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Our Trials—and Our Ascension

By Ilya Ehrenburg

From PRAVDA, June 23

June 22, 1941. Perhaps for posterity this will be a date on the pedestals of monuments or a page in a school textbook. We remember it as that hot mid-summer Sunday which split life in two, which marked the beginning of our trials, and our ascension.

Ours is an austere joy; it has nothing of childish merriment in it. We do not drive memories out of the door; we are in no hurry to forget the dead. We are anxious to see the cities rise from their ashes, and the mangled trees put forth their leaves. But we do not want the features of the dead faces to recede into the mist: the empty place at the table is dear to us.

President Benes recently paid a visit to the ashes of Lidice. France held a day of mourning on the second anniversary of the destruction of Oradour-sur-Glane. In Lidice and Oradour the invaders shot peaceful civilians, atrocities which shocked the hearts of nations.

I am thinking now of our Lidices and our Oradours. And of how many of them there are. If you travel from Moscow

westward, you will bare your head and never cover it again, for graves, tears, ashes are everywhere. An old man in the Smolensk Region will tell you how he was left alone to keep watch on what was once a village, and in Byelorussia a little girl who has never yet played or laughed will shudder at the sight of a grayish-green rag. You may go northward to Novgorod or Pskov or southward to Kursk or Belgorod, and farther on to Poltava and still farther to Sevastopol—and everywhere the people will tell you of mothers who clasped infants to their breasts in burning houses, of old men swinging from gallows and measuring time like pendulums, and of enemy tanks that drove over our children with hair the color of flax, or of ripe wheat-ears, or of the southern night. And from Vladikavkaz to Petrozavodsk, the tale of the sufferings of the people, like the wind, never ceases.

Time is the great healer: wives who lost their husbands, mothers who bewailed the heroes they bore, gradually return to life. The pain becomes lighter, but the grief remains; it is not a cloak that one can throw off.

We know how much blood there is on the evergreen of the laurels. It was a heavy price we paid for the right to live, to think, to breathe.

As I glance at the wise and kindly faces of Soviet scientists, faces which time has not disfigured but only rendered more profound, I reflect on our youths who never reached maturity. They left school a few days before that day of June 22. They did not write books or build cities, they did not even have time to choose their sweethearts. They died—in order that there might be splendid books and towering cities and happy families. In the deep sorrow of our country there is a lofty pride in that it was not only powerful hostile armies we vanquished—we vanquished death, for a people capable of such renunciation is immortal.

Memory is a precious gift. Were it not for memory, life would be measly and the paltry years would fall into minutes; man would know neither fidelity nor wisdom, and would live the frivolous life of the moth. Only criminals or cowards yearn for forgetfulness.

Let us recall the cities of the West after



Radiophotos

VICTORY PARADE IN RED SQUARE, MOSCOW, JUNE 24: Red Army infantry units in formation; (right). Standard-bearers of the mixed regiments of the Leningrad Front march past the stands

the First World War. In the necropolises of Verdun and Somme, Europe danced like a mechanical doll. It danced night and day, passing from the foxtrot to the one-step, from the shimmy to the tango. Those were the years of jazz, of the exotic puerility of a Paul Morand—and of the grandiloquent jabbering on the shores of Lake Geneva.

But the blackshirts were already active, the German generals were rehearsing the first putsches, while Krupp and Schneider and Basil Zaharoff and Sir Henry Detarding were already counting what profit they could make out of every ton of mangled human flesh. And the people who were deceived and those who longed to be deceived babbled between two foxtrots, "There'll be no more wars." When the Junkers were hovering over them, when they saw the barbed wire, the SS skull and crossbones, and death before dawn, could they forget those years of shameful vacuity?

We treasure our memories like a shield, and we will not allow either saxophones or windbags to drown out the voice of the dead. We do not want our children ten or twenty or thirty years hence to live through a June 22.

In the period between the two wars, the guides of the purblind were butchers with bibs and hardened criminals in diplomatic frockcoats. The appeasers covered the furnaces of Essen with olive branches. They aspired to convert the Reichswehr

into a punitive battalion for the pacification of nations. They hoped to overthrow Russia with the help of the SA and SS. They got what they wanted. Yelling and expectorating, the conquerors climbed to the top of the Eiffel Tower, drove to the Acropolis, and showered tons of explosives on a seemingly impregnable island.

Have we forgotten who carpeted the path of the barbarians with tapestries and hothouse orchids? Have we forgotten that the road to Oswiecim lay through Munich? I am thinking of the future of the peace, scarcely one month old. Who can express how precious this long-awaited infant is to us? We do not want it to be suffocated by the treatment of careless nurses.

We are not vindictive. We are mindful of the commandments of solidarity and humanitarianism. Let the German children play in the squares of Berlin. But we remember the Flensburg rats, the Ruhr industrialists, the gentry with their academic degrees and their record of executioners, the backbone of Hitler's state and Hitler's army. One does not strike a man when he is down, but one does hit a crawling viper because it bites. People and cannibals, nations and fascism, cannot live together on the earth.

In the early twilight between war and peace, there are some who are not able to discern the shapes of things and take comrades-in-arms for foes and SS men for human beings. Suddenly, at the banquet table an Argentine werewolf turns

out to be yesterday's soldier; whistling a tango, he grins and says, "I also fought . . ." Yes, he was the first to support the blackshirts when they killed Ethiopians with mustard gas. He gladly afforded refuge to the German pirates. And seeing this, honest people implore, "Turn up the lights. After such horrible tragedy we cannot look on at this vile farce."

* * *

We had bold and loyal comrades in this war. We think of them with a warm soldier's feeling—of London, which stood firm, of the soldiers of America and the partisans of Yugoslavia and France.

I recall seeing the following wise maxim engraved on a sundial: "They all wound, but one kills." If we were to examine the corpse of fascism, we would find many wounds on it, from light scratches to severe lacerations. But one of the wounds was fatal and it was dealt to fascism by the Red Army. It was dealt long before the present hour of triumph—at Stalingrad. After Stalingrad, Germany no longer attacked but stood at bay.

It is a custom for cities to elect foreign friends as honorary citizens. I think that sometimes people may, in the depth of their hearts, elect foreign cities. All over the world—from Toulon to Tromso and from Mexico to Piraeus—these people name Stalingrad their honorary city.

The Russians never suffered from nationalism, that disease of conceited turkeys and thick-skinned hippopotami. In the days when the Russians had not yet unbent their backs, they used to pray for peace for the whole world. And when they realized their strength they extended a hand to other nations and said, "Peace to the whole world." Our people are hospitable, sociable, purehearted; they do not try to shut themselves off behind a wall or an ocean or mountains; they are glad to save the children of others and the happiness of others.

How much the arrogant Hitlerites wrote to prove their superiority! Now they smile with ingratiating servility: the "first" have become the last. Our people never bragged, and if they are regarded with love and admiration by all the peoples of the world, it is not because there is a special kind of "Russian skull," but because there is a Russian heart and a Russian conscience.



Radiophotos

NEW SOVIET MEDALS: For the capture of Berlin, of Koenigsberg, and of Budapest

Scientists of all countries have come to attend the celebrations of our Academy. It is a tribute to Soviet science, but it is also a tribute to the Red Army, which preserved culture. History will relate that in the 20th Century the night of barbarism descended upon the world, that books were burned, that scientists languished and died in concentration camps, and that German horses neighed in university auditoriums. The 28 Panfilov Guardsmen who fought and died outside Moscow perhaps knew nothing of Langevin's books nor of Einstein's discoveries, nor of Oxford or Cambridge or the Sorbonne. But they helped to save the torch of Prometheus from being extinguished in the night of fascism.

Who knows what would have become of London, of its antiquities and children, if at the time the Germans were busy on the banks of the English Channel there had been no Red Army on the Niemen? What would have become of Shakespeare's land and far-off America if the Red Army had not fought the Hitlerites three years ago?

Old stones and cradles are precious to us. There are houses in Paris where Moliere lived, where the first Jacobins talked of liberty, where Corot painted his canvases. How good it is to know that there are no more fascists in those houses, that the battles on the Volga, Don and Dnieper helped to liberate Paris. There is a square in London where little Dorrit played, there are the streets where Byron and Shelley strolled, and there are treasures humanity holds precious. How good to know we helped to keep the enemy at bay. We restored to Warsaw the beauty of Wawel, and the tombs of Mickiewicz and Slowacki. We fought for the liberty of Prague when victory had already been celebrated in the West: the Germans were still tormenting this wonderful city. It was restored to the Czechs by Soviet soldiers who died for Prague at a time when it was hardest of all to die.

And if the house in Weimar, where the great old man died crying "Light!" will continue to attract pilgrims centuries hence, it is because the Red Army dispelled the darkness and saved the shade of Goethe from the Aryan demons.

To this day there are foreign writers who call our victory a "miracle." Their



Radiophotos

RECENTLY INSTITUTED MEDALS OF THE USSR: For the liberation of Warsaw, of Prague, and of Belgrade

judgment was bent by the events; what then do they see but the caprices of fortune? They cannot understand how the young Army of the Soviet Republic was able to withstand the onslaught of the Reichswehr, for the Germans in those days had more experience in warfare and more armaments; some foreign writers even add, "And the Germans had more culture." An old and deplorable delusion. Is the culture of a nation to be measured by the number of machines or by bookbindings or tawdry furniture?

In Buchenwald a book was found. It was bound not in vellum, but in human skin, the skin of a murdered prisoner. The book was *Mein Kampf*. One may admire the binding and exclaim, "What heights of culture!" Or one may turn from the book in loathing and say, "Even the Sandwich Island savages have more culture than these bibliophiles."

Culture is not an annuity; it is a continuous process of creation. You cannot live on the interest from culture; it must always be built up. In the growth of a new consciousness and new perceptions we have been in advance of all others.

We knew what we were fighting for, and therein lay our strength. We knew it not because we had read so many articles. We knew it because we had a quarter of a century of Soviet life behind us, because before reading newspaper articles we had read books, because before

holding a rifle we had held a compass and pen.

War was a paying profession for the Hitlerites, or an entertaining sport or a natural state of society. I remember how surprised I was by one of the first German diaries that fell into my hands. That was in the summer of 1941. It belonged to some German intellectual. The striking thing was the transition from the intoxication of July to the melancholy of August: having encountered the Russians' resistance, the diarist at once recalled Remarque's novel and began sighing and asking, "Why?" Did the heroes who fought to the death at Leningrad, did the women, old men and children of that great city ask, "Why?" Hitler's army was spurred on by greed and pride, and when they suffered reverses began to mutter under their breath and compose heart-rending songs or anecdotes jeering at themselves. They were morally depressed long before they were finally crushed at Stalingrad.

The grandeur of our people was vividly revealed in the years of trial. Strength is tested with iron, not with roses. The secret of our victory lies in the way our people stood the summer of '41 and the summer of '42. There are moments when a man in the inner sanctum of his soul decides a question of life or death. The Germans were moving rapidly Eastward. Gomel and Chernigov were in flames;

Guderian's tanks had penetrated into our rear. Who in those days could venture to foretell that the Red Army would be on Unter den Linden? Even then our people knew that victory would come. This was not blind faith, but conviction, the fruit of all that had preceded our tribulations: the universities for workers, collective farms, recreation parks, the Kuznetsk blast furnaces, the Chelyuskin epic, book editions in the millions of copies, Shakespeare performed in the backwoods of Komi, the effort of every individual and the efforts of the Bolsheviks, and above all, the efforts of Stalin, and his vow.

In the days of the German victories, one of the cleverer Germans, General Detling, wrote a memorandum on the attitude of the Russian population toward the invaders, in which he said, "The overwhelming majority don't believe the Germans will win. The young people of both sexes are pro-Soviet and are skeptical of our propaganda. These young people, who have had seven years of schooling or a higher education, ask questions which indicate a high intellectual level. They read whatever Soviet literature they still have preserved. . . ."



Red Army man Mutuchayev and the camels which accompanied his unit all the way from Stalingrad to Koenigsberg

For a quarter of a century teachers and writers and men of thought and heart had shared with young comrades their fire and fervor and hopes. And in 1941 the world saw the seeds sprouting; from the speeches of Stalin, from the books of Gorky, from the blood of heroes shed at Tsaritsyn and Perekop, in the East and the West, a great army emerged.

There is such a thing as innate daring. And there is also the courage that does not come in the cradle but arises from maturity of thought and feeling. The heroism of our people amazed the world.

Need we recall the handful of Red Army men who sacrificed their lives to blow up a bridge at Vitebsk, or the surrounded radio operator who called to the artillerymen to direct their fire at him, or the girls who were killed while carrying the wounded from the battlefield, or the schoolchildren who fought the mighty German empire, or the Red Army man who finished his cigarette and with a sigh crawled forward to engage the enemy's tank, armed only with an incendiary bottle? Need we recall the courage of the workers in the rear who saved their factories, the railwaymen who defended their lines—arteries which carry blood to the heart—or the women in remote out-of-the-way villages who went into the assault with their plows and scythes?

We wrote of feats of heroism, of episodes which drew attention by being so unusual, but then they, too, became usual because heroism was in the air; heroism was the air we breathed and we therefore ceased to notice it.

In the days of trial our people were conscious of the depth of their love for their native land. It was such a fervent and powerful feeling that the soldiers defending a hill or valley, a hummock or hollow, forgot themselves and were aware only of the living tissue of Russia. The Soviet land became doubly precious, with its cities old and new, its meadows, its songs, the cries of children beyond the stream, the ash tree on the village boundary—and even the ruts in the roads which we used to curse so fervently.

The Russian saw the snows of the Caucasus, the mountain streams, the silvery air of the early morning echoing words of friendship over and over again.

The Georgian saw the white nights in the North, the breadth of the slow-moving rivers, the somnolence of the cypress trees. And the sons of forty nationalities defended the city of Peter, the city of Pushkin, the city of Lenin. The Siberian striding along Moskva's embankment proudly admired the Kremlin, for he was Russia's past and the world's future.

Love for our country did not estrange us from other nations; on the contrary, in those war years we were more keenly aware of the brotherhood that binds men of toil and the friends of liberty. We know the sufferings of the peoples who fell into the hands of the fascists, and while our soldier easily understands the language of the Pole or Serb or Czech he can understand too, without words, the Frenchman, Norwegian or Greek. We gaze with pride at the Mausoleum where Lenin lies sleeping: Stalin has fulfilled his vow—he saved our country and the world.

Before Stalingrad, when we dreamed of peace, in our eyes were the pictures of the past spring of 1941, the flowers which perished untimely in that month of June. So the traveler mounting the hill sees the path he has traversed. Stalingrad was the mountain pass from which we began to discern the future through the haze and to conjecture what life would be like after victory.

Our native land is lovelier and dearer to us than ever, for it is watered with the blood of relatives and friends. We know how many wounds this land has suffered; only that inspiration, that fire which helped us defend and save it, will help us heal it. Just as the tankmen and infantrymen went into the attack, so our bricklayers and architects will go into the attack, and the engineers and schoolteachers, agronomists and writers will win glory for their arms.

We knew Victory as a comrade-in-arms. She charged with the bayonet and stopped at soldiers' campfires, sustaining the exhausted and stricken. Tomorrow Victory will pass before him who breathes life into marble—before Stalin. Soon the victors will be returning home. And Victory will enter every Soviet home, will sit down at the table and cut the loaf of bread. Then we shall feel the taste of happiness on our lips.

The Victory Parade in Red Square

By Marietta Shaginyan

Throughout the years of suffering every Soviet citizen has dreamed of the return of the Red Army from the war. The vision of the meeting was not clear—there would be soldiers coming, column after column, with throngs of Soviet people cheering wildly; or perhaps the crowds would flock to greet the returning heroes, overwhelming them with their love. One thing was certain: we all awaited the moment when we could see our saviors, embrace and thank them for the salvation of our native land and for peace.

At last the reunion has occurred. It was in Red Square. The mixed front-line regiments of heroes of all the branches of the Armed Forces—infantry, Air Force, artillery, engineering service, tankmen, sailors, border guards; all types of splendid equipment, some created during the war and never seen in the past—all this moved past the reviewing stand of the Lenin Mausoleum, before the eyes of the Supreme Commander-in-Chief, into the very heart of Moscow.

The monotonous, endless drizzle was a reminder of war. The bright sand path on the Square became dark brown and the stones of the pavement acquired a steel glint. Two shining horses, one snow-white and one jetblack, came into view. Children, who usually know everything, whispered in the front rows: "There's Zhukov on the white horse and Rokossovsky on the black one."

It is not the first time we have heard the clear words spoken slowly into the microphone; not the first time we have heard the thousands of hands applauding

Muscovites greeting tankmen on the day of the celebration in Moscow



Radiophoto

from the stands. But this familiar symphony was filled with a new meaning—the vast achievement of victory. It was evident in everything: in the bronzed, suntanned faces of the soldiers, in the deep wrinkles in their foreheads, in the motionless figures of the tommy gunners who seemed cast of steel, a very part of their own equipment.

How the men have grown during the four years!

Columns of boys in black uniforms appeared. Heads raised, chins touching stiff collars, a solemn expression on their faces, they marched past in faultless formation. These were the children of the war, the pupils of the Suvorov schools.

Only yesterday these Suvorov schools were opened to receive the children, and these children have already become the newest Red Army material; they have not only acquired the soldier's bearing, but also the experience. I heard a sigh by my side of civilian boys, carefully dressed in raincoats and mufflers to protect them

from the rain. I saw the look of envy in their eyes; how they longed to march side by side with the Suvorovites!

Amid the beauty of the colors and formations there suddenly appeared alien spots, as revolting as the sight of a scorpion: the black tails of the swastika and skulls against a white background—the banners of the enemy, the "honor" of the smashed fascist regiments. Our heroes carried them like mops, face to the ground. On reaching the Mausoleum they dumped them at the foot of the Government reviewing stand. Higher and higher grew this heap of black-and-white rags of the battered, destroyed, routed and unconditionally-surrendered enemy, who four years ago boasted that he would march through Red Square.

The Soviet artillery approached with a triumphant, powerful roar. One after another, they rattled past the stands, formidable weapons, the best and the most terrible in the world. These guns defended us, these soldiers fought and triumphed. And while at parades in the past we had merely reviewed the growing might and preparedness of our young Socialist society, thinking, "If war comes tomorrow . . ." at this parade we had a new, entirely different feeling: the war has come and passed, we have endured the struggle; we are stronger than ever.

Every roar of a passing gun, every gesture of a passing soldier, the bright smile of the Soviet children on the stand, conveyed this great inner strength, this invincible strength—forged in the fires of battle and ready to be tried in peace.



Red Army men cast down the fascist standards at the foot of the Lenin Mausoleum

Radiophoto

THE GOVERNMENT OF NATIONAL UNITY OF THE POLISH REPUBLIC

PRAVDA wrote editorially, June 23:

The Soviet public and the progressive public of the whole world will hail with satisfaction the report published today of an agreement reached on the reorganization of the Polish Provisional Government of National Unity. This agreement resulted from the consultations which took place between the members of the Provisional Polish Government and other democratic leaders, both from Poland itself and from abroad. They were invited to Moscow by a commission set up in accordance with the decision of the Crimea Conference, and consisting of V. M. Molotov, People's Commissar of Foreign Affairs of the USSR, Sir Archibald Clark-Kerr, British Ambassador to the USSR, and Averell W. Harriman, United States Ambassador to the USSR.

The reorganization of the Polish Provisional Government was envisaged, as we know, by the decisions at the Crimea Conference of the leaders of the three Allied powers in view of the new situation created in Poland as a result of her complete liberation by the Red Army. The decisions of the Crimea Conference provided that the "Provisional Government which is now functioning in Poland should therefore be reorganized on a broader democratic basis with the inclusion of democratic leaders from Poland itself and from Poles abroad. This new government should then be called the Polish Provisional Government of National Unity."

The agreement arrived at is based on the decisions of the Crimea Conference, as is clear from its text. The Provisional Government of the Republic has demonstrated in all its activities that it has the closest contact with the Polish people, that it represents their vital interests and serves the cause of peace and democracy. The Government has been reorganized on the basis of the Polish Provisional Government now functioning.

It may therefore be taken that the decisions of the Crimea Conference have been carried out. They have been carried out in spite of the machinations of those

who hampered the union of the democratic forces of Poland by every means in their power and who strove to convert the Polish question into a cause of "irreconcilable antagonisms" between the great Allied powers.

Marshal Stalin in his reply to the *London Times* correspondent stated that one of the conditions which must be observed in settling the Polish question was that it must be settled "together with the Poles who are at present connected with the Polish people, and not without them." This condition has been observed. The reorganization of the Polish Government was settled by the Poles themselves inasmuch as members of the Polish Provisional Government, which is backed by the broad mass of the Polish people, as well as democratic leaders from Poland itself and from abroad took part in the negotiations. The formation of the Provisional Government of National Unity testifies that all the democratic forces in Poland are now united.

The long-suffering Polish people, when liberated by the Red Army from the German-fascist yoke, dedicated themselves with enthusiasm to the great task of resurrecting their state on a democratic basis. United by the Provisional Government of Poland, they have already done much to restore the Polish state, to develop the national economy and promote the development of culture. Now as a result of the union of all democratic forces of Poland, this great constructive work will naturally be facilitated.

