," by M. Ilin. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston & N. Y., 1931. $1.75.

"Red Bread," by Maurice Hindus. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York, 1931. $3.50.

"Pan-Sovietism," by Bruce Hopper. Houghton Mifflin and Co., Boston and New York. 1931. $2.50.

"Economic Handbook of the Soviet Union." American-Russian Chamber of Commerce, New York, 1931. $1.00.

"The Soviet Planned Economic Order," by William Henry Chamberlin. World Peace Foundation, Boston, 1931. $2.50 (Student Edition, 75 cents).

"The Red Fog Lifts; A Wall Street Man Visits Soviet Russia," by Albert Muldavin. D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1931. $2.00.

"The Soviet Conquers Wheat," by Anna Louise Strong. Henry Holt and Co., New York, 1931. $2.50.

"Red Villages: The Five-Year Plan in Agriculture," by Y. A. Yakovlev, Commissar for Agriculture, U.S.S.R. International Publishers, New York, 1931. $1.50.

"The Success of the Five-Year Plan," by V. M. Molotov, Chairman Council of People's Commissars, U.S.S.R. International Publishers, New York, 1931. $1.25.

"America's Siberian Adventure," by Major-General William S. Graves, with foreword by Hon. Newton D. Baker. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York, 1931. $3.50.

"Russia and the Soviet Union in the Far East," by Victor A. Yakhontoff. Coward McCann, New York, 1931. $5.00.

"Recognition of Soviet Russia." Selected Articles compiled by Buehler, Maxwell and Pflaum. H. W. Wilson Co., New York, 1931. $2.40.

"The Planned Economy of Soviet Russia," by A. Ford Hinrichs and William Adams Brown, Jr. Reprinted from Political Science Quarterly by Academy of Political Science, New York, 1931.

"An Editor Looks at Russia," by Ray Long. Ray Long and Richard R. Smith, New York. $1.00.

"Eyes on Russia," by Margaret Bourke-White. Simon and Schuster, New York. $5.00.

"My Russian Venture," by Mrs. Cecil Chesterton. J. B. Lippincott Co., New York. $2.50.

"Soviet Policy in Public Finance, 1917-1928," by Gregory Y. Sokolnikov and Associates. Stanford University Press, Stanford University, Calif. $4.00.

"Is Soviet Trade a Menace," by W. P. Coates. Anglo-Russian Parliamentary Committee, London, 1931.

"Soviet Administration of Criminal Law," by Judah Zelitch. Univ. of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1931. $5.

Note: *For list of books on the U.S.S.R published in 1932 see page 190.*

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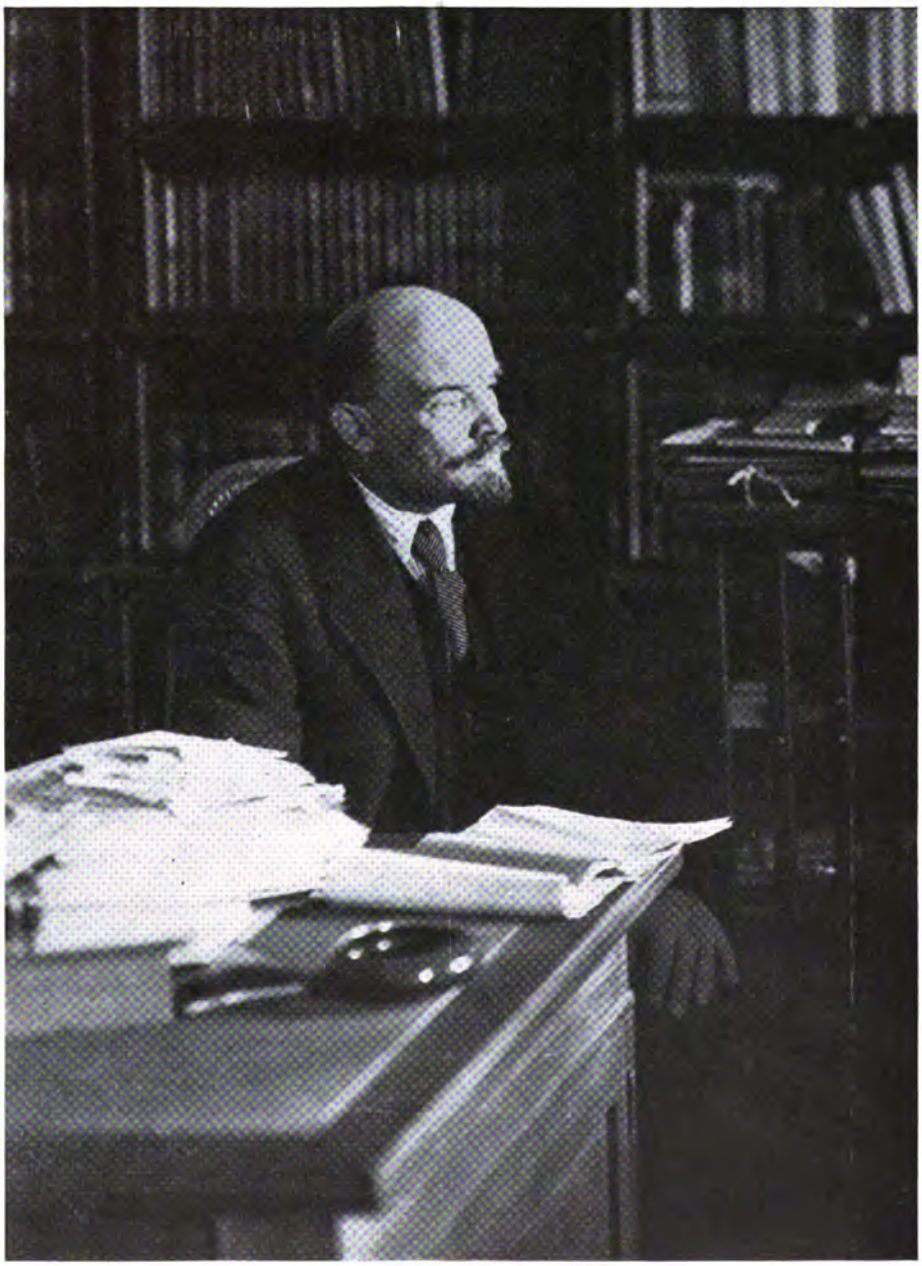

Vladimir Ilyich Ulianov—Lenin

SOVIET UNION REVIEW

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The First Fifteen Years

NOVEMBER 7, this year, is a new Soviet milestone. It marks the completion of fifteen years of the Soviet Republic, and as this is written preparations are being made throughout the Soviet Union to celebrate the event with appropriate ceremonies. Throughout the country the celebrations will center about tangible monuments of accomplishment, most of them completed during the past few years. These include the thousands of new schoolhouses and educational and scientific institutions; the great concrete crescent of the Dnieprostroy dam; the huge new productive plants, a number of them, like the great steel ganglia of Magnitogorsk and Kuznetsk, rearing their throbbing bulks in places where, a few years back, the winds of the steppe blew across a wilderness; the new "socialist cities," sprung up with their homes and parks and boulevards where formerly stretched the open plain; the towering silos of the collective farms and the long lines of tractors streaming over the farmland. In the fifteen years the face of old Russia has changed. The foundations of a socialist economy have been established, with an increasing utilization of modern mass-production machinery and the use of modern technique.

These physical changes are far-reaching and obvious; the change in the spirit of the population is more profound. The cringing and the serf-mentality that gripped the mass of the population under Tsarism are happily gone forever. The new generation that has grown up during the past fifteen years is enthusiastic and self-confident. Even in this transition stage, with its inevitable handicaps and dislocations, they face the future with full confidence and lead the van of the advance.

Of the Soviet Union's fifteen years of existence the first five were years of civil war, of foreign invasions and blockades, of plague, of famine, of general economic dissolution, in a country that had already been bled white under corrupt and incompetent leadership during the world war. The famine came as a bitter culmination in a country that suffered from an advanced stage of economic paralysis and that had used up its reserves.

Recovery began slowly—it was almost a miracle that it could begin at all—but steadily month by month and year by year it gathered momentum. Life gradually became more than merely a day to day struggle to keep alive. Schools opened, even in villages where not a single inhabitant had ever learned to write his name, in villages where not a single pupil possessed a pair

of shoes and the whole school equipment consisted of a single tattered primer, a single slate and a few bits of chalk. The scourges of typhus, typhoid, malaria were faced by a ragged army of physicians, minus drugs and equipment, and were steadily driven back, just as equally ragged armies of peasants and workers had driven back Kolchak and Denikin and other Tsarist adventurers a few years before. A heroic struggle was made to restore the transport system, which had been utterly wrecked in the civil wars, and slowly the cities were again linked together. The peasant crept back to his fields. In the cities parts of plants were salvaged from their wreckage and factory chimneys began to smoke once more. Order slowly emerged. The last bandit bands were mopped up.

Even before the recovery had begun, while the country was still in chaos and the armies of the new republic were still fighting against Tsarist generals and invaders on a dozen fronts, Lenin summoned a commission of scientists to draw up a comprehensive plan of electrification for the entire country. The commissioners (working with freezing fingers over their graphs and charts, because Moscow had no fuel) evolved a fifteen-year plan for power development, including a chain of regional super-power stations. Skeptical foreigners had many a good laugh over "Lenin's folly," as the plan was called. The laugh seemed justified enough. The country was in ruins. The largest power plant it had ever possessed was a small affair of 20,000 kilowatts.

So the cynics had their laugh—twelve years ago. Today one can study the old plan with a different point of view. The only trouble with it is that the professors and technicians who drew it were too modest. In twelve years the plan that was considered grandiose in 1920 has been more than fulfilled. The power-chain already in operation goes beyond the plans projected in 1920, and each month it is extended. A few weeks ago a power plant larger than the original planners dared dream of, the largest power plant in the world, was opened on the Dnieper River. Already preparations are being made to start work on a hydroelectric project on the Volga River planned for three times the capacity of the Dnieper plant, and plans are being drawn for several more giant power projects in Siberia which will dwarf Dnieprostroy.

Lenin's electrification commission marked the beginnings of planned economy in the Soviet Union. Since then economic planning has permeated all phases of the productive life of the country. This planning is at present being worked out under a Five-Year Plan which will draw to its close at the end of this year. A second Five-Year Plan will be inaugurated January 1 next.

Economic progress is shown in the following table, giving statistics for 1913, for 1922 (the low point in production) and for 1931:

	1913	1922	1931
Power output (million kw. hours)	1,950	.....	10,600
Coal (metric tons)	28,900,000	9,000,000	57,000,000
Oil (metric tons)	9,300,000	4,900,000	23,100,000
Pig iron (metric tons)	4,200,000	200,000	4,900,000
Railway freight (thous. tons)	132,400	39,900	254,900
Sown area (hectares)	116,700,000	77,700,000	136,600,000

Progress in Industry

At the beginning of 1922 Russia's crippled industries were producing at the rate of about 15 per cent of the pre-war output. The painful upward struggle to recovery took approximately six years. It was effected wholly from the energies and resources within the country. The nations of western Europe did not resume relations with the Soviet Union until 1924. There have been no foreign loans.

Since 1928 the economic progress has been more rapid. Pre-war output of industry has been left far behind. Even the world-wide economic depression has not slackened the rate of advance, though it has placed severe handicaps on some of the more ambitious points of the year-to-year program. The sharp drop in the world prices of raw materials has been a primary handicap, because the Soviet Union must export raw materials to pay for her imports of industrial machinery. The price of these imports has increased in relation to the price of a ton of wheat or of lumber or of oil. Another handicap operative during most of this year has been the tension in the Far East.

In spite of these handicaps, during the first half of this year the output of heavy industry increased 25.5 per cent over the same period of last year, and the output of light industry (consumers' goods) increased 12.5 per cent. This increase maintained the industrial output at a rate well in advance of the original schedules of the Five-Year Plan. On the other hand the rate of increase was disappointing as compared with the ambitious "control figures" set for this year by the State Planning Commission. In respect to the "control figures" the handicaps referred to above had their effect.

The "control figures," published in advance each year by the State Planning Commission, fix the economic objectives for the year. They are based on the accomplishments of the previous year, the prospective needs. They represent a synthesis of economic factors. Cumulatively the successive annual control figures have represented a sharp speeding up of the original Five-Year Plan. Thus the time-limit set for the plan has been steadily shortened, and it will formally close at the end of this year, in four and a quarter years instead of five.

In some industries it will be under-fulfilled,

Soyuzphoto

Kuznetskstroy—coke battery, power station and blast furnace

notably in the production of iron, steel, iron ore. In certain other respects the original plan will be generously surpassed. Thus the oil industry attained in two and a half years the rate of production envisaged for the end of five years. The machine-building industry is likewise far ahead of the plan. In the first half of this year its output was 74 per cent of the output scheduled for the full year 1932-33, the final year of the original plan. The electrical industry will also exceed the figures set by the plan.

The new "industrial giants" set up in the Soviet Union in the course of the present plan, to produce complicated machines such as tractors, combines and various industrial machines, have not unnaturally met with handicaps incidental to a rapid development of industry in a country hitherto predominantly rural in which even elementary education up to a few years ago was a luxury. These handicaps have included shortage of technicians and trained personnel, errors of untrained executives, difficulties in an overburdened transportation system, shortages in various kinds of raw materials, high labor turnover. Thus a number of the new "industrial giants," notably the Stalingrad tractor plant and the automobile plant at Nizhni-Novgorod (now Gorod Gorky) have suffered numerous set-backs in production and have been slow in approaching full productivity.

Despite these factors the actual progress in production has been remarkable. Thus during the first half of this year 24,780 tractors were produced in the Soviet Union, as against 14,340 produced in the entire year 1931. At present the daily output is well over 200, giving assurance of at least 60,000 for the year. The Five-Year Plan envisaged the production of 55,000 tractors by *next year*, the last year of the plan.

Again, take the case of pig iron, a "backward" product, which ran far below the "control figures" last year and is running 35 per cent behind the "control figures" in 1932. Yet the increase in output during the first half of this year, as compared with the first half of 1931, was 25.5 per cent. Since the beginning of the Five-Year Plan the Soviet Union has assumed first place among the countries of Europe as a producer of iron and steel. In the world it is now second only to the United States.

In this connection it is interesting to note that in the fiscal year 1928, before the beginning of the Five-Year Plan, the Soviet Union produced 3,280,000 tons of pig iron. In 1928 the United States produced 38,156,000 tons of pig iron. The United States in that year produced twelve times as much pig iron as the Soviet Union. The figures for August, 1932, were:

Soviet Union	502,000 tons
United States	530,576 tons

In 1928 the Soviet Union stood fifth among the countries of the world in industrial output. Today it stands second.

During the first half of this year, in heavy industry alone, over 100 new plants costing, 1,300,000,000 rubles were opened in the Soviet Union.

These included new steel mills at Magnitogorsk and Kuznetsk, which will eventually produce more steel than all the plants of Tsarist Russia together. The formal opening, in October, of the Dnieper River hydroelectric plant, marks the inauguration of a whole new complex of industries in the southern industrial region.

Electrification

The opening of the Dnieper River plant, with its eventual capacity of 756,000 horse power, marks the high point in the electrification program under the present Five-Year Plan.

In connection with this opening it is interesting to note that the American engineer, Colonel Hugh L. Cooper, who served as chief consultant on the project, was decorated with the Order of the Red Star, one of the highest decorations for public service bestowed by the Soviet Government. Six of his American assistants received the Order of Lenin.

During the first half of this year the output of electrical energy was 43 per cent greater than during the same period in 1931. The annual progress in this respect under the plan, as compared with the output in 1913, is shown by the following table giving billions of kilowatt hours:

1913	1.95
1928	5.00
1929	6.29
1930	8.23
1931	10.60

Agriculture

At the time of spring sowing this year 62 per cent of the peasant households were organized in the collective farms. The "socialized sector" of agriculture, consisting of the collective and the State farms, accounted for 80 per cent of the sown area.

The spring sowings of 96,676,000 hectares were 94.5 per cent of the "control figures," and 99.6 per cent of the sowing of 1931. In grain the respective figures were 82 and 95 per cent. The sowings of technical crops were well up to the "control figures" and showed a marked advance over the previous year.

On the whole, considering that both collective and State farms are pioneer enterprises, involving novel problems of management and human relations, the showing was as good as could be expected. Given proper machinery and management the collective farms have demonstrated their superiority in production as compared with the individual strip farms with their outmoded methods. They hold the kernel for a much higher standard of living for the village, and in many sections they have already created a new and higher type of village life. They are still, however, in the pioneer stage, with many problems to be worked out. Being new, they have been troubled with what the Russians call "infantile diseases." In some sections they have suffered from poor executive management. In some instances their very bigness has caused mistakes, and has intensified the costliness of these mistakes. Under experience, however, their problems are being smoothed out. They are gaining in efficiency. The foundations for a well-integrated agriculture have been laid. During the three years of the Five-Year Plan the sown area has increased 15 per cent. At present efforts are being concentrated in increasing per acre yield and improving quality.

Thus the recent agricultural program for 1933, announced by the Council of People's Commissars, provides for no increase in the area of the technical crops, and only a moderate increase in the area sown to grain. Stress is laid on securing higher production through improved methods of cultivation and better seed.

An important factor in the development of socialized agriculture is the increase of machine and tractor stations, which furnish tractor service to groups of collective farms. In the spring plowing of 1932 there were 2,100 of these stations, as compared with 1,000 last year. They did the plowing for 35.3 million hectares, over half the sown area of the collective farms, as compared with 20 million hectares last year. They employed 71,530 tractors, 42 per cent more than last year.

Transport

Railway mileage at the end of 1931 was 81,000 kilometers, an increase of about 5,000 kilometers since the beginning of the Five-Year Plan. Freight and passenger operations in 1931 were 6 per cent above the schedule for the last year of the plan. During the first half of 1932 they increased respectively 15.8 per cent and 44.7 per cent as compared with the same period of last year. However both freight operations and new construction lagged behind the goal set in the "control figures" for the year. In the matter of new equipment there was a similar lag. The 9,162 new freight cars delivered represented only about half the number set for the period. New locomotives made a somewhat better showing, upwards of 70 per cent of the number scheduled. On the whole the railway situation showed marked improvement, though congestion and delays, caused by the rapidly increasing demands, are still common, and the railway problem is still a major problem in the national economy .

Soviet air lines were 11.971 kilometers at the beginning of the Five-Year Plan. This year they had been extended to four and a half times that figure. The air lines were extended 55 per cent last year and further large extensions are planned. By the end of 1937 it is expected that all parts of the Soviet Union will be linked by 300,000 kilometers of air lines in regular operation. The air lines carried less than 9,000 pas-

sengers in 1928, and this year they will carry some 40,000.

Education

During the present year the Soviet Union is spending the equivalent of over three billion dollars on education. In the cities last year 100 per cent of the children between 8 and 12 years were attending school and 86 per cent in the villages. At the beginning of the Five-Year Plan the respective percentages were 83 and 51. Compulsory primary education for four years was introduced two years ago. In 1933 the compulsory period will be extended to seven years. Illiteracy in the growing generation in the Soviet Union will be as rare as in the most advanced countries. Before the war two Russians out of three grew up illiterate.