The agreement to form the Provisional Polish Government of National Unity has removed one other obstacle from the path of democratic Poland—the reactionary Polish "government" in exile. The reactionary clique of exiles, headed by Racziewicz and Arciszewski, observed with hatred the rise of a new and free Poland on a democratic basis. They spared no means to frustrate the building of a new Poland and strove to turn Poland back to the times of the *Sanacja* of the Pilsudski regime and to convert her into the base of an attack on the Soviet Union.

The Racziewiczzes, Arciszewskis and Anders employed every means, even the vilest, to disunite the Polish people, to foment a fratricidal war in Poland and instigate the Polish people to fight their great ally, the Soviet people, and the liberator of Poland, the Red Army.

The subversive activities of the Polish "government" in exile were fully exposed at the recent trial in Moscow of the leaders and organizers of the Polish underground. The Polish "government" is now completely discredited in the eyes of the Polish people and of the world generally.

After the trial, after the exposures made, after the terrible picture revealed of the crimes perpetrated on the direct instructions of the Polish "government" in exile, further recognition of this reactionary "government" cannot be justified on any grounds.

The agreement on the formation of the Polish Government of National Unity is an important stride forward in the development of a new democratic Poland, for it will lead both to the further consolidation of the country and to the strengthening of its position in international affairs. Besides the Soviet Union, which already has diplomatic relations with the Provisional Government of the Polish Republic, the Polish Provisional Government of National Unity will be recognized by Great Britain and the United States. This also directly follows from decisions of the Crimea Conference.

The realization of the decisions of the Crimea Conference on the Polish question, the formation of the Provisional Government in conformity with these decisions, and the union of all democratic forces of Poland, will deal another blow to all reactionary elements in Poland.

The great work of regenerating Poland as a democratic and independent state begun by the Provisional Government, constitutes an unshakable foundation on which the activities of the Provisional Government of National Unity will develop. The policy of purging the country of all vestiges of fascism; the renunciation

of the *Sanacja* policy of oppressing other nationalities; the union of all Poles within one monolithic national state; the policy of firm friendship among the Slav nations; the historic land reform and other democratic measures carried out, will constitute the foundation for fruitful activities on the part of the Provisional Government of National Unity.

The peaceful foreign policy pursued by the Provisional Government, especially

the sincere friendship with Poland's great ally, the USSR, and with other democratic countries, led to the liberation and regeneration of Poland.

In spite of the machinations and mischievous intrigues of the Polish reactionaries who tried to stifle the democratic, free and independent Poland at its inception and tried to arouse enmity among the sister Slav nations, the policy reflecting the hopes and aspirations of the

Polish people has triumphed.

The creation of the Provisional Government of National Unity on the basis of the Polish Provisional Government and a continuation of the latter's course in home and foreign policy will guarantee the progress and prosperity of a new, strong, independent and democratic Poland which will march hand in hand with the great Soviet Union and the sister Slav nations.

BANDITS IN THE GUISE OF DEMOCRATS

By D. Zaslavsky

The following article appeared in PRAVDA:

Here are the facts and figures which constantly haunted you at the trial as you listened to the cautious, shifty, evasive, confusing answers of the defendants.

In the Western Ukraine and Byelorussia and in Polish territory behind the Red Army's lines, 277 Red Army men and officers were killed and 94 were wounded, according to incomplete data, during the period between July 28 to December 31, 1944. Three hundred and seventeen Red Army men and officers were killed and 125 were wounded from January 1 to May 30, 1945.

They were killed or wounded, not in engagements against the Germans. They were not shot in the breast. They were foully assassinated by shots in the back. They were treacherously assailed from behind, seized while asleep, fired upon on roads.

It was the Polish-fascist bandits, gangsters and butchers that slew the Red Army soldiers—because they had liberated Poland from the Germans—because they came to Poland under the banners of Polish-Soviet friendship.

Only fascists could commit those foul murders. These crimes bear the stamp of fascism. And while those treacherous, shameful shots were being fired from behind, while here and there in the Red Army's rear railway bridges were being blown up or tracks were being torn up on roads over which Red Army trains sped to the front to fight the Germans,

pro-fascist journalists in the newspapers of various countries were declaiming that there were "democratic" leaders and "democratic" parties in Poland which supported the Polish emigre "government" in London, and that those elements must be invited to take part in forming a new provisional government. To what infamous mystification those pro-fascist circles lent their support.

Now, however, the mystification has been exposed. One after the other the perpetrators of the foul crimes have passed before the Soviet court. We have seen them.

Kuzminski, Urbanowicz, Kolendo, Lotarewicz, Stankiewicz. They are the smaller fry in the underground organization of Polish fascism. They murdered Red Army men with their own hands, hanged them, beat them to death. Some of the culprits are older, some young. All speak monotonously, in a dispassionate, matter-of-fact way. Horrible pictures arise from their evidence. They murdered in 1944 when the Red Army was liberating Poland. They were still murdering in 1945 when all Poland had been liberated and the Red Army was delivering the finishing blows to the troops of Hitler Germany.

There is one trait that these bandits have in common. As you listen to them, as you look at them, you realize they are all hangmen, gendarmes of the old reactionary *Sanacja* army of Pilsudski and Smigly-Rydz. They are jailers and policemen. They are the personnel of the Bereza-Kartuska concentration camp.

They all say with a dogged conviction that they were carrying out the orders of the *Armia Krajowa* (Home Army) command.

Butcher Kuzminski executed the orders of Commandant Herman. As for Herman, his appearance, manner and tone betray the old secret police agent of the Polish-fascist torture chambers. He says that he followed the orders of his superior commandant, Janson.

In bearing and appearance, Janson is every inch a German SS man. He describes how the people were shot at his orders and explains that he acted on the command of his superior, General Bor Komarowski, and later of General Okulicki. Thus the entire structure of the underground organization of the murderers, traitors, spies and saboteurs is reproduced at the trial. One line runs from the executioners Kuzminski and Stankiewicz to the Generals Okulicki and Bor Komarowski.

General Okulicki tries to tear the chain of crimes away from himself. He is prepared to admit everything, he seeks only to disclaim responsibility for the infamous acts of terrorism and sabotage. In vain. Stankiewicz and Herman, Kuzminski and Kolendo, looked to their general for instructions. Convinced by their evidence, Okulicki loses his composure. His eyes glitter with anger behind his glasses, a ferocious snarl distorts his features. It is obvious that we have the old fascist wolf before us. Of course he was a ring-leader worthy of his gang. The mask of

a democrat does not fit him. Nor does the mask of a Polish "patriot". He is compelled to admit that he favored the bloc with Germany against the Soviet Union. He gave instructions to his "army" that they were to expect aid from the anti-Soviet coalition, on the formation of which they counted, with the participation of Germany a foregone conclusion. His subordinates accepted that purely fascist line without the least qualm, for it fully corresponded to the fascist mentality of the Polish reactionaries.

We now know what all the talk about the alleged struggle of the *Armia Krajowa* against the Germans is really worth. We learn how Okulicki's subordinates negotiated with the Germans and Hungarians before Hungary's withdrawal from the war, how joint espionage and sabotage activities were carried out behind the Red Army's lines. We learn that *Armia Krajowa* detachments fought together with the Germans against the Soviet guerrillas. And the highest officers of this *Armia Krajowa* carried on negotiations with Von Denbach, the German Gruppenfuhrer of SS troops, about the possibility of a joint struggle against the Red Army. One line runs from the lowest to the top rungs of the *Armia Krajowa*.

These are the fascist gangsters that the

Polish emigres in London tried to palm off as "democrats." Around the Polish generals of the *Sanacja* army rallied a handful of bankrupt Polish politicians, wretched figures, shyster lawyers, who took it into their heads that they were diplomats—nonentities in whose souls stirred only one sentiment, hatred for the Soviet Union. We have seen these puny persons grown decrepit in their political morass—"Premier" Jankowski, "Ministers" Bien and Juasiukiewicz. Half buffoons, half fiends, and out and out fascists.

In the dock they lose their self-assurance. They disavow their friends, the Polish fascists in London. They lay at their door the blame for their crimes, for their dirty game. Okulicki blames Sosnkowski, Jankowski blames Arciszewski.

They called themselves a "Council of Ministers." They were going to rule Poland, play an important role in Europe. They expected to hobnob with the ministers and presidents of the European and American countries. They had visions of international conferences. And now these "ministers" want only one thing, to save their skins. They confess their "errors." They pretend to be innocent fools who knew nothing, understood nothing, were led astray.

But this is the very garbage reeking

with putrefaction that the political swindlers, the Polish reactionaries, represented as real men and democrats, as influential personages in Poland. Since the days of the notorious Madame Hunbert who once mystified bankers, ministers and journalists in Paris with non-existent valuables in a visionary safe, there has never been anything like this mystification, anything like this shameful swindle and deception. The "box" of the underground of the Polish "government" has been opened. There it is, the miraculous safe from which Mr. Arciszewski and his henchmen pulled out their "democratic leaders." And whom does the world see? The inveterate bandit Okulicki, organizer of foul murders, the old Jesuit Jankowski who is prepared to betray his own father, to say nothing of Poland, and similar gangsters and swindlers, small town Metternichs who thought that they could hoodwink all Europe and America.

These fascist nonentities stand exposed, and their inspirers in the Polish emigre "government" in London are exposed with them. Okulicki is the alter ego of Bor Komarowski, Jankowski the alter ego of Arciszewski. Banditism—this is the real trade of the Polish-fascist blackguards. Fascism is their second nature. What was this riffraff hoping for? That Hitler Germany would escape destruction and that the Allies would fall out. The spiritual kinship between the Polish and German Hitlerites is obvious. Both varieties of Hitlerites have failed.

Moscow Museum Displays Gifts to Stalin

A hall at the Moscow Museum of the Revolution contains 500 gifts to Stalin from the peoples of the USSR. These exhibits express the love of the Soviet people for their leader and reflect the growth of the industrial might of the country.

The one-thousandth magneto turned out by a plant producing electrical equipment in Moscow, a miniature of a roller bearing plant, a book printed on composition material, a model of the Zlatoust works, are some of the objects exhibited.

There is also an amber cigarette holder which had been the most precious possession of Red Army man Rutman. When he left for the front Rutman asked his mother, in case of his death, to send the holder to Stalin. The Red Army man

fell in the fighting at Stalingrad and his mother carried out her son's request. Next to the holder is a letter signed by 85,000 young guerrillas of Byelorussia.

The walls of the museum are covered with huge rugs, gifts of the Turkmenian, Kirghizian and Gutzul weavers. A casket incrustated with fine ornament work was contributed by the Byelorussian masters. There is a handsome and finely carved cupboard made by an Azatyan bookkeeper from Erevan, whose hobby is woodcarving. The room is full of art objects: a crystal table, a bone dagger ornamented with intricate carving, a silver sword, a Caucasian girdle, an engraving done on stainless steel—in fact, here are represented the best examples of the craftsmanship the Soviet peoples are famed for.

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The Carpathian Ukraine

After the Red Army's liberation of the Carpatho-Ukraine from the Germans, the First Congress of People's Committees of the Transcarpathian Ukraine was held on November 26, 1944, in the town of Mukacevo, and a manifesto expressing the desire of the people to join the Soviet Ukraine was unanimously adopted.

The culmination of this decision is the treaty between the Soviet Union and the Czechoslovak Republic, which establishes the Carpathian Ukraine as a part of the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic.

The Carpathian Ukraine is situated on the southern slopes and foothills of the Carpathian Mountains, and partly in the Hungarian plain. Its area is 12,600 square kilometers and its population, according to the 1931 census, 725,300—65 per cent Ukrainians, 15 per cent Magyars, and 15 per cent Jews. The capital, Uzhorod, has a population of 26,700. The principal occupations are farming, livestock-raising and forestry. Industry is little developed; only 10 per cent of the people are engaged in industry and handicrafts. Flour mills, distilleries, sawmills and some small cellulose and watch factories complete the list of enterprises.

The Carpatho-Ukrainians are a part of the Ukrainian nation. In language, customs and cultural traditions they differ little from the Ukrainians in the Dnieper Regions, Galicia and Bucovina. Only the vagaries of history prevented them from joining the rest of the Ukrainians in a single state. After the reincorporation into the Ukrainian SSR of the Western Ukraine in 1939 and of northern Bucovina in 1940, the Carpatho-Ukrainians remained the only group of Ukrainians outside their own state.

Ever since the Magyar invasion more than 1,000 years ago, the Carpathian Ukraine has been under a foreign yoke. Oppression by the Hungarian feudal lords

left its imprint on the area, which until recently remained one of the most backward sections of Europe, both in an economic and cultural sense. About 70 per cent of the population could not read or write; starvation and epidemics were rife. Emigrations were numerous, mostly to the United States and Canada, where there now are large colonies of Carpatho-Ukrainians.

In spite of the efforts of the Hungarian feudal lords to assimilate them, the Carpatho-Ukrainians preserved a language, culture and spiritual kinship with the entire Ukrainian nation. This spiritual kinship was keenly felt by the first Carpatho-Ukrainian educators who greatly contributed to the development of a national consciousness.

The presence of Russian troops in Hungary in 1848 was a stimulus to the development of a national movement among large sections of Carpatho-Ukrainians.

This political awakening, which was

connected with the general movement of the Slav peoples, brought forth a number of prominent leaders, writers, historians and educators, who revealed a profound love for their people and for the Slav world, and for the Russian people. Many outstanding historical and pedagogical works, as well as fiction, were written in Russian.

The people of the Carpathian Ukraine never lost the hope of reuniting with their Ukrainian motherland.

When the Austro-Hungarian patchwork empire disintegrated in the autumn of 1918, National Councils were formed in the Carpathian Ukraine to decide on the future of their land. In January, 1919, delegates solemnly proclaimed the reunion of the Carpathian Ukraine with the entire Ukrainian nation.

But by the terms of the Treaties of Saint-Germain and Trianon, the Carpathian Ukraine was incorporated into the newly formed Czechoslovakia. Proj-



Representative of the Czechoslovak Republic Zdenek Fierlinger (left) with Marshal Stalin and Deputy People's Commissar of Foreign Affairs Andrei Vyshinsky in Moscow, where a treaty between the two Governments was concluded

Radiophoto

ects to incorporate it into Poland and even into Rumania had existed, but were sidetracked.

Until 1939, the Carpathian Ukraine was an autonomous part of Czechoslovakia.

In its plan of attack on the Soviet Union, fascist Germany assigned to the Carpathian Ukraine the role of a springboard. After the dismemberment of Czechoslovakia, Hitler allowed fascist Hungary to occupy the area. In March, 1939, Hungarian troops marched in. A regime of bloody terrorism was instituted. Anyone who had engaged in public activities in the Czechoslovak Republic or had been prominent in the Ukrainian national liberation movement, was shot or flung into prison or concentration camps. Hitler's Hungarian flunkies meted out cruel vengeance to the people of the Carpathian Ukraine.

The heroic Red Army, which smashed Hitler's hordes, liberated Czechoslovakia, and in November, 1944, expelled the Germans from the Carpathian Ukraine and brought freedom to the people. The people of the Carpathian Ukraine thus obtained the opportunity to express their views on their future destiny.

On November 26, 1944, the First Con-

gress of People's Committees of the Carpathian Ukraine was held in Mukacevo, with representatives from the entire country attending the Congress. A manifesto was adopted, stating the desire of the people to join the Soviet Ukraine. Since then at numerous mass meetings, the population has unanimously demanded union with the Soviet Ukraine.

With the assistance of the Czechoslovak Government, political, economic and cultural activities have begun to revive in the country after years of bondage under the Hungarian and German-fascist invaders.

From the first days after its liberation, the Carpathian Ukraine has been receiving fraternal help from the Government of the Ukrainian SSR, which sent grain and building materials as well as agricultural experts.

The dream of the people of the Carpathian Ukraine has been fulfilled. The land and forests have become its own property. The People's Committees have already distributed 100,000 hectares of land among the peasants. More than 60,000 peasant households have received additional land.

Reunion with the entire Ukrainian nation was made possible by the friendly

The Signing of the Treaty Incorporating the Carpathian Ukraine Into the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic



V. Molotov, for the Soviet Union



Z. Fierlinger, for the Czechoslovak Republic

relations between the Soviet Union and the newly restored democratic Czechoslovak Government.

Anniversary of Defeat of German Troops in Byelorussia

By Colonel Joseph Korotkov

The operations of the Red Army which led to the rout of German troops in Byelorussia were launched at the beginning of the fourth year of the Soviet-German war. They were conducted on a vast scale and constituted what Marshal Stalin described as the "fifth blow" inflicted by the Red Army on Hitler's troops in 1944.

As a result of the first four blows dealt by the Army that year, the front line had shifted a considerable distance to the West. On June 22, 1944, it ran west of Vyborg, then from Narva southward to Pskov, and farther to Polotsk. There it turned southeast, skirted Vitebsk on the east, and ran on between Smolensk and Orsha and east of Mogilev. It moved southwest, crossed the Pripyat west of

Mozyr, turned sharply to the west in the direction of Kovel from which it continued down south, passed west of Tarnopol and Chernovitsy, again turned southeast and followed the lower reaches of the Dniester to the Black Sea.

The Germans, who had been forced to pass over to the defensive along the entire front, expected the Red Army to strike in the south—in the Carpathian Ukraine and Rumania—and made their preparations accordingly. Here they concentrated the main forces intended for the Soviet-German front. At the same time the Hitlerites were aware of the great importance of the Byelorussian bulge and massed large forces and vast quantities of armaments there. The defense of

that important strategic area was entrusted to the Central German Group with Field Marshal Von Busch in command. This group consisted of the Fourth and Ninth Field and the Third Armored Armies, numbering about one million men and equipped with large quantities of armaments of all types.

By June, 1944, the Germans had well-prepared and deeply-echeloned defenses in Byelorussia. They were based on natural barriers and consisted of a ramified system of field fortifications, barbed-wire entanglements, minefields, road blocks, etc. The Germans had taken special care to fortify Vitebsk, Orsha, Mogilev, Zhlobin and Bobruisk, which covered the principal directions and formed the back-

bone of the entire German front on the Byelorussian arc.

They thought that they were firmly entrenched in Byelorussia and expected to hold out there. But they had miscalculated. The Red Army's blows, whose crushing force and swiftness came as a complete surprise to the enemy, swept away all their defensive structures in a few days, and the fortified areas became traps in which scores of thousands of picked Hitlerite troops met their doom.

In a mounting offensive in Byelorussia, the Red Army Command's objective—to rout the entire German Central Army Group—was fully achieved.

On the morning of June 23, after a powerful artillery and air preparation, the main forces of the First Baltic and the Third and Second Byelorussian Fronts took the offensive in the directions of Vitebsk, Bogushev, Orsha and Mogilev. The next day, June 24, Soviet troops of the First Byelorussian Front launched an offensive in the direction of Bobruisk. The German defenses on the line of Vitebsk, Orsha, Mogilev, Zhlobin and southwest of it cracked in two days on 450 kilometers of the front.

On the third day, as the result of an enveloping maneuver carried out by troops of the First Baltic and Third Byelorussian Fronts from several directions, the German troops at Vitebsk were not only encircled but cut into two isolated sections, and on June 27 their resistance was broken. At the same time Vitebsk was taken.

In the Orsha direction another enemy group was routed. With Vitebsk and Orsha in their hands, the Soviet troops of the two Fronts were now able to press the offensive toward Berezina and west of it.

While the Soviet Armies of the First Baltic and Third Byelorussian Fronts were destroying German forces at Vitebsk and Orsha between June 23 and June 29, the troops of the Second Byelorussian Front breached the German defenses on the Dnieper in the Mogilev area and inflicted a crushing defeat on another large enemy force. The fighting in this area was extremely difficult due to the fact that Soviet troops had to force five river barriers, which formed part of the German defenses: the Pronya, Basya, Resta,

Rudea and Dnieper. This operation was a necessary preliminary to the trapping of 30 German divisions in the Minsk area.

The troops of the Second Byelorussian Front pinned down the Fourth German Army, and the troops of the First and Third Fronts accomplished the encirclement east of Minsk.

The offensive maneuver of the troops of the First Byelorussian Front in the Bobruisk direction was carried out in the same manner. On June 24-26, Marshal Rokossovsky's troops breached the German defenses north of Rogachev and southwest of Zhlobin, and by June 27 encircled five German divisions in the neighborhood of Bobruisk. Part of the Soviet forces of this Front pushed on in the direction of Baranovichi, from which they were to press forward toward Brest, while the tank forces followed up the thrust toward Minsk, to join forces with the troops of the Third Byelorussian Front.

On July 3, the capital of Byelorussia was freed, and the troops of the two Fronts effected a junction in the area of Minsk, thus throwing a strategic ring around the main forces of the German Central Army Group. The tactical encirclement and mopping up of this army group was accomplished by the troops of the Second Byelorussian Front. By July 11, that group was eliminated. The entire Fourth German Army and a number of other formations ceased to exist.

A new phase in the Red Army's offensive in Byelorussia was begun on July 5. It continued until the end of the month, and ended in the complete rout of the Germans and the expulsion of the remnants of their forces from Byelorussia.

The troops of the Third Byelorussian Front swept on in the direction of Vilnius and Lida. Lida was taken on July 8, and Vilnius, capital of Lithuania, on July 13. Despite the enemy's stubborn resistance, the offensive rolled on at an extremely rapid pace—on some days at the rate of 50 kilometers. Exploiting the success already scored, General Cherniakhovsky's troops of the Third Byelorussian Front reached the Nieman north and south of Alitus on July 15, crossed the river at several points and captured positions advantageous for the subsequent offensive

toward the frontier of East Prussia.

Meanwhile the troops of the Second Byelorussian Front mopped up the trapped German forces east of Minsk and pressed on toward Volkovysk, Grodno and Bialystok. A particularly fierce battle had to be fought for Bialystok, which the Germans had turned into a strongly fortified area covering the approaches to the Narew River. But again the Germans were defeated. The troops of the Second Byelorussian Front broke the enemy's resistance and reached the Narew, from which Marshal Rokossovsky later lunged into East Prussia.

The operations for the liberation of the southern part of Byelorussia proceeded with the same speed and skill. The Armies of the First Byelorussian Front thrust out in two directions—Baranovichi and Pinsk. The capture of Baranovichi was accomplished by a maneuver from three sides—south, north and northwest. The enemy forces at Baranovichi were driven out and the entire right wing of the Front swept on in the direction of Brest.

The forces that operated in the Pinsk direction had a particularly complicated job to perform. In view of the numerous lakes and marshy terrain, they could advance mainly along roads which the Germans had destroyed and mined. The Germans fortified the town of Luninets and expected the main thrust from the east. But they were wrong. The main thrust was launched from the north and was coordinated with units that operated from the east, and with ships of the Dnieper Flotilla. The Pinsk enemy group was defeated. The troops of the First Byelorussian Front followed up their victory and captured Brest and Siedlec, liberating the section of Poland from which the 1945 offensive was launched.

In the course of one month, the Red Army completely cleared the German invaders from a vast territory. The entire Central Army Group of the Germans was routed, and lost over 540,000 officers and men, killed and taken prisoner.

The rout of the Germans in Byelorussia was one of the classical operations carried out by the Red Army in accordance with the plan of the Supreme Command, and is an excellent example of Soviet military skill.

Eminent Foreign Scientists in Moscow

Professor Theodore Karman, one of the outstanding scientists who attended the Anniversary celebration of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, took an active part in its sessions. His paper presented on July 20 on the prospects for postwar engineering in the United States was enthusiastically received by the Department of Technical Sciences.

In a statement to the press, Doctor Karman said: "Our association with Soviet scientists is of great benefit to us, for we learn new things every day. I was greatly impressed, for example, by the Power Institute's plans for electrification, some of which have already been put into practice."

He considered "an extraordinary achievement" the transfer and reinstallation of the metallurgical industry during the war.

In his own field of aerodynamics, the Professor noted that Soviet science had made great strides—particularly since his visit in 1937, when he first observed the work of the Central Aerodynamics Institute at first-hand.

"We read many Russian scientific papers on aerodynamics," Doctor Karman said, "and make abstracts from them for American scientific magazines. Some of my students are now learning the Russian language in order to be able to study these papers in the original. All of them are eager to follow the progress of our Moscow colleagues."

Professor Karman spoke of the present meeting as a review of the achievements not only of Soviet but of world science. He has complete faith in the power of

science to build a better world for mankind in the future. "Nazi Germany, which menaced world civilization, has been brought to her knees through the common efforts of the freedom-loving peoples of the United States, the Soviet Union and Great Britain. The scientists of the United Nations have made a valuable contribution to this historic victory. Our joint struggle against the enemy brought us closer together. This friendship born in the storm of battle must be strengthened in the future. We men of science in the democratic countries must maintain the closest unity.

"One of the first practical steps, in my opinion, would be to select the most interesting and important scientific problems solved independently by the scientists of England, the United States and the Soviet Union, and to exchange experiences. In fact, the invitation to foreign scientists for the Anniversary Sessions of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR is, I think, the beginning of postwar collaboration in world science."

Visitors Tour Moscow

The following comments were made by members of the foreign delegation after a tour of Moscow, where they saw points of interest in the historic city.

Professors Irene and Frederic Joliot-Curie of France, said: "We hope to see a great deal more of this impressive city. We are confident the Moscow Kremlin and Red Square have a splendid destiny. This is the heart of the city, the heart of the Soviet country. Nature itself seems to have designed this spot as the site for

an architectural monument of universal value. The Kremlin palaces will always remain in our memory."

Professor Julian Huxley of England said that he had come to Moscow for the first time in 1931. "Immense changes have taken place here since then. In fact, it is hard to recall the Moscow streets of those days. Would it be possible to reconstruct without the aid of photographs a clear picture of the old shops in Okhotny Riad or Kitaigorod Wall? Now there are splendid houses that form admirable architectural ensembles."

A consulting engineer of the Westinghouse Electric Corporation of East Pittsburgh, Professor Arnold Nadai, was struck by the hospitable welcome the Soviet people extended their guests. He remarked about the wide Moscow streets kept so clean and washed down "even on Sundays." All the tourists praised the Moscow subway stations, which they all agreed are superior to any in the world. Mr. Nadai considered the architecture in the Mayakovsky station the finest.

Doctor F. Kidric, a delegate from the Slovenian Academy of Sciences of Yugoslavia, said: "This visit will always be remembered. Moscow was built for a new, happy life. The outlines of the bright city of the future are already clearly visible."

In the opinion of Professor Daniel Rapant, rector of Bratislava University, no one could pass through Red Square without pausing to think of its significance. "When I was in the Kremlin I saw the whole history of Russia. Created by the people, the Kremlin is an edifice worthy of the greatest capital in the world."

Professor Yuri Horak of the University of Prague spoke of his impression of the Moscow people—in excellent spirits and busy with their work so soon after the terrible war of which the USSR bore the brunt. He added: "I am convinced that the Soviet Academy is the only one in the world which has so ably harmonized science and life. Soviet science is not abstract; it aims at the improvement of the material and spiritual welfare of all the peoples of the USSR.

"Moscow is the city of a great people



Scientists from the United States and Britain are met at the Moscow airport by Academician Bardin (second from left)

Radiophoto

and a mighty state. When you stand in Red Square you want to take off your hat and exclaim, 'All honor to the Soviet people!'"

Professor Harold Innes, University of Toronto, Canada, spoke of the beauty of Moscow. He was delighted with the skilful and harmonious combination of ancient and modern architecture. He enumerated as "never-to-be-forgotten" the monumental House of the Council of People's Commissars, the Grand Hall of Columns, and the splendor of the Bolshoi Theater.

At a reception in honor of the foreign visitors, a group of scholars discuss the future of science: Professor Irene Curie of Paris, Professor Penkowski of Warsaw, and Academician S. Vavilov and N. Bruyevich (Secretary of the Academy)



Radiophoto

The Institute of Physics

By Viktor Krasilnikov

The Physics Institute of the Academy of Sciences, founded in 1725 by Peter I, celebrated its 220th anniversary last month.

From the outset the newly established laboratory became the base for experimental scientific work. Here the great Russian scientist Mikhail Lomonosov directed the setting up of the optical instruments he invented. The work of the famous Ivan Kulibin, who invented his own telescopes, spy glasses and reflectors, was also closely associated with the physics laboratory.

In the 19th Century important investigations were carried out on electricity, optics and other problems. The physics laboratory was the workshop of Vasilii Petrov, who discovered the voltaic arc, and of Boris Golitsyn, who carried on his celebrated work on spectroscopy and seismology. In 1912 a special Seismological Department was set up in the laboratory, based on the network of seismological stations Golitsyn had founded throughout the country.

After the Revolution, the Academy became the center of scientific thought in the country and, beginning with 1918, the Institute's scientific research began to be set up within the Academy structure. The physics laboratory and mathematics section were reorganized in 1921 as the Physico-Mathematics Institute.

When the Academy of Sciences was transferred to Moscow in 1934, the Mathematics Department was made an independent institute and housed separately. At that time the Physics Institute was

given the name of the great Russian physicist Peter Lebedev, known for his work on the pressure of light.

The Institute's chief activities in the past decade have involved an investigation of the atomic nucleus and of cosmic rays; problems of physical optics, such as luminescence and the spectral analysis and diffusion of light; radio-physics, particularly the propagation of electromagnetic waves; problems of acoustics; an investigation into the electrical properties of matter; and work on theoretical physics.

Academician Sergei Vavilov has directed the Institute since 1932, and his colleagues have been Academicians Boris Vedensky, Nikolai Papaleksy and Vladimir Fok, and Corresponding Members of the Academy Nikolai Andreyev, Bentzion Vul, Gregori Landsberg and Dmitri Skobelin. In all, there is a staff of 200 people at work in the theoretical department and the Institute's seven laboratories.

For a number of years before the war considerable work was done on the composition and properties of cosmic rays. A high altitude expedition sent to the top of Mount Elbrus to study the problem brought back valuable findings, after studying the nature of cosmic particles at a height of four to five thousand meters above sea level.

The Institute's research into luminescence led to a number of laws on glowing solids and fluids and the development of many new luminescent compounds.

The Optics Laboratory of the Institute continued its endeavors throughout the

war on the breaking up of light and on spectral analysis. The discoveries of Academician Mandelstam in complex diffusion brought forth new methods of molecular analysis employed where ordinary methods would be inapplicable, for example, in an analysis of hydrocarbon mixtures.

The Acoustics Laboratory headed by Corresponding Member Nikolai Andreyev has been having successful results with the architectural acoustics of large, new constructions, such as the Palace of the Soviets.

The Physics Institute made a valuable contribution during the war in the application of molecular and atomic spectral analysis in a number of industries in the Union. Experiments on the dielectric properties of matter led to the development of isolating substances exceeding all known compounds in dielectric penetrability by more than 10 times.

The Laboratory of Vibrations under Academician Nikolai Papaleksy investigated the propagation of electromagnetic waves under actual conditions, making corrections for the natural peculiarities of locality, and solved many problems of non-linear vibration. In 1944, the Institute again sent a high altitude expedition to the Pamirs to continue the work on the investigation of the composition and properties of cosmic rays.

Both scientific and Government circles have paid tribute to these achievements, and on the occasion of the 220th anniversary of the Academy, the Physics Institute was awarded the Order of Lenin.

THE GORKY AUTO PLANT

By M. Zubov

Tsarist Russia had no automobile industry at all. In 1913 the automobiles in the country totaled 8,200 vehicles, the majority passenger cars. Russia entered the First World War with no more than a thousand trucks.

The industry really emerged after the October Revolution. By 1930 the Soviet Union was ninth in the world in motor car production, and in 1934 already occupied third place, outranking all countries on the European continent, including Germany. Only the United States and England were producing more.

On the eve of the war the Soviet Union occupied first place in Europe and second in the world in truck production.

This year the auto plants of the USSR are turning out several times more motor vehicles than they did in 1941. In addition to the Moscow, Yaroslavl and Gorky auto plants built and extended before the war, new factories have been constructed in the Urals and in Chelyabinsk. The victory over Nazi Germany was achieved not only on the fields of battle, but also on the conveyor belts of the automobile factories.

A testament buried under the cornerstone of the forging shop of the famous Gorky factory defined its future goal: "The Gorky plant we are starting to build will be a bulwark of Socialist industry and a vital factor in the defense of the country."

Fifteen years later, the words written May 2, 1930, came true.

The Gorky auto plant made a supreme

effort to supply the country with cars and trucks. In some prewar years this factory provided 70 per cent of all vehicles produced in the Soviet Union. The value of the plant was greatly increased after the outbreak of hostilities. When in 1941 the Moscow auto plant was evacuated and ceased temporarily to operate, the gap was filled by the Gorky plant, in those days practically the only source of Red Army trucks and cars.

In the course of the war the Gorky plant, while still producing trucks, provided a new type of car for front-line use. There were radical changes in the technique of welding and forging, employing the new method of Professor Paton. Thousands of innovations were initiated by the workers to step up production.

Self-Sacrifice of Workers

Under the severely trying conditions, the efforts of the factory personnel were truly heroic. There was little sleep, not much to eat, and very often whole days and nights were spent on the job. Even air raids did not interrupt production. Everyone knew that fathers, brothers and sons on the firing line needed combat machines, and no one would slacken his labor.

Young workers launched a campaign for the organization of "front line brigades." In these drives the thousands who joined the brigades exceeded the average output by 30 to 35 per cent.

When the forging shop ran short of

hands, the wives and mothers of fighting men came to fill their places. Two hundred women learned an arduous and complicated trade and became expert hammer smiths.

Increasing production year after year, the factory invariably exceeded its program.

The Government showed its appreciation by awarding the Gorky plant the Order of Lenin and the Order of the Red Banner. Over 750 workers and engineers also received orders and medals. The plant won first place 25 times in the All-Union contest of industries.

Nor have engineers neglected the peacetime. They have designed a new truck model and a passenger car. The truck has a greater carrying capacity and a better tread. The economical, four-cylinder passenger car has an excellent pickup.

Hundreds of thousands of trucks went to the Red Army from the Gorky plant during the years of the war.

This factory is typical of the industrial power of the USSR as a whole.

A Drive for Peacetime Production

A call to all workers of the Stalin iron and steel works in Magnitogorsk and in Kuznetsk to launch a new Socialist competition in honor of victory has met with enthusiastic response. The plants in the East had already increased their output of pig iron, steel and rolled metal by 50 per cent in wartime. New blast and open hearth furnaces and rolling mills have been constructed, and in the South new plants are rising on the ruins of those demolished by the Germans. In the second quarter of this year the industry exceeded its program and reached the highest production level of the past four years.

The appeal reads: "We must step up the output of metal for the production of locomotives, automobiles, tractors and lathes; for building power stations; for metallurgical, electrical, oil and mining equipment; for agricultural machinery, and for consumers' goods."



Soviet tank firing on enemy positions in a night operation

Radiophoto

The Weapons the Red Army Fought With

By Professor Sergei Vishnev

At the time it attacked the Soviet Union, Hitler's army was the strongest in the world in number, fighting experience and up-to-date armament. Exploiting these advantages—which subsequent events showed were temporary—the Germans seized a considerable part of the territory of the Soviet Union, including some of its most important economic regions.

The loss of the steel industry in the Ukraine and the coal mines of the Donbas, as well as the suspension of the industry of besieged Leningrad, seriously affected the munitions supply of the Red Army.

The territory occupied by the Germans and the demolished industrial city of Stalingrad were areas of the best machine-building, chemical and munitions works, the loss of which was a severe blow to Russia's war potential. A large number of Soviet industrial plants, both in the regions menaced by enemy occupation and in the war zones generally, had to be hastily transplanted to the East, into the interior of the country.

Nazi Germany, on the other hand, possessed a powerful industry on its own territory which had been adapted beforehand for war purposes. In addition, she was master of the industry of practically the entire European continent, including the excellent war industries of France and Czechoslovakia.

The question naturally arises how under these unfavorable conditions the Soviet Union was able to nullify Germany's superiority in armament, then to excel her in quantity and quality of weapons, and finally to smash her powerful army.

Some seek an explanation in the material assistance rendered the Soviet Union by her Allies, especially the United States; others, in certain economic resources which the Soviet Union is purported to have kept secret.

The material assistance received by the Soviet Union from the Allies was certainly considerable. President Truman reported to Congress that from March, 1941, through March, 1945, the United States supplied the Soviet Union with

munitions and goods to the value of \$8,410,000,000. This is an impressive figure. Moreover, the Soviet Union received supplies, although in far smaller amounts, from Great Britain, Canada and Australia. The Soviet People's Commissar of Finance Arseni Zverev stated in his report on the Soviet Budget for 1945, "In making a preliminary review of the financing of the Red Army, we must mention the substantial assistance received in 1944 as well as in the current year from our Allies, in the form of armaments, materiel and foodstuffs."

Nevertheless, the assistance rendered by the Allies was not the factor which radically changed the relative material and technical strength of the Red Army and the German army. It was not these supplies which, thrown into the scale of history, turned the balance in favor of Russia.

As has been pointed out in reports on the workings of the Lend-Lease Law and in statements by a number of leading figures in the United States and Great Britain, Allied deliveries of tanks, artillery and aircraft to the Red Army were almost insignificant when compared with the expenditure of these weapons of warfare on the Soviet-German front. One Soviet tank-building plant alone produced 35,000 tanks, several times more than the number supplied to Russia by the Allies throughout the whole period of the war.

Soviet artillery units, which were so important in the war, were entirely equipped with guns of Soviet manufacture. Machine guns, automatic rifles and other infantry weapons of the Red Army were likewise almost exclusively produced by Soviet factories.

The Red Army received about 13,000 airplanes from the United States, which is only five per cent of the total aircraft production of the United States. In the main, the Soviet Air Force was equipped by Soviet factories with planes designed by Ilyushin, Yakovlev, Polikarpov and other superior Soviet aircraft engineers. And the Red Army had the formidable rocket-projecting Katyushas, which no other army possessed.

The Allied shipments of means of

transport and of aluminum, copper, tin, rubber and other materials were undoubtedly of great value. But the principal strategic materials and fuels—iron, steel, coal and oil—were produced by the Soviet Union itself. While Allied supplies were essential, they could only play a subsidiary part. President Truman also pointed this out in his recent report to Congress, when he stated that the Soviet Armies were chiefly maintained with the products of Soviet plants.

Besides weapons and materiel, the Allies rendered economic support to the Red Army, weakening Germany's war potential by blockade and aerial bombing. Germany's industrial centers hit by the Allied Air Forces were largely reduced, but the effect was not felt by the Soviet Armies before 1944-45.

The brilliant victories at Stalingrad, Kursk and Orel in 1943 could, therefore, not have been due either to Allied aid or to the bombing of Germany's industrial plants.

The "secret" of the Soviet Union's success in equipping its armies was due to the mobilization of the country's own resources, made possible by the system of planning and the efficient centralized State direction of all branches of the economy.

The triumph of the Soviet planned economy over the war economy of Hitler Germany was materially assisted by the self-sacrificing efforts of the Soviet people, who willingly incurred privations and hardships in order to supply the Armed Forces with everything they needed. These fundamental features of the Soviet rear explain the "miracle" of the Soviet Union in providing the first-class weapons which assured the victory of its heroic soldiers.

Pleasure Boats Sail Again

Completely overhauled during the winter, excursion boats fitted with restaurants and lunch counters, radios and recreation rooms, are busy on the rivers of the Soviet Union.

The best boats have been assigned to ply the waters of the Moscow-Volga Canal, where the heaviest summer travel occurs.

Notes on Soviet Life

Preparations for the announced demobilization of the older-age classes of the Army in the field have begun in the units of the Leningrad Front. All men mustered out will be given complete sets of clothing and provisions of food for the journey home. The personal services and combat exploits of each soldier will be mentioned in a certificate to be presented by the unit commanders at a special ceremony. The "letter" will end: "The years of joint struggle brought us closer together. We shall never forget you, our fighting companion. On behalf of all privates, sergeants and officers, we thank you for your loyal services to our Motherland."

★

Over 1,000 vessels of all types have been brought to the surface by Soviet salvaging crews on the upper Don, the upper Dnieper, the Sava, Western Dvina and the Nieman Rivers.

★

The USSR stretches for thousands of miles—from the Polar region to the subtropics. By June 1, when the collective farms of the Moscow, Leningrad, Minsk and Pinsk Regions and the Estonian Republic have just completed the sowing of summer crops, Azerbaijan already has begun to gather in the barley. This year, when the sowing on the farms of the Central and Northern areas was over, the country began a campaign to repair implements, check up combines and put grain elevators in good order for the harvest.

★

Flooded by the Germans, the Lidievka mine in the Donets Basin has been completely drained. In six months, two million cubic meters of water were pumped out of a shaft 230 meters deep. When the powerful pump would not go down the shaft, a collapsible suspended cradle was designed with which the workers lowered the pump and motor separately and then joined the two parts. The results were excellent. Tunnelers and propmen are already on the job, a pithead has been erected over the shaft, and the pit is expected to yield coal soon.

The debut of the opera by Sergei Prokofieff, *WAR AND PEACE*, based on the Tolstoy novel, was recently held at the Moscow Conservatory. The opera consists of eleven acts, the first six of which are concerned with the affairs of *Natasha Rostova, Andrei Bolkonsky and Pierre Bezukhov*. The lyric drama then merges into a broad historical canvas. The opera ends with Kutuzov's solemn entry into Moscow and the nation's triumph. "The events of 1812," Prokofieff stated, "when Napoleon with his armies invaded Russia and the entire people rose to defend the country, have a common ring with the events of the war of the Soviet people against Hitlerism."

★

Grants to servicemen's families in Moscow alone exceeded 40 million rubles during the past two years. Finding work for the members of these families is considered of prime importance. In the two years more than 133,000 received permanent jobs in industry or learned new trades. Housing facilities were especially provided for soldiers' dependents; 70,000 rooms were repaired to fill this need.

★

The permanent display of the State Museum of Eastern Culture, recently opened in Moscow, contains 15,000 exhibits, among them 3,000 of the best paintings, sculptures and other memorials of Oriental culture, ancient and modern. Represented is the native art of the Soviet Eastern Republics, and of Iran, Turkey, India, China and Tibet.

★

In the bleak tundra of Chukotka, an unusual hot springs has been discovered. Physicians believe that the waters, whose temperature varies between 35 and 90 degrees, are valuable for the treatment of rheumatism, neuralgia, radiculitis and arthritis. The construction of a health resort has begun—the first of its kind in the Arctic.