Since the beginning of the plan hundreds of schools have been established in sections that never had a school before, many among peoples that never before had a written language, peoples for whom an alphabet had to be created. In the northern districts alone alphabets have been created for fourteen illiterate tribes and schools established for their children.

It is estimated that illiteracy has been wiped out among 19,000,000 adults in the past two years.

The zeal for education has enlisted fully half the population in studies or cultural work of some sort. In the Russian Republic proper 30 out of 100 adults are enrolled in some technical or higher educational institute.

This year approximately half a million students are attending the technical colleges and technical high schools. Another half million are enrolled in the workers' faculties, which offer intensified technical training for workers on the job. These institutions are for the most part new in Russia. In Tsarist Russia there were but twelve technical colleges with an enrollment of 19,000 (1914).

As noted elsewhere in this issue, the number of students in all higher educational institutions has tripled since 1928, and the number in technicums has quadrupled. Where there were but 57,000 specialists with college training in the Soviet Union in 1929, there are now 216,000.

Labor

The large labor turnover in industry is still a major problem in the Soviet Union. It is accentuated by the fact that the great expansion of industry has resulted in a marked labor shortage. It has also been accentuated by difficulties of housing and of local transportation in a number of the new industrial centers, which difficulties are being slowly overcome, and in some cases by sporadic shortages in food and other commodities, due to the overburdened transportation system.

Increases in productivity, due to the rapid introduction of better equipment, have made possible a steady rise in the wage scale. A seven-hour working day has been expanded until last spring it included over 83 per cent of the workers in industry. Plans for the next five years include the general adoption of a six-day week, with a uniform rest-day on the sixth day. Trade union membership has increased from 10,900,000 in 1928 to 16,500,000 in the spring of 1932.

Soyuzphoto

The new metal workers club at Podolsk, near Moscow

A real accomplishment has been the system of measures for the protection and benefit of labor that has been established in the Soviet Union and strengthened and enlarged in recent years. Social insurance provides free medical and dental care, allowances for illness and disability, pensions for old age. Workers have two weeks' vacation each year with full pay, and in underground or dangerous trades, four weeks. Women in industry receive from six to eight weeks leave with pay before and after child birth. Special benefits provided by employers under the law include free or nominal rentals for housing, free fuel, water, electric light, transportation, work clothing.

Child labor is forbidden.

An elaborate system of arbitration commissions on which the workers are represented on an equal footing with the employing enterprises, has been built up for the settlement of labor disputes.

Wages have been increased steadily of recent years. Working hours in industry which were 9.87 in 1913, have been gradually reduced to 7.02 in 1931. There is no unemployment.

Safety and health regulations in industry have steadily increased in vigor and efficiency.

Growth of Cities

The rapid industralization has resulted in a tremendous growth of the population of the cities. Below are given the principal cities with their populations as given in the census of 1926, and in 1931:

	1926	1931
Moscow	2,124,500	2,781,300
Leningrad	1,614,008	2,228,300
Baku	452,808	575,200
Kiev	513,789	539,500
Kharkov	417,342	521,500
Odessa	420,788	475,500
Rostov-on-Don	308,284	457,100
Tashkent	323,613	421,800
Nizhni-Novgorod	220,815	350,300
Tiflis	292,973	347,900
Dniepropetrovsk	233,001	322,800
Stalingrad	148,370	294,500
Saratov	215,276	277,500
Sverdlovsk	131,535	223,300
Samara	175,662	220,400

The aggregate growth of these fifteen principal cities in five years was 32 per cent.

Foreign Trade

The sharp decline in world commerce during the current depression has affected Soviet foreign trade, though not to the extent it has operated in other countries. Soviet foreign trade did not decline appreciably until the latter part of 1931, when the sharp drop in the prices of raw materials throughout the world began to cut into the value of Soviet exports.

Exports for the first six months of 1932 were $141,707,000, a decrease of 25 per cent as compared with the same period of last year. Imports of $208,716,000 showed a drop of 22 per cent. The unfavorable trade balance was $69,000,000. Export figures, however, do not include exports of gold, which would materially cut down the negative balance. Long-term credit arrangements in Germany, Italy and England were continued during the year. Special arrangements for the sale of large quantities of Soviet oil products to France and Japan were concluded.

Relatively the Soviet Union has increased its importance in international trade during the past few years. It has become Germany's foremost foreign customer. The series of non-aggression pacts concluded with the border states has resulted in better conditions for commerce with these immediate neighbors.

The trade figures for the first six months of this year denote a marked shift on the import list, representing a gravitation to the channels of least resistance. The bulk of Soviet imports consist of machinery and equipment. Such imports have come principally from the United States, Germany, England and Italy. Two years ago imports from the United States were greater than those from Germany, England and Italy combined. During the first six months of this year imports from the United States had fallen to 7½ per cent of those from the other three countries. The decline in imports from the United States, as compared with three years ago, was 88 per cent. The rise in imports from the other three countries was 72 per cent.

Foreign Relations

During the past year the Soviet Union made considerable progress in its program of promoting treaties of peace and non-aggression with its neighbors. Treaties of this character were signed with Finland, Latvia, Esthonia and Poland. They had previously been concluded with Germany, Turkey, Lithuania, Persia and Afghanistan. During the year conversations were also held in regard to such treaties with France, Japan and Rumania.

At Geneva, during the arms conferences in the present year, Mr. Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, continued to press his government's proposals for progressive disarmament, or, failing that, for a definite cut in armaments. The progress in regard to these proposals was not encouraging. The Soviet delegates also backed the proposals of the American Government for a one-third cut in armaments.

The tense situation in the Far East during the past year gave great concern to the people of the Soviet Union. The fighting in Manchuria disrupted the operations of the Soviet-owned Chinese Eastern Railway and at times threatened the integrity of the Soviet eastern border. For months the unstable international atmosphere

promoted by the conflict was a disturbing factor. Through the first half of the year particularly the situation was profoundly uneasy.

A new fisheries treaty with Japan, settling a number of problems connected with Soviet waters, was signed in the middle of the year.

Second Five-Year Plan

The second Five-Year Plan will begin January 1 and at present the State Planning Commission is engaged in the huge task of perfecting the schedules for this huge project in balanced economy. Tentative outlines of the plan were published early this year which indicate that much stress will be laid upon the development of industries producing consumers' goods. In the first plan such industries had to be sacrified to some extent to the immediate need of establishing basic large-scale industries on an adequate scale.

The second plan envisages a threefold expansion in the output of consumers' goods. In the basic industries it provides for an increase in output of from 200 to 300 per cent. Electric power production is scheduled for nearly a fivefold increase. Railway transport is to be thoroughly reorganized. It is planned to build 25,000 to 30,000 kilometers of new lines, and to electrify 18,000 to 20,000 kilometers of railways. Railway freight operations are expected to increase about 135 per cent. An intensive development is planned of water transport, motor transport and air lines. The water transport projects include a canal system connecting the Volga with the Moscow river and the North Sea.

In agriculture the plan provides for an increase of 50 per cent in grain production and larger increases in the technical crops, including 100 per cent in cotton and 200 per cent in sugar beets. The schedule envisages complete socialization of agriculture by 1937.

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A Traveler's Impressions

By N. N. OSSINSKY

Translated from the Moscow "Izvestia", September 17, 1932.

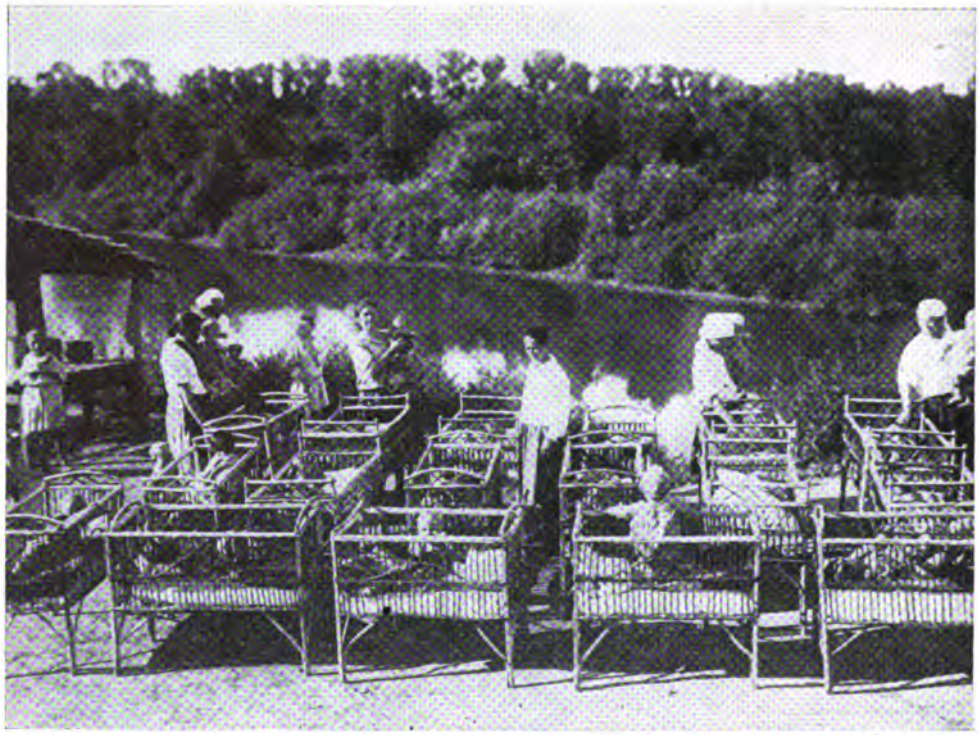
AT the end of July, this summer, the author of these lines, taking part in a trip to test out Ford cars of the latest American model, traveled from Moscow to the Crimea. In the expedition was one old Ford, taken along for comparison with the newest models. A month later the return journey was made in the old Ford, now traveling alone.

We shall postpone for another time the description of the automobile trip as such, and the summing up of its results—technical and economic. In this article we shall give some of the impressions of the trip, things seen and heard along the way. In such a country as ours, in such times as these, there is something to be seen and heard over a distance of a thousand and a half kilometers. A small part of this is reflected in the following pages:

I.

The first impression gained from a cross-section of the U.S.S.R. along the route Moscow-Kharkov-Zaparozhe-Perekop (or Dzhankoy) to Simferopol, at the southern end of the Crimea, is that the U.S.S.R. is a country which has *already built* a colossal amount. Last summer, on an airplane trip to Magnitogorsk and Kuznetsk, the impression was that the whole country was *in construction.* Now, in the autumn of the present year, it must be said that the building is not only continuing but that a great amount of building, structural work, electric transmission equipment, telephone and telegraph lines and many other things have already been completed. This is especially striking to anyone who has traveled over the same route (partly by railroad) three years before. The changes are enormous, of the same kind and scale as have taken place in Moscow in the last three years. In truth, we have already changed the whole aspect of the country, it is becoming entirely different. Soon it will no longer be recognizable, as, for example, is the case with Kharkov, which people who have not been there for a long time hardly recognize. (There was one such person in our automobile party. He literally did not know Kharkov and was only able to detect some of its old land marks by the night lights.)

We arrive at Tula, escorted by a whole column of motorcycles, driven by workers of the Tula factories who have come out to meet our motor party. From the slope of the hill a new Tula is visible—a panorama of a whole group of new houses and buildings, in no way reminiscent of the old Tula houses, with three windows, geraniums on the sills and pigeons in the eaves. We enter the city by a well-paved road (Oh, miracle! Tula has become passable!), along the tramway



Soyuzphoto

Creche of the kolhoz "Lighthouse of Communism" in the North Caucasus

line cutting through the whole city. We pass a new factory kitchen. We hear reports as to how many tens of millions of rubles worth of housing and capital construction is being carried on here. At the oil warehouse they ask us to intercede for them to get gasoline cisterns set up in Tula as soon as possible; and it is certainly time. We pass through Tula and at Kosaya Gora we see, next to two little old blast furnaces, a huge new blast furnace, with an inclined bridge and all the accessories of modern mechanization; houses are being built, the road is heaped with building materials.

From the Crimea we go through the Chongarsky highway bridge along the shore of the dark blue sea of Azov. To the right and left are the white salt deposits of Sivash and the Azov Straits. They are covered with a strange overgrowth the color of congealed blood—as if the blood of the soldiers who fought for Chongarsky bridge had not yet dried. We go past the salt mines where the snow white salt is gathered in piles, geometrically arranged on the gray sandy bottom of the pits as on a concrete floor. Everywhere new buildings, new houses and cottages. On the steppe before the bridge we pass a Jewish colony; an extensive set-up of new houses, tractors, machines, horses, carts.

We lost our way several times on the trip back to Moscow (all our maps are out of date and lie mercilessly, and there are no sign posts showing the way). We were compelled to take country roads and bypaths—sometimes right across the steppe, in order to follow our route back. Along the way we had to pass through sovhozes and machine and tractor stations unforeseen on our route—and here, too, was a picture of general construction and rebuilding. A strange country, indeed, and already very little like that in which I passed my childhood and youth. Gone is the old Russian landscape, dreary and monotonous, gone is the old Ukrainian landscape, passive and indifferent, congealed in its spaciousness. New lines have invaded them, huge forms, colors, movement, sounds, telling of the conquest of nature by the collective human will; the landscape is becoming replete, dynamic, animated.

When you drive now over the Crimean or Ukrainian steppe, along the railroad (along one side or the other of the railroad there is usually to be found an excellent natural steppe road) you pass one elevator after another—just as in the United States. To the right and to the left are roads lined with telegraph or telephone poles. From time to time electric transformer poles appear. Over on the far slope of a hill to the right gleams some kind of a small factory, quite new, evidently for working up agricultural products. And on the left, among a group of houses appears a fat, white tower with a red, pointed roof. Farther on two others are visible—these are silo towers. Ahead, on the road, appears a moving gray cloud —the dust raised by a truck coming toward us. And over across the horizon sweeps a cloud of real black smoke. A steam thresher is operating. A tractor rumbles through the field not far

from the road. The old landscape seen by Gorky in his rovings through the Crimea and the Ukraine has disappeared and will never return.

It is interesting to note that over the greater part of our trip we found that the village horses were no longer afraid of automobiles. The Amo and Nizhni-Novgorod trucks have become common sights to them. It was equally interesting to find that in very remote places boys of ten or twelve displayed a knowledge of the different models of automobiles, of the plants where they are manufactured, how they are made, and so on.

II.

The second impression was of the really radical change in the set-up of our agriculture. It is one thing to listen to generalizations about this in speeches, to look over statistics, to read newspaper articles—it is another matter to see all this out in the fields, in action.

We lost our way, rode far out into the steppe. Ahead of us appeared great piles of dark golden straw, groups of people, carts, horses, the outlines of machines. We passed a brigade of collective members threshing grain; threshing machine, tractors, drivers, feeders, cooks—a whole gang. In some cases (this refers for the time being chiefly to sovhozes) we found in the field houses-on-wheels, field kitchens, tents, water barrels, kerosene barrels—a whole traveling harvest factory with a traveling "socialist city" as well. Things which three years ago were to be seen only at "Gigant" or Experimental Training Sovhoz No. 2, have now become a common phenomenon.

Agricultural production has really become concentrated mass production, uniting groups of people into large producing collectives, the functions distributed on a planned basis. All you have to do is to look at such a working collective, at how it is equipped and set up (even though still primitively, in kolhozes, but how can that be compared with the way the helpless individual peasants work in the fields?) to become convinced, not merely theoretically, but visually and concretely that this type of organization of production and labor cannot but be victorious, cannot but grow into a permanent thing. Whatever may be the gaps in the technical equipment, whatever the imperfections of management and organization, or the difficulties in eliminating the petty owner psychology—nevertheless it is obvious to anyone that such organization of production and labor is superior to the individual peasant's way of scratching at the land and gathering its fruits.

If the economic and organizational prerequisites can be properly handled, within a couple of seasons the overwhelming majority of collective members will no more want to go back to the old methods than the workers in a large factory want to return to individual handicraft methods. Indeed, this type of organization not only makes production more effective and labor less oppressive. It means the union of science and technique, the development of the social productive powers of labor, the transformation of drudgery into cooperatively and therefore culturally organized labor, which is stimulating and not stultifying. Working in this way people grow mentally, culturally and socially in the course of their work itself, they lose their taste for antediluvian forms of organization. The peasants fled to the city, incidentally, to escape "the idiotism of village life" and here that idiotism is being destroyed at the root because, very concretely, the very differences between town and country are being destroyed.

The tremendous successes in the mechanization of agriculture hit you sharply in the eye. The horses no longer shy at the automobile because they have also become entirely accustomed to its blood brother—the tractor. The tractor has become an everyday and essential appurtenance of the agricultural process. Right and left it plows, threshes, hauls. The machine yard is full of different implements. Just as at the beginning of the summer, on the way to Sverdlovsk and Novosibirsk, I was especially struck by an echelon of combines, moving eastward, so now I remember especially clearly the picture of one machinery yard side by side with a steppe railroad station, actually a whole park of agricultural implements, and in the center, their metal gleaming in the sun, a row of brand new corn harvesters. A spectacle no less pleasing to the eyes than the chain of elevators along the railroad or the white candles of the silo towers distributed over the steppe. Almost every tenth vehicle which you meet on the steppe during the last part of August, is transporting barrels of kerosene to the threshing machine. The oil warehouses in the cities and villages are working at top speed. Liquid fuel has begun to feed not merely industry and transport but the reorganized agriculture of the former Russian empire.

I shall now pass on from agricultural to industrial impressions. From Dniepropetrovsk, from the metallurgical giants humming day and night, from the noisy streets of the center of the city, from the zone of tramways and honking automobiles we turn now to the green steppe, drive through hills and ravines, past barrows and overgrown fields. The Dnieprostroy transformer poles approach us—a chain of giants, showing the way. A winding road, turn after turn, up and down, down and up. Empty spaces—one German village looms along the way. We pass it, climb up a mountain and there, in a soft haze, in the light of a gray day, appears a panorama of smoke stacks, buildings, houses, poles, enmeshed in a web of electric wires. What we see is not Dnieprogres itself, but the *combinat* fed by it on this shore. The leading car has stopped, the people in it have gotten out, have opened some

canned food with the chauffeur's tools, are eating and waiting for the rest. Little by little the whole column draws together. All the trucks are not there. But they will find their own way. Our truck, (a pretty good little Ford from Nizhni) is phased neither by water nor fire.

And so—farther. Within half an hour, after navigating the town on the right bank—we are at the Dnieprostroy office. In a couple of minutes the last trucks drive up. Within an hour, after visiting the chief of construction and getting from him an engineer to show us about, we descend to the dam.

There would be little sense in describing the Dnieper station in detail here or citing the main facts about it; that has been done often.

The general impression of the Dnieper hydroelectric station in its almost completed form is of something as simple and tranquil as a part of nature itself. From one bank of the mighty river to the other stretches the gray dam, like a great gray braid, like a natural barrier. Near the opposite bank (the left bank) a great mass of water rushes over the dam—reminding one of Niagara Falls. We have constructed here not merely a station, like the Niagara station, but it is as if we had also constructed a part of Niagara Falls themselves, created them with our own hands. Nature has been transformed here by human labor, Socialist labor has solidified into an objective fact merged into nature.