Georgi Dimitrov, 63-year-old Bulgarian leader, whose magnificent struggle against fascism is known to the entire democratic world, has been awarded the Order of Lenin. Since the memorable days of the Reichstag fire trial, Dimitrov has lived in the Soviet Union. On his 63rd birthday the Bulgarian Prime Minister, Kimon Georgieff, sent him a telegram of congratulations reading: "May Providence give you many years of life and good health so that you may serve Bulgaria with the great zeal and devotion you have offered her in the past."

★

This month the museum on the estate of Leo Tolstoy, Yasnaya Polyana, destroyed by the Germans, will be reopened. The grounds are being decorated, Tolstoy's library is being restored, and the Kochakov necropolis, where the writer's relatives were buried, is being reconstructed. The articles returned to Yasnaya Polyana include Tolstoy's collection of 23,000 books, many of them autographed by Maxim Gorky, Romain Rolland, Chekhov, Korolenko and other famous men. More than 13,000 of the books contain marginal notes made by Tolstoy. Paintings by Kramskoi, Repin and Serov hang in their former places.

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The Children Did Their Share

By Elena Kononenko

We Soviet people are grateful to our children, the young citizens of our land, who also fought to raise the standard of victory over Berlin.

The war has shown what stout hearts our youth possess. "We want to help the front," they said, and even the smallest among them got busy collecting the vitamin-rich wild rose for Army hospitals and guarding the farmfields from the rooks in the spring.

In the little village of Zyablikovo, some distance from Moscow, schoolgirls and boys harrowed the soil, weeded the fields and tended the cattle through every wartime summer. This was a vacation pattern followed all over the country.

"Daddy, take me with you," little Soviet citizens pled on the railway platforms, as the first troop trains departed for the front.

From the first hour of the German attack, war offices all over the Union were besieged by 10, 11, 12 and 13-year-old boys. They came with haversacks over their shoulders, ready to fight Hitler and determined to go to the battle lines. Patient explanations that children were needed on the home front were of no avail. They argued, implored and wept until they had to be turned away. I remember vividly how they would hang around the corridors, whispering and rattling their mess tins, hoping for some relaxation of rules.

Later, when good outlets for their



One of the many trade school students who volunteered for active duty in the Red Army, Sasha Uvarov served as a scout in a Guards division

patriotic fervor were found, the children proved invaluable to the war effort. But it was not easy to overcome the restlessness of the early days. Many a letter of complaint was sent to Marshal Stalin. A group of boys from the Don Region wrote:

"Dear beloved Comrade Stalin:
We boys write to you because

we just can't go on this way any longer. They won't listen to us anywhere. We have been to the War Office and they flatly refuse to send us to the front. Boys from the 10th Grade went to help with construction on the labor front. But they would not take us—not even to the labor front. Nor are we good enough to be fire wardens. The janitor just laughs at us and is being really obstructive. We are chased out of every place on account of being just kids. It makes us feel awful. Please take urgent measures to help us."

Many Soviet kids ran away to the front. They were brought back to their mothers and teachers in batches. It was not merely war excitement and thirst for adventure that was responsible for this behavior, as was shown later when thousands of little boys and girls were put to the real test in war. Little boys and girls in occupied areas, scouts for the guerrilla detachments, gave refuge to the Red Army wounded and at the risk of their lives brought them through hidden forest paths to our units. There were the Moscow children who extinguished Nazi bombs; the brave little Leningrad kids who built barricades; the Byelorussian farm boys and girls who crawled across the front line to pass important information to the Soviet troops.



Schoolboy Mischa Loshchenitsyn, a mailman during his wartime stay on a collective farm, delivers letters, newspapers and magazines sent by the children's families — from home and from the front

Many youngsters have been decorated by the Soviet Government.

Kostya Kravchuk, a Kiev lad, is the proud bearer of the Order of the Red Banner. To him the dying Red Army men entrusted their regiments' banners. "Are you a Pioneer?" they asked. "Yes, I am," the boy replied, "you can rely on me." He was as good as his word. Heedless of all danger, he buried the banners in the ground near an old oak. When the Red Army liberated Kiev the boy proudly produced the banners.

Vanya Andrianov, a 13-year-old youngster from the village of Novomikhailovskoye, is a Cavalier of the Red Star. Soviet troops were approaching his Nazi-held village. The Germans lay in ambush, installing a camouflaged machine gun in a cottage. Advancing from the river, the Red Army men did not know where the Germans had concealed themselves. Vanya had seen everything and he ran to the river as fast as his legs could carry him. His small figure was noticed by the Germans, and they opened fire. But Vanya was fearless. He dropped to the ground, and under a hail of bullets crawled to the river. Like a ball he let himself roll down the steep bank to where the Soviet unit was, and leading the way through backyards, he pointed out the cottage where the Germans had taken ambush. General Efremov himself decorated the boy with the Order of the Red Star.

The heroic feats of our Soviet children will be inscribed in the history of the Patriotic War. There are Volodya and Vasya Gorshkov from the city of Efre-

mov, who hid, fed and nursed wounded Red Army men. Alesha Berezin, from a collective farm in the Kalinin Region, caught a fascist paratrooper and turned him over to Red Army men. Twelve youngsters from the village of Pokrovskoye, Stalino Region, miles behind the enemy's lines, set up an underground Pioneer organization. For over a year they operated, posting anti-fascist leaflets at night, cutting the enemy's field telephone wires, and in many instances saving Soviet girls from deportation. When the Red Army entered the village the 12 boys came out to meet the Soviet troops, in red Pioneer ties and proudly bearing the Soviet flag.

Hundreds of children gave their lives for the homeland. A dozen hefty Hitlerites led Sasha Chekalin, Hero of the Soviet Union, to the gallows. The boy walked proudly, with uplifted head, singing the *Internationale*.

All the wiles and promises of the fascists proved unavailing when they tried to make a German spy of Tolya Nilin. "I don't sell my country!" the boy flung back at the enemy.

Little Nastya Makarova, of the village of Mishinki near Vyazma, chose a martyr's death rather than betray her older comrades to the enemy. The Germans bound the girl to a fence, sprayed her with gasoline and set her ablaze. . . . When Red Army men recaptured the village they took up the girl's charred body and, placing it reverently in their gun carriage, covered it with the regiment's banner. Soviet tankmen, artillerymen and infantrymen marched by the body with

bared head and honored the dead heroine.

Another little schoolgirl, Liuda Petrova, from Cherkassy in the Ukraine would not reply to a single one of the enemy's questions. She was hanged.

When Genya Popov, a little boy from Maikop who disconnected the telephone wires of the German staff, was led to the shooting ground, he shouted at the top of his voice, "Long live the Soviet homeland!"

Musya Pinkinson, a lad from the Ust-Labinsk District of the Krasnodar Territory who had hoped to become a great violinist some day, was lined up together with his elderly father in front of a German firing squad. The boy had taken along his violin. Turning to the German officer, he said, "May I play just once before my death?" The fascist acquiesced, saying: "Let the world see how merciful the Germans are, we will indulge the little Jew before his death." . . . From the violin came the strains of the Soviet National Anthem. The crowd driven to the execution place by the Germans stood spellbound. Rage seized the Germans. A bullet whizzed



A lesson in natural history at a girl's school



LENINGRAD CHILDREN ON A COLLECTIVE FARM—Vova Koryagin's team waters the vegetable garden; (right), At lunch-time there is always a talk with Grandpa Alexei, who brings the milk and tells them about his three sons in the Red Army

through the air and the youthful violinist dropped dead in a pool of blood.

* * *

Field and forest flowers now cover the mounds beneath which lie the little heroes and heroines. Only their names remain—to live forever in the hearts of the people.

While not as conspicuous, home front activities were equally as patriotic. The amount of metal scrap collected by our little boys and girls was incredible—mountains of it. We all remember seeing the kids hauling wheelbarrows, stacked to the top with every imaginable piece of metal. In the same way, quantities of medicinal herbs for the Army hospitals were gathered.

Soviet children gave invaluable service to every wartime harvest. They collected ashes and other fertilizers, and helped with the sowing and harvesting. At school they chopped wood and did the odd jobs. They knitted mittens, stitched covers for water bottles, and were valuable assistants in workshops. In these four years Soviet youngsters learned what hard work is. They are proud of their calluses.

In every way possible they helped to win the war. The children on the Don steppes saved thousands of acres of grain from destructive tortoisés. The following letter was sent to a local paper by a group in the Saratov Region:

"We want to help the victory. We know that our country needs bread. That is why we are doing our best to rid the grain fields of marmots.

We set traps for them, fill their burrows with water. There are 40 of us and we have already destroyed 8,818 marmots."

Little Cossacks in the Rostov Region did their best to breed cavalry horses for the Red Army. "Yesterday for the last time we plaited the manes of our pets, Ogonek, Smely and Zvezdochka; we tied red ribbons on them and sent them to war," the kids wrote to the soldiers.

Our wounded men will remember the attention they received from the youths of all nationalities—little boys and girls who sat for hours at their bedside, cheering them with their bright smiles, with tender solicitude and gay songs. School-children brought samples of the first vegetables from their victory gardens to the hospitals. They darned patients' gowns and swept the courtyards.

Thousands of youngsters formed Timurovite squads to help servicemen's families. (Timur is the hero of a popular Soviet book for children). The kids minded babies, washed dishes, scrubbed floors, carried water, never failing in these tiring tasks.

Correspondence with the soldiers was a popular activity. The cheerful, bracing letters brought joy to the hearts of the men. The little writers also sent beautiful souvenirs and tokens with the most touching inscriptions.

They denied themselves humble amusements, movies, or new toys, in order to save up money for a contribution to the

Defense Fund. We all remember little Lena Azerenkova's letter to Stalin which came shortly after Ferapont Golovaty, a collective farmer, launched the famous defense drive. "I was saving money for a Christmas tree," the child wrote, "and have 110 rubles. Please accept this money to build a Stormovik for the Red Army."

Stalin answered the letter as he has scores of others. With the savings of Soviet youngsters, whole tank columns and squadrons of planes were bought.

Whatever they did for the war effort the children offered with a gallant spirit. Life was not easy. Yet we never heard them complain. They bore the hardships and privations of four trying years, all the time cheering and helping their mothers.

Perhaps the most difficult of all was study—because there were no schoolbooks or notebooks, the classrooms were cold and crowded, and family worries weighed on their young shoulders. Their hearts were ablaze. How to assist their parents to win the war was uppermost in their minds. Yet they actually studied harder than ever before. In half-tottering, unheated buildings they worked over their problems, and in bomb shelters wrote their spelling tests.

Today with the banner of victory over Berlin and the world rid of Nazism, children's young faces shine again and they sing and dance with joy. It is a well-earned joy. Together with all Soviet people they fought for their happiness, and won it.

The German Defeat in the Baltics

By Joseph Korotkov

In his speech in November, 1944, on the occasion of the 27th Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution, Marshal Stalin enumerated the ten blows which the Red Army dealt the enemy in 1944.

The eighth of these blows was struck in September and October in the Baltic region, and as a result of it, the Estonian Soviet Republic and a greater part of the Latvian Soviet Republic were liberated; Germany's ally, Finland, was put out of action and eventually declared war on Germany; and over 30 German divisions were cut off from Prussia and held between pincers in an area between Tukums and Libava.

In examining this operation, it must be noted that the area was forested and marshy, interspersed with a large number of lakes and rivers. The Germans had created numerous defense zones. The Peipus and Pskov lake systems and the cities of Narva, Ostrov, Idritsa, Pskov, Valga, Tartu and Polotsk and the other large inhabited places had been converted into centers of resistance which substantially strengthened their defenses in the Baltic region.

The intention of the Germans was to protect securely the northern flank of their strategical front on Soviet territory and to retain the important industrial regions and bases on the Baltic coast. But their plans were not fated to be realized; they were shattered by the Red Army's devastating blow.

The break-through of the German defenses at Vitebsk, brilliantly executed by the Soviet Third Byelorussian and First Baltic Armies in June, 1944, was a prelude to the Red Army offensive in the Baltic region. After capturing Vitebsk, General Bagramyan skilfully drove a wedge between the Germans' Central and Northwestern Army Groups and pushed on to Siauliai. The idea was to dismember these two enemy groups and rob them of the chance to maneuver.

The First Baltic Army accomplished its mission by capturing the towns of Ponevezhis, Siauliai and Mitau and reaching the Gulf of Riga, thus splitting the enemy's Baltic group.

This was followed by powerful attacks by the Soviet Second and Third Baltic Armies. Break-throughs were effected northwest and west of Novosokolniki and south of Ostrov. A few days later (this was only July, 1944) the Leningrad Army launched an offensive, and pierced the German defenses near Narva and seized that city.

As a consequence the German front wavered along the whole length of the Baltic eastern border and developed fissures which the Germans were unable to patch up despite their most desperate efforts.

A little later the Second Baltic Army made another penetration and captured the cities of Dvinsk and Rezekne. The results were of cardinal importance. The Germans were deprived of a major railroad hub, which considerably restricted their chances of maneuvering along internal lines, while Soviet Armies were now able to strike their next blow immediately at Riga.

About this time the Third Baltic Army stormed and captured Pskov, a powerful German stronghold in the south of Estonia. This was in July.

Toward the end of the month, one stage of the Soviet offensive was completed. August and the early half of September passed in fighting in the Riga area at Tartu, and in Lithuania at the approaches to East Prussia. The three Soviet Baltic Armies by a series of successive blows split up the German army groups and drove them from Soviet territory.

In order to ease the position of their troops cut off in the northern and central parts of the Baltic region, the Germans undertook counter-offensives on several sectors. They concentrated six infantry divisions and a large number of tanks near Bausk, and began to advance on Birziai. A second German group attacked on another sector, the idea being to cut off Soviet troops moving toward Mitau. These attempts, however, cost the Germans dearly, and finally ended in the encirclement of a large force of their troops between Tukums and Libava.

On the Riga sector the Soviet Second Baltic Army advanced along the right

bank of the Western Dvina and in the early half of August captured Krustipils and drove on toward Riga. The left-flank formations of the Third Baltic Army also drove in the same direction, mainly along the Pskov-Riga Railway. The action of this group was complex, for while pushing toward Riga, it had to strike at the same time toward Valga and Tartu in cooperation with the Leningrad Army. Fighting here at times assumed an intricate tactical character: while one section of Soviet troops was beating off desperate counter-attacks of the fresh German reserves brought into Estonia from Germany and Norway, the second was pursuing the routed enemy, the third captured numerous German strongpoints and the fourth was involved in bitter fighting.

The September 16th operation for the liberation of the Baltic Republics entered a new and decisive phase. General Bagramyan broke through the Germans' defenses southeast of Riga on a stretch of 120 kilometers, to a depth of 40 kilometers. This rendered conditions favorable for the capture of Riga. At the same time the Baltic Army pierced the Germans' Valga defense line and, having captured that city, pushed on toward Riga. Marshal Govorov broke through the enemy's defenses north of Tartu and west of Narva on sectors 125 kilometers apart. This blow was so well planned and so vigorously executed as to completely change the situation in Estonia. In two or three days Govorov's troops advanced 150 kilometers toward Tallinn, capital of Soviet Estonia, and very soon captured it.

A parallel offensive was launched in the direction of Hapsala and Parnu. The result was to deliver Estonia from the enemy in the course of only a few days. This was a bitter defeat for the Germans. It should be noted that the Soviet offensive in Estonia was conducted in close coordination with the vessels and Air Arm of the Soviet Baltic Fleet. These concentrated assaults from the ground, sea and air played a decisive role in the harassing of the enemy.

In the early part of October, two more blows were struck at the Germans in the

Baltic region, which determined the issue of operations. Govorov effected a skilful change of the front from Riga to the southwest and, supported by the Third Byelorussian Army, effected a breakthrough in the Memel area. The result was to completely cut off the German Baltic group from East Prussia.

Another attack was made near Riga. The Germans were very anxious to retain

this city and had built very solid defenses at its approaches. But they failed to hold out against the pounding of the various sectors, and Riga fell.

Simultaneously the fighting in the western part of Lithuania and Latvia entered its concluding phase. It was the heaviest on the Oesel and Dago Islands, but ended in complete victory for the Red Army.

The battle for the Baltic region was

conducted by four Soviet Armies whose actions were skilfully planned and coordinated.

As the outcome of this operation, the Soviet Republics of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania were delivered from the nightmare of fascist occupation, and have now resumed their peaceful constructive labors so rudely interrupted by the Germans' treacherous attack of June 22, 1941.

KATYUSHAS IN ACTION

By M. Tugan-Baranovsky

"No, No! Let us be modest," the commander said every time I brought up the subject—which was as often as I could. And though I spent several days with that Katyusha group, all the information I could get from the commander was that the "lady" packed a terrific punch and that perhaps after the war full details would be released.

The commander was Captain I. Ivanov, a tall, broad-shouldered young man of 22. Three years with Katyusha had influenced his character, his manner and his conversation. He was as orderly and methodical as a scientist. No talkative young man at best, on the subject of Katyusha he was almost mute.

I visited the unit headquarters, only a mile or so from the front. The trucks on which the tarpaulin-covered Katyushas were mounted stood in the yard of the mansion where Ivanov's men were stationed. The crews slept beside the trucks, and men were on duty all the time.

One night I was sitting with Ivanov and two of his staff officers over a late supper, discussing Alexei Tolstoy's latest novel, when the phone rang. There was an artillery dump that needed blowing up, and a German counter-attack to be repulsed. Would Katyusha kindly oblige? A few minutes later the truck engines began to hum. The dump in question was on top of a hill some distance west of the town. Within five minutes we were racing along the highway.

We took up our positions. In another two or three minutes silver meteorites pierced the darkness with a fearful scream. The Katyushas fired two volleys. A sea of flame leaped up far in the distance.

"Target's covered," said Ivanov. "It's about time we got back to our supper."

The following day I witnessed an interesting duel between Captain Ivanov's group and a German battery. The Katyushas fired only three volleys. After the first, they dashed off to the opposite end of

the village. All the German batteries and mortars opened fire at the first station, and were still shelling that point when the Katyushas opened up from the next place.

By the time the Germans started sending shells toward the second position, we were way beyond the village. It was like a game of cat and mouse.

Next morning we went over the positions the German batteries had held. Everything around the guns was scorched. The ammunition had been blown up, judging by the yawning craters. The gun crews were dead.

Pursuing the retreating Germans, our forces came to a mountain chain. A narrow pass had to be taken. The Germans had a strong defense at a hairpin turn.

A frontal attack was out of the question. The commander ordered his men to get the Katyushas up the steep slope and bombard the Germans from behind.

Captain Ivanov, unaccustomed to mountainous terrain, acted with extreme caution. With his topographer he climbed the surrounding crags to calculate the trajectory. The slightest blunder, and the deadly fire might strike our own soldiers.

At last the first volley was fired. An observer perched on one of the crags shouted an enthusiastic "Marvelous!" into the telephone. Two more volleys, and more than 500 Germans were wiped out. The road to the pass was opened.

This was the last Katyusha action I witnessed. I didn't get a close-up view of the weapon all the time I was with the group. The captain invariably warned me to keep at a safe distance when the Katyushas were in action, and this struck me as pretty good advice.



Guards mortars, "Katyushas," firing on German positions near Breslau

ACADEMICIAN A. E. FAVORSKY

By Professor B. M. Berkenheim

A. E. Favorsky, the greatest Soviet authority on organic chemistry, has been awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labor, which confers on him the Hammer and Sickle Medal and the Order of Lenin.

Favorsky is a modern representative of the famous school of the Kazan organic chemists, founded in the middle of the 19th Century at the University of Kazan. He is a disciple of Butlerov, known for his projection of the theory of the structure of the molecules of hydrocarbons and his conception of the peculiar "architecture" of chemical molecules. After the death of Butlerov, the traditions of Russian chemistry were carried on by Favorsky, who is today the greatest Soviet authority in organic chemistry.

The construction and development of Soviet industrial chemistry has been called the heavy industry of organic synthesis. Favorsky has led Soviet scientists in research to satisfy man's needs—producing motor fuel, fibers, rubber plastics, new building materials, medicines, dyes,



A. E. Favorsky

explosives and foods—by means of bold synthesis from the simplest and, therefore, the most easily obtainable raw materials—air, water, coal, petroleum, and natural and industrial gases.

The essential oils developed by Favorsky's school of chemists can be synthesized quite simply and are extremely use-

ful. The new nitrogen compounds obtained, the heterocyclic compounds—peracetin, cyperin, neoplasmin, lupicain—have proved valuable as medicines.

Favorsky's own investigations into the expansion and compression changes to which the molecules of hydrocarbon compounds are subjected, have received wide acclaim. He has made a profound study of isomerization, and has developed a method for obtaining some of the carbohydrates out of the simplest compounds; for example, he has obtained from acetylene a number of materials useful in technology and in medicine.

Two of his pupils are Professor S. V. Lebedev, who developed a method for manufacturing synthetic rubber on a large scale, and Nazarov, who originated the now famous carbinol glue, which holds metal, stone, glass and wood together more firmly than any other known substance. It has been used for the manufacture and repair of military equipment, and is now being extensively used in the rebuilding of cities.