The electric station, built on the near, right bank, seems squat and unpretentious, and yet it gulps down the entire power of the Dnieper current. The silence, characteristic of the process of transforming water current into electrical current is still broken at the station by the beating of hammers and the roar of pneumatic drills of the subsidiary enterprises growing up around it. But the swiftly turning turbo-generators already in operation (there were four of them when we were there) are utterly silent. There is silence, too, in the concrete vaults leading to the upper ends of the turbines; each of them is enclosed in a sort of stone mausoleum, only in this mausoleum there is constantly being born electrical life of tens of thousands of volts.

Higher on the shore, next to the station, towers a great iron flower with huge plate-like petals; the open transformer where the current is raised to lightning-like power of 110,000 volts.

This transformer, like everything that is finished at the electric station, is silent. But next to it rumbles a crushing plant, transforming the Dnieper rock into pebbles for the dam. Then at the far end of the dam an explosion is heard; the Dnieper rock is being blasted. This crash is reminiscent of the period when everything here was roaring and crashing, when electrical production had still not taken the place of electrical construction.

We go along the dam, listening to tales of how and when this part of the project was built, what it is made of, how constructed. When a train full of materials comes toward us we squeeze back against the side. Finally we reach the very end, where a canal and locks are being constructed. Our three-hour journey through the Dnieper station is ended. We cast a last glance at the dam and the great towers, almost as high as the belfry of Ivan the Great in Moscow. One of them stands in the center of the river on an island, the other, on the shore. Through these towers the power goes from the right bank to the left.

Now we are on the territory of the Socialist city Dnieprostroy, adjoining the old Zaporozhe. A wide main street, paved with asphalt, along which the tramway line runs. At right angles the road is intersected by streets. Lining the road for about two kilometers are new houses of simple and beautiful construction. There is still too little green (the settlement on the other side is drowned in gardens, set in only at the beginning of the construction work). For the time being there is still much that has not yet been constructed, not completed. But the main outlines of the future city are visible.

When you take in in one glance the whole panorama from the bank of the Dnieper to old Zaporozhe; the Dnieper station, its city, the aluminum and metallurgical *combinats* placed next to it, the boulevard leading to old Zaporozhe, and finally Zaporozhe itself with its factories and plants—you get an impression no less striking than in the district of the Kharkov plant on the road to Losevo, to the Kharkov tractor works. Some among our travelers had been to America. The resemblance to her industrial districts struck them forcibly. Only with us things are more spacious and free, laid out according to plan, the whole panorama of one piece, created by a single will.

Soyuzphoto

Telephoning harvest results to the local Soviet

Maxim Gorky

ON September 25 the Soviet Union paid homage to Maxim Gorky, its best loved writer. The occasion was the completion of forty years of rich literary and social activity. Moscow's leading papers, *Izvestia* and *Pravda*, relegated news of the outside world and such important events as the signing of a big oil contract with Japan, to the fifth page. The first four pages were devoted to warm and loving messages from all over the land. Messages and tributes came from factories and farms, from Molotov and all the government officials, from Stalin and all the party leaders, from scientific, educational and industrial groups, from old revolutionists and from school children. Articles were printed by all the leading writers and critics, summing up Gorky's life and work.

In its leading editorial *Izvestia* said:

"All proletarian writers, all writers connected with the struggles of the people would do well to learn from Gorky his attitude toward culture. Gorky is fighting side by side with the whole proletariat for the creation of a new socialist culture. The class which is building a new society, a society of which the basis must be joint labor, is destined to give the world a new morality, a new art, a new science. But Gorky does not for one moment forget that humanity has, in its historical development, stored up many bricks which also belong in the structure of the new culture. He believes that they should be preserved with the greatest care. He does not wish that the tiniest particle which can help us in building the great new temple of humanity should be destroyed or thrown away. He regards with the greatest jealousy all the conquests of the past, all that, even in reconstructed form, must go into the future storehouse of the proletariat."

Meetings, exhibits were held all over the country in Gorky's honor. On the stage of the Bolshoye Theatre, at the huge celebration meeting in Moscow on September 25, sat all the leaders of the Soviet government and the Communist party, and among them the foremost Soviet writers and poets. Mikhail Kalinin, President of the TSIK, opened the meeting. Stetsky, the writer, paid tribute to Gorky as an artist-fighter, who not only wrote about the working-class, but took part in its struggles. Andrey Bubnov, Commissar for Education, spoke of Gorky's part in creating a new Soviet culture. Vsevolod Ivanov spoke on behalf of the writers of Soviet Russia, telling how Gorky in his full life had always found time to give the most minute criticism and advice to any writer who turned to him for help. Henri Barbusse brought greetings in the name of the French workers. The poet Bezymensky read some verses of his own dedicated to Gorky. Enukidze, secretary of the TSIK, announced, amid thunderous applause, that the Order of Lenin had been bestowed on Gorky.

Soyuzphoto

Gorky and his grandchildren

The Moscow Soviet announced that henceforth Moscow's great recreation park would be known as the "Maxim Gorky Park of Culture and Rest," that Tverskaya Street had been renamed Gorky street and that fifteen university scholarships for workers and agricultural collective members had been granted in Gorky's name. The Moscow State Art Theater will bear Gorky's name in the future.

It was also announced that Nizhni-Novgorod, Gorky's birth place, had been renamed Gorod Gorky, and Nizhni Novgorod region, Gorkovsky Region.

In answer to all these tributes Gorky, tall, gaunt, shy, rose and said simply:

"Comrades, I shall not try to tell you how deeply I am moved by everything that has taken place today. I am too old to be over-modest, but of course I understand how greatly my services are being overrated here. However, that is not my affair, but yours! I accept it as an advance which I shall have to work out by my future

labors. While I have the strength I shall try to do that to the best of my ability.

"But enough of the recipient of all this. Let us speak of the celebration itself. Could there be anywhere else in the world such honoring of a writer? Certainly not, nowhere. . . The young writers must understand and value this attitude of the working class to its writers and poets. They must know that the working class always values the services of anyone of us who is devoted to their interests."

He called upon all his young literary companions-at-arms to study as much as possible, to learn better their country, its needs and possibilities, its past and its present, in order to build better for the future.

"Knowledge is the weapon in which we all are lacking. . .

"Permit me to thank you from my heart for all that you have done for me on this occasion and for the energy that has been kindled in me today."

A performance of the second and fourth acts of "The Lower Depths," and musical selections followed.

On the eve of the celebration the première of Gorky's latest play, "Egor Bulychev and Others," was given at the Vakhtangov Theater in Moscow.

A new complete edition of Gorky's works was published in connection with the celebration, and a number of special editions of individual books. Translations of his writings were published in Chuvash, Tartar, Uzbek and other languages of the minor nationalities.

To mark Gorky's great service in the field of training new writers, the TSIK passed a decree providing for the establishment of a Maxim Gorky literary institute in Moscow. Its purposes will be twofold: to serve as a literary training center for workers and peasants displaying literary ability to "raise their qualifications, develop their powers more fully and learn about the literary past," and as a laboratory to study the literature of all the peoples of the U.S.S.R. A new building is to be constructed to house the institute, with a central library containing the best world literature—and in the meantime the institute will start functioning in temporary quarters in January, 1933. A special fund will be created in connection with the institute to reward the best artistic productions of the national minorities.

Four large halls in the Lenin library in Moscow have been devoted to an exhibitian of Gorky's life and work. Many original manuscripts are shown, among them that of "Children of the Sun" written during his imprisonment in the Peter and Paul fortress. There is a large section, rich in documents, devoted to Gorky's work as a revolutionist, voluminous correspondence with people in all parts of the world, a large amount of Russian and foreign critical literature, and all the editions of Gorky's works published abroad.

The original letter from Nicholas II ordering the annulment of Gorky's election to the Academy of Sciences has recently come to light in the archives of the Academy and is on view at the Gorky Exhibit arranged in Leningrad by the Institute of Russian Literature of the Academy.

The letter, which was addressed to Vannovsky, Minister of Education, follows:

> "Piotr Semionovich—the news of the election of Gorky to the Academy of Sciences left upon me, as upon all right-thinking Russians, a most depressing impression. What the honorable savants were guided by in this election—it is impossible to understand. Neither Gorky's age, nor even his short works, represent a sufficient cause for his election to such an honorable office.
>
> "Much more serious is the circumstance that he is under investigation, and such a man, at the present troublesome period, the Academy of Sciences takes the liberty of electing into its midst.
>
> "I am deeply indignant over all this and I instruct you to announce that on my order Gorky's election is annulled. I hope this will have at least some sobering effect upon the state of the minds in the Academy.
>
> "NICHOLAS II"

Many biographical sketches of Gorky appeared in the pages of Soviet newspapers and magazines giving full details of his rich life, of which only a few high spots can be noted here. His real name is Alexey Maximovich Peshkov. He was born in Nizhni-Novgorod in 1868. The son of a soldier's son who worked as a dyer, and of a middle-class woman, he grew up in poverty. His parents died when he was very young and he was farmed out among various impecunious uncles who exploited him badly and provided only intermittent schooling. From the time he was seven he had to fend pretty much for himself, working in shoe shops, washing floors, fetching wood, doing errands. According to his autobiography his interest in books was first aroused at the age of twelve when he was working as a dishwasher on a Volga boat, by the cook, "a man of fabulous strength, coarse, very well read." At fifteen he went to Kazan to study, thinking that learning might be acquired freely by anyone who wished it. Disappointed in that he got a job in a baker's shop where he worked fourteen and sixteen hours a day. Soon after that, finding life cruel and bitter (the name he took, Gorky, means "bitter" in Russian) he attempted suicide. In 1886 he made his first contact with revolutionary organizations and was identified for a time with the Narodniki group. In the years that followed he became in turn fisherman, gardener, freight weighman, book-keeper and barrister's secretary. In 1889 and during 1891-92 he traveled extensively over Russia, much of the time on foot, gathering material that was later to appear in his sketches. In 1893 his first stories and sketches were published. After that his literary

activities increased steadily, but never at the cost of his direct participation in social and revolutionary work. In 1900 "Foma Gordeyev," his first novel, appeared, the sale of which soon reached 100.000, a record for the Russian book trade. The next year Gorky became associated with the group of radical writers in Petersburg, and with the more active section of the Social Democrats grouped around "Iskra." He was arrested and jailed for obtaining a mimeograph machine in Nizhni-Novgorod for printing appeals to the Sormovo workers. In 1902 the Academy incident occurred, his "Meschane" had its first showing in the Moscow Art Theater, and Gorky read "The Lower Depths" to the Art Theater group. It was banned when they produced it the following year, but had a tremendous sale. In 1904 "The Cottagers" was performed. In 1905 Gorky was arrested and jailed because of his protest manifesto following the shooting down of the Petrograd workers on January 9. While in Peter and Paul Fortress he wrote "Children of the Sun," and later in the year completed another play "The Barbarians." In October the Social Democratic newspaper, *Novaya Zhizn,* was established with Gorky's help. The years 1906 to 1913 were spent abroad, and to that period belong "In America," "My Interview," "Comrades," "Enemies," "Mother." During 1915 and 1916 Gorky was the editor of *Letopis,* an artistic and political journal which he organized himself and which took a strongly internationalist postion with regard to the war, and during 1917 and 1918 he organized and directed the internationalist newspaper *Novaya Zhizn.* The next year Gorky established his "Commission for Improving the Condition of Intellectuals," and in 1921 went abroad at the insistence of Lenin because of poor health. He continued his literary work in Sorrento, Italy, his chief productions during this period being his reminiscences of Lenin and the "Life of Klim Samgin." In March 1928 his sixtieth birthday was celebrated throughout the U.S.S.R. and in May of that year he returned to the U.S.S.R. where a warm welcome awaited him. His literary activities have been very extensive since his return and he has spent a great deal of time helping the younger Soviet writers. He has been editing the two magazines *Our Achievements* and *The Literary Manual.* Last year, at Gorky's initiative, the Central Committee of the Communist Party passed a resolution providing for the compilation of a very complete history of the civil war and a history of the factories and plants of the U.S.S.R. Those who actually took part in the civil war, and the workers who have helped to build up the factories are being drawn into active participation in these histories, which are being prepared under Gorky's direction.

All who write of Gorky speak not only of his great service to the revolution and to proletarian culture, but of his strong warm love for humanity.

"It is because of his deep, pervasive love for his fellow-men," writes Professor Oldenburg, "that in the midst of the greatest revolution in the world, the storm sweeping over this vast country, clearing away the moribund old life to make way for the new, Gorky is the best loved writer, loved by the whole country. Everyone understands that he could not but accept the new life, because his work has always been for that. But, accepting the great revolution, and joyfully working for it, Gorky does not love it blindly. He places the power of conscious thought too high for that. He understands that there must be negative aspects to the revolution, that they must be grappled with so that the revolution may give to humanity all that it should give."

Recent Party Decisions

A plenary session of the Central Committee of the Communist Party was held from September 28 to October 2 to consider questions of production and distribution of consumers' goods and ferrous metallurgy. A resume of the resolutions on these three questions follows:

On the Development of Soviet Trade

In furtherance of previous decisions of the Central Committee of the Party with regard to the development of retail trade the Narkomsnab (Commissariat for Supplies) of the U.S.S.R. opened 7,100 new stores in the course of 1932. 2,800 in the towns and 4,080 in the villages; and during the same period it opened 5,900 new booths and stalls. The retail trade of the Narkomsnab increased by 67 per cent in the first seven months of 1932, reaching altogether 26,300 stores and 9,000 stalls and booths.

During 1932 Centrosoyuz (the Central Cooperative Union) opened 13,100 new stores, 5,400 in the cities. 7,700 in the villages, and 22,500 booths and stalls. The retail system of the consumers' cooperatives grew appreciably in the course of the year, and now consists of 167,700 stores and 49,700 stalls and booths.

A large number of new wholesale bases were also established in various sections including some of the most remote regions and oblasts, but the system of supplying through the wholesale bases has not been operating very satisfactorily.

While trade turnover has increased consider-

ably during the past year, there are still many defects in the work of the trading apparatus, as evidenced by the piling up of goods in one place and the lack of these same goods in another, which frequently happens as a result of the mechanical distribution of goods, lack of sufficient consideration for the requirements of the different regions, violations of the government trade policy, delays in shipments, and so on.

In view of these facts vigorous steps were decided on to further the development of trade and to improve the system of distribution. A special campaign to improve the quality of goods is to be carried on, and industrial enterprises will be expected to replace goods of poor quality. The commissariats for supplies, for light and heavy industries and the Centrosoyus are instructed to give consumers' goods precedence over all others in deliveries, especially goods for the village.

More attention is also to be paid to the further development of trade through the collectives, by drawing more collectives, collective members and individual working peasants into commercial activities and taking decisive measures to eliminate speculators and middlemen. At the same time separate government and cooperative purchasers are to be eliminated from the market with the idea of preventing further inflation of prices.

In order to improve the supply of goods to the urban population, factories and other industrial enterprises are to have, in addition to their own restaurants and cooperatives, their own agricultural enterprises, gardens, dairies, poultry, etc.—to supplement the regular plan of centralized government buying and decentralized purchasing by cooperatives.

The decree emphasizes that the increase in production of consumers' goods is one of the most urgent economic and political questions of the moment, and declares that the successes achieved in heavy industry and socialized agriculture have made it possible to give vastly more attention than heretofore to improving the material condition of the workers and peasants.

On the Production of Consumers' Goods

Referring to previous resolutions of the Central Committee with regard to increasing the production of consumers' goods and improving their distribution, the decision states that so far the production program adopted in this basis by the various commissariats concerned has not been carried out satisfactorily. Specific points at which the commissariats for light and heavy industry and the producers' cooperatives have failed to complete the program are enumerated, and the reasons for non-fulfillment listed.

The above-named organizations are then called upon to bring about an immediate change in both central apparatus and the actual producing enterprises with regard to the manufacture of consumers' goods and to introduce personal responsibility for the production of consumers' goods in the directing boards, trusts and enterprises.

STO and Gosplan are to draw up a special program for consumers' goods production as a part of the entire economic plan and provide for the necessary raw materials.

Special fields in which the commissariats for light and heavy industry are to concentrate are noted, and instructions given to STO to work out the necessary program for providing machinery for consumers' goods production, for preparing proper housing facilities, and for training skilled workers and specialists.

On Ferrous Metallurgy

The resolution on the situation in the ferrous metallurgy industry begins with a survey of the successes in this field.

As a result of the progress made in the ferrous metallurgy industry since the XVI Party Congress (June-July, 1930) decided upon its intensive development, eight blast furnaces have been entirely reconstructed and their capacity increased; twelve new blast furnaces have been put into operation, nine of them in 1932 alone, and of these six are super-powerful furnaces of

Joseph Stalin

the American type; twenty new open-hearth furnaces have started production; in process of construction and mounting are sixteen blast furnaces, four very powerful blooming-mills and numerous new open-hearth furnaces.

The production of all kinds of high-grade steel is being developed on a large scale for the new branches of industry—automobile and tractor, aviation, instrumental, etc. The output of high-grade steel in 1932 will amount to 530,000 tons against 330,000 tons in 1931 and 100,000 tons in 1928-29.

Production of ferrous metallurgy in the first eight months of 1932 has increased by 22 per cent over the corresponding period in 1931.

The successes enumerated, however, are considered entirely inadequate in view of the needs resulting from the intensive economic development of the whole country. The plan for 1932 has not been completed and ferrous metallurgy continues to lag behind the general development of the productive forces of the country, holding back machine construction and slowing up new construction for transport and agriculture. This is attributed chiefly to faults in the management and direction both of local and central administrative bodies, to weaknesses in party and trade union work, and to transport difficulties. Detailed instructions are then given for remedying these defects by improved direction, increased labor discipline, training of technicians, pushing the housing program and cultural services, improved transport facilities, and so on.

In conclusion the plenary session appeals to all party, economic and trade union organizations to help the metallurgical industry by seeing to the prompt and complete supplying of the necessary materials, products, equipment, transport and workers, and by the most energetic support for all workers in the metallurgical industry.

New Program for Higher Schools

FOLLOWING the decision of August 25 for improvements in the curricula of the lower schools, the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. on September 20 issued a decree on the study program and regime for the higher schools and technical institutions, a synopsis of which follows.

Training of Specialists

In accordance with government measures of 1929 and 1930, the training of specialists has been raised to a level commensurate with the needs of the expanding socialist economy of the U.S.S.R. The number of universities and technical schools has appreciably increased, new types of educational institutions organized, opportunities for workers to study while on the job have been greatly extended and the number of students increases constantly. The number of higher technical institutions under the commissariats for heavy and light industry, for lumber, for agriculture and for transport, has reached 400, a five-fold increase since 1928. The number of technicums under these same commissariats is now 1,600.

The number of students in all higher educational institutions has tripled since 1928, and the number in technicums has quadrupled. Altogether they now amount to more than a million and a half.

In 1929 there were altogether in the Soviet Union 57,000 specialists with college training, and 55,000 with high school training. In 1932, respectively, 216,000 and 288,000.

The turning over of the higher educational institutions to the management of the various commissariats has resulted in a much more efficient direction of the training of specialists, has brought education close to production and established a direct connection between the schools and the practical problems of industry and agriculture. There has been a tendency, however, to concentrate on quantitative rather than qualitative results, and to carry specialization to such a degree that the highest institutions are in some cases turning out skilled technicians rather than engineers. There are also grave defects in the system of training lower technical personnel in the technicums, which have not received sufficient direction.

The introduction of the most modern technique into Soviet industry, transport and agriculture and the growth of our economic tasks, necessitate a higher level of training for Soviet specialists—the engineers and technicians with shorter periods of training and even more, the main cadres of specialists of whom are required ever higher qualifications, thorough mastery of the scientific basis of modern technique, a knowledge of the new system of agriculture and its planning, and practical acquaintance with the set-up of specialized branches of production under conditions of modern technique.

Curricula and Educational Plans

The decree outlines specific defects in the curricula of the various higher schools and proposes a series of measures to correct them, on the basis of which new programs are to be drawn up by January, 1933.

A greater proportion of the curriculum is henceforth to be devoted to the basic sciences—mathematics, physics, chemistry and biology, to general technical courses and special subjects. The

theoretical courses, experimental work and practical production work are to be more closely coordinated and worked into a single program. Over-attention to detail is to be avoided in the new program, and it is to be sufficiently flexible to permit constant addition of new material on the latest achievements in science and technique.

With the aim of avoiding too narrow specialization as well as over-lapping, all the commissariats having educational institutions under their control are instructed to examine carefully their lists of subjects with the view of combining courses wherever possible and so organizing them as to meet not only the present needs of a given branch of the economic structure, but its possible future developments, and at the same time to provide a broader base of general scientific and technical knowledge for all specialists.

The development of the higher educational institutions and technical schools is to be more closely coordinated with the growing needs of the national economy and measures are to be taken to insure the proper teaching staffs and the necessary equipment.

Continuous Production Practice

The system of continuous production practice has become an obligatory part of the work of all higher schools, which is an achievement of great historical importance in the educational world. In the last few years it has been carried on in an increasingly effective manner and in closer connection with theoretical study. However, there are still defects in its development and sufficient coordination between the practical work and the special courses is frequently lacking.

In working out the curriculum it is necessary to connect theory and practice into a single educational process so that the practical work will not have merely a general connection but will correspond with the theoretical work at any given moment. The practical work is to be carried on under the direct supervision of whoever teaches the theoretical section of the course, but the director of the enterprise and the specialist appointed for this purpose are responsible for the actual technical instruction. The professor is supposed to accompany the students to the place where the practical work is carried on and arrange consultations and lectures on the spot.

Students in the first and sometimes in the second year receive their general technical preparation in workshops, laboratories, clinics, etc., and beginning with the second or third year, depending on the length of the course, from 30 to 40 per cent of their time is taken up by practical production work in big industrial enterprises, etc. In the technicums practical work takes up from 30 to 35 per cent of the entire time of the students.

Wherever possible continous production practice is carried on in the definite enterprises to which the separate educational institutions are attached. In order to carry on production practice in such branches as agriculture, many of the higher schools and technicums operate their own farms. Beginning with January, 1933, stipends for students will be given for the periods of practical work as well as theoretical study.

Methods of Teaching

Teaching methods in the future are to concentrate more closely on individual and independent work by the students. The role of the professorial and teaching staff is to be increased, making the teachers responsible for the work of each separate student. The "brigade-laboratory" method which has recently been in vogue, in which a group of students, permanently organized, is made responsible for the execution of tasks, is to be avoided, but other types of collective study and work are to be employed wherever possible.

Independent laboratory work on individual tasks, under direct supervision of the teacher, is to be emphasized. The lecture system is to be retained as an important method of bringing professors and students nearer together, but lectures are always to be followed by discussions with the students or work on problems discussed in the lecture. All collective reports on students' work are to be abolished. Teachers and professors are to be responsible for estimating the degree of success achieved by the individual students, the forms and methods of recording it to be worked out in connection with the different studies. Examining sessions are to be held in so far as possible twice a year, for those subjects in which separate reports are required. In the final year special diploma work is to be established for each student in the higher educational institutions and special diploma projects, on the basis of which grading in the given specialty is given, are to be established in the higher technical schools. Definite time is provided for this purpose in the educational program.

Certificates are to be issued on graduation attesting to the degree of success with which the student has completed his or her work, and a system of special rewards—scientific trips, scholarships, etc., will be given to the most successful students.

Entrance Requirements

In order to insure fully prepared student bodies for the higher schools and technicums, entrance examinations will be required for all students, irrespective of their previous training, in mathematics, chemistry, physics, language and social science. The higher educational institutions are to provide full descriptive material on all their courses to enable the students to have a wide range of choice and to select their courses according to their inclinations and abilities.

Measures are to be taken limiting the transfer of students from one institution to another. Only students sucessfully passing tests in language, mathematics, chemistry, physics and social science will be accepted in the technicums.

Training of Scientific Workers and Highly Skilled Specialists

"Aspirants" (a term applied to workers in scientific institutes who are preparing to become professors) will be required to meet somewhat higher standards than in the past, and will receive their preliminary training in the best equipped of the higher schools. The assignment for theoretical training shall be increased to 500 rubles a year for each aspirant.

A special engineering academy is to be established for the training of highly qualified specialists for the new construction projects. Existing universities preparing highly trained specialists are to be strengthened, and new universities are to be established in those republics where they do not already exist.

Program for Higher Schools and Technicums

Asserting that there has been a tendency in some cases for students' organizations to interfere in administrative and educational direction, the decree states that this situation cannot be tolerated in the future and that while the students' organizaions are expected to assist the administration in its efforts to complete the educational program, to improve the quality of the studying and to achieve the necessary discipline, they are never to interfere with orders given by the teaching staff.

In order to improve the professional staff, heads of departments are to be appointed by the various commissariats on the basis of competitive examinations. The system of payment of professors is to be revised and a new scale established on the basis of training, type of teaching and length of service.

The heads of educational institutions are to stiffen the regulations regarding attendance at classes and in general a stricter regime is to be established. All universities and technical schools are to be put on a six-day week (every sixth day being a day of rest) and the school year is to consist of fifty six-day weeks. The working day of students in the lower courses must not exceed six hours' work with teachers.

In the later classes the number of hours so spent may be decreased provided the time spent in independent work be proportionately increased. Vacation periods for students and teachers are to be two six-day weeks in winter and eight six-day weeks in the summer. Mobilization of students and teachers for various economic and political campaigns is not to be permitted.

While commending the results of socialist competition in the higher schools, the decree warns against the development of collective at the expense of individual competition.

In conclusion the decree provides for the organization of a Committee on Higher Technical Schools under the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. which will exercise general control over such educational institutions.

Measures to Increase Crop Production

AN IMPORTANT decree on measures to increase the fertility of the soil was issued by the Council of People's Commissars jointly with the Central Committee of the Communist Party on September 30.

Following is the decree in full:

Due to successful collectivization, from 80 to 90 per cent of the land once individually farmed is now at the disposal of collective farmers in the most important agricultural districts. The small plots formerly worked by individual peasants with their distant, scattered and frequently redistributed strips of land are now combined into large farms worked collectively. A strong network of State farms has been established. Over 100,000 tractors have been provided for Soviet agriculture.

As a result of all this the area under cultivation in the Soviet Union has increased by 30,000-00 hectares in comparison with pre-war figures.

The main increases have been in commercial and cultivated crops and grasses.

It is therefore apparent that the object of the first stage of our agricultural development, i. e., the utmost expansion of the area under cultivation, has already been achieved. The seeded area has been sufficiently increased. Further extension of areas under commercial and cultivated crops, which require great effort, would greatly overburden the labor forces and draught resources, and would result in a poorer quality of work and decreased crops. This means that the time has come when we must turn from extensive growth of agriculture through increase in acreage to the problem of improved cultivation of the soil and increased crop yields, as the chief and central task in agriculture at its present stage of development. The advantages of large-scale, socialized agriculture make it entirely possible to raise crop yields in State farms and collectives to a degree unattainable on individual farms.

In view of this the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. and the Central Committee of the Communist Party, decree:

1. To put an end to any further extension of land under commercial and cultivated crops in

1933. The extension of grain fields, primarily wheat, oats and barley, is alone considered expedient.

2. To set the figure for spring sowing for 1933 at 97,500,000 hectares, an increase of one million hectares over this year. The area under wheat, oats and barley is to be increased by 2,500,000 hectares, one million through cultivating new land and 1,500,000 hectares through curtailment of crops of lesser importance.

3. To readjust the work of all Party, Government, Young Communist and economic organizations working along agricultural lines in the direction of increasing the yield of all crops without exception, as the main objective in agricultural development at the present moment.

4. To enjoin the People's Commissariat for Agriculture of the U.S.S.R. to introduce crop rotation in all State farms and collectives during 1933, as one of the best means of increasing soil fertility, with the understanding that this be connected with the necessary extension of the area under grain crops in certain districts and regions of the Union.

5. To raise the fund of selected seed to 100,000,000 poods (about 1,665,000 tons) in 1933-34. Of this amount 40,000,000 poods are to be provided for the State and 60,000,000 by the collective farms and the machine and tractor stations. The People's Commissariat for Agriculture is instructed to specify the particular kind of seeds to be sown in each district, and to work out a definite program for the introduction of pure seeds.

6. To instruct the People's Commissariats for Agriculture and for Heavy Industry to offer to the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R., within two weeks, concrete proposals on the manufacture of the amount of machinery required in 1933 for the mechanization of the production of commercial and cultivated crops as one of the best means for increasing crop yields.

7. To instruct the People's Commissariats for Agriculture and for Heavy Industry to bring a proposal before the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. concerning the intensified production of fertilizers, especially nitric fertilizers, within three weeks.

8. To instruct the People's Commissariat for Agriculture and the Tractor Center to reorganize the work of the machine and tractor stations so as to subordinate all current agricultural work to the task of raising crop yields; and in doing this to bear in mind that the machine and tractor stations must be the leaders of the collectives not only in the application of tractor technique, but in matters of soil fertility as well.

Dnieprostroy Dedicated

ON October 10 the Dnieprostroy hydroelectric station, greatest achievement of the Five-Year Plan, was formally dedicated. Thousands of guests from all over the Soviet Union and many foreign engineers and workers attended the opening ceremonies.

Five turbo-generators of 84,000 h. p. each are now in operation. Four more are being installed and the plant will be operating at its full capacity of 756,000 h. p. next year. Eleven substations have already been set up, and power is being supplied over transmission lines of 160,000 volts, the highest power yet achieved in the Soviet Union, to the surrounding industries, towns and villages. The plant will eventually supply electric power to an area of 70,000 square miles and a population of 16,000,000.

Out of the barren steppe around the Dnieper is growing an immense industrial combine, including the Zaporozhe metallurgical plant with an annual capacity of a million tons of structural and special steels, the Electrostal plant, which will have an output of 200,000 tons of high grade steel, huge plants for the production of ferro-alloys, aluminum, building materials, a by-product coke and chemical plant, and a number of factories of lesser importance.

The high grade steel plant has already started production and the first section of the electrolytic department of the aluminum combine has been completed. All of the plants are scheduled to be completed by the end of next year.

When the dam, sluices and locks are completed next spring the level of the river will be raised over 120 feet, making a navigable waterway from the Baltic to the Black Sea.

A number of new socialist cities with wide streets lined with new workers' dwellings, have grown up around the power station and the industries it feeds. Kichkass, where the plant is located, has been transformed from a small steppe village of a few hundred inhabitants to an industrial town of 125,000. It blazed with light from the plant on the night of the dedication.

Colonel Hugh L. Cooper, the American chief consulting engineer of the project, attended the opening ceremonies and was decorated with the Order of the Red Star. Several engineers employed by his company and by the Newport News and General Electric Companies were also decorated. Awards also went to Alexander Winter, chief engineer for the Soviet Government in building the project and to other Soviet engineers and workers.

In an interview with correspondents before the ceremonies, Colonel Cooper stated that as an achievement in the art of engineering the Dnieper Station was the greatest project of its kind ever erected by man.

"The Russian workers and builders displayed themselves to the best advantage, and I consider their work especially successful," he said.

"The American consultants always met the best possible attitude from the Soviet government. In this there have been no dark spots. I remember no unpleasant moments.

"My six years of work in the Soviet Union have convinced me that this country has tremendous possibilities for transformation into a rich and powerful country with industry established on a high technical level."

In answer to the question regarding further technical and economic relations between the United States and the Soviet Union, Colonel Cooper said that he saw no reason why such relations should not be established, and of the closest nature.

He expressed the hope that his work would help to bring about normal relations between the U.S.S.R. and the United States in the interest of international peace and cooperation.

International Geological Conference

THE Second International Geological Conference on the study of the quaternary period in Europe opened on September 1 in Leningrad. After a week's sessions the delegates divided up into seventeen groups to visit different sections of the U.S.S.R. in order to become more closely acquainted with Soviet scientific achievements. They returned to Leningrad for the concluding sessions of the conference which were held September 28 and 29.

The decision to hold the second conference was made at the first conference at Pretoria, South Africa, in 1929. The Soviet organizing committee prepared extensive material for the conference, including a special exhibition on the quaternary deposits of the U.S.S.R. Invitations were sent to two hundred foreign scientists and to fifty large geological institutes in various parts of the world. Many leading scientists from Germany, France, Austria, Finland, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Holland, Norway and other countries attended. Sixty reports were presented by Soviet and foreign scientists on various aspects of quaternary geology.

The conference decided to prepare and publish in the U.S.S.R. a European map of quaternary deposits—the first of its kind. It was also decided to reorganize the European association into a world body, including the United States, Canada and Japan. The Soviet Academican Gubkin was unanimously elected to report for the conference at the forthcoming World Geological Conference.

Many of the foreign delegates who attended paid tribute to the work of Soviet geologists in studying the upper strata of the earth's crust and recognized the advantage resulting from the direct connection existing between geology and national economy of the U.S.S.R.

Prof. Karl Absolon of the Prague University, said:

"There can be no doubt that geological science has gained first place in the U.S.S.R. Everything we have seen forcefully convinces us of the tremendous sums spent by the Soviet Government to extend and develop scientific thought. I am amazed—this is the only word adequately expressing my impressions. Upon returning home I shall endeavor to share the rich impressions of my visit to the U.S.S.R. with the public through scientific societies and magazines, lectures and reports, and finally through the Prague university of which I am a professor."

Prof. Wolff of Germany spoke of the unusual impression gained by him from his participation in the conference.

"After an examination of the charts, reports and other works I must state that the questions of geology in the U.S.S.R. have been studied more broadly and deeply than we had supposed. We are amazed at the immense scale and precision of the investigations conducted by the Soviet scientists."

On September 28 the delegates took part in the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the former Geological Committee, now the Central Scientific Research Institute of the All-Union Geological Survey. The Soviet appropriations for geological work reached 140,000,000 rubles this year as against about 30,000 rubles a year assigned for this purpose in pre-war days. In 1931 there were 2,100 geological survey groups operating, with 70,000 workers and 8,400 technicians.

NEW COMMISSARIAT FOR STATE FARMS

A decree issued on October 1 by the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., establishes a special People's Commissariat for Grain and Livestock State Farms of the U.S.S.R. The direction of these State farms was formerly under the People's Commissariat for Agriculture. In the future the work of the Agricultural Commissariat, and the whole system of land organs (machine and tractor stations, local land committees, etc.) will be devoted to directing and serving the agricultural collectives.

Tractorocenter, the tractor department of the Commissariat for Agriculture, is to be divided up into specialized sections directing the use of tractors for the different branches of agriculture.

Tikhon Yurkin, formerly director of the State farm "Gigant" and recently chairman of Kolhoz-center, has been appointed People's Commissar for Grain and Livestock State Farms.

Soviet Foreign Relations

LITVINOV CONTINUES DISARMAMENT EFFORTS

On September 21 the sessions of the bureau of the disarmament conference commenced at Geneva with Mr. M. M. Litvinov present representing the U.S.S.R. Mr. Henderson, the chairman, read to the meeting Mr. Litvinov's letter of September 5, in which he declared that in accordance with the declaration of the Soviet delegation made at the meeting of the general commission on July 22, the Soviet government would not send representatives to the technical commissions of the conference so long as the conference adopted no serious decisions on the reduction of existing armaments.

In connection with the discussion of the plan of work to be pursued, Litvinov spoke briefly as follows:

"Before us is the program of work to be followed by the bureau in fulfillment of the resolution of the general commission, and we must decide in what order this work is to be carried out. It is clear that not all the points on this program are equally important, and there is danger that the bureau will take up first of all the least difficult questions even though they are less important and have little relation to the reduction of armaments. I shall not conceal the fact that such a beginning of the work of the bureau does not seem desirable to me. We must not forget the atmosphere of pessimism and disillusion in which the first stage of the work of the conference was completed.

"If we wish to dispel that atmosphere, then we must apply ourselves to more serious questions, the solution of which can really be considered, to use the words of the resolution of July 23, as a decisive step, leading to a real reduction of armaments.

"Only the quantitative reduction of armaments would represent such a step. However desirable the prohibition or limitation of 'the most aggressive types of weapons' might be, that in itself would not signify a real reduction of armaments. In fact, as I have repeatedly had occasion to point out, this should be placed in the category of measures for the 'humanization' of war. The quantitative reduction of all armaments by a definite per cent would certainly mean more than the cutting down of aggressive weapons such as limiting the calibre of guns, the tonnage of tanks, etc.

"In proposing that the bureau consider the question of the quantitative reduction of armaments I remain within the limits of the resolution of the general commission of June 23, although the Soviet delegation did not vote for it. In accordance with this resolution 'a substantial reduction of armaments must be achieved by means of a general convention applying equally to land, sea and air armaments.' The resolution even accepts the proportion of one-third. Has not the time come to take up the concrete proposals to this effect contained in the Soviet and American plans?"

Litvinov then expressed his regret at the absence of the German representative on the bureau, and continued:

"Inasmuch as the German government explains its absence from the bureau by the meagerness of the results achieved so far, it seems to me that it would not be rash to suppose that if the bureau should decide to recommend to the general commission definite measures to bring about the reduction of armaments, let us say by one-third, that we should have the opportunity of again seeing the German delegate among us."

Having rejected the Soviet delegate's proposal, the bureau proceeded to a consideration of matters of secondary importance. In connection with the question of "control over existing decisions on disarmament," Mr. Litvinov declared:

"It is hardly sensible to consider the question of control, because while there exist no obligations there can exist no control. The degree to which the governments practice control depends on the degree of disarmament. To discuss control at the present time is tantamount to discussing the matter of a frame for a picture not yet painted."

Mr. Litvinov explained, however, that the Soviet Government was by no means against control, once obligations in respect to disarming were undertaken, and in its own draft conventions had devoted special attention to the question of control.