An American Scientist in the USSR

Professor Irving Langmuir, of the General Electric Corporation, is one of the American scientists who attended the recent Jubilee Session of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. He made the following comments to the Soviet press:

During our plane trip from Teheran to Moscow, we had the opportunity to learn at first-hand of the vast resources of the Soviet Union. At Baku, where we felt the warmth of Russian hospitality and friendliness, we saw the great oilfields.

We flew over Stalingrad, but so high that we could not really see the devastation of that heroic city. For about 1,000 kilometers we passed over vast areas of cultivated land and were greatly impressed by the collective farms, their broad streets and individual family gardens. The large fields plowed by tractors demonstrated to

us the great agricultural resources of the country and the efficient utilization of all the land. In the forested areas we were glad to see there were no evidences of fires and that the sections that had been used for timber were quickly reforested and would again be available for use.

In Moscow I found much more automobile traffic than I had expected so soon after the war. People walk fast and seem to know where they are going; they give the impression of great activity and energy. They have a great love for music, art and literature, and I am glad to see that they recognize and appreciate their great background of history.

The military review on June 24 gave us a wonderful chance to witness the power which proved so decisive in the victory over Germany. The great display

of mechanized equipment proved the strength of Soviet industries. The same power devoted to peaceful development, without fear from the aggressor nations, should permit the rapid restoration of devastated areas and the raising of the standard of living of all the people.

Before the war our scientists received Soviet scientific journals regularly, and we eagerly read those appearing in English. Far too few Americans can read Russian and we were therefore compelled to rely on the short abstracts printed in English. The rapid and wholesome growth of Soviet science was realized and admired. I had met Frumkin, Frenkel, Kapitza, Joffe, Talmud and other Russian scientists in America, and valued their work greatly. During the war we were almost wholly cut off from Russian scientific activity.

The invitation to attend the 220th Anniversary of the founding of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR thus enabled me to become better acquainted with the progress of science in Russia.

In Moscow I visited many laboratories. In the Institute for Physical Problems, under the leadership of Doctor Kapitza, I saw important work on the development of improved methods for producing oxygen, which hold such great promise of revolutionizing the steel industry of the world. At the same time it is a good omen for the future that fundamental pioneering work is being carried out at low temperatures available by the improved methods of producing liquid helium.

The Colloido-electrochemical Institute, directed by Professor Frumkin, was particularly interesting to me, as the work being done there is closely related to my own. I found many men in the laboratory who knew more of my work than I myself could recall. And their work is original and developing rapidly along lines that are new to me. I was pleased to see that they are using the principles of surface chemistry to study electrochemical phenomena such as the passivity of metals.

Much fundamental work of an exceptionally high quality is being done in the Institute of Inorganic Chemistry under the leadership of Professor Semenov. The studies of the kinetics of the phenomena of combustion and explosives are laying a sound foundation for further scientific advances and for numerous important applications.

In Moscow I gave three lectures to extremely appreciative audiences: on the unforeseen results of research; on some phenomena of absorption; and on the growth of droplets in smoke and clouds.

After our plane trip from Stalingrad to Moscow, many of us wanted to see Soviet farms. We visited the Lesnaya Polyana State farm and the nearby Tarassovka collective farm. At the State farm we saw how well the latest scientific work is being applied to agriculture and to the dairy industry. We were especially interested in the organization of the farm. The chairman was a man of great ability

and enthusiasm who answered all our questions.

Our boat trip through the Moscow-Volga Canal revealed a great engineering project that provides a sound basis for rapid growth.

We appreciate the great hospitality and friendliness shown us by Russian scientists. We have profited greatly by our visit and we all hope that this marks the beginning of an era of growing and continuing cooperation.

The United States and the USSR are nations of pioneering peoples who have many common problems. Both countries will benefit by effective cooperation. Such cooperation, we believe, can best be fostered by: first, visits of Soviet scientists to the United States for conferences

and for visits to our laboratories and scientific institutions; and second, by the interchange of publications and the establishment of several new international scientific journals in specialized fields. Preliminary steps have already been taken for the publication of such journals in Russian, English and French.

I believe that the great majority of the people, both in the United States and the Soviet Union, deeply desire friendly and closer constructive relations.

Meetings such as those being held in commemoration of the Anniversary of the Academy of Sciences can do much to establish this growing friendship and spirit of mutual helpfulness. I am certain that everyone invited to this conference will do his best to further this aim.

ACHIEVEMENTS OF SOVIET AGRONOMY

The following comments are by Charles E. Kellogg, Professor of Soil Science, another member of the United States scientific delegation to the USSR:

One is immediately impressed with the size of the Soviet Union, with the great diversity of its resources, and the number and varied nationalities of the people. Although the war against the invaders interrupted the march toward improved living, the strength of the country—industrial, agricultural and social—make a great future seem certain.

For years American soil scientists have recognized the leadership of the Dokuchayev Institute in the development of the modern science of the soil. In addition, the accomplishments of Russian scientists in plant physiology, nutrition and genetics have been of the utmost importance. Our present visit has given us a greater insight into the practical use of these scientific principles in the improvement of agriculture through collectivization.

Much was gained by visits to the experimental stations at the Timiryazev Agricultural Academy and the Dolgoprudnaya Station, as well as to the Dokuchayev Institute. Not only are the results being obtained at these research institutes

of the greatest importance for increasing agricultural production and improving rural living in the Soviet Union, but they are also of great value to American farmers.

As soon as possible, a frequent exchange of professors and advanced students of agricultural science must be arranged between the United States and the Soviet Union. We need to learn each other's language so that we can read more widely the great volume of important works being produced. Furthermore, agriculture must be seen at first-hand to be understood. We need to travel together among the farms of both countries and see what new research is needed as well as how to apply the principles that have already been developed in both countries.

These things, and more, can be expected. Certainly a respect for talents and accomplishments is mutual between Russians and Americans, and there is a deep realization that the future peace of the world depends, most of all, on the effective cooperation between our two countries. The language of science is international. From common intellectual understandings in science, we can at will develop social and political understandings that will bring a new age of peace and opportunity to the world.

The Oldest Naval Hospital

By Z. Firsov

The First Leningrad Naval Hospital, holder of the Order of Lenin award and oldest hospital of the Russian Navy, was founded by Peter I in 1715.

Throughout its existence the hospital has played an important part in the history of the Baltic Fleet. Besides providing first-class treatment for the sick and wounded, it has had great influence on the entire Fleet medical service. Before joining their ships, young naval doctors practice for a time in the hospital, adding to their knowledge and becoming accustomed to independent work.

The history of the hospital has many glorious pages, but the most exciting are those written during the nearly three years' siege of Leningrad. On the night of September 12, 1941, the air raid warning was sounded. Doctors and nurses on duty carried all the wounded to the shelter. All were safe when a bomb struck and a terrific explosion shook the hospital to its very foundations. Glass was shattered and plaster brought down, and here and there tongues of flame appeared. The fire spread rapidly. The water main had been broken by bombs in several places and there was no running water. But by great effort of the hospital workers, who carried water in buckets from neighboring buildings, the fire was finally extinguished. The hospital was left without window panes and bomb fragments pitted the walls.

The enemy dug in under the walls of Leningrad. The distance between the front line and the hospital was reduced to five kilometers. Winter came; the fierce cold and hungry winter of the first year of war. The hospital was constantly under enemy artillery fire. Some of the wounded were transferred to branch hospitals established in surviving buildings in the city limits. The rations of the staff were reduced to a bare minimum. Street cars stopped running. In a 30-degree frost the doctors made their rounds on foot, visiting the branch hospitals, performing operations and recording the progress of the sick. Work did not cease for a day in the main building of the hospital. When the laundry was put out of operation, all women of the hospital staff without exception began

washing the linen. The water main froze and the women spent several hours daily bringing water from the Neva in buckets. When the city power stations no longer operated, when there was not enough kerosene or even candles, Nikolai Petrov and his assistants performed operations by the light of wicks stuck in bottles of oil or floating in saucers.

Despite hunger and cold, the doctors not only treated the wounded in accordance with the most modern methods, but even continued research work. During the first year of the siege, doctors on the hospital staff wrote 20 scientific papers. Surgeon Fedor Danovich read his thesis for the degree of Master of Science, and another young doctor, Boris Rabinovich, also obtained his degree.

At the beginning of 1943 the blockade was lifted by the heroic efforts of the Red Army and the sailors of the Baltic Fleet. With the noble efforts of the medical workers and the city's various public bodies, the results of the siege were soon overcome. The hospital wards were again heated and lighted; there was clean linen for the beds, and the patients were washed, shaved and supplied with good food.

The experience gained during the first years of the war enabled the doctors to achieve splendid results in the treatment of wounded. Junior Lieutenant Koptev was brought to the hospital with a crushed thigh bone and in a hopeless state of shock. In almost 50 percent of the shock cases, death intervenes. Surgeon Nikolai Petrov, however, had learned to combat shock, reducing the number of fatal cases to the minimum. He gave Koptev a transfusion of 200 grams of preserved blood and a half liter of anti-shock serum. Then he began a constant, slow injection of blood, drop by drop, which yielded excellent results. The wounded man soon recovered consciousness and asked for a smoke.

Koptev's case and many others of special interest were discussed at the traditional Thursday conference attended by all medical workers of the hospital. The surgeons agreed that blood transfusions should be made in cases of shock.

The first naval hospital had excellent results to show in healing and returning their patients to active service. In 1942 of every 1,000 patients, 841 returned to their units or vessels, 42 were transferred to the reserve, 29 died, and 88 were evacuated to other hospitals for further treatment. In 1943-44 treatment was even more effective: of every 1,000 men, 894 returned to active service, 27 were transferred to reserve, 70 sent to other hospitals for further treatment, and only nine died.

The Soviet Government highly praised the work of the staff of the Naval Hospital. Over 30 of the personnel, including Colonel Georgi Gontarev of the Red Army Medical Service, the officer commanding the hospital, were awarded orders. Several dozen persons were decorated with the Leningrad Defense Medal.

Most Popular Soviet Writer

During the past 27 years, the works of Maxim Gorky have been published in 66 languages of the Soviet Union. During this period 41,858,000 copies of his books were published, of which 36,585,000 were in Russian. *Mother* holds first place, published in 106 editions and 28 languages, totaling 1,747,100 copies. *Childhood* was reprinted 77 times; *In the World*, 54 times and *My Universities*, 63 times.

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The Demobilization Law— A Step Toward Peacetime Conditions

By Mikhail I. Kalinin

Chairman, Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR

From PRAVDA, July 6:

The news of the unconditional surrender of Germany was enthusiastically received by the Soviet people. They rejoiced not only because that surrender ended one of the hardest and most sanguinary wars which the peoples of our country ever had to wage, but also because of a pride that in the struggle was patently revealed the might of our State, the ability of a nation to conquer all difficulties. In the process of war the great scientific achievements of the Soviet savants and inventors found application in defense of the State, and the military valor of our Red Army, the skill of its leaders and their ability to fight and win, were vividly manifested.

Victory cost us dear. Today, even abroad, anyone who honestly appraises the events sees that the Soviet people and their Red Army bore the main brunt of the fighting against the Germans, against the mortal danger they represented to freedom and civilization. And this will not have been in vain; it will bear its fruit.

In connection with the victorious conclusion of the war and the transition of the Soviet Union to peace, new tasks are facing the peoples of our country: it is necessary in the quickest time, in an organized manner, and according to plan, to rehabilitate the economy and culture of the areas which were overrun by the Germans, to push this work with full speed and to improve the well-being and culture of our entire people.

The Soviet Union is entering a period of peaceful development with calm confidence. At its Twelfth Session, the Supreme Soviet of the USSR passed a law on the demobilization of the older-age



M. I. Kalinin

classes on active service. This is a concrete expression of the fact that the war is over and, on the other hand, it lays the first stone in the foundation of universal peace. The Soviet peace policy is being implemented by effective peacetime measures.

In this law the Supreme Soviet of the USSR expressed the boundless affection, appreciation and solicitude of a grateful Socialist country for its soldier sons. The law provides for the demobilization of 13 older-age classes and for maximum efficiency in the way it is carried out.

Chief of the General Staff of the Red Army Antonov quite correctly pointed

out that it was necessary to establish a definite sequence in the demobilization in order to carry it out in an organized manner. Demobilization is indeed one of the hardest and most complex problems facing the military command. The main point is that demobilization has to be so carried out as to preserve the efficiency of all Army units.

This law imposes great and serious obligations on all our Government bodies and institutions. They will have to work hard. Success will largely depend on the organization and discipline both of the demobilized themselves and of the institutions and organizations which are to take care of them.

All articles of the law, from the first to the last, speak of the solicitude of the State for the demobilized, a solicitude so amply deserved.

Article Three of the law, which provides for transportation of the demobilized to their homes at State expense, puts heavy demands on the railways, which must be prepared to enable the demobilized to get to their homes without delay. This task must be so carried out by the People's Commissariat of Communication as not to interfere with normal railway traffic.

The most difficult task is supplying the demobilized with food while en route, which according to Article Four of the law is also to be done at State expense. A great deal of work and organizational effort will naturally be required of the people charged with this duty. But considering our resources, we may firmly count on this job being performed fully in accordance with the law's demands.

Article Five of the law states that the

demobilized are to be supplied a complete outfit, and, according to Article Six, they are to receive considerable remuneration in cash. The latter will be particularly welcome since, being fully provided for during their journey, the demobilized can use this money to get started at home.

Exceptional economic and political importance is attached to Article Seven of the law. It provides each of the demobilized with an opportunity quickly to become integrated in the national process of peaceful, constructive labor. It makes it the duty of local authorities in the course of one month to provide employment for the demobilized, "taking into consideration their experience and specialties acquired in the Red Army, but not in positions lower than those they held before they joined the Army," which will naturally affect their wages correspondingly.

This Article is perhaps the only one of its kind in world legislation. Nor is this surprising, for its provision is possible only in a Socialist State.

The law charges the local authorities with the responsible task of supplying the demobilized with housing facilities and fuel. It seems to me that it is incumbent upon the local authorities to set out at once, without waiting for the arrival of the demobilized, to prepare for this

Marshal Stalin's Toast To the Ordinary People

Marshal Stalin made the following speech at a reception given by the Soviet Government on June 25 in the Kremlin for those who took part in the Victory Parade of the previous day:

Do not expect me to say anything extraordinary. I have a most simple and ordinary toast to propose.

I should like to drink the health of the people of whom few hold ranks and whose titles are not envied, people who are considered to be cogs in the wheels of the great State apparatus, but without whom all of us—marshals, front and army commanders—are, to put it crudely, not worth a tinker's damn. One of the cogs goes out of commission—and the whole thing is done for.

I propose a toast for simple, ordinary, modest people, for those cogs who keep our great State machine going in all the branches of science, national economy and military affairs. There are very many of them, their name is legion—they are tens of millions of people.

They are modest people. Nobody writes anything about them. They have no titles and few of them hold ranks. But they are the people who support us, as the base supports the summit.

I drink to the health of these people—our respected comrades.

job, which they will find far from easy.

It may be confidently assumed that both the local executive committees and the boards of the collective farms will take all measures to put into effect Article Eight of the law, which makes it their duty to help farmers demobilized from the Army to obtain work and settle down, particularly since the collective farms are

themselves in need of male labor.

The Government wants the demobilized returning to areas formerly occupied by the Germans to become established as quickly as possible. That is why Articles Nine and Ten of the law order local authorities to allot timber tracts to the demobilized free of charge to enable them to obtain building material, and also to extend loans to them for housing construction. It is obvious that local authorities will have to make considerable efforts to put these terms of the law into effect.

The law on the demobilization of older-age classes on active service not only makes direct provisions for various benefits to the demobilized, but also indicates that it is the duty of the local authorities and collective farm boards to do everything in their power to help the demobilized settle in their homes and become integrated in the peacetime community. I have no doubt that the fighting comrades returning from the Army, fresh from the harsh school of war and its labors, will be an important factor in the further progress of our industry and agriculture.



The Twelfth Session of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR—Uzbekistan women deputies sitting in the front row

THE TATAR AUTONOMOUS REPUBLIC

Twenty-five years is not much in the life of a nation. But the fortunes of the Tatar people changed more in the past quarter of a century than in all their previous history.

The Tatars recently celebrated the 25th anniversary of their autonomy. It was in 1920 that Stalin said: "Soviet Russia is performing an experiment without parallel anywhere in the world, in organizing the coexistence of a number of nations and tribes within a single proletarian state on the basis of mutual confidence and voluntary and fraternal good will."

The Tatar Republic is a splendid example of the fulfillment of this experiment.

The pre-Revolutionary Tatars were a capable and industrious people, but they had no opportunities to apply their abilities. Industry was limited to a single chemical plant and a few small factories. Agriculture was the main occupation. A report from the archives of Kazan, bearing the seal of the Land Board for peasant affairs, reads: "Peasant tax arrears are so great that were all the cattle, cottages and household possessions sold, they would not cover one-half their debts."

Official statistics of the time state that one out of every four peasant families owned no land, one in three had no horse. The overwhelming majority of the remaining peasants subsisted on what they could raise on their tiny strips of land, tilled with a wooden plow.

The tsarist government pursued its typical colonial policy toward the Tatars. A confidential report to a tsarist official in charge of the area at the time had the following to say about the population: "The experience of all time has shown that it is easier to govern an ignorant people than one which is enlightened to the smallest degree." Guided by this rule, the local authorities did all they could to suppress the people. Only 16 per cent of the population could read and write; only the children of the officials and local bourgeoisie attended school.

There was a university in Kazan, but throughout the 113 years of its existence under tsarism, the grand total of six Tatars were educated there.

This is the point from which the Tatar people set out on the road to economic and cultural development 25 years ago.

The "experiment without parallel anywhere in the world" was accompanied by an unprecedented transformation in this little country, as in dozens of other National Republics and Regions that were created after the Soviet Revolution.

For a first step the Tatar peasants received 700,000 hectares of land that had formerly belonged to the big landowners. Ten years later, when factories of the Urals, the Ukraine and Byelorussia were manufacturing enough modern agricultural implements to supply them, 400,000 small farmsteads pooled resources to form 4,000 collective farms. Before the war, thousands of tractors and combines worked in the collective farm fields of Tataria, and the farmers extended the cultivated area one and a half times.

The Tatars drew up their own constitution, elected their own parliament and set up their own government.

In the meantime, changes were taking place in the other provinces of the Republic. From Russia came geologists, who discovered that the soil of Tataria contained oil and coal, iron ore, gypsum and other minerals. Building machinery arrived, laboratory equipment, machine tools and printing presses. The engineers, scientists and pedagogues came along.

The Soviet Government has invested large sums of money in the economy of the Tatar Republic, for the maximum economic and cultural development of all the nationalities is the direct aim of the Soviet Union and one of the cornerstones of its might.

At last the Tatar people have the opportunity to display their abilities. During the first Five-Year Plan, 1929 to 1932, the Tatar Autonomous Republic became the center of light industry. Within the next Five-Year period there were hundreds of factories and power stations. When war broke out, Tataria was a flourishing industrial and agrarian republic.

Before the war there were about 4,000 schools. Ten thousand teachers were Ta-

tars and there were more than 1,000 Tatar students in the universities. The Republic had 22 scientific research institutions. Among the professors, scientists and authors there were a number of women. The Tatar State Academic Theater, the Opera and Ballet were centers of the cultural life.

Situated thousands of kilometers from the front, Tataria became an arsenal, supplying the Army with fighting equipment, ammunition and food. Production in industry doubled during the war, and the agricultural output substantially increased.

Courage and dignity are two qualities that characterize the Tatars. Their ancestors often rose against the tsarist authorities and the oppressive landowners, but when Russia was threatened by an external enemy, they fought shoulder to shoulder with the Russians to defend their common homeland. As far back as 400 years ago, during the Livonian War, the Germans spoke with horror of the Tatar *jigiti* (horsemen), who galloped into Narva on their swift-footed horses, their spears flashing.

During the Patriotic War with Germany, many Tatar fighting men distinguished themselves. The names of Tatar generals were mentioned time and again in Orders of the Day issued by the Supreme Commander-in-Chief. Decorations were awarded to 68,000 Tatars for bravery and valor. The title of Hero of the Soviet Union was conferred upon more than 150.

Today Tataria returns to peaceful labors. Among other large projects are the construction of a hydroelectric station and the drilling of new wells in the oil areas.

Three-fourths of the budget this year has been allocated for social and cultural needs. This means new houses, new schools, hospitals and sanatoriums. A Tatar branch of the Academy of Sciences and a Conservatory of Music will be opened during the current year.

Everything in present-day Tataria — kindergarten, farm machinery works or college — is the result of the efforts of the people. And the Tatars take just pride in their Republic's achievements.

LENINGRAD TODAY

By Alexei Raspevin



On January 27, 1944, to mark the lifting of the Leningrad blockade, 24 salvos were fired from 324 guns. In the foreground is a monument to Field Marshal Suvorov

The world was filled with amazement and admiration at the heroism of Leningrad's inhabitants during the 29 grim months of the blockade. "They are made of iron," is what people said.

Only men and women of exceptional willpower could have endured the trials which fell to these people—the endless bombings and shellings, the hunger and cold.