LITVINOV ON STRESA CONFERENCE

On September 30 the European Union Commission met in Geneva to hear the report on the Stresa Conference on the cereal and financial problems of Central Europe. During the discussion of the resolution on the decisions of the Stresa Conference, Maxim Litvinov, Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U.S.S.R., spoke as follows:

"If I take part in this discussion, it is partly because of the fact that the U.S.S.R. has no opportunity of expressing its opinions on the decisions of Stresa at Stresa itself. The conference was supposed to have been attended by delegates of exporting and importing countries, and especially delegates from the countries of Eastern and Central Europe.

"Apparently it was supposed that the U.S.S.R. neither exports nor imports. As regards the

Eastern situation of the Soviet Union, apparently the compasses of international conferences are inclined to show political rather than geographic directions. Possibly the organizers of the conference will soon find it convenient to reveal that the world by no means includes all the countries noted on the map.

"However, for the time being I shall disregard that aspect of the problem. In the interest of brevity I shall not dwell on the various proposals and recommendations in the report of the Stresa Conference, especially since they are rather pious hopes than plans capable of realization. It can only be said of them that however good they may be of themselves they contradict the recent practice of the very countries which were represented at Stresa. It is possible that there might be some use in repeating the recommendations of Stresa as a reminder to the different countries that in their every-day economic and legal practice they do just the opposite to what is considered correct at international conferences. The impossibility of carrying these recommendations into effect is accentuated by the fact that the contradiction of interests, both between governments and within the separate countries, cannot now be overcome by appealing to international solidarity alone.

"However, among the proposals is one which, if it is not doomed to share the fate of other pious hopes, requires some notice and gives rise to certain apprehensions in view of the principle on which it is based. I have in view what is called the 'revalorization of grain.' This measure was, apparently, called forth by the consideration that as a result of the drop in grain prices the exporting countries are experiencing difficulties in covering their payments abroad for their imports, past and present.

"Hence—a cutting down of imports, reflecting on the industrial countries and a sharpening of the general crises. The fall of grain prices leads to the impoverishment of the agricultural population, lowers their purchasing power, leading to the same results, i. e., to the curtailment of industrial production with all its consequences. Therefore it is proposed to create a fund out of which to give premiums to the countries exporting grain by way of compensation for the fall in prices. Unquestionably, the agrarian countries will derive advantages from this plan, and from this point of view there can be no objection, unless we count the objections from those who must contribute money to this fund. However, if we ask ourselves whether this may lead to a revival of industry and a softening of the crises, then there arise in us a multitude of doubts. First of all, what are the guarantees that the grain-exporting countries, in competing with each other and with the non-European countries, will not in the future lower their prices, counting on receiving a premium? Further, how do these privileges for a few agricultural countries reflect on the remaining European countries which export grain? In the final analysis the premium system is equivalent to a preferential tariff regime and to an evasion of the most favored nation principle. The speaker himself recognized this. Therefore, all the objections brought forward here and elsewhere against a preferential tariff regime and against violation of the most favored nation principle, more or less apply to the given plan. I myself, indeed, am concerned about the effect which this plan may have on the foreign trade of my country, which exports several kinds of grain in quantities larger than all the countries mentioned in the report taken together.

"I raise this question not from the point of view of justice or equality of rights, but from the point of view of the economic crisis and the interests of the industrial countries of Europe.

"I have already had occasion in this commission to point out the mutual economic relations between the U.S.S.R. and the rest of the world. This is not the time to present statistical data. It is enough to state that the U.S.S.R. occupies first place with regard to imports of machinery, taking one-quarter of the world exports of machinery. Certain branches of industry in such countries as Germany, Poland, England, Sweden and others are to a large extent operating on Soviet orders. I have read, for example, that in Germany no less than 300,000 industrial workers are occupied in filling Soviet orders. Under normal conditions this inter-dependence runs no risk of being weakened. The term 'autarchy,' so popular now in some countries, is not current in the U.S.S.R. However, the imports of the U.S.S.R. as in other countries, and more than in other countries, depend entirely on exports, and every reduction in the receipts from exports due to curtailment of quantity or falling of prices must of necessity result in a corresponding reduction of imports. It is therefore clear that if the realization of the given plan were to have such results with regard to the U.S.S.R., then European industry as a whole would lose more than it would gain from the increase of purchasing power of a few countries by 75,000,000 francs which, incidentally, it would pay out of its own pocket. Such are the considerations which I hope that the several organs which will be occupied with the plan of revalorization, will have in view.

"I sincerely believe that the present crisis cannot be eliminated or softened by measures equivalent to discrimination and to the sharpening of economic conflict between nations. I shall take advantage of this opportunity to remind the commission that almost a year has passed since the time when I introduced a proposal for

the conclusion of an economic non-aggression pact. It has passed through a whole series of commissions and has been buried in their depths. I do not believe that present economic relations have justified such behavior in connection with our proposal. If it was not clear a year ago it should certainly be clear now that an international economic war exists and is spreading and that discriminations have penetrated international economic life. I wish to express the hope that the commission will understand that the time has come to extract the Soviet project for an economic non-aggression pact from under the bushel."

STATEMENT ON TRANSFER OF LOCOMOTIVES FROM CHINESE EASTERN RAILROAD

The following statement by *Tass* was published in the Moscow *Izvestia* of September 16.

On May 28 of this year, the diplomatic Commissar of Kirin province, referring to orders received from the ministry for foreign affairs in Changchung, protested to Mr. Slavutzky, Consul General of the U.S.S.R. in Harbin, against the transfer from the Chinese Eastern to the Ussurisk railroad of a certain number of locomotives from those which were bought originally for the roads of the U.S.S.R. and were stranded on the Chinese Eastern railroad in the years of intervention.

In his letter the diplomatic commissar affirmed that the above mentioned locomotives were from the very beginning the joint property of the Chinese Eastern railroad and expressed the hope that orders would be given for the immediate return of the locomotives.

On September 12, Mr. Slavutsky, Consul General of the U.S.S.R. in Harbin, delivered to the diplomatic commissar a letter with the following contents:

"I consider it my duty to inform you, Mr. Special Agent, that the locomotives mentioned in your letter do not belong to the Chinese Eastern railroad and are therefore not on the inventory of the Chinese Eastern railroad. These locomotives belong to the railroads of the U.S.S.R. for which they were purchased originally, and only as a result of the intervention were they stranded on the Chinese Eastern railroad.*

This indisputable and documentarily established fact is known to the board of the Chinese Eastern railroad, and there can be no doubt about the right of the Union Government to make use of and dispose of these locomotives, just as it is indisputable that the Chinese Eastern railroad is the property of the U.S.S.R. and is under the joint administration of both countries on the basis of the Peking and Mukden treaties. Along with this, I take the liberty of reminding you that the question touched upon in your letter has, to my knowledge, several times been considered at meetings of the board of the Chinese Eastern railroad and was the object of special negotiations between the chairman of the board, Mr. Lee Shan-Gen and the assistant chairman, Mr. Kuznetsov. The latter, as is evident from this stenographic report of the meeting of the board of the Chinese Eastern railroad of April 7, explained the substance of the question with which your letter is concerned. The Soviet representatives on the Chinese Eastern railroad are entirely guided by the instructions of the government of the U.S.S.R. regarding the strict observance and unswerving fulfillment of the Peking and Mukden treaties, and also regarding the attainment of complete agreement in the work of both countries, of which the existing system of the solution of questions between the representatives of both sides on the Chinese Eastern railroad serves as a sufficient guarantee. It is evident from the above, Mr. Special Agent, that there is no basis for the protest expressed on your part."

Note: At the meeting of the board of the Chinese Eastern railroad of April 7, this year, the assistant chairman of the board, Mr. Kuznetsov, made the following statement:

"This is not the first time that the locomotives have been on Soviet territory, and we are surprised at the anxiety of the Chinese side. We consider that we shall be quite within our rights in using these locomotives in the future as well. But at the same time we categorically declare that our Chinese colleagues may be entirely at ease, because we are also concerned to have the road operate normally and in no case would the locomotives be permitted to remain on the territory of the Soviet Union to the detriment of normal operations on the Chinese Eastern railroad."

CHANGES IN SOVIET FOREIGN SERVICE

On September 14, George Sokolnikov was relieved of the post of diplomatic representative of the U.S.S.R. in England, at his own request.

On September 26, Ivan Maisky was transferred from the post of diplomatic representative of the U.S.S.R. in Finland to take Mr. Sokolnikov's place in England.

On September 26, Dmitri Kursky was relieved of the post of diplomatic representative of the U.S.S.R. in Italy and Vladimir Potemkin was transferred to Italy from Greece. Yakov Davtian was appointed to the post of Soviet diplomatic representative of the U.S.S.R. in Greece in place of Mr. Potemkin.

On August 3, Ivan Glagov was relieved of the post of trade representative of the U.S.S.R. in Greece and Nikolay Angarsky was appointed in his stead.

*The reference is to the intervention against the U.S.S.R. in 1918-19, in which China took part, when these locomotives were stranded in Vladivostok and from Valdivostok were transferred to Manchuria by the Chinese Eastern railroad.

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Soviet Arctic Exploration

MORE than ten years ago Lenin, who attributed great importance to polar exploration, gave orders for the equipment of the first Soviet Arctic expedition on the "Perseus." That was in the period when the Soviet republic had barely started to emerge from the economic destruction wrought by the civil war and intervention, when every kopek was counted. From the small "Perseus" expedition the State Oceanographic Institute later developed. In addition to this a special institute for the study of the North was organized. Finally, in 1930, the All-Union Arctic Institute was established.

As a result of the work of Soviet explorers the "white spots" on the map of the Soviet section of the Arctic have almost entirely disappeared. The whole region has been explored. Land, formerly indicated on the map by uncertain dotted lines, is now outlined exactly. New islands have been discovered. Valuable mineral resources have been found. New industrial districts have been opened up. Each year the amount of scientific material grows.

Up to the present time there have been over fifty Soviet polar expeditions. It is enough to indicate some of the more important ones to give an idea of the extent of Soviet activities in the Arctic.

1920. An expedition under the leadership of Matison explored the mouth of the Lena River.

1921. The expedition headed by Eugenov completed a survey of the Lena Delta and produced the first correct map of that region.

1923. The polar station at Matochkin Shar was constructed.

1924. The ice-breaker "Krasny Octiabr," in command of Davydov, reached Wrangel Island.

1926. The Ushakov expedition to colonize and study Wrangel Island took place.

1928. The "Krassin," in command of Samoilovich and the "Malygin," in command of Vize, went to the aid of the ill-fated Nobile expedition. In the same year Pinegin reached the island of Novosibirsk and set up a scientific station there.

1929. Captain Dublitzky led an expedition to Wrangel Island in the eastern section of the Soviet Arctic and in the western section an expedition headed by Schmidt constructed the northernmost scientific station in the world on Franz Joseph Land. The aviator Krassinsky led an air expedition from Chukotsky peninsula to the river Lena.

1930. The Schmidt expedition, after completing its work on Franz Joseph Land and visiting Novaya Zemlya, discovered Vize Island, crossed the Kara Sea, and discovered Kamenev Island.

The latter immediately became the chief base of the Ushakov expedition, equipped especially for the exploration of North Land. In the autumn the Ushakov expedition for the first time reached the shores of North Land.

1931. The icebreaker "Malygin," in command of Vize, completed a new trip to Franz Joseph Land. The Chukotsky expedition of Obruchev began its work. A group of Soviet Arctic explorers headed by Samoilovich played a leading role in the air expedition of the international society "Aeroarctic." The Ushakov expedition explored the northern and central part of North Land. The State Oceanographic Institute sent an expedition to the northern part of the Barents Sea. A new station was constructed at the northern extremity of Novaya Zemlya—Cape Desire.

1932. The expedition on the icebreaker "Taimir," in command of Lavrov, returned with rich material on the hydrology of the Kara and Barents Seas.

Early in October the air expedition headed by B. S. Chuknovsky, which explored the Far North the latter part of August, returned to Moscow.

Starting from the city of Troitzk in the Ural Region, the expedition passed over the Taimir peninsula to the rocky island of Minin, discovered last year, but so far little studied. Chuknovsky, who is already experienced in air exploration of the extreme north, managed his plane admirably in spite of the heavy damp fogs so prevalent in that region.

The expedition was able to collect a large amount of material on the commercially valuable animals of this sparsely populated region. The airplane opens up possibilities of systematic polar bear hunting.

The Ushakov expedition completed two years of work in the exploration of North Land. The fliers Alexeyev and Kozlov, using Dixon Island as their base, reached North Land by airplane.

The work of the Ushakov expedition was exceptionally well planned and organized in advance. Provisions were sent ahead along the route to be followed. The first trip was prepared in the polar night. Twice Ushakov went ahead together with Zhuravlev in complete darkness to establish provision points along the route to be explored. After the polar night was over, the expedition set forth to take topographical photographs and carry on other work in connection with complete exploration of the land. The first trip lasted 36 days. The second trip was much more difficult and took 52 days. The third and fourth took place in the second year of work—in 1932.

In the process of this work the location of all the separate islands was determined, and an exact map of the archipelago, in which each island is indicated and named, was drawn up. This map was very useful to the "Sibiriakov" expedition.

Arctic Expedition of 1932

The Arctic expeditions of this year have a special significance, since 1932 is the Second International Polar Year.

The first International Polar Year was organized fifty years ago—in 1882—on the initiative of the distinguished scientist and Arctic explorer, Karl Weiprecht, discoverer of Franz Joseph Land. The idea of International Polar Year is that polar expeditions should be sent out by all the countries of the world. In 1882 twelve countries took part in polar expeditions. In 1929 the "International Commission for the Polar Year 1932-33" was organized in Copenhagen. An extensive program of work was mapped out. America, England, France, Argentine, Poland, Sweden, Denmark, Norway and Japan have all taken part in one way or another.

One of the most important measures of the polar expeditions of this year is the opening of new polar stations. Of the seventeen new stations planned, nine were allotted to the Soviet Union, which has more than fulfilled its share of the work. Thus in Pacific Bay alone, on Franz Joseph Land, a radio laboratory, an actinometry pavilion, an accumulator station, an air driven dynamo, a telephone station and a number of other laboratories have been set up.

Among the more important expeditions of this year was that of the icebreaker Sibiriakov through the northeast passage from Archangelsk to Vladivostok, which was of considerable industrial importance. For several centuries attempts have been made to open up a northeast passage. Not until 1878-79 did Nordenskiöld succeed in making that passage. But Nordenskiöld was forced to winter there. The Soviet Sibiriakov expedition, headed by Professors Schmidt and Vize, achieved the passage in one season without wintering in the Arctic, a feat not hitherto accomplished. This is believed to open up valuable economic possibilities. The regular use of the Kara Sea, formerly considered inaccessible, as a trade route between the West and the mouths of the Siberian rivers (Yenesei, Lena and others) commenced in 1928. In 1930 forty-six ships reached the mouths of the Siberian rivers through the Kara Sea—this year about fifty.

Particularly important work was done this year by the icebreaker "Malygin" under the direction of Pinegin and Captain Chertkov. The "Malygin" accomplished the unusual task of making two trips to Franz Joseph Land in one summer, thus greatly enlarging the possibility of scientific research work and the economic exploitation of the archipelago.

The success of all the Soviet expeditions this year was greatly facilitated by favorable ice conditions. Thus, for instance, in the first trip of the "Malygin" to Franz Joseph Land, it plowed through ice for thirteen days. On the second trip the same distance was covered in six days. The aim of the second trip of the "Malygin" was to get building materials, provisions and equipment for the laboratory at the winter station on Hooker Island in Pacific Bay, and to establish the most northerly station in the world on Rudolph Land (the most northern island of Franz Joseph Land). In addition, a large amount of scientific research work was done on board the ice-breaker. P. Yudin, a member of the "Malygin" expedition, describes the trip as follows:

The "Malygin" Expedition

"The 'Malygin' left Archangelsk on August 16 for its second trip. We passed through the White Sea and the Barents Sea without the slightest difficulty. Only as we neared Franz Joseph Land did we begin to encounter icebergs. Coming into the belt of heavy fogs the 'Malygin' went off its course a little to the northwest.

"The southern shore of Alexander Land, Seager Land and Franz Joseph Land are of fabulous beauty. The basalt cliffs, in some places rising in an even colonnade, in others heaped up chaotically, are covered with eternal ice, and shine at night under the polar sun, impregnable, austere, majestic.

"At five o'clock in the morning of August 22 we arrived at Pacific Bay. A heavy storm, whirling snow flakes, temperature below zero—that was the first meeting of our expedition with the mainland. It was necessary to wait several hours before it was possible to get to the shore on rafts. The unloading of supplies for winter quarters immediately got under way. It is difficult for anyone who has not been in the Arctic to imagine just what unloading a ship in the Arctic means. At any moment some caprice of the weather is likely to destroy everything, to hurl both cargo and people into the open sea. Under these conditions it takes extraordinary dexterity and tenacity to conquer each foot of space, through water and floating ice. It is under these same conditions that the construction work must be carried on on the shore.

"In 1929 the first winter quarters were set up on Pacific Bay. That year the bay was transformed into a Soviet settlement. Among the huge cliffs surrounding the bay dozens of new buildings went up: two large houses, a radio pavilion, a magnetic pavilion, baths, an air-driven dynamo, an airplane hangar, warehouses, and workshops. Twenty persons wintered there that year. All the buildings were electrically lighted, all parts of the winter quarters were connected by telephone, there was a fine library, a club room with a piano. The laboratory was splendidly equipped. A very fine staff was chosen, including a number of distinguished scientists—Dr. Scholtz, engineer Archangelsky, and others. The winter group was headed by I. D. Popani, a man of striking energy, resourcefulness and initiative. The types of work already enumerated testify to the scientific and economic importance of the Pacific Bay station. This year work will be carried on there in meteorology, hydrology, aerology, actinometry, in studying the radio-activity and broadcasting of sound waves, in atmospheric electricity, biology and many other branches of scientific investigation.

"On August 26 the 'Malygin' reached Rudolph Land, at 81° 4′ northern latitude. Last year it took the 'Malygin' several days to cover that distance. This year, one day and night. The weather of Rudolph Land is harsher than that of Hooker Island, where Pacific Bay is located. The whole island is covered by a solid glacier. Only on its northwestern side, where the Bay of Teplitz is located, is there a small piece of land free from ice for a short time in the summer. There certain remnants are still preserved of the winter quarters of Abrutzky and Fiala. The former wintered there in 1899-1900, the second in 1903-1905. Since that time there has been no winter station there.

"It was far more difficult to unload the building materials and food supplies here than it was in Pacific Bay. All hands were called on deck, and everyone on the boat helped. Storms and ice interrupted the work from time to time. The temporary wharf was destroyed by an iceberg. Everyone worked for days . . . the bay was full of ice. The unloading was carried on with rafts, ropes and whatever means possible.

"Having unloaded everything necessary for the construction of the station, on the thirtieth the 'Malygin' turned its course northwest. On August 31 the icebreaker entered the realm of eternal polar ice. Further progress was impossible. Ahead lay impassable ice, seven to eight meters thick, through which no icebreaker could plow.