It seemed that the deep scars inflicted by the enemy would take long years to heal. But Leningraders are accustomed to performing miracles. Equally as determined as they were in the days of the blockade, today the people are striving

to bring their city quickly back to normal.

No more than a year and a half has passed since the enemy was routed, but a great deal has been accomplished toward the rehabilitation of the city. The Kirov and Izhorsk works and the Electrosila plant, which are among the largest plants in the country, have been put into working order. In one year nearly a million square meters of factory space have been restored in Leningrad. Most of the open-hearth furnaces are already working.

Heavy machinery, powerful turbines, turbogenerators and blast engines are again being shipped from Leningrad to other parts of the country. The city has

resumed production of equipment for the textile and printing industries. Many a need of the country at large is being filled in the Leningrad factories.

A great drive is on to replace the homes of the victims of Nazi bombs. In the year and five months that have elapsed since the siege was broken, over a million square meters of space have been restored; tens of thousands of Leningraders returned from evacuation have found newly repaired apartments awaiting them.

An effort was made to operate the public utilities without delay. The public baths and laundries are functioning as usual. Trolley cars and buses are all running on schedule. A half-million square meters of road have been repaired. Many streets are as well lighted as before the war. And the city has begun to assume a cared-for appearance, with trees and shrubs newly planted along the walks.

In public education and health services, the Leningraders have accomplished a great deal. Two hundred and one schools, with an attendance of 120,000 pupils, have been restored by the city building organization and civilian voluntary labor. At present, 25 higher schools, 28 technical and 69 continuation schools function in the city. All the museums have been reopened.

Among the structures completely destroyed by the enemy was the famous Pulkovo Observatory. Its stately white masonry covered with vines, its tall tower and largest telescope, the library containing the classified records of every known



Radiophotos

Leningrad children joyfully greet their famous city as they return; (Right), Electrician A. Zyabkin and his wife welcome their daughter. The inscription on the train reads: "Thanks to the Ivanovo residents for their care of us Leningrad children"



Restoration of the bronze sculptural groups by the celebrated 19th Century sculptor Peter Klodt, which were dismantled and safely buried during the siege: (Left), "Youth Pacifying a Horse" is just being dug up; (Top right), Replacing one of the four figures; (Lower right), Back in their customary places at the Anichkov Bridge in Leningrad



Radiophotos

star and planet—all were reduced to ruins. Of the beautiful park only charred tree stumps remained.

By a recent decision of the Leningrad City Soviet, a 375-acre plot of land has been allocated for the reconstruction of the Observatory and for laying out a new park. Measures have already been taken by the Government to launch the building of the Observatory itself.

The citizens of Leningrad, after their working day, contribute several hours of voluntary labor to the city's reconstruction. Each Leningrader proudly carries a notebook record of the hours he spends in rebuilding the city. In all, volunteer work on reconstruction jobs has amounted to 32 million man hours.

To render as effective aid as possible to their city, 80,000 people took special training during the winter in carpentry, roofing, plumbing, bricklaying and other building trades.

The great concern of the Soviet Government for the complete recovery of Nazi-battered Leningrad is evident in the appropriation for the municipal budget—863 million rubles—which will permit Leningrad to return to normal life once more.

Leningrad Welcomes Foreign Scientists

The Jubilee Session of the Academy of Sciences adjourned at the end of June from Moscow to Leningrad. It was here, on the banks of the Neva, that the Academy was born in 1725.

Among the points of interest visited by the guests was an exhibition on the Academy's history; they saw Lomonosov's striking mosaic picture, *The Battle of Poltava*; Peter I's statement: "Let science flourish more richly"; the ancient document entitled "Decision to Elect Voltaire an Honorary Member of the Academy, 1746"; and manuscripts of the scientific works of Sechenov, Pavlov, Bertold and others who brought glory to Russian science. There are also maps and drawings of Bering's expedition, unique books and engravings, and examples of the contribution of modern science to the Patriotic War.

The scientists went through the Vladimir Komarov Botanical Institute, one of the largest of its kind in the world. In 1941 there were 166,000 plants here; a

year later, as the result of German devastation, less than 5,000 remained.

Another group of scientists visited the Academy Library, containing six million books in all the languages of the world; the Physiological Institute, where Ivan Pavlov worked until his death; the Institute of Ethnography, successor to Peter I's Chamber of Curiosities.

The exhibit entitled "The Heroic Defense of Leningrad" was particularly impressive. On electrified maps are depicted the grim days of the blockade, the fascist ring closing tighter around the city, the Leningraders defending themselves, and finally the defeat of the enemy. Large numbers of smashed heavy guns which shelled Leningrad and other trophies are displayed. "What struck me was that the whole population participated in the defense of the city," said Professor Edwin Smith of the United States. "And the remarkable thing is that the exhibit was created when the fight against the enemy was still going on."

Activities of Red Army Men in Berlin

By Alexander Karpov

No pampering, no fraternization, no brutality—this sums up the attitude of the Red Army garrison in Berlin toward the civilian population. For the most part the men are quartered in the outskirts of the city in wooden huts which the Germans built for their foreign laborers.

A peacetime barracks regime is observed, and early risers in the suburbs gaze with interest at the companies performing their morning exercises, lining up for arms inspection, etc. Breakfast is followed by gymnastics on the sports grounds which the men have fitted up, and by turns at the shooting range. The evening hours are devoted to inter-regimental and divisional sports contests, with various units contending for honors in football, volleyball, swimming and other athletics.

But the highlights of the daily routine are excursions to the center of the city, with the men from the political department relating the history and significance of the shell-pocked Brandenburg Gate, the various war memorials, the Reichstag and other famous landmarks.

Of all the points of interest, the Reichstag building is by far the most popular. In organized groups, thousands of Red Army men and girls—all wearing smart uniforms, their Guards badges and Stalingrad Medals glistening in the sunlight—visit the skeleton of the former Parliament House. The visitors follow a program similar to that of excursion groups at Soviet rest homes on the Volga, in the Caucasus and the Crimea. At the approaches to the building the group leader gives a brief outline of its history, including the architectural details, bringing in the Reichstag fire flames which lighted Hitler's path to power, and ending with the details of the bitter battle for the possession of the building.

Then there is the inevitable clicking of cameras. The soldiers arrange themselves on the granite stairway at the main entrance, give their tunics a tug, see that belts are in order, and pose for the photographer against the background of the blackened columns. Afterward there is a tour of the interior; the group enters

through the gaping holes that must serve as doors.

The identity of the first Red Army man to inscribe his name on the inner walls is now lost. Whoever he is, he started a craze which has transformed the walls of the Reichstag into a voluminous visitors' book containing thousands upon thousands of entries. The accepted writing materials are charcoal from the blackened rafters and chalk from the shattered ornamental statuary.

Red Army man Surkov—from Vladivostok, over 8,000 miles away—noted simply: "I fought here on May 1, 1945." Vassili Smirnov of Stalingrad wrote: "I started out from the Volga on November 19, 1942; reached the Spree on April 30, 1945."

Amid the sea of Russian names, the names of half a dozen well-known Anglo-American correspondents stand out, on the pillar immediately to the right of the main entrance.

Unlike the Germans who, when lordling it over the occupied Russian cities, announced that the trolley cars and buses were "for Germans only," the Soviet Military Command inflicts no such indignities on the German civilians. Soldiers and civilians use the same transport facilities, and the Red Army man takes his place in the queues for cars or buses without seeking any priority.

In many instances, Red Army officers are billeted in suburban private villas whose owners fled at the time of the Russian advance. In these houses the libraries are perfectly intact. But you won't find *Mein Kampf*, the *Horst Wessel* or any Nazi literature; all Nazi books are turned in to the local military commandants.

The furniture and household utensils remain as their owners left them. In the villa gardens where the rhubarb, the currant and gooseberry bushes, cherry and apple trees all promise a good fruit, there are neatly typed notices in Russian, warning the men against pilfering.

All over Berlin, on specially erected billboards, excerpts from Stalin's speeches are printed in large red lettering.

Among the famous Stalin sayings are: "Hitlers come and go, but the German people remain." "The Red Army does not have and cannot have such an idiotic aim as the extermination of the German people, but we shall crush fascism."

On these boards there are also appeals to the Red Army men to be worthy representatives of their great country while serving in a foreign land.

And the German people pay warm tribute to the behavior of the Soviet troops whose undeviating motto is *No pampering, no fraternization, no brutality.*

* * *

The following account of Berlin today is by Boris Belogorsky:

Berlin has been occupied for six weeks. What is it like today?

I spent two weeks in Berlin, driving around and speaking with scores of Germans—representatives of varied classes and professions. I visited houses and apartments in the suburbs, all quite intact, and the cellars of ruined houses in the section now inhabited by the Germans. Before the war I had been to Berlin several times; this was an opportunity to revisit the familiar places and make comparisons.

Greater Berlin occupies an area of 225,000 acres, but the city itself covers 75,000 acres. This is the city which no longer exists. The fire of Russian artillery, the volleys of the Katyushas and the systematic bombing by the British and American Air Forces shattered the citadel of Nazism. In the center of Berlin not a single dwelling survived.

It is night, and my car is speeding through the city—turning down one street after another. On either side lie ruins—five and six-story-high piles of brick, rubble and timber. In the moonlight they loom like phantoms. The streets are deserted. A strict regime of occupation prohibits the appearance of Germans on the streets after 10 P. M. Only Soviet officers and men may remain on the streets after curfew. From time to time there is the

Soviet Trains on German Railways

tramp of boots on the asphalt as the Red Army patrols march in twos down the wide empty pavements, where the final scene in the struggle against Nazism was enacted.

Our car drives down the Frankfurterallee under the arch of Soviet, British and American flags, raised when Von Keitel signed the instrument of unconditional surrender. It has been observed that, without any express orders to that effect, the Germans avoid driving or even walking under this arch—symbol of the victory of the United Nations and the shame of Hitlerite Germany. I asked an old German employee in the District Magistrate's office the reason for this and she replied, "Of course, no one forbade me to walk under this arch. And if I did so I am sure no one would reproach me. But I myself feel that such an action would be tactless. I am ashamed of my country and of the crimes of my countrymen. Germany must travel a long and difficult road before she is again accepted into the brotherhood of nations. . . ."

We turn down Unter den Linden. Nearly every building on it is familiar to me. The street-lamps light up the streets, where great trees lie prone, as though felled by some terrible hurricane. Not even the skeletons of buildings stand on Unter den Linden; it is an endless row of shapeless ruins. A huge water-filled crater is all that is left of the Prussian Academy of Arts as the result of a direct hit by a four-ton bomb. The columns of the Opera House raise their lonely heads to the sky, missed by the wrath of the storm.

A girl traffic-regulator with a rifle over her shoulder stands at the Brandenburg Gate. A wave of the flag and we pass on. . . .

The Siegesallee—where are its clumsy monuments, notorious for their lack of taste? Where once they stood are yawning pits and the white powder of rotting wood.

It is out of this chaos that order must emerge. That it is underway is evident from the people you see on the streets in the daytime—going to work, waiting in queues for rations, and meeting friends openly.

A few days after the Soviet troops entered Berlin, trains from the Soviet Union bringing goods for the Red Army began to pull into Berlin railway junctions. Soviet engineers are now driving their trains over the railways of Germany.

When the troops of Marshals Zhukov and Konev surrounded Berlin and began to push toward the center, railway battalions advanced with the spearheads, so that not a second should be lost in restoring the junction.

While the battle was still raging, a plane circled over the marshalling yards. In it was Captain Berkovsky of the railway troops, who made detailed notes of the condition of the lines. As soon as the fighting had stopped, his men went in.

Railway transport was an exceptionally important factor at all stages of the war: in the concluding stages, it was of crucial significance. The Germans hoped that our enormously lengthened lines of communication, and the measures they took to destroy the tracks, would stem our ad-

vance. They were absolutely certain, when they retreated beyond the Oder, that transport difficulties would tie the Red Army down for a long time.

They were disappointed. While Marshal Zhukov's troops were preparing for the final storming of the fascist lair, and enormous forces of men and material were being secretly concentrated, the Soviet railwaymen wrought miracles repairing the lines right up to the Oder, and displaying astonishing mobility.

Day and night hundreds of trains traveled steadily forward from the Soviet rear toward the regions where the decisive battles were raging. In order to insure a road for the moving avalanche of war material, the railwaymen had to restore thousands of miles of line at sensational speed, in many instances using rails and ties found on the spot.

The engine-drivers have lost no time in getting used to the new conditions on the West-European lines, and are making excellent time.

THE FIRST TRAIN FROM MOSCOW TO BERLIN — Hero of the Soviet Union Sergeant Major Myakishin returning to his unit after participating in the Victory Parade in Moscow



The platform where the first Moscow - Berlin train left, June 25



Radiophotos

Leo Tolstoy's Views on Teaching

By Nina Ryazantseva

As Vladimir Potemkin, People's Commissar of Education of the Russian SFSR, observed recently, it is possible to trace the creative and original character of the Russian teaching art back to its very infancy. Speaking at last year's All-Russian Conference on Public Education, Potemkin said:

"Its basic features are humanism, democracy, an ardent faith in the creative power of science, and education in sound patriotism and the national spirit. It makes a careful approach to the child, striving to foster in him the finest traits inherent in our people: industry, modesty, selfless devotion to country, love of freedom."

That is the splendid heritage of classical Russian pedagogy. In the history of this science, as studied at the recently founded Soviet Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, the foremost place is accorded to the great Russian writer and thinker, Leo Tolstoy. A special committee has been formed to study his work as a teacher. The chairman is Professor Nikolai Gussev, once Tolstoy's personal secretary.

The committee is selecting for publication articles, letters, aphorisms and fragments from novels, unpublished works and diaries—in short, every valuable comment on educational matters contained in Tolstoy's works. This material will make up one volume. A companion volume will provide a clear, complete exposition of Tolstoy's pedagogy.

Reminiscences of his pupils and the teachers who worked in his schools will also be published, along with a bibliography of articles on Tolstoy's pedagogical theories, and translations of the best foreign works on the subject.

• • •

When I called on Professor Gussev at the Tolstoy Museum, he underlined Tolstoy's hatred of German pedagogy, and quoted a letter to Prince Lvov, dated 1876: "I have fought German pedagogies precisely because I have devoted most of my life to this work, because I know the way the people think, and how the child of the people thinks, and I know how to

talk to him. This knowledge has not fallen from heaven. Through love and labor I have acquired it."

"From the very first day I began to help Leo Nikolayevich in his work until the last, I tried to make notes of all the more significant things he said, and the actions and opinions of this great man," Professor Gussev told me. "The children, the school, occupied a special place in his life. He devoted all his powers and his time wholeheartedly to 'these best, most honest and inoffensive creatures in the world,' as he called the children. As he told one of his biographers, the brightest period in his life was made bright by his love for people, for children, and not by woman's love. It was a wonderful time, he used to say.

"He began teaching peasant children in 1849, and saw in the work of teaching them 'something at least of what we know,' a task that was laid not only upon him, but also upon the whole of educated society.

"About forty pupils attended Tolstoy's free school at Yasnaya Polyana. It was an entirely new thing for that time, and at first the local people were not only bewildered but dissatisfied with a school where instruction was given without thrashings, but through fairy stories, and not by the A.B.C. Thanks to his wonderfully unselfish devotion to the cause of public education, he won full recognition for his new pedagogical method, and general love and confidence. The peasants for 30 and 50 miles around began to bring their children to him.

"In his school he introduced many new subjects, the necessity for which was dictated by his own teaching experience. He tried dozens of methods, endeavoring to make the teaching of science living and attractive, and to evoke the children's natural desire for knowledge.

"The old-fashioned method of forcing lessons on children was repellent to him. 'Education should be free. Force and punishment in upbringing are impermissible,' he used to say. He regarded primary education and the child's first teacher as most

important influences throughout life. He held that only the person who combined love for his work with love for his pupils could be the perfect teacher.

"Then, how important, educationally, were his popular readers and his alphabets! How attractively he adapted his own novels, fables, fairy tales and stories to lessons in botany, zoology, chemistry, physics, history, geography and even arithmetic. All these, he 'winnowed,' to use his own expression, with scrupulous care, re-writing each about 10 times before he was satisfied.

"His pedagogical method was of the utmost importance for the enlightenment of the Russian people.

"Tolstoy's remarkable readers and alphabets, and copies of the educational magazine he published will soon be on display at the Academy, where we are planning to hold an exhibition illustrating every phase of Tolstoy's work as a teacher. A similar exhibition on a smaller scale has already been arranged in the Tolstoy Museum at Yasnaya Polyana.

"Leo Tolstoy is dear to us, and valued by us, not only as a creator of fine literature, but also as a rare master of the pedagogical art, and we are doing all we can to make available the splendid heritage he left us."

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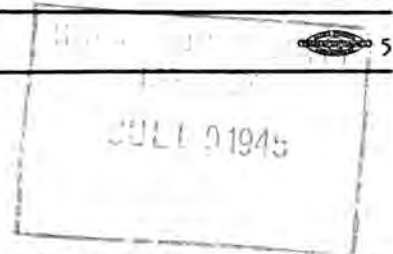
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SUNNY GEORGIA

By Boris Sergeyev

"Sunny Georgia" they call this prosperous region—and rightly. The climate is golden and the natural wealth is plentiful and varied.

From the Black Sea coast of western Georgia to the mountain areas, an abundance of crops is found. In the Alazan Valley of Kakhetia, grapes are cultivated; the best champagne varieties come from vines on the heights of the Suram Pass. There are the fine grades of tobacco along the coast; the high-yield wheat of the lowlands; the fruit raising in the districts of Kartalinia; the pasture lands of the mountains.

Fruit growing is a profitable industry; here is a steady market for the grapes, lemons, tangerines, oranges and other subtropic fruits, as well as for the apples, pears, peaches, cherries, pomegranates and quinces which grow in profusion. A highly developed canning industry has an annual output of many millions of cans of processed fruits. The best known are the Gori peaches, famous for their natural flavor.

In the Colchis "lowlands," which stretch for 200 kilometers along the Black Sea coast, an engineering project vital to the further extension of agriculture is well underway. For centuries this area of 550,000 acres had been flooded by mountain waters, heavy rains and the overflow of the River Rioni, and had become a malarial swampland, where no cultivation of the fertile soil was possible.

Several years ago the Soviet people undertook to convert this malaria-infested area into a field for subtropical cultures. Draining the immense territory was a tremendous task—levees 280 kilometers long were built to protect the

villages and plantations from the river floods, and over 1,200 kilometers of canals were dug to allow the escape of the accumulated rainfall. New plantations have been started on thousands of hectares already emptied, and the Colchis bog will become a vast subtropical garden.

Dotting the Caucasian Mountains to the north of Tbilisi—capital of Georgia—are the villages of the mountain tribes of the Pshavs, Khevsurs, Svans and Ossetians. This region could be reached a few years ago only through narrow mountain passes open in brief seasonal periods.

The frequent raids of the outlanders in the Middle Ages drove part of the inhabitants of the Caucasian valleys into the mountains, where life was rugged but safe.

The fugitives settled on mountain plateaus near small streams. Remote from the valley, the people lived on what they themselves produced, by raising cattle and tilling small plots of land. Their mode of life was quite primitive. Even now many wear the colorful national costumes and retain the medieval shields and swords.

The village of Khevsuretiya is located on the southern and northern slopes of the Caucasian chain of mountains; Tushetiya is east of Khevsuretiya, near the border of Daghestan and Pshavia—by the River Pshavskaya Aragva on the southern slope of the main ridge. West of Pshavia is Svanetia, the country of the Svans—people closely related to the Georgians but having their own language.

Some of the Ossetians migrated from



Participants at a festival in the Park of Culture and Rest in Tbilisi, capital of Soviet Georgia, clap hands gaily in time to a folk dance



Picking tea leaves (left) was a wartime holiday for the schoolchildren at the Tsalukidze State plantation at Kutaisi; (right), The tangerine orchard of the Ilyin State farm, a reclaimed swampland, where every variety of subtropic fruit now grows.



the northern Caucasus to the southern side of the ridge. Their country is now called South Ossetia and is an autonomous region of the Georgian Republic.

In these regions wheat growing is possible only on the lower mountain slopes. The villages high up in the mountains are chiefly occupied with livestock breeding.

The soil is tilled with ancient implements, but the work is thorough. With fertile soil scarce, every inch is utilized. A hectare of land is worth several dozen cows (wealth is measured by head of cattle).

Most of the mountain villages have contact with the outside world only during the three or four summer months.

The rest of the time the narrow mountain trails, blocked with snow, are impassable. In some places the pathways are exceptionally narrow and can be traversed only on mountain ponies or mules. Horses and mules carry all the cargo.

Until very recently these people lived in "saklias," houses cut in the cliffs. The walls were made of boulders piled together without mortar, and the wind blew through the slits. There were neither chimneys nor window panes. It was no more than 10 or 12 years ago that the Khevsurs and the Svans first saw soap and began to use it.

Now the villages have houses, hospitals, schools and clubs. Roads are un-



Above left, on the Lenin collective farm the vines are burdened with grapes; (below), Tobacco leaves are scientifically dried at the Abkhazian State farm; (right), Sheep are pastured in the mountainous region near Bakuriani

er construction. Many of the Khevsurs and Pshavs have moved to fertile valleys where they were given land.

There is not only agricultural wealth in the Georgian gardenland but also vast mineral resources. The rivers yield gold, and the depths of the earth contain valuable ores.

Beyond the Suram mountain pass in western Georgia, there is the Sharopani cation where a curious river flows; its two streams flow alongside each other, without mingling—one clear, the other dark. They are the Kvirilla and the Dzirula. The Kvirilla carries particles of dust which blacken the water. Above there is the village of Chiatura; the nearer you approach it, the darker the stream becomes. Flanking the river is a gorge whose ore contains precious manganese, which constitutes the main wealth of the country. Chiatura has one-third of the world's supply of this rare metal, valuable as a steel alloy.

The inhabitants of Chiatura estimate the output of the ore by the color of the river. The blacker the water, the more manganese has been washed that day. There were times when the water was almost crystal clear—that was during the violent battles in the Caucasus, when the Nazi hordes were pushing hard to seize the mines. Only one mine functioned then, and scarcely any transport was available. The ore was detoured across the Caspian Sea to the steel mills of Siberia and the Urals. This was roundabout, but the only possible way, for



On the eve of the elections to the Supreme Soviet, celebrated as a national holiday, Georgians engage in sports and games. A javelin-throwing competition awaits the signal

fierce fighting raged at the foothills of the Caucasus.

In those days the German newspapers very elaborately described the beautiful countryside and riches of Georgia. One article was devoted to Chiatura.

"This ore," wrote a Nazi paper, "will enrich many German soldiers and officers now carrying on the battle in the Caucasian Mountains. At Chiatura there are great possibilities for German initiative and enterprise."

The Nazis counted Chiatura already in their pocket—but they miscalculated.

By the middle of 1943, the mines began returning to life. Since then much has been done to bring production back to normal. The largest consumers of Chiatura manganese are Magnitogorsk and Kuznetsk and the rehabilitated steel mills of the South.

Georgia is a country of swift, turbulent rivers with vast reserves of electric power. But before the Revolution, there was not



The Gulprish tuberculosis sanatorium (left) is in Abkhazia, near Sukhumi, where the climate is considered particularly beneficial; (right), The Tbilisi State Opera House retains the native ornamentation of early Georgian architecture



The monument in Tbilisi to the great Georgian poet, Shota Rustaveli

a single significant hydroelectric station in the area. The power of the rivers was barely utilized.

Soon after the Revolution, the Zemoavchalsk station was built on the Kura River, near Tbilisi, which now supplies electricity to the city and factories of Tbilisi and to more distant villages; it also provides energy for the Tbilisi-Batumi electric railway running across Suram Pass. Another large station was built on the River Rioni, near Kutaisi. In Adjara and Abkhazia or wherever electricity is needed, power stations have either already been built, or are in the process of construction.

The program of electrification of the Republic has meant a steady expansion of the mining industry. Both the excavation of minerals and their refinement have been mechanized.

The mineral wealth of Georgia is not confined to manganese. In the wild, uninhabited mountains near Sukhumi—capital of Abkhazia—heavy deposits of fine-quality coal have been located. The Tkvarcheli deposits were found some time ago, but were not exploited until recently. Before Soviet power, no attempt was made to overcome the difficulties related to the extraction of coal, chief of which

was the absence of convenient roads. A chain of ridges, impassable gorges and hills block the path to the sea and nearby routes, but a way has already been discovered and the exploitation of deposits has begun.

In another coal basin located at Tkvbuli, near the town of Kutaisi, high percentages of volatile substances have been extracted. It is apparent that the resources of the Georgian soil are unlimited. Molybdenum for the production of special steels, arsenic, tungsten and other rare metals, are some of the valuable products unearthed. Even oil is found in Georgia, near Tbilisi and on the Black Sea coast.

Most of the new raw materials produced in Georgia are used for manufactures within the Republic itself. Silk-weaving mills, wine distilleries, canning plants and tobacco and tea enterprises have been built in a number of towns.

Kutaisi is now an important industrial center, having the second largest paint factory in the USSR and a huge silk-weaving mill, which during the war converted to the production of parachutes and rigging materials. A new textile mill is nearing completion.

During the years of Soviet power, over 200 enterprises have been built in Georgia, and today it is one of the most advanced Republics of the Soviet Union.



Preparing for examinations at the Agricultural Technicum of Tskhakaya

Below, 148-year-old Tlabgan Ketsbaya (center) with his friends, 118-year-old Zurab Sharaya (left) and 90-year-old Kelish Marshava. They are citizens of Abkhazia, known as the "land of longevity." Many inhabitants live to the age of 100 years; Tlabgan Ketsbaya, founder of the town of Gali, died at the age of 148.



The United Nations Charter

With the victorious conclusion of the Patriotic War, the wartime publication of the All-Union Council of Soviet Trade Unions, WAR AND THE WORKING CLASS, changed its name to NEW TIMES. The following editorial appeared on July 1 in Issue No. 3:

The San Francisco Conference of the United Nations is over. On June 25 and 26 the delegates of 50 countries signed, on behalf of their governments, the Charter of the international organization for the maintenance of the general peace and security, now called the United Nations.

For two months the public in all the democratic countries watched the proceedings of the San Francisco Conference with the closest attention. The lofty task confronting that conference of creating an effective international organization to maintain peace and security, was a matter of vital interest to the peoples. There can be no doubt that the delegations working in San Francisco were fully conscious of their responsibility to the peoples, who had gone through unprecedented trials and had made an enormous sacrifice during the Second World War. This was one of the main factors facilitating the success of the conference. Today the Charter of the United Nations is being read and studied in every country in the world. In the articles of this Charter the peoples hope to find a reliable weapon for the protection of lasting peace.

The results of the San Francisco Conference are striking testimony to the fact that in the course of the war against Hitler Germany the peoples of the democratic countries found the way to effective cooperation and mutual understanding. The Charter of the United Nations also testifies that the governments of the democratic countries have learned the sad lessons of the past, and have striven to guard the new international security organization against the weaknesses and vices which made the League of Nations impotent and helpless in the face of aggression.

In spite of the efforts of certain participants in the conference—who proved they were clinging to the old blunders and, in

fact, were opponents of the creation of an effective organization for the protection of security and peace among nations—the Charter of the United Nations lays the foundations for an international organization of a genuinely new type. At the same time, it is absolutely clear that the degree of effectiveness of the Charter of the United Nations will be determined entirely by the goodwill and firm determination which its members display in implementing it.

The committees and commissions of the conference, which spent so much time and care in discussing and formulating the Charter, preserved the substance and meaning of the draft prepared by the representatives of the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union and China at Dumbarton Oaks in the autumn of 1944, and subsequently supplemented by the decisions of the Crimea Conference. Taken as a whole, in the form adopted at San Francisco, the Charter is in keeping with the spirit of the ideas underlying the cooperation of the countries of the great democratic coalition, of which the historic conferences in Moscow, Teheran and the Crimea mark the main stages.

The United Nations Organization was formed, as the Charter states, "to maintain international peace and security, and to that end: to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace . . ."

In conformity with the Charter, the member states of the United Nations Organization pledge themselves to settle all disputes that may arise between them, by peaceful means, in such a manner as not to endanger international peace, security and justice. To prevent and suppress aggression, if it arises—particularly if it comes from aggressive enemy states as they are called in the Charter—the most resolute measures, even the employment of armed force, must be resorted to.

To make the international security organization sufficiently strong and capable of acting quickly and energetically in the event of aggression—is the main objective of the states on whose initiative

this organization is created. Hence a number of the articles in the Charter provide for measures necessary to insure speedy and effective action on the part of the United Nations Organization.

Closely connected with this task of the international security organization is the question of the prerogatives of the Security Council, and its role and place in the organization. The draft Charter drawn up at Dumbarton Oaks and the decisions of the Crimea Conference placed upon the Security Council the main responsibility for the protection of peace and for combating aggression. In the Security Council, which will consist of eleven members, five permanent seats will be held by the great peace-loving powers: the Soviet Union, the United States, Great Britain, China and France. It is common knowledge that the close collaboration and the fighting alliance of the great democratic powers insured victory in the war against Hitler Germany. Unanimity among these powers, in deciding upon the extremely important measures to be taken to protect peace and security and to combat aggression, is absolutely essential in order to give the decisions of the United Nations Organization sufficient force and effect.

It is no secret that certain delegations and individual delegates attempted to effect changes in the terms of the Charter, precisely with a view to weakening the Security Council. A number of amendments were moved in the commissions and committees, with the object of enlarging the powers and prerogatives of the General Assembly, to the detriment of those of the Security Council and making the latter more dependent upon the decisions of the General Assembly.

It is in this connection that during the conference there could be clearly discerned attempts of the reactionary politicians to form something in the nature of a bloc of the small countries, ostensibly against the "domination of the big powers," but actually with the object of undermining the unanimity of the Big Five. These attempts were made on the plea of safeguarding the democratic principles within the international security organi-

zation. It is significant that the chief partisans of the "small countries' bloc" were the representatives of those countries which had taken no part in the war against Hitlerite aggression. To their deep chagrin their campaign against the Big Five found no support in the countries which have been victims of Hitlerite aggression and which experienced the misfortunes of enemy invasion. These countries realize that without unanimity among the big powers, without their desire and firm determination to combat aggression, the small countries cannot safeguard their freedom and security, as the sad experience of the war in Europe, which has just come to a close, has shown. Unanimity among the great powers is the cardinal factor which creates the possibility for making the United Nations Organization an effectual organization of international security.

The importance to peace and security of unanimity among the powers which achieved victory over Hitler Germany and who bear the most responsibility for the maintenance of peace, is emphasized in the article of the Charter which defines the conditions of voting in the Security Council. Decisions on matters other than procedural are to be adopted in the Council by an affirmative vote of seven members, including the concurring votes of the permanent members. Thus, for a question to be decided, the Soviet Union, the United States, Great Britain, France and China must vote for the decision. The country which is party to the dispute must abstain from voting if a pacific settlement is contemplated. If, however, the question is one of the Security Council taking measures of a coercive character, the countries involved can participate in the voting.

The United Nations Organization is based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all its members. Its object is to develop friendly relations among the nations and to bring about international collaboration in the settlement of questions of an economic, social, cultural and humanitarian character. Its Charter calls for the recognition of justice and international law, the equality and the right of self-determination of peoples, and respect for the rights and fundamental

freedoms of man without distinction as to race, language, religion or sex.

In conformity with Article 39 of the Charter, it is the duty of the Security Council to determine the "existence of any threat to the peace, breach of the peace, or act of aggression," and then to recommend or decide "what measures shall be taken . . . to maintain or restore international peace and security." And the General Assembly on its part "may consider the general principles of cooperation in the maintenance of international peace and security, including the principles governing disarmament and the regulations of armaments," and make corresponding recommendations to the members of the organization or to the Security Council.

The General Assembly may also discuss any question relative to the maintenance of international peace and security brought before it by any member of the United Nations or by the Security Council. It may draw the attention of the Security Council to situations that are likely to threaten international peace and security. At the same time, the Assembly will be invested with wide powers in matters concerning the advancement of economic, social and cultural cooperation among the nations. With this purpose in view, the Charter provides for the formation of an Economic and Social Council.

Several countries, the Latin American in particular, tried to make the problem of regional agreements a controversial issue at the San Francisco Conference. Those circles which were not averse to driving the conference into a deadlock raised quite a clamor over this problem. All the greater, therefore, is the gratification expressed by public opinion in the democratic countries at its successful solution. The regional agreements have been brought within the framework of the international organization and linked up with it by common aims and objects. The Charter establishes that the regional agreements must be consistent with the purposes and principles of the United Nations Organization and must serve as the means of promoting the pacific settlement of conflicts.

A new question, one that was not dis-

cussed at Dumbarton Oaks, was that of the international trusteeship system. In the Charter, three chapters—Declaration Regarding Non-self-governing Territories; International Trusteeship System; and The Trusteeship Council Composition—are devoted to this important question, which concerns the fate of the colonial and mandated territories. During the debates on these chapters of the Charter, the different interests pursued by the powers in the sphere of the colonial problem were clearly revealed. But in spite of these differences and the fact that neither the British nor the United States delegations went as far as the Soviet delegation's proposal for the guarantee of independence to the colonial countries, the formulas adopted in the Charter afford possibilities for further progress and for the creation of the conditions to insure to the peoples of the colonial and dependent countries the satisfaction of their legitimate striving toward freedom and national independence.

Thus in Article 73, the members of the United Nations Organization recognize the principle that the interests of the populations of the non-self-governing territories are of prime importance, and pledge themselves the sacred duty to promote to the utmost the wellbeing of the peoples of these territories, within the system of international peace and security. They pledge themselves also to promote self-government, to take due account of the political aspirations of these peoples, and to promote the development of their free political institutions.

At the United Nations Conference in San Francisco the activity of those forces hostile to the peace and security of nations was very much in evidence. These circles were the source of the tendency to complicate the work of the conference unnecessarily. There can be no doubt that they inspired the noxious campaign waged by a certain section of the American press. Many American newspapers, the Hearst, Scripps-Howard and McCormick-Patterson press in particular, spared no effort to poison the atmosphere of the conference, repeatedly prophesied its failure, and tried to discredit it in the eyes of public opinion.

In speaking of the United Nations Conference one cannot fail to note the role played there by the Soviet delegation. Its position was time and again grossly misrepresented and distorted by the reactionary press. More than once attempts were made to present the character and trend of the actions of the Soviet delegation in a false light. But no honest person can deny, for it is irrefutably proved by the facts from beginning to end, that the Soviet delegation consistently steered a course toward the formulation of the principles that would lend the greatest force and effect to the important aims and objects of the international security organization.

Taking a firm stand on matters of principle, the Soviet delegation resolutely rebuffed all attempts of the reactionary circles to provoke a split among the members of the great coalition of democratic powers. At the same time it undeviatingly displayed goodwill in reconciling differences in the points of view that sometimes arose on individual questions. Such differences in the points of view and interests of the individual states are inevitable, bearing in mind the differences in the traditions and the social and political structures of these states. The experience of the work of the San Francisco Conference, like the preceding experience of cooperation among the large and small democratic countries during the war against Hitler Germany, has proved that there are no differences or disagreements that cannot be solved if goodwill and mutual understanding of legitimate interests are displayed.

By their active and constructive participation in the work of the conference, the delegations of the Soviet Union, the Soviet Ukraine and Soviet Byelorussia corroborated in practice the statement of Foreign Commissar Molotov in his speech at the Plenary Session of the conference to the effect that the Soviet Government is a confirmed and zealous advocate of the formation of a stable peace and security organization:

"Whatever may depend upon it and its efforts in the common cause of the creation of such a postwar organization

for the peace and security of nations, will readily be done by the Soviet Government. We will fully cooperate in the solution of this great problem with all the other governments which are genuinely devoted to this noble cause."

The efforts of the opponents of a stable peace among nations, to poison the atmosphere of the conference and to frustrate its work, failed. Today the press, which reflects public opinion in the democratic countries, unanimously welcomes the results of the conference as an important contribution to the task of strengthening international cooperation, and the establishment of the foundations of a lasting peace. But the United Nations Charter cannot by itself curb the opponents of that policy of the democratic powers which insured their victory over Hitler Germany and which is an indispensable condition for the successful solution of the complex problems of peace. These circles are already instigating a campaign against the United Nations Organization. This campaign is developing along various lines. There are some who strive to undermine its prestige and to prove that it is a "frail and unstable edifice." Others have set themselves the more immediate task of at least delaying, if not preventing, the ratification of the United Nations Charter by the legislative bodies of the respective countries.

Even now, after the United Nations Conference is over, we must remember that, as Molotov observed in his first speech at the Plenary Session of the conference: "Thus the point at issue is the creation of an effective organization to

protect the general peace and security of nations, for which all the sincere partisans of the peaceful development of nations have long been yearning, but which has always had many irreconcilable enemies in the camp of the most aggressive imperialists."

The successful completion of the work of the San Francisco Conference is a great step toward insuring lasting peace and international security. The Charter adopted by the conference gives grounds for hope that the new international security organization will not repeat the blunders of the late lamented League of Nations, which lacked a real determination, the powers and means to prevent aggression. Naturally the first question that arises in perusing this Charter is: under what conditions will the actions of the new international organization be sufficiently effective? The answer to this question was given by Comrade Stalin as far back as November 6, 1944, when he said, "They will be effective if the great powers which have borne the brunt of the war against Hitler Germany continue to act in a spirit of unanimity and accord. They will not be effective if this essential condition is violated."

Acting in a spirit of unanimity and harmony, the United Nations achieved victory over Hitler Germany—the worst enemy of mankind. If they continue to act in a spirit of unanimity and accord under postwar conditions, they will insure a lasting and just peace among nations, despite all the designs of the enemies of lasting peace and international security.

Demobilization Law Goes Into Effect

The law on the demobilization of older-age classes of the Army in the field was enthusiastically acclaimed everywhere. With heart and soul every Soviet citizen set about fulfilling the terms of the law.

A Belgian newspaper commented: "It is amazing how backward we seem in the light of such a broad approach to the problem and to human beings." This newspaper was particularly impressed

with the fact that our demobilized veterans are provided with homes, fuel, clothing, money for immediate use, and loans for building and setting up their own households.

Now that the first trains with the veterans have started to bring the men home, in town and city, in industry and in community life, every effort is being made to help the men return to normal activities.

CATHOLICOS OF ARMENIA ELECTED



Three leading members of the Armenian Church Assembly in Erevan—Patriarch Gareg II of Jerusalem (left), Catholicos Garegin I of Cilicia (center), and Gevorg VI, the newly elected Catholicos of all Armenians

Archbishop Gevorg Chorekchian was unanimously elected Gevorg VI, Supreme Patriarch and Catholicos of the Armenians the world over on June 22, by the Assembly of the Council of the Armenian Church in Etchmiadsin.

It was announced when the ballot was counted, that Archbishop Gevorg had received 110 out of 111 votes. The only dissenting vote was his own.

When he heard the decision of the representatives of the Armenians from all parts of the world, he was deeply moved and tears streamed down his face.

The Catholicos in his speech of appreciation said: "This is the most outstanding of all Councils of the Armenian Church I have seen during my long life, and I have lived more than three-quarters of a century. The most noteworthy feature is the fact that in this Council all Armenian colonies abroad, as well as Soviet Armenia, are represented."

The new Catholicos credited the Council's spirit of unanimity on church and general issues to the "times and events we are witnessing."

"The first problem in our national life," he continued, "was that without a State we could not assert our nationhood, and could not reunite our people, half of whom wander over four continents. That

problem was solved with the establishment of Soviet power 25 years ago. After centuries of humiliation, oppression and fear, the Armenians set up their own government administered by Armenians.

"The second problem, return and reunion of those Armenians, has not yet been solved. Half of our people are still beyond the borders of their country. You delegates have told me that the Armenians abroad are yearning to return home. Those sentiments of our brothers abroad have found reflection in the spirit of the Council as well.

"Cruel history has forced hundreds of thousands of Armenians to leave their homes. But many of those refugees and temporary dwellers in strange lands have not forgotten their native country. The Armenian church is the only organization in a position to work and unite all Armenians. To do that the church itself must be monolithic. Our new constitution pursues the aim of centering Armenian religious interests around Etchmiadsin."

"We must work harder than ever to support the great democratic powers with whose aid wars and aggression can be prevented in the future. The Armenian Church, through its eparchies and all its congregations throughout the world, will continue to support the great democratic

powers; it will pray and fight for the successful establishment of a union of nations, which I believe will usher in a new era for all mankind."

The delegates, in addition to those from Soviet Armenia, came from the United States, Britain, France, Bulgaria, Greece, Rumania, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Syria, Cilicia, India, Jerusalem and Turkey. The South American delegates were delayed.

They agreed that the unanimous vote was an indication of the universal recognition, by all followers of the Armenian Church, of the new Catholicos' services in the church and the rallying of all its adherents around Etchmiadsin. They agreed that such unanimity had not been evidenced in the Armenian Church for many decades.

The Council heard and approved Gevorg's report on the activities of Etchmiadsin during the past seven years, approved the budget, providing, among other things, for the maintenance of a theological academy, a printshop and the publication of a religious journal, and confirmed the new constitution of the Armenian Church.

After a visit to the schools, kindergartens, children's homes, nurseries, theaters and the university and a trip to picturesque Lake Sevan, one of the Greek members said, "You cannot realize what we who left our country when it was in ruins feel upon seeing it regenerated, free and independent."

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The 25th Anniversary of Soviet Chuvashia

By A. Matveyev

The author is the Chairman, Council of Peoples Commissars of Chuvashia.

Twenty-five years ago, by a decision signed by Kalinin and Lenin, the Chuvash Autonomous Region was formed, later transformed into the Chuvash Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic as a part of the Russian SFSR. This historical event turned a new page in the history of the Chuvash people, who, with the

fraternal aid of the great Russian people, achieved a full life under Soviet rule.

Their past had been replete with poverty and political oppression. Like the other small nationalities, the Chuvash people have been liberated from age-old slavery, and have won the right to self-determination and the development of their culture and economy, according to the plan conceived by the great leaders,

Lenin and Stalin.

The great Russian people, carrying in to effect the Lenin-Stalin national policy, rallied all the peoples of the Soviet Union into a cohesive unit. They helped the formerly weak, backward peoples to build up their state and to grow strong economically.