"We were at parallel 82° 30′, a record for that part of the Arctic Ocean. A picture of extraordinary beauty met our eyes. It was completely calm. The smoke rose slowly, slowly upward from the icebreaker. The bright polar sun shown the whole day round. During the day the temperature varied from three to five degrees below zero to from one to two degrees above. The sky was clear. From the boundless expanse of the ice-fields rose great blocks of ice piled up during many years into a multitude of fantastic shapes. These ice forms, tinted

with all the colors of the rainbow, sometimes became fabulous cities, sometimes islands. No wonder that even the most experienced Arctic explorers sometimes mistake these ice masses for continents, and place them on the map.

"On August 2 we turned eastward. About fifteen miles ahead of us we saw White Land. Only once has that land been passed by man. Nansen's expedition passed it, in kayaks, in 1895. This land, made up of four islands, is practically inaccessible. It is covered entirely with a permanent blanket of ice, from which great glaciers fall into the sea. The 'Malygin' made two attempts to approach it. . . .

"We returned to the Bay of Teplitz. The building of the station was nearing completion. . . . On August 7, at eleven o'clock in the evening, the opening of the northernmost station in the world was celebrated in the midst of a severe storm. On the shore of the bay, at the foot of the glacier, in a spot scarcely protected from the winds, a house had been built and a radio mast erected, near the ruins of the old winter station. At the meeting were the whole crew of the 'Malygin,' the members of the expedition, the builders and the winter group. Speeches of greeting, salutes, and the red banner of the Soviets was raised over the station.

"During the meeting, far off on the steep slope of the glacier, one of the monarchs of the North appeared—a polar bear, solemnly lumbering toward the meeting. The noise of the salute frightened him, and he disappeared on the other side of the glacier.

"The ultimate aim of the expedition—regarding the consummation of which there has been some justifiable doubt, was at last accomplished—the station was built. Four persons remained to winter on Rudolph Land.

"Throughout the whole trip scientific work was continuously carried on on board the ship. Hydrological work of great importance was completed. Hydrological cross-sections of formerly unexplored parts of the polar seas were made. At parallel 82° 27′ a warm current was discovered at a great depth. Professor Verigo and his assistant Borishansky made valuable observations in the field of ionization of the air of the Arctic. The young Leningrad scientist, Prezent, collected a herbarium on Hooker Island and also perhaps the first herbarium ever collected from Rudolph Land. This work of Prezent is connected with the study of the important problem of 'yarovization' which is being worked out by the Soviet scientist Lysenko. Lysenko discovered that every plant passes through the stage of 'yarovization' before fertilization. He has already shown the practical possibility of treating seeds so that they will pass through this stage much more rapidly, a process which will make it possible to grow southern crops in more northern climes.

"When the 'Malygin' left Franz Joseph Land, winter had already set in there. The temperature was constantly below zero. There were cold winds. Deep snows had already fallen, the polar night had started. Pale gleams of the Aurora borealis were already visible.

"The 'Malygin' made the return journey in seven days. In the Barents Sea it entered the cyclone belt. For three days an extraordinarily violent hurricane battered the ship, relieved of its cargo, from side to side, and it listed at an angle of 45 degrees. Only the twenty-five years' experience of Captain Chertkov and the unexampled work of the crew saved the ship from a worse fate. On September 14, Captain Chertkov turned the ship against the wind, again to the north. On the 14th the storm began to abate. On September 16 the ship dropped anchor in Murmansk."

Soyuzphoto

Nina Petrovna Demme, famous woman Arctic explorer, en route for a winter on Kamenev Island

Soyuzphoto

Left to right—Professor Schmidt (with beard), head of "Sibiriakov" expedition, Professor Samoilovich, leading "Rusanov" expedition, and Professor Vize

Soviet Transport Situation

THE Soviet Government received as a heritage from the Tsarist regime a completely decrepit railway system and a river and sea fleet negligible in its extent and technically backward. There were practically no roads throughout the whole huge territory of the country. Air transport was entirely non-existent. Motor-transport was in an embryonic stage. The civil war, blockade and intervention to a still further degree contributed to the destruction of transport, which during 1918 and 1920 was in a catastrophic state.

Having successfully passed through the period of restoration which was completed in 1927-28, the Soviet Government commenced the development of new construction in the different branches of transport which took on especially large proportions in connection with the Five-Year Plan.

The swift growth in industry and agriculture meant increased demands on transport. As a result of large profitable investment in new construction and a considerable amount in reconstruction work the five-year plan for transport was in its major points completed in four years.

Railroads

The demands of the Five-Year Plan, the increased production in all branches of Soviet industry have imposed a terrific strain on the railroads, and weaknesses in the transportation system have been one of the Soviet Union's most serious problems.

However, marked advances have been made. The total freight turnover originally designated for the last year of the Five-Year Plan, 1933, was 281,000,000 tons. It is estimated that it will amount to 285,000,000 tons for 1932. The increase in the amount of freight carried during the past four years is shown in the following table:

1913	65,700,000,000	ton-kilometers
1928	88,200,000,000	" "
1929	112,900,000,000	" "
1930	113,900,000,000	" "
1931	149,400,000,000	" "

With regard to the carrying of passengers all provisions in the Five-Year Plan were left far behind. It was expected that the total number of passengers to be carried in 1932-33 would be 454,000,000. As a matter of fact the number of passengers has increased as follows:

1927-28	291,100,000
1929	365,200,000
1930	557,700,000
1931	708,900,000

During the present year the number of passengers will reach at least 980,000,000, which is more than double the Five-Year Plan figure. In 1931 the pre-war level of passenger carriage was surpassed by more than 3.8 times (in 1913 it was 185,000,000).

The length of the railroad lines is growing rapidly from year to year as shown in the following table:

1927-28	76,863	kilometers
1929	77,010	"
1930	77,046	"
1931	80,900	"

During the present year length of railroad lines will reach 82,500 kilometers. New construction is going forward constantly. The lines in exploitation in the U.S.S.R. during the present year exceed those of Tsarist Russia by 24,000 kilometers.

According to the plan it was expected to spend 4,891,200,000 rubles in capital construction of railroad transport. Actually 6,900,000,000 rubles, or 41 per cent more than the amount planned was expended.

During the past four years 3,285 new locomotives, 98,000 freight cars, 4,500 passenger cars have been put into operation. Stations have been enlarged and railroad junctions have been improved. A great deal has been accomplished in electrification of the system. By the end of the present year 330 kilometers of electrified lines will be completed and 1,638 kilometers are in process of electrification. Automatic brakes are being introduced. By January 1, 1933, about 100,000 cars will be equipped with automatic brakes. Automatic couplings, automatic blockings, etc., are also being used. The average daily run of a locomotive was 119.1 kilometers in 1913 and 176.6 kilometers in 1931. The average daily run of loaded and empty freight cars for the same years amounted to 75.2 and 91.8 kilometers, respectively. Another indication of the growth of railroad transport may be seen in the gross income from the exploitation of the roads which has increased from year to year as follows:

1929	2,403,200,000	rubles
1930	3,206,200,000	"
1931	4,225,000,000	"

During the first quarter of the present year the gross income from the railroads increased by 58.8 per cent over the same period of last year.

Finally it should be noted that the rapid growth of railroad transport has been accompanied by a constant increase in the number of people employed in its different branches. The total number of workers in railroad transport

amounted to 1,208,800 in 1928-29 and 1,873,000 in 1931.

Water Transport

River transport of the U.S.S.R. was technically very backward at the beginning of the Five-Year Plan, but great improvements can already be noted. At the end of 1928 only 20 per cent of internal domestic freight was handled by river transport. In 1932 the amount had grown to 26.2 per cent. According to the Five-Year Plan the amount of freight to be carried in 1933 was established at 77,500,000 tons. The amount of freight carried has actually increased from 39,900,000 tons in 1928 to 82,500,000 tons in 1931. The control figures for 1932 are 114,100,000 tons. In comparison with the pre-war level, freight turnover of river transport increased by 71 per cent in 1931. It is interesting to note that the Soviet Union now occupies third place in the world with regard to transport of freight by internal waterways, being exceeded only by the United States and Germany.

The industrialization of the country has led to the increase of river transport of industrial cargo, such as building materials, coal, chemical products, metals, agricultural machines, etc. The rivers in remote sections which formerly played no role in transport, are now being used. Thus before the revolution, freight carried by the waterways of Asiatic Russia constituted only 6 per cent of the entire river freight of the country, while in 1931 it amounted to 15 per cent. River travel has also increased from 11,200,000 passengers in 1913 to 35,000,000 in 1931.

The river fleet of the U.S.S.R. has greatly increased during the Five-Year Plan. In 1928 there were 3,551 steamboats plying Soviet rivers, and in 1931, 4,436. Tow-boats have been increased by 716,000 tons. During the same period 13,000 kilometers of new waterways have been put into exploitation and a large amount of hydro-technical work has been done. The work on the Dnieper making it navigable throughout its whole length has been a great achievement.

Mechanized timber wharf of the Leningrad port

A tremendous amount of reconstruction work has been done in building up river towns and ports. In junction points, such as Gorky (formerly Nizhni-Novgorod), Leningrad, Kiev, Dniepropetrovsk, Gomel, and others, mechanized river ports are being constructed with an extensive development of warehouses, special passenger stations, etc. A whole system of well-equipped ship repair yards has been set up and large river wharves established. Capital investment in river transport has been as follows:

1928	61,200,000	rubles
1929	74,800,000	"
1930	123,300,000	"
1931	239,000,000	"
1932	315,400,000	" (according to the plan).

The development of maritime transport may be seen from the growth of freight turnover in

the sea ports, as shown in the following table:

1913	44,300,000	tons
1928	25,400,000	"
1929	31,500,000	"
1930	45,700,000	"
1931	48,200,000	"

The role of the Soviet fleet in the service of foreign trade is also increasing from year to year. Thus in 1928 cargoes for foreign parts amounted to 10,200,000 tons, in 1931 to 22,600,000 tons. A large amount has been spent in the reconstruction of seaports and in the construction of new modern ships. In 1929 16,500,000 rubles was invested in the ports of the U.S.S.R. and in 1931 over 80,000,000 rubles. Particularly great progress has been made in the mechanization of loading and unloading at ports.

In the building of mercantile ships the Soviet Union occupies one of the foremost places in the world. During the Five-Year Plan, a large number of powerful lumber ships, oil tankers, refrigerators, and other types of mercantile vessels, all built according to the latest technical standards, have been launched from Soviet wharves. During the past seven years the Soviet mercantile fleet has been increased by 72 ships built in the U.S.S.R. with a capacity of 181,000 tons. In the period from 1905-17 altogether only 9 mercantile ships with a total capacity of 19,000 tons were built in Russia.

Air Transport

The development of air transport in the U.S.S.R. began only after the revolution. Although it has been in existence only ten years, its role in the general transport system is very great. The rate of its development may be seen from the following table:

	1922	1928	1929	1930	1931
1 Length of air lines, in kilometers:	1,200	11,442	17,542	29,281	35,531
2. Length of actual flights in kilometers:	134,000	2,497,700	3,561,900	4,879,400	6,115,500
3. Number of passengers carried:	270	9,532	11,985	14,875	22,455
4. Amount of freight, baggage and mail carried, in kilograms:	13,700	247,988	287,556	359,559	662,724

In 1932 the airways of the U.S.S.R. will grow to 50-55,000 kilometers. The total length of flights will amount to over 10,000,000 kilometers, the freight and mail to 2,000,000 kilograms and the transport of passengers to about 40,000 persons. Thus airlines of the U.S.S.R. have more than quadrupled in the four years of the Five-Year Plan. At the present time the Soviet Union is second only to the United States in the length of airlines.

The Five-Year Plan called for the investment of 108,000,000 rubles in civil aviation. Actually 300,000,000 rubles has been invested. Much progress has been made in the technical improvement of the civil air fleet. Such powerful airships of Soviet construction as "ANT-14," a five-motor plane with a capacity of 41 persons, "ANT-3," a tri-motor plane with a freight capacity of a ton, and others have been put into operation. A large amount of reconstruction work has been and is being carried on in the most important sectors of the main trans-Soviet airways; Moscow-Transcaucasia, Moscow-Central Asia, Moscow-Far East, etc. Airdromes and landing fields have everywhere been equipped with modern signaling devices, radio, meteorological stations, repair bases and so on.

The civil air fleet is doing great service in aerial photography, in fighting agricultural pests, and in combatting forest fires. In this respect, the Soviet air fleet occupies first place in the world.

During the past year, the question of the development of dirigible construction has come to the fore. Due to the great popular interest in this question, considerable funds have already been gathered. During the past year there have been built a number of small dirigibles having chiefly experimental significance and serving to train the necessary corps of aviation and construction workers.

Motor Transport

The total output of automobiles in the Soviet Union in 1931 reached 20,500, or 25 times the output of 1925 when only 80 cars were manufactured in the Soviet Union. During the first half of 1932 the total output of automobiles amounted to 9,127 cars as against 7,769 in the corresponding period of last year and only 2,448 in the first half of 1930. This increase has been the result of the tremendous construction work which has recently developed in the Soviet automobile industry; the huge automobile plant in Gorky with a total annual capacity of 140,000 light cars and trucks, the completely reconstructed Stalin plant (formerly the Amo) in Moscow, with a capacity of 70,000 trucks a year and the reconstruction of the Yaroslavsky plant now in process with the aim of bringing its capacity up to 20,000 machines.

During its first year, which ended October 1, 1932, the reconstructed Stalin plant produced 10,757 high-power auto trucks, while during the previous eight years it had produced altogether only 6,402 smaller cars. The Kharkov plant produced a total of 12,784 tractors during its first year (up to September 27). In the Stalin plant, there was a drop in production during the summer due to a shortage of raw materials and other factors, but by October 1st the plant was producing 65 cars a day, and extra motors and spare parts making its output equivalent to 80 cars a day, 80 per cent of capacity. The Kharkov

plant was turning out 70 cars a day by October 1st. The Gorky plant, after a brief stoppage due to lack of materials resumed operations on June 16 and is now producing 50 cars a day. Formerly most of the automobiles were assembled from parts of foreign manufacture. In 1931 such cars made up 80 per cent of the total output. This year the percentage has been reduced to 9.

The growth of Soviet motor transport is closely bound up with the question of road building. Pre-revolutionary Russia was, as is well known, one of the most roadless countries in the world. During the Five-Year Plan about 85,000 kilometers of new roads have been put into exploitation.

The present condition of Soviet motor transport is certainly still far from meeting the needs of the country. But the first and most difficult steps in its development have already been taken and in the next few years motor transport will be developed so that it will occupy an important place in the general transport system.

In conclusion it should be noted that capital investment in all forms of transport in the U.S.S.R. has greatly exceeded the provisions of the Five-Year Plan in which it was placed at 6,431,000,000 rubles (exclusive of air transport) whereas in actuality it amounted to 9,530,600,000 rubles in four years, or 47 per cent more than expected.

The U.S.S.R. Unifies Its Library Service

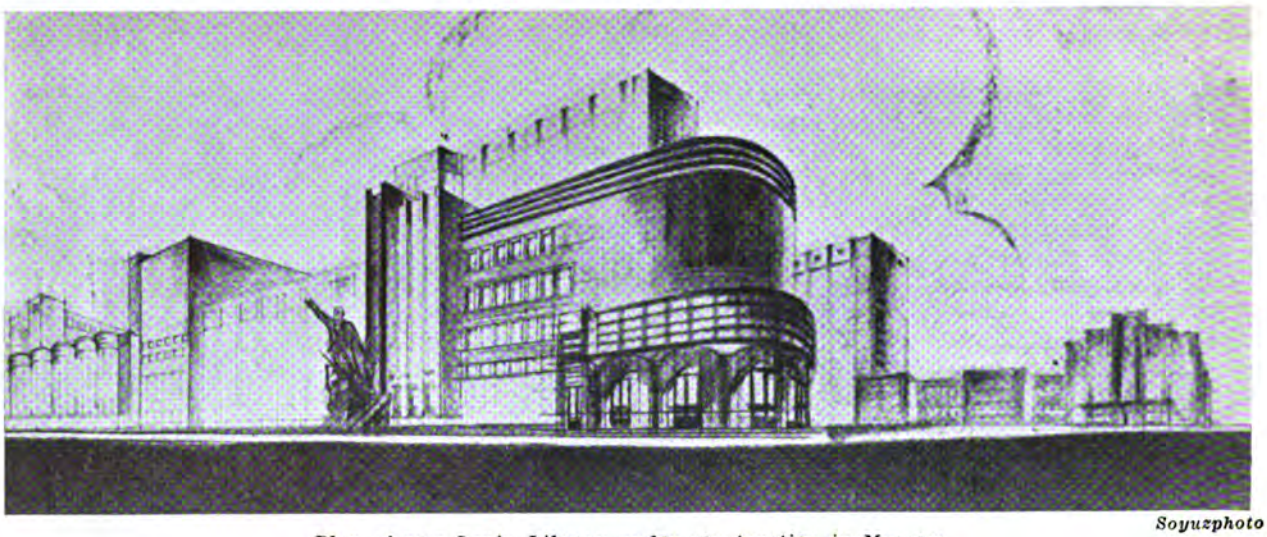
LIBRARIES have spread very rapidly in the Soviet Union since 1917, but, until the past few years, with very little system. Eight times as many books were published in 1931 as in pre-revolutionary years, and these are distributed largely through the very fine libraries that exist in the main cities, and through the libraries and reading rooms which are to be found in every workers' club, every agricultural collective, every village. So extensive is the library service that there is little incentive for the collection of large personal libraries. On the other hand, books are printed rather for use than for preservation, and paper-bound volumes are sold so cheaply as to be within the reach of everyone, so in most workers' households there will be found a fair supply of books, largely of a political or technical nature, but with a smattering of *belles lettres*, too. Recently many of the classics, both Russian and foreign, have been reissued in beautiful editions which the younger people especially take great pride in owning. But in general most of the reading is of library books.

The largest libraries in the Soviet Union are the Russian Public Library in Leningrad which has now over 5,500,000 volumes, the Academy of Sciences Library in Leningrad, and the Lenin Library in Moscow, which when completed will be the largest library in the U.S.S.R. The Academy of Sciences Library is the oldest library in the Soviet Union. It contains a rare collection of ancient Slavic and Russian parchment books of the eleventh to the fourteenth centuries.

The Lenin Library, which was started in 1917 with 1,460,000 volumes, has been housed in the Rumiantsev Museum, which has not been very satisfactory, but a new library is now under construction. The new library is an enormous affair in five sections with gardens between and will have, in addition to the stalls and reading rooms, restaurants, children's rooms, exhibition rooms, a general information bureau, as well as the library information service, book stores, special cabinets for students and research workers, and so on. A library university for training librarians, the central chamber of books and a bibliographic institute will be connected with the library, as well as printing and bindery shops. It is designed for 11,000,000 volumes, and will eventually contain copies of all books published in the U.S.S.R., as well as a large selection of foreign books. There will be a special section devoted to the literature of the national minorities of which the library already has a very fine collection. They are studying American library methods and the belt system of delivering books and electric signals will be installed. It will accommodate 7,000 readers at one time. In 1931 the Lenin Library gave out 1,400,000 volumes, had 350,000 visitors and served 300 industrial, state, scientific and other institutions. It sent out books to all corners of the Soviet Union. The main section of the library is to be completed by May 1, 1933, the remainder by the following November.

There are many fine libraries in the capitals of the various republics and in the main cities in the U.S.S.R.

Library service in old Russia was most inadequate, which was both a cause and an effect of the high percentage of illiteracy among the population. Where libraries did exist the cost of borrowing books was too high for the ordinary low-paid worker, so they were used only by the privi-



Soyuzphoto

Plan of new Lenin Library under construction in Moscow

leged classes. Beautiful and rare volumes were to be found in the libraries of the large cities, but in general the subject matter of the books was very limited. Library deposits consisted largely of religious books and political histories.

Growth of Libraries in the U.S.S.R.

For the first five years after the revolution libraries sprang up rapidly all over the Soviet Union, but without system. By 1924 three parallel systems of library service were discernible. The Educational Commissariats of the various republics established a chain of libraries and reading rooms in every city, town and village; all educational institutions from kindergartens up through universities and post-graduate institutes, had their libraries which in many cases served the outside population to a certain extent as well; the trade unions organized extensive library service in every factory and workers' club. All kinds of cultural and educational activities developed in connection with the libraries and reading rooms. The libraries became the center for "liquidation of illiteracy" classes. In the villages especially the "isba tchetalnaya" (cottage reading room) became a gathering place for knowledge-hungry peasants, literary and dramatic classes grew up around it, reading aloud for the illiterate peasants became a regular practice. But while the books continued to flow in ever-growing quantities from the presses and to reach ever greater numbers of people, the lack of centralization and of system became so serious that in 1925 and 1926, the Commissariat for Education made a study of library methods in other countries. The California County free library plan with its excellent system of distributing books through the country districts by mail, seemed most applicable to Soviet conditions and accordingly they invited Harriet G. Eddy, Assistant Professor of Agricultural Extension of the Library of California, and formerly county library organizer in the California State Library, to come to the U.S.S.R. to inspect the library system and to explain the California plan. The next step was to send Anna Kravchenko from the Soviet Union to the United States to make a study of the free library service of California and elsewhere. On her return widespread library reorganization was undertaken and in 1930 Miss Eddy was invited to return to help in instituting the new system.

Unification of Soviet Library System

It was decided to adapt the California plan to the needs of the Soviet Union and Orechovo-Suevo, a town of about 100,000 inhabitants about three hours east of Moscow by train, was chosen for the first demonstration. Miss Eddy described the beginnings of a unified library service in the Soviet Union and the Orechovo-Suevo experiment in an article published last winter in the *Library Journal*. She pointed out that when the work for unification began in the autumn of 1929, the town had twenty-two libraries, including factory and club libraries, children's libraries and general reading rooms, aside from the regular school libraries and sixty-eight traveling libraries. In January, 1930, all these were unified under one head librarian, the existing separate libraries were made branches of the main library and many new ones were organized. A year later there were 123 library branches in the town. The large number of branches is due to the fact that rooms for large branches were scarce and trained librarians to handle larger branches few. At the time of reorganization there were 10,000 registered readers, Miss Eddy reports, of whom 2,000 were children, and at the end of the first year there were 20,077 readers, of whom 5,143 were children. The number of library books increased during that period from 10,667 to 63,138.

The new central library was housed in the new club-house, which is provided with a large reading room, an auditorium, children's rooms, a large stock room, several work rooms, and so on.

Here the Public Health nurse for the county has her office, and a special section of the library is devoted to literature on maternity problems, child care and general health problems to which she can refer the young mothers who come to her for advice, and from which she can take material on her trips through the county. One of the first steps after organizing the new central library was to make a survey of the entire rayon, arrange for a rotating book fund and to establish courses to teach the new system to the outside librarians.

The money has been appropriated and plans are under way for the construction of a large new library at Orechovo-Suevo with adequate facilities to become the town's real cultural center—reading rooms, children's rooms, playground, large and small auditoriums, committee rooms, music rooms and a museum of textiles which is the chief industry of the town.

The Orechovo-Suevo library is serving as a nation-wide demonstration. Librarians come to Orechovo-Suevo from all parts of the Soviet Union to learn their methods. It is used as a practice library for students from the new library school, and its example is already being followed in other parts of the country. At the same time natural unified library units are developing in other parts of the U.S.S.R. In Samara a unified system is being developed that will soon cover the entire region. It comprises eighty rayons, each one of which is completely collectivized, and twenty-nine of the collectives have unified their libraries. That is to say, each one of them has a main library in the administrative center of the collective, and branch libraries in the various sections, and special field libraries are arranged for the sowing and harvesting seasons. The collectives follow the system of appropriating a ruble per capita annually for the library fund. The Samara State Library has a library school with a two-and-a-half-year course. A very interesting library service has developed in connection with the State experimental-training farm, Verblud, in the North Caucasus. A town of 7,000 has grown up in connection with the farm. There is an agricultural university of a thousand students, and one of the most completely equipped agricultural experiment stations in the world. The sovhoz is divided up into eight permanent units from which the field workers operate as a base, and there are ten cooperating collectives bordering on it which receive machinery and technical help. The library for this area has its center in Verblud, its branches in each of the eight units and the ten cooperating collectives, and it serves the whole town as well.

Library Training

There was little formally organized library training in old Russia—simply a few short courses and library classes in different institutions. In September, 1930, the first "Library University" was started in Moscow as a department of the Lenin Memorial Library, with an American-trained librarian in charge. The objective is to train high school graduates who have had two years' experience in library work or training in a technicum to become librarians in the new unified system. The curriculum includes university subjects, and the students spend forty days in each semester doing what is called "practice-practical" work. This consists of four hours actual library work and four hours factory work—the latter in order to study the reader by actually working at his side. Later on they will have practice in kolhoz libraries and spend part of the time doing agricultural work in kolhoz fields.

The Institute of Library Science has been reorganized under the directorship of Mrs. Kravchenko to study library theory, i. e., the library as a part of the entire social structure of the U.S.S.R., and library practice.

Further Improvement Decreed

Last winter a decree was issued by the R.S.F.S.R. designed to improve library service and book distribution generally. It noted the shortcomings in the organization and financing of libraries, the lack of sufficiently trained librarians, and instructed the Narkompros (Commissariat for Education) to take steps to reorganize the whole business of book distribution in connection with the publishing companies and book trading concerns. The decree provided that a certain number of all new books issued be set aside to supply the mass libraries, and that special attention be paid to supplying the new construction projects. It also provided for a commission to be set up of representatives from the Commissariats for Education and Agriculture, the Trade Unions, and the Gosplan of the R.S.F.S.R. to work out a plan for strengthening and increasing libraries. This commission is to provide for central libraries in every rayon with a system of branch and traveling libraries attached. In addition all enterprises employing more than a thousand workers and all large state farms are to have central libraries and branch or traveling libraries in all the various departments, workers' quarters, etc. All Machine and Tractor Stations and larger collectives are to have stationary libraries, and traveling library service is to be provided for the smaller ones. Arrangements are to be made with the housing cooperatives to establish libraries in all housing centers and to provide reading rooms in all places where workers gather—such as railroad stations, parks and restaurants. Special six months' courses for librarians were to be held during the summer of 1932 and next autumn a library Rabfac is to be opened in connection with the Moscow Library

Institute, the facilities of which, as well as of the Leningrad Library Institute, are to be greatly expanded. A number of short courses for library workers are to be opened in other places. "Readers' Councils" are being organized to cooperate with the libraries. Greatly increased funds have been allocated for library work, and the Commissariat for Light Industries has been instructed to see to the manufacture of the necessary library equipment.

State Library for Foreign Literature

The state library of foreign literature, lodged in a former church in Stoleshnikov Street in Moscow, near the Lenin Institute and the Moscow Soviet, is one of the very popular institutions in the city. A few years ago possessing only ten thousand books, even the fifty thousand which it now has gathered are far too few to meet the growing demand for foreign books and periodicals. Because of this a branch was established in the Kropotkin library, devoted solely to the circulation of the foreign books and is now used by more than eight thousand regular readers. In addition book distribution is carried on through various smaller branches organized in the workers' districts of Moscow and also in other cities including Kursk, Nijni-Novgorod and Vladimir. Other industrial and provincial centers are visited by 122 traveling libraries. The biggest Moscow factories, Amo, Elektrozavod, Spartak, Dux, and others are already included in the network of circulating libraries. Technical books and illustrated magazines are the most popular among the workers. English magazines are preferred, followed by German and French. Branch libraries are also established in the Park of Culture and Rest when it opens in the summer. The largest part of those using the books in the Park are metal workers from the Moscow factories.

Through the circulating libraries the worker-readers are gradually drawn to the main library and become regular visitors. In addition to the variety of books at the disposal of the readers there are numerous other features provided in the main libraries. A bulletin is published with notes and information on the interesting books appearing in Europe and the United States. This bulletin is distributed to all interested publishers. Book displays are organized and a permanent foreign magazine and newspaper exhibition is now in process of organization. Reports and lectures on literature are given periodically in the library by foreign and Soviet critics. Readings on the latest literature of the United States and Western Europe and lecture series on the literature of various foreign countries are held.

Besides the regular functions of the library instruction in foreign languages is provided. The classes range from the most elementary to advanced study of philology. In a big room off the main hall is an exhibition of all the manuals of foreign languages used in the U.S.S.R. Language records in English, German, and French are played here on a victrola several times a week to familiarize students with the correct pronunciation. There is also a bibliographical information bureau where references are given concerning the study of foreign languages, and a translation bureau which makes translations from all languages into and from Russian.

Cultural Advances

ONE of the best indications of the cultural development of the U.S.S.R. may be seen in the growth of literacy of the adult population, as indicated in the following table:

	1926	1930	1931
Number of inhabitants from 16 to 50 years	71,724,500	80,178,300	81,432,800
Literate persons among the above	39,827,600	53,229,500	64,624,800
Percentage of literates	55.5	67.3	79.4
Percentage of literates in the cities	79.7	83.9	90.0
Percentage of literates in the villages	49.1	62.1	75.9

Thus at the beginning of 1932 approximately 80 per cent of the adult population of the U.S.S.R. was already literate, while in the cities this percentage was raised to 90.

The figures for liquidation of illiteracy during the past three years are as follows: in 1930, 17,366,000 adults were taking "anti-illiteracy" courses (including 6,981,800 illiterate and 10,384,200 semi-literate persons); in 1930, 24,820,800 were taking such courses (14,807,600 illiterate and 10,013,200 semi-literate) and in 1932—20,913,000 (of these, 5,169,700 illiterate and 15,743,300 semi-literate). The decrease in the number of persons in the liquidation of illiteracy points by about 4,000,000 in 1932 is a result of the sharp fall in the number of illiterate persons in the U.S.S.R. and the growth in the number of those studying in the schools for the partially literate.

The growth of literacy has been furthered by the introduction of a written language among many people who had none before. At the present time among 182 nationalities and tribes of the U.S.S.R., 134 have their own national written language. Latinization of the national alphabet has also widely been introduced and has played a large role in the wiping out of illiteracy.

Great progress has also been made in the introduction of universal compulsory primary education. The Five-Year Plan called for compulsory education by 1933-34 for the youngest group of pupils, i. e. the 8-year-olds. Actually the compulsory education program embraced all children from 8 to 11 in 1932. The actual number of children in the primary schools has increased from 10,375,000 in 1928 to 19,001,000 in 1932. The intermediate schools have this year 4,684,-800 pupils or two and a half times more than the plan envisaged. Altogether the universal compulsory education program for 1932 is taking care of 24,700,000 children, including those over age, as against 20,400,000 in 1930. In prerevolutionary Russia, there were in all only 7,800,000 pupils in the primary and intermediate grades. The rate of growth in the villages has exceeded that in the cities. The increase of over 4,000,000 has occurred largely in the country districts. In 1930 there were 16,149,200 in village elementary schools, in 1932, 19,789,600.

The number of elementary schools has increased from 106,400 in 1915 to 152,654 in 1932.

In 1931 compulsory education was established in the seven-year schools in the cities and workers' settlements, while it was achieved by about 70 per cent in the village. At the present time preparations are being made to extend compulsory education up through the tenth grade throughout the U.S.S.R.

The polytechnical system has been introduced throughout the whole school system. The schools are attached to definite plants, factories, sovhozes, machine and tractor stations, etc., where the children receive a certain amount of practical technical training. The theoretical study is carried on in close connection with practical production work.

Pre-school education has reached very large proportions in the U.S.S.R. Everywhere childrens' homes, kindergartens, playgrounds, day nurseries and other pre-school institutions have beeen organized. In 1930 there were 1,300,000 children taken care of in the pre-school system. In 1931 5,100,000, and in the present year the number of children will reach about 10,000,000. The number of children in village pre-school institutions has grown especially rapidly; in 1930 the number was 636,300, in 1931, 3,200,000, in 1932, 6,700,000.

The general growth in the national economy has meant a heavy burden for the schools in training the necessary skilled workers. In this an important role is played by the factory apprentice schools, newly organized under the Soviet Government and representing an entirely new type of educational institution. In 1928 there were about a quarter of a million students in such schools and at the present time the number has grown to 1,863,000. At the present time these factory and plant schools are able to satisfy the requirements of industry for skilled workers by about 40 per cent. The preparation of specialists is concentrated in the higher educational institutions and technicums, the number of which is growing rapidly. Tsarist Russia had altogether only 91 higher educational institutions in which 124,000 students were enrolled. In 1932 the number of higher schools and higher technical schools in the U.S.S.R. was more than 500 with 525,700 students. In the past year alone the number of students in the higher schools increased by almost 180,000. Women now constitute 28.9 per cent of all the students in the higher schools.

There are now 3,100 technicums with 1,034,-400 students as against 46,100 students before the revolution.

In the past few years there has been a radical reorganization of the higher educational institutions and technicums of the U.S.S.R. They have been developed into specialized schools under the direct supervision of the economic combinations and organs of the country. This insures that the training of students in different lines shall be in direct relation to the actual needs of

Soyuzphoto

A group of school children visit the Darwin Museum

the various branches of the national economy. "Uninterrupted production practice," a system whereby each student spends from 40 to 50 per cent of school time in practical productive work in his given line, has been introduced in all the higher schools.

An extensive system of workers' faculties in which there are now over half a million students, has been established to prepare workers from the bench and agricultural laborers from the fields to enter the higher schools.

The types of institutions mentioned by no means exhaust the educational system of Russia. Thousands of workers are studying in the educational combines organized directly at factories or other places of work, in correspondence courses, in numerous educational circles, etc.

The extent of popular education has meant an unprecedented demand for printed matter. At the beginning of 1932 there were 5,600 newspapers in the U.S.S.R. as against 859 in 1913. The total circulation of Soviet newspapers amounted to 35,000,000 or ten times more than in pre-war time. Of all the papers published in the U.S.S.R. 1,600 are issued in 83 languages of the national minorities. There has also been a tremendous development of local newspapers in factories, collectives, state farms, Red Army camps, etc.

The number of books published has greatly increased. In pre-war Russia 550—600,000,000 printed *list** were published annually and in 1931, 3,500,000,000. The growth of technical books has been especially noteworthy.

The cultural growth of the Soviet Union has also been reflected in the rapid growth of every possible type of educational institution. Thus for instance, in the number of workers' clubs has grown from 5,426 in 1929-30 to 7,922 in 1931. The number of Peasants' Houses in the same period has grown from 5,484 to 7,822, the number of stationery cinema theatres from 4,721 to 6,191. There has also been a great increase in Palaces of Culture, libraries, theatres, museums, exhibits, village reading rooms, etc.

The total expenditures for cultural purposes for 1932 will amount to 9,766,200,000 rubles, of which two-thirds, or 6,360,500,000 rubles goes for education. In 1931 the total amount was 6,763,100,000 rubles, of which 4,126,800,000 went for education. In 1931 expenditures for education made up 12.5 per cent of the total educational plan for the country. This year the percentage is 14.4 per cent.

Progress of Soviet Women

By NADEZHDA KRUPSKAYA

A COLOSSAL amount has been done in the field of emancipating the women of the Soviet Union from darkness and ignorance. It is well known what an appalling percentage of women were illiterate in old Russia. Even in the census of December 17, 1926, in the European part of the R.S.F.S.R. the women in the cities between 16 and 35 years of age, were 88.3 per cent literate, and in the villages 47.4 per cent; while the women between 35 and 50 were 62.2 per cent literate in the cities and 21.1 per cent in the villages.

The greatest percentage of illiteracy was among the married women of the villages. We have not been able to completely wipe out illiteracy among the women of the U.S.S.R., but whereas in 1924-25 there were only about half a million women studying in the schools for wiping out illiteracy, the number increased to almost 8,000,000 in 1931-32. We can now say with conviction that we are on the threshold of complete liquidation of illiteracy among women.

One of the first acts of the Soviet Government was the proclamation of universal education and the provision of equal educational opportunities. The girls study exactly the same things as the boys, and in the same schools. The carrying out of the universal compulsory education program, which will eventually completely eliminate illiteracy, has special significance in the emancipation of women. In this direction there have been especially noteworthy successes in the past few years. Seven years ago, in the year 1924-25 there were only 2,777,700 girls studying in the primary schools of the cities and villages of the U.S.S.R. In 1931 there were 8,244,100. That is a tremendous advance, and if it is kept in mind that in certain cities and regions universal compulsory education has been extended through the intermediate grades as well, and that in the near future it will be obligatory for all girls up to fifteen to attend school it will be realized that this means the final uprooting of the basic cause of women's backwardness.

The doors of the workers' faculties, technicums and higher educational institutions have all been opened wide to women students. Here, too, there has been a tremendous advance in the past

*"*List*" in Russian typographical language means printed matter containing about 7,000 words.

A Comsomol shock brigade worker

few years as shown by the following comparison:

	1925-26	1931-32
Women students:		
In workers' faculties	6,800	117,700
In technicums	71,500	272,300
Colleges and higher technical schools.	50,700	148,400

The great progress in the field of industrialization has led to the entrance of large numbers of women into productive work. At the present time there are 5,715,000 women working in the enterprises and institutions of the U.S.S.R. Of the women working in industry 71 per cent are taking part in the shock brigade movement.

But these figures give a very inadequate picture of the participation of women in general productive labor. The collectivization of agriculture is changing the whole character of peasants' labor, transforming it from individual to social. The vast influence that this radical change in agricultural processes is having on the development of the village women is difficult to depict in figures.

Work in the factories and plants, work in the collectives, has done a great deal to increase the political consciousness of women. In 1922 there were altogether only 40,683 women party members. Now there are 512,000. True, this is still only 16 per cent of the entire party membership, but in 1922 women represented only 7.7 per cent of the party members. In 1924 there were 63,846 young women in the communist youth league—now there are 1,624,570—an increase in proportion from 15.7 per cent to 30.3 per cent. Adult women are still hampered in their development by living conditions. But much has been done in this direction in the past fifteen years. Day nurseries have developed widely. In 1917 there were 4,920 infants in day nurseries in the cities of the U.S.S.R.—now there are 879,700; in 1917 seasonal day nurseries in the country districts took care of 35,000 children, this year over 6,000,000.

Communal restaurants have increased rapidly, particularly in the past year or so. In 1929, 730,300 persons were served in the communal and cooperative restaurants and factory kitchens—now, 11,500,000.

This progress in the emancipation of women from housework has greatly increased the participation of women in social work. In 1923 there were altogether 95,000 women's delegates,* in 1932, 2,500,000. The problem now is to improve the quality of work at the delegates' meetings, to render the delegates every possible aid.

The number of women in village soviets has increased. In 1926 they constituted 9.9 per cent of the membership; in 1932—21 per cent; in the rayon (county) executive committees there were 8.1 per cent women in 1923, now—20.5 per cent. In the city Soviets there were 18 per cent, now there are 25.8 per cent. The number of members of the Central Executive Committee grows from year to year. At its first session there were only five women members and six candidates. At the last, 96 women members and 70 candidates.

New Art Academy

A Soviet Academy of Art is to be established in Leningrad on January 1, 1933, according to a decree of the Soviet Government issued on October 11.

The foremost Soviet artists, sculptors, and architects have been invited to work in the new Academy of Art, which will be the artistic research center of the country and will work out, practically and theoretically, problems of style, form and creative method. While the Academy is to begin functioning the first of the year in Leningrad, a large building to house the academy will meanwhile be started in Moscow, to which it will eventually be transferred.

The Academy will be developed on the basis of the Leningrad Institute of Painting and Sculpture. In addition to the three main faculties—painting, sculpture and architecture, whose functions will be extended, several new faculties will be added. There will be separate departments, for example, for graphic art and theatrical production.

*"Women's delegates" are women elected to take special courses and do practical work in Soviet, cooperative or trade union organizations.

A new aspect of the Academy's work will be systematic research. The art of the past will be drawn on for all that has significance for the present. In training the new Socialist artists the emphasis, of course, will be on the best that modern culture has produced, and that of the deepest social significance; at the same time a great deal of attention will be paid to studying classical art, especially the art of Egypt, Greece, and the Renaissance.

The Academy will be closely connected with the periphery. The amateur art circles of the factories and collectives will receive regular systematic direction and help from the Academy. Questions of art pedagogy, of coordinating the art training in the schools and colleges and the art circles, will also come under the Academy.

A Soviet of the foremost artists of the U.S.S.R. will be organized to direct the work of the Academy, and to assist in planning the general art education work under the Commissariat for Education. They will constitute a sort of Supreme Council of National Art. Under their supervision will come questions of textbooks, artists' materials, exhibitions, selection of art teachers for schools and colleges and the editorship of the printed organ of the Academy.

Among the different faculties and departments to be established under the new Academy, are faculties on painting, including sections on easel painting, murals and restoration, and on sculpture, with sections on easel sculpture, monumental sculpture, closely connected with architecture, ceramics, and decorative sculpture. There will be a theatrical faculty, with sections on scene painting, constructivism, properties, costuming, large theatres and little theatres, drama, opera, ballet, village, workers' and traveling theatres.

The "decorative-mounting" faculty will be concerned with the decorative arrangement of holidays, pageants, carnivals, popular spectacles and parades; with gardens and parks; with designing types of furniture and household goods; toys and placards; clothing, and so on.

Graphic art will be given a special faculty, where everything connected with the format of books, reproductions and artistic publications will be handled.

The architectural faculty will include sections on planning, cultural and living problems and interior decoration.

The sixth faculty will be a pedagogical one, and will offer courses for training art instructors for higher schools and technicums.

Special laboratories will be organized under each faculty for experimental research work by specialists, aspirants and students.

Special attention will be devoted by the Academy to its club and auditorium, as centers of student activity. Exhibits, plays, lectures, debates, will be arranged here, and art circles outside the Academy will be drawn in. As the Academy develops a series of subsidiary institutions will be organized around it, such as excursion bureaus, bases for artistic work at the new construction projects and socialist cities, its own art museum, and so on.

Development of Biro-Bidjan

FOUR and a half years have passed since the issuance by the Soviet Government of a decree setting aside Biro-Bidjan for colonization by working Jews. Since that period significant results have been achieved both in the field of colonizing the Jews on the territory of Biro-Bidjan and in the cultural and economic development of the region.

The Jews are settling in Biro-Bidjan in increasing numbers each year, as shown by the following table:

1928	350	persons
1929	750	"
1930	1,500	"
1931	2,525	"
Total	5,125	"

During the first five months of 1932, 4,500 persons settled in Biro-Bidjan, making a total of about 10,000 during four and a half years. During the second half of the present year the process of colonization is developing still more rapidly than heretofore. It is expected that by the end of the year the Jews will make up about 31 per cent of the entire population of Biro-Bidjan. It is interesting to note that the number of working Jews from Europe and America who are settling in Biro-Bidjan is growing from year to year. In 1931, 469 foreign Jews settled in Biro-Bidjan, and 240 have arrived during the first five months of 1932. By the end of the present year there will be several thousand foreign Jews settled there.

The entire Jewish population which has colonized Biro-Bidjan has become organically merged with the native population, has entered into local agriculture and industry, producers' cooperatives, State and cooperative apparatus, etc. The Jews living in Biro-Bidjan at the beginning of the present year were distributed as follows:

In agriculture collectives	2,050
In State farms	1,185
In industry, transport, construction	400
In Soviet, cooperative and economic apparatus	390
In producers' cooperatives	1,100

A very short time ago Biro-Bidjan was a sparsely populated area with a primitive, semi-natural economy. During the past four years a strong industry has developed there, which had a total production of 31,000,000 rubles in 1931. By the beginning of 1932 there had been constructed in the district and put into exploitation, four lime kilns, a Tungusian saw-mill (most of the production of which is for export), two groups of gold mines—Sutarsky and Ashikansky—and other new industrial projects.

Lumbering is the main industry of Biro-Bidjan. During the past four years the lumbering industry has grown four and a half times, reaching 300,000 cubic meters in 1931. Three large lumbering industries have been organized.

Handicraft and producers' cooperatives are developing rapidly in Biro-Bidjan. Nineteen handicraft artels have been organized, and handicraft production in 1931 amounted to over a million rubles. The chief branch of the handicraft industry is woodwork of various kinds and the manufacture of building materials.

The agriculture of Biro-Bidjan is growing to a still faster degree. The seeded area has increased from 15,900 hectares in 1928 to 29,000 in 1931, and is supposed to reach 40,000 hectares during the present year. The extension of the seeded area is taking place as a result of the cultivation of new land areas by the collectives and sovhozes. At the beginning of 1932, 4,500 farms, or 77.6 per cent of the population of the district were organized in collectives. The Jewish population is 100 per cent collectivized. There are six specialized sovhozes in Biro-Bidjan—one for grain, one for bees, one for poultry, one for cattle, a dairy and garden farm, and a hog farm. In addition there are three machine and tractor stations with 200 tractors at their disposal, which have worked about fifty per cent of the collective fields. Animal husbandry has grown appreciably during the past few years—there are now 24 commercial live stock farms.

Much work is being done on the development of public utilities. Roads are being constructed—a main road 130 kilometers long, from which branches will go to all parts of the district, is being completed. A railroad system to cover all parts of the section is under consideration.

A large factor in the economic and cultural growth of Biro-Bidjan has been the putting up of a telephone line which has joined the main sections of the district with the district center, and the latter with Khabarovsk, center of the Far Eastern Region.

In the cultural field also Biro-Bidjan boasts important results. Over 90 per cent of the children of school age are at school. A technicum has been started and several schools for peasant youth. Two newspapers are published, one of them in the Jewish language.

Since Biro-Bidjan was set aside for Jewish colonization there have been organized eleven new population points united into seven Jewish administrative units.

Very extensive industrial and agricultural development is envisaged for Biro-Bidjan. The power resources are being very carefully studied this year, and the land of the district which must be reclaimed is being surveyed. Exploration is under foot for iron, asbestos, peat, clay, and other resources. On the basis of the discoveries that are being made the new industries of Biro-Bidjan will be developed, changing the whole aspect of this formerly remote and backward region.

Litvinov on Soviet-Rumanian Negotiations

In connection with the increased discussion in the Rumanian press and in that of other countries on the question of a non-aggression pact between the U.S.S.R. and Rumania, Mr. M. M. Litvinov gave an interview to a Tass representative concerning the negotiations with Rumania which was published in the Moscow Izvestia of October 16. A complete translation of the interview is given below.

THE negotiations with Rumania began nearly ten months ago in Riga, where the Rumanian government proposed that the negotiations should take place. Before the meeting of the representatives of the two countries in Riga, the Rumanians, through the Polish government, stipulated that no questions in dispute between the two countries should enter into the negotiations. This referred mainly to the question of Bessarabia and also to other questions which should remain open even after the conclusion of the non-aggression pact.

The negotiations in Riga were based on a draft pact submitted by the Soviet government, and a Rumanian counter-project. In the course of a few weeks the representatives of both countries succeeded in reaching an agreement on almost every article in the pact, and the agreed text of these articles was drawn up in a protocol and signed by the representatives of both sides. The pact consisted merely of a few articles including mutual obligations of non-aggression and neutrality and at the same time excluding other agreements which would conflict with these obligations. The pact was to have been concluded for five years as was the pact with

Poland, Rumania's ally. Incidentally, the Soviet Union had concluded similar pacts with Finland and other countries, also for a period of five years.

Divergence of opinion on two points was revealed at Riga. The Rumanian representative definitely opposed any reference in either the preamble or any other section of the pact, to the fact that the questions of dispute remain open and are not touched upon in the pact, and that both governments fully maintain their positions on these questions. This objection was all the more groundless, since Rumania herself, prior to the negotiations, had insisted that this point should be a preliminary condition, and that the existence of disputed questions between the U.S.S.R. and Rumania, and above all, the question of Bessarabia, are known to the whole world and cannot be denied. Rumania on its side proposed a formula regarding the obligations on non-aggression which might have been interpreted as a direct recognition by the Soviet government of the occupation of Bessarabia. We decisively rejected this formula and submitted another in which it was definitely stated that the Soviet government would in no instance resort to force to solve any of the questions in dispute. This formula gave Rumania full guarantee that the Soviet government would not make use of the dispute concerning Bessarabia as a pretext for renouncing the non-aggression pact.

The discussion on these two points revealed that the leaders of the Rumanian delegation at that time were less interested in the non-aggression pact than in receiving from the Soviet government indirect or tacit recognition of the occupation of Bessarabia. The negotiations were broken off at this point, on the understanding that they would be renewed through the medium of other countries. But while the Soviet representatives were prepared to make the utmost concessions in the interest of reaching an agreement and proposed a new formula on the disputed points, the Rumanian side put forward no new proposals, stubbornly insisting on the demands and objections made at Riga. We even accepted certain compromise formulae suggested through the medium of countries allied to Rumania, but they were systematically rejected by the Rumanians.

It is being asserted, for example, in Rumania, that when I was in Switzerland in July taking part in the work of the General Commission on Disarmament, direct negotiations with me were continued and that M. Titulescu, who was at that time also in Switzerland, was commissioned to carry on the negotiations on behalf of Rumania. But that is not true. M. Titulescu refused to enter into direct negotiations with me and made no proposal. A representative of the Polish government who acted as intermediary there, made certain proposals, adding that these proposals were not obligatory for Rumania. These proposals in the end led to the resumption of the negotiations on the basis of an entirely new project, completely ignoring what had already been agreed upon in Riga. This new project contained the same idea which was proposed by M. Titulescu in an interview in Paris a few days ago. Such a proposal, which meant the annulment of all negotiations which had taken place up to that time, could not, of course, be accepted by me. I therefore proposed that all efforts should be exerted to eliminate the two points of divergence which remained after the Riga negotiations.

Prior to my last departure for Geneva on September 13, a new compromise suggestion was made by a country allied with Rumania, on the main point of difference in the negotiations with Rumania. Unfortunately, in this connection I again received a new draft pact which differed on every point from the text of the agreement reached in Riga. We had every justification for considering that this proposal had been agreed upon with Rumania. I declared that I was ready to accept the new compromise proposal as a basis facilitating the reaching of an agreement in further negotiations with Rumania on condition that we should not return to the old articles which had already been agreed upon. I repeated this on my way to Geneva at a meeting which I had with the Rumanian ambassador in Warsaw, M. Kadere, with whom it was agreed that negotiations should be resumed in Switzerland.

The negotiations actually were resumed in Switzerland, the representative of the Rumanian government on this occasion being M. Kadere. He declared, however, that his government did not consider as binding upon itself either the protocol signed in Riga by its representatives or its proposals put forward by countries allied with Rumania. We had several meetings with him during which we succeeded in again reaching an agreement on the whole pact, with the exception of one point, the divergence on which, however, has considerably narrowed.

Before my departure from Geneva he proposed a formula on the disputed point, which actually eliminated the only remaining difference and made the signing of the pact in the near future possible. Unfortunately on the following day he declared that this proposal was not accepted by his own government, and he expressed a doubt as to whether the other formulae on which we had ostensibly agreed earlier, would be approved by his government. He decided to proceed to Bucharest in order to ascertain the final views of his government.

From the above survey of the negotiations as

they actually happened, it is entirely clear that if Rumania had really desired, as our other neighbors did, to conclude a non-aggression pact, and had not pursued other aims, agreement would not have required such prolonged negotiations and might have been reached long ago. The systematic disavowing of its own authorized representatives and the representatives of countries allied to Rumania reveals traces of different conflicting influences, whether of an external or internal character. The course of the negotiations sometimes raised a doubt of the seriousness and sincerity of Rumania's efforts to conclude a pact. We have the frank statements of responsible Rumanian statesmen to the effect that Rumania has no need of such a pact.

It is difficult to expect such statesmen to direct and conduct negotiations, however much they may have talked about their desire for rapprochement between Rumania and the U.S.S.R. The replacement of articles previously agreed upon after prolonged negotiations by others, opening scope for further disagreements, can have no other aim than to prolong the negotiations to the very utmost and to postpone the signing of a pact, or possibly to prevent the conclusion of a pact of non-aggression between the U.S.S.R. and Rumania.

As regards the Soviet government, it is today, as it has been throughout the negotiations, inspired by a sincere desire to conclude pacts of non-aggression with Rumania and with other countries as soon as possible. It considers a second signing of the Kellogg Pact superfluous and it attributes greater significance to the conclusion of special bilateral pacts as guarantees of peace than to the universal Kellogg Pact which, as is well known, did not prevent an armed conflict between Japan and China, both signatories of the Kellogg Pact. It cannot agree, however, that negotiations on such a serious question can be turned into a diplomatic game for unknown and alien aims.

In my opinion further negotiations should be conducted on the basis of the agreements already reached with the representatives of Rumania. If there is good will on the side of Rumania there can hardly be any necessity for prolonged negotiations, or any negotiations, for that matter, since there now remains only one point of difference with regard to which the Rumanian government should give the final answer.

I am convinced that after the Geneva negotiations, the point of view of the Soviet government on this question is sufficiently well known to the Rumanian government.

EVACUATION OF JAPANESE CITIZENS

The Moscow *Pravda* of October 23 carried the following statement by *Tass* with regard to the evacuation of Japanese citizens from Manchukuo to the Soviet territory:

The Chinese border troops, operating against the State of Manchukuo on September 27 of this year, detained all of the Japanese residents living within the sphere of activities of the Chinese troops, and refused the request of the Japanese consulate at Manchuria station to permit the evacuation of Japanese citizens to Soviet territory. The Soviet government has consented to such evacuation at the request of the Japanese government before the events at Manchuria Station had taken place.

The Japanese government had requested the Soviet government to enter into negotiations with General Su Ping-Wen, commanding the anti-Manchurian troops, with regard to the liberation of Japanese residents and the granting of permission for their evacuation to Soviet territory.

The Soviet government, out of humanitarian considerations, agreed to carry out the request of the Japanese government. On October 15 the Soviet consul at Manchuria Station, addressed a request to the Chinese authorities to permit the evacuation of Japanese citizens, including women and children, to the territory of the U.S.S.R.

On October 22 the Soviet consul at Manchuria Station received from General Su Ping-Wen, commander of the anti-Manchurian forces, the following answer:

"The Chief Command of the 'Army for the Salvation of the Fatherland' is grateful to the Soviet Government for doing it the honor to address it in the question of the evacuation of peaceful Japanese residents. General Su agrees to grant the request of the Soviet Government for the evacuation of all peaceful Japanese residents according to a list presented at the Japanese Consulate through the Soviet Consulate on condition that women and children be evacuated first, and second, the men who are not participating in military action against the Chinese 'Army for the Salvation of the Fatherland' and not participating in the work of the government organs of Manchukuo."

NON-AGGRESSION PACTS WITH POLAND AND FRANCE

On November 27, ratification of the Polish-Soviet non-aggression pact, signed in Moscow on July 25, was simultaneously announced in Moscow and Warsaw by the Soviet and Polish governments.

On November 29, the Franco-Soviet non-aggression pact which has been in process of negotiation for some time, was signed in Paris by Premier Herriot on behalf of France and V. S. Dovgalevsky, Soviet diplomatic representative to France, on behalf of the U.S.S.R.

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Depression has hit Soviet export markets, but Soviet credit record good, and potential market vast.

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Soviet oil in exchange for Canadian aluminum.

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"Russia Expects Credits and Recognition." The National Sphere, November, 1932.
Some figures on Soviet-American trade.

Labor

"A Week in a Soviet Factory," by Louis Fischer. The Nation, September 21, 1932.
First-hand observations.

"The Worker in Soviet Russia," by Sidney Webb. Current History, December, 1932.
Material and cultural gains, trade union organization and place of manual worker.

Nationalities

"New World in Central Asia," by Louis Lozowick. The Menorah Journal, Summer, 1932.
Description of a trip made in company with an international group of writers.

"The Jew in the Russian Revolution," by Leon Dennen. Menorah Journal, Summer, 1932.
Exaggerations of the role of the Jews in the Russian revolutionary movement discussed.

"Gypsies of the New Russia, by Joshua Kunitz. Travel, December, 1932.
". . . everywhere national awakening, everywhere an intense desire to break the chains of ignorance, to study, to learn."

Various

"Russian Pilgrimage," by Waldo Frank. The New Republic, July 6, 20, 27, August 3, 1932.
A series of traveler's impressions.

"Soviet Russia—Land of Youth," by Harry F. Ward. The Nation, August 3, 1932.
About the young people of Soviet Russia. "One feels that in them the life force has once again come to full flood tide."

"City Planning in New Russia," by Joseph Barnes. Asia, September-October, 1932.
Good article on central city planning organization and on new cities.

"Soviet Science," by David Ramsey. The New Masses, November, 1932.
Importance of scientific institutions and activities in the Soviet scheme.

"Tolstoyans Migrate to Kuznetsk," by J. B. Mathews. The World Tomorrow. November 16, 1932.
Description of new Tolstoyan communities in Siberia.

"Soviet Women," by Lydia Nadejena. The Nation, November 23, 1932.

"Lies and Truth about Russia." The National Sphere, December, 1932.
How news about the Soviet Union is faked by dropping a decimal point.

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"A Week in a Soviet Factory," by Louis Fischer. The Nation, September 21, 1932.
First-hand observations.

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