The Chuvash Republic has changed beyond recognition from a primitive agri-



The children register every shade of appreciation for the story being dramatized. They are being cared for in an institution for children orphaned or separated from their parents during the war

cultural region into a Republic with well-developed large-scale industry and Socialist agriculture.

Before the October Revolution industry consisted of about a score of semi-handicraft enterprises. In the years of the First World War and the ensuing Civil War, even these closed down.

The real development started after the October Revolution. During the two Stalin Five-Year Plans, capital investments amounted to nearly 150 million rubles. Industry came to life in machine-building, timber, chemicals, polygraphics and peat-extraction, as well as in the production of phosphorites, starch, molasses, and others. In the years of the Great Patriotic War, factories for cotton fabrics, knitted goods, stockings and socks, boots and shoes, tobacco, and certain war materials were opened. Along with large-scale industry there grew up cooperatives and local enterprises.

One of the greatest achievements of Soviet Chuvashia was its training of national cadres of industrial workers. The number of industrial workers now runs into the tens of thousands.

Socialist farming has had concrete results: the rational utilization of land, the increase in crop yields and the fecundity of livestock, insuring a prosperous life for collective farmers.

The total area sown was considerably enlarged, with increases in those sown to grain—wheat in particular and vegetables, potatoes and fodder.

The collective farms use modern scientific crop rotation and agrotechnical measures, such as seed treatment, vernalization, fallow plowing, snow retention, fertilizers, and so forth. Socialist industry has produced agricultural machines: the 29 machine and tractor stations working in the Republic now have over 1,000 tractors and about 400 combines.

All of this has enabled our collective farmers to achieve regular high crop yields. The Chuvash soil, formerly notorious for its crop failures, has been renewed by the collective farming system, and since its introduction the average harvest has been 48 to 520 kilograms of grain per acre. Stockbreeding has also progressed, with a great increase in the number of head of cattle as well as their productivity.

The development in the economy of the Republic called for a corresponding growth in road construction. Chuvashia built a well-developed network of roads, the total length, including asphalted highways and improved dirt roads, amounting to 11,000 kilometers. The railway line constructed from Kanash to Cheboksary connected the capital of the Republic with the trunklines of the USSR.

This one-time backward region of illiterate people, without even a rudimentary culture, has attained great success in the development of its culture—national in form and Socialist in content.

In 1913 the schools of Chuvashia had about 30,000 pupils—a little more than three per cent of the total population. Since the establishment of Soviet rule, universal compulsory primary education has been introduced, and at the same time general seven year schooling is provided. At present there are 1,030 schools, 25 special secondary schools and three institutions of higher learning. Every fifth person is in school—a truly great achievement.

The Chuvash language is now in use for newspapers, and the writings of the Russian classics and contemporary Soviet authors are translated into the regional tongues. Fiction is a popular form of literature, and is in the tradition of the best Soviet writers, notably the late Maxim Gorky.

Chuvash art has made immeasurable progress. There is a Chuvash Academic Theater. Our composers laud the greatness of the Soviet homeland in song, and the great events of our times are depicted by our painters.

In the memorable days of June, 1941, the Chuvash people rose to the defense of the Motherland, shoulder to shoulder with the other peoples of the Soviet Union, and sent its best sons to the Red Army and Navy. For gallantry in action against the German-fascist invaders, 28,000 sons and daughters of the Chuvash people were awarded orders and medals of the Soviet Union, 46 of the most valorous winning the high title of Hero of the Soviet Union. There are the valiant Stalinist generals, Hero of the Soviet Union Lieutenant General Bogolyubov; Hero of the Soviet Union Major

General of Engineers Petrov; General Vinogradov and Makarov.

The working people of Chuvashia responded enthusiastically to the patriotic appeal of the Saratov and Tambov collective farmers, and invested many millions in the construction of battle machines for the Red Army. The plane flown by Hero of the Soviet Union N. Orlov was built with the money contributed by the Sarsky Chuvash collective farm. Dubrovin, chairman of the Krassnaya Pakhar collective farm, bought a plane for his pilot son. Shirmanova, a collective farmer, purchased a tank for her son.

Workers, collective farmers and intellectuals who remained at home were tireless in their efforts for the front. Many enterprises were evacuated to Chuvashia from the war zone. The entire economy of the Republic was converted to a wartime footing, and numerous war factories were opened. The gross output of large-scale industry in 1944 doubled that of 1939. During the war one plant was decorated with the Order of the Red Banner of Labor, while many other enterprises were frequently mentioned for their good work by the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions and various People's Commissariats.

The Koltsovsky collective farm, typical of those of the Chuvash Republic and famous throughout the Soviet Union, last year reaped 880 kilograms of grain per acre, and the oats crop on the seed sector equalled 1,560 kilograms per acre. During the war the cattle herd of the stock farms increased by 82 per cent, sheep and goats by 219 per cent, and hogs by 60 per cent. Our collective farms sent several thousand head of cattle to the regions liberated from Nazi occupation.

For successes in agriculture and livestock breeding, Chuvashia has twice won the challenge of the Red Banner State Committee of Defense. The peoples of our country are firmly welded by ties of Stalinist friendship, even stronger since the Great Patriotic War.

Now that our country has entered a period of peaceful development, the Chuvash people are working with inspiration for the further consolidation of the military and economic might of the Socialist Motherland.

THE DANUBE FLOTILLA

By Lieutenant G. Padalka



Soviet torpedo boats active near Sevastopol. The Black Sea Fleet contributed to the rout of the German troops from the Crimea

One of the finest branches of the Soviet Fleet, the Danube Flotilla, earned its reputation in hard fighting against the Germans.

Combating enemy boats, the Flotilla traversed six European states and participated in the battles for three capitals, Belgrade, Budapest and Vienna. Its ships and shore units were commended ten times in Orders of Generalissimo Stalin for their part in the seizure of Akkerman, Sulina, Belgrade, Kaposvar, Budapest, Estergom, Komarno, Bratislava, Vienna and Korneuberg. And in its honor victory salvos were fired ten times in Moscow.

Their fighting days began on the Volga at Stalingrad, and for several months these small craft fought at the walls of the heroic city. The defenders of Stalingrad will always remember how the small boats made their trips regularly to the right bank with ammunition, men, food and medical supplies, and to the left bank with the wounded—all under constant shelling and bombardment. The boats not only made crossings but also shelled the enemy's positions and acting as scouts they landed special task forces at the flanks of the Germans.

Another time, the Germans had attempted to blow up the Semund Bridge, in Belgrade, in order to break away from their pursuers, throw up intermediary defense works, regroup their forces and

stem the Soviet advance for a time. And the bridge was very nearly blown up. The charges had been placed. There was fierce hand-to-hand fighting on the bridge, and German sappers had come to within yards of the Bickford fuses. At that moment the guns of the Flotilla boats opened fire around the bend of the river and swept the Germans from the bridge.

From the Volga the boats of the Flotilla sailed to the Azov Sea. Here they helped the Red Army liberate Berdyansk and Taganrog, Temryuk and Kerch. At Taganrog Soviet sailors sank 21 German patrol boats, two self-propelled barges and four motorboats.

An important feature of the Danube Flotilla operations was that its ships and units at all times cooperated closely with the advancing units of the Red Army.

In a May First greeting to the sailors Marshal Tolbukhin, Commander of the Third Ukrainian Front, said: "From the estuary of the Dniester to Vienna, the Danube Flotilla fought side by side with the troops of the Third Ukrainian Front and coped successfully with all its tasks, no matter how difficult. More than once its ships penetrated the enemy's defenses, opened fire upon the Germans from the rear and facilitated the advance of the troops."

Many difficulties were encountered by

the Flotilla. Ships were compelled to fight in sections of the Danube where no Soviet vessels had sailed before. And while they were still fighting on the Dniester, every officer of the Flotilla had already learned the Danube fairways, knew the soundings, the shallows, the speeds of the current and just how to approach the various harbors. When the troops of Marshal Tolbukhin eliminated a surrounding group of German-Rumanian troops west of Akkerman, the boats of the Flotilla penetrated the Danube and cut off the retreat of the other fascist units.

Hoping to delay Soviet ships, the Germans littered the Danube with mines. The fighting ships, however, were preceded by trawlers of Commander Okhriomenko, which cleared the way upstream.

During the fighting on the Danube, the Flotilla had to carry out various operations at the same time coordinating with the land forces. It had to support advancing Red Army units with its fire, and to ferry troops and armaments. The landing operations of these boats were invariably skilfully conceived and daringly executed. At the approaches to Vienna, near the town of Radvan, the boats landed a party not under cover of dark as was customary, but at 4:00 P.M. in broad daylight. The flagship of Lieutenant Balabukh sustained ten hits. Though its engine room was on fire, the ship moved on and led others across the Danube to land troops.

The Estergom operations were quite different. Here ships under cover of darkness penetrated 20 kilometers behind German lines. To conceal the noise of the motorboats, Soviet aircraft flew over the river all night, pounding the enemy with their bombs. The ships made two runs to the rear of the enemy with special task forces, and placed the Germans in a precarious position.

In cooperation with land forces the Danube Flotilla sailors advanced steadily with units of the Red Army—certainly no easy matter—and their experience is now being carefully studied by all branches of the Soviet Navy.

Achievements of Soviet Power Engineering

By Academician A. Winter

A large share of the credit for the ever-increasing quantities of aircraft, tanks, guns and ammunition turned out during the war goes to the power engineers.

In the summer and autumn of 1941, when the Germans were driving eastward into the heart of the USSR, the power stations and distribution installations in the threatened areas were hastily dismantled and transferred to the East. Under the fire of enemy guns and the bombings of the Luftwaffe, over 11,000 trainloads of power equipment were evacuated from the Ukraine, Byelorussia, the Karelo-Finnish Republic, Leningrad, and other regions.

Construction of new power stations in the East was started immediately, to supply the transplanted mills and factories. They were all adapted for the utilization of local types of fuel and were erected chiefly with native materials. The Chelyabinsk heat and power station, for example, where a 100,000-kilowatt turbine is installed, is run on a low-quality fuel with a high ash content. In the Uzbek Republic four hydroelectric stations were built on the River Chirchik to provide power for the industries of the Tashkent industrial region. The fifth, Farkhad station, is in the process of completion. The first power from the Alapaevsk hydroelectric station, one of a series of three on the river Neiva, was transmitted on April 23. Despite severe climatic conditions, this power plant was erected in a year and a half.

During the war the new power stations and the enlargement of old ones nearly doubled the resources of the Urals. In 1940, the Krasnogorsk had two turbines and two boilers; in 1941 four more turbines and three boilers were added; and in 1942, two turbines and three boilers—seven turbines in all.

A 50,000-kilowatt boiler was installed in the Central Urals regional power station which, although it is now using coal with a high ash content, has increased its power output by one-third. The power stations of Kazan, Omsk,



ACADEMICIAN BORIS VEDENEYEV

This noted power engineer began work 35 years ago as assistant manager on the Vladivostok port extension scheme, and was in charge of building the port of Murmansk, which became Russia's door to the world. The first power station in the USSR, the Volkhov plant, was constructed under his supervision. In the record time of five years, Vedenev engineered the famous Dnieper dam, and in its present reconstruction he is Deputy Commissar of Power Stations of the USSR and a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Karelo-Finnish Republic.

Kuibyshev and other cities were equipped with new generators.

The rapid restoration of the stations and of the power distribution network destroyed by the Germans during the occupation, is one of the major achievements of Soviet engineers.

In Stalinogorsk, in the Donbas, Smolensk, Minsk, Odessa and wherever the Germans had been in occupation, the power equipment was in ruins. The Germans blew up 130 boiler drums, believing this would prevent the restoration of the power stations for a long time. But Soviet engineers devised a brilliantly successful method of repairing the boilers by welding. At the Stalinogorsk regional station, 2,000 parts of boilers and turbines blown up by the Germans were utilized. The engineers of the Krasnogorsk power station boldly produced Ramzin uniflow boilers on the very site of the building where they were to be used.

The Finnish invaders carted off what they could of the Svir power plant ma-

chinery. What could not be removed was blown up.

Toward the end of 1944, there were 35 regional power stations in the liberated areas providing current in Stalinogorsk, Shterovka, Nikolayev, Odessa, Lvov and Rostov, among others. The Dnieper hydroelectric station is in the process of rehabilitation. The goal is to raise the aggregate of power in the USSR to the prewar level by the end of this year.

• • •

The Soviet Union holds first place in hydropower reserves, with an annual hydropower potential estimated at 280 million kilowatts, approximately 35 per cent of the total hydropower potential of the world.

The construction of stations was begun in our country only after the great October Socialist Revolution, in accordance with Lenin's electrification plan, and continued in the period of the Stalin Five Year Plans.

Our firstborn construction was the Lenin-Volkhov station completed two decades ago. This enterprise was a test of the young Soviet State in hydropower construction. Volkhov was the first school for Soviet hydrotechnicians, who subsequently built the great power plants of the Dnieper and Svir Rivers.

A remarkable example of power production under difficulties is the Volkhov station, which generated electricity for Leningrad as far back as 1942, long before the blockade was broken. Its current was transmitted through cables laid on the bottom of Lake Ladoga. For the past year this enterprise has been operating at maximum capacity.

Decorations were awarded to 13,000 engineers and power workers during the war. Now that Hitler Germany has been defeated, their first task is to reconstruct the wrecked plants, to build 40 new hydroelectric stations and 30 steam power stations, and also to increase the number of small power units for the collective farms.

The Armenian Academy of Sciences

The following is by Viktor Ambartsumian, Vice President of the Armenian Academy of Sciences:

A large group of Armenian scientists, who have come to Moscow to take part in the observance of the 220th Anniversary of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, have expressed profound gratitude to the Academy for doing outstanding work in the study of Armenia and its history.

Before leaving for Moscow, the delegation attended a meeting of the Armenian Academy in Erevan, where papers were read on the role of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR in the development of world science and the assistance it rendered to the Armenian Academy.

The archaeological investigations of Academician Marr, in connection with the excavations carried out at Ani, the medieval capital of the country, are of the highest importance. They revealed that in that epoch the city had played a

unique part in the civilization of the entire Near East, as well of Armenia. Marr's study of the genesis of the Armenian language is a landmark revealing important new factors.

On the initiative of V. Komarov, President of the USSR Academy, the Armenian branch was founded in 1935, and its rapid growth in a brief time established it as the center of thought in the Republic.

During the Patriotic War, the Armenian scientists carried out a number of investigations to help the war effort. So great were the contributions of Armenian geologists, chemists, engineers, historians and scholars, that at the end of 1943 the Armenian branch was recognized as an independent Academy.

The Chemistry Institute is investigating the problems connected with the synthesis of rubber and the development of a number of substances from acetylene.

The Department of Agriculture, headed by M. Tunanyan, is working on a method to increase the yield of crops and to adapt lowland seeds to mountain conditions.

Considerable scientific activity is being carried on in the departments of physico-mathematical, natural and technical sciences. Academy astronomers have developed a theory of the cluster structure of interstellar absorbing light. Our Academy is soon to have a large, new astro-physics observatory which will be built in the vicinity of the village of Burakan, on the lower slopes of the Aragats.

The Academy staff numbers over 1,000 scientists today, working in 30 research institutions. The Academy has 22 members, and elections of 16 corresponding members are to be held in the middle of July. The candidates for the Academy include not only outstanding scientists living in our country, but Armenian scientists living abroad as well.

ALEXANDER BAIKOV, HERO OF SOCIALIST LABOR

On the occasion of the 220th anniversary of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, the Soviet Government conferred the title of Hero of Socialist Labor upon Academician Alexander Baikov.

Baikov began his scientific activities more than half a century ago. He studied at St. Petersburg University and a year later was put in charge of the chemical laboratory of the Institute of Railway Engineering there.

During his visits to Europe in 1899 and 1903, he participated in the work of Henri Louis Le Chatelier, the founder of physico-chemical methods of research.

The Soviet school of Metallurgical Science has made striking advances under the guidance of this eminent scientist. In 1902 in St. Petersburg, Baikov presented a brilliant thesis called, "Study of Copper and Antimony Alloys and the Hardening Phenomena Observed in Them." He developed methods for physico-chemical analysis of metal alloys; the theory of smelting copper ores and pyrites, of hardening and other processing in cements and of



ACADEMICIAN A. A. BAIKOV

fire resistant materials. He has solved problems relating to the production of special steel alloys and their heat treatment; contributed data on critical temperatures for nickel; and the structure of steel alloys at high temperatures.

In 1927 Baikov was elected a corre-

sponding member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, and in 1932 he was elected a member of the Academy's Department of Technical Sciences. He now holds the Chair of the Theory of Metallurgical Processes in the Leningrad Polytechnical Institute.

Baikov has been a Deputy from Leningrad to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR since 1937. He first showed his statesmanship when he took part in the historic Eighth Extraordinary Congress of Soviets which approved the Stalin Constitution. In September, 1939, he helped draft a bill on universal military service.

As Vice President of the Academy of Sciences, he played an important part in mobilizing the Soviet Union's scientific forces for aid to the Red Army in the struggle against the German invaders.

At a meeting of the Academy of Sciences Baikov declared: "Science is eternal. Therefore, in addition to urgent problems, we must not forget about the great problems of the future which may bring entirely new and unexpected discoveries."

New Varieties of Wheat

By Docent A. Peterburgsky

In the grain silos of the world, wheat fills most of the space. More than 395,000,000 acres—one fourth the total area under cultivation—are in wheat, and the annual harvest is approximately 140,000,000 tons.

The eminent Russian scientist, Kliment Timiryazev, once said that well baked wheat bread was one of the greatest discoveries of mankind.

"Indeed," he continued, "of the hundreds of thousands of plants growing in the world, one had to be found which presented the best combination of substances unknown at the time (proteins and carbohydrates) combined in plant organisms easy to gather and store; then the grain had to be ground and treated with water. At the same time, without being aware of its significance, man had to cultivate an invisible organism, a yeast fungus, and to make flour and water become a dough and to turn the heavy, sticky mass into a light, bubbly substance. Finally, the baking process had to be conceived to make the mixture retain its porous state and become palatable."

It is known that in southern Europe wheat was cultivated even before the emergence of articulate speech. Archeological excavations reveal that wheat was known on our continent during the Stone Age. It appears that in the course of thousands of years wheat was either unconsciously or consciously subjected to selection by man, so that the size of the grain gradually increased.

Throughout the world there are now at least 3,000 varieties of cultivated wheat, developed as a result of the labors of uncounted generations. And leading scientists, selectionists and agronomists in all the wheat-growing countries are still engaged in research to improve this crop.

Anton Zhebrak, Professor of the Timiryazev Agricultural Academy and a member of the Byelorussian Academy of Sciences, has produced nearly one hundred new varieties by crossing existing types and treating their seeds with the mild-concentrate poison, colchicine. Many of these hybrids have considerable interest for selectionists and farmers.

The essence of the matter is that the genes, carriers of the hereditary traits in plants, are collected in the small bodies of the cell nucleus known as chromosomes. Chromosomes are groups of genes that may enter into 19 new combinations with other like groups when the plants are crossed.

The numerous varieties of wheat known so far fall into three groups for chromosome number, possessing 14, 28, or 42 chromosomes. The last group is the most important with respect to the number of varieties it includes and their distribution throughout the globe. This multi-chromosome wheat grows farthest north, and is distinguished for its resistance to frost. As a rule the greater the number of chromosomes in a plant, the higher its yield. Hence it is assumed that increasing the number of chromosomes in wheat will improve its quality.

Academician Zhebrak's achievement shows that this hypothesis is correct in many ways. By synthetic means he produced wheats with 56 and 70 chromosomes. The best heads have exceptionally big grains, their weight per thousand grains reaching 95 to 110 grams, several times the weight of the best existing varieties. Moreover, the new variety is immune to powdery mildew and wheat rust.

Some of Zhebrak's winter wheats have a high protein content and baking qualities hitherto found only in hard spring wheats. Winter wheat, as a rule, produces greater yields than spring wheat, a circumstance which increases the interest in Zhebrak's work.

There is now intensive activity in Zhebrak's laboratory to produce 140 chromosome wheat, which the scientist has made his new goal.

'EVERYTHING FOR THE FRONT'

Countrywide Socialist competition campaigns have become a tradition among the Soviet people. Three years ago, when the Soviet land was facing grave difficulties, our iron and steel workers launched a drive under the Stalin slogan—*Everything for the Front*—which met with enthusiastic response everywhere.

The war in Europe has ended with complete victory over the enemy, and the Soviet Union is entering a period of peaceful development.

But there has been no slackening of production. In June the Soviet iron and steel industry reached new peaks of accomplishment in the smelting of pig iron and steel, and achieved a considerable increase in the output of rolled stock and coke.

As compared with June, 1944, the smelting of pig iron increased 19 per cent, of steel 18 per cent, and of rolled stock 22 per cent. Forty six per cent more iron ore was extracted than in June of last year.

Today new tasks arise: once again, iron

and steel workers initiated a competition inspired by Stalin's call to heal the wounds of war and to raise still higher the might of the Soviet State.

In an open letter to all workers, engineers, and technicians of the Soviet iron and steel industry, the personnel of the Magnitogorsk and Kuznetsk metallurgical works pledged to fulfil the 1945 plan ahead of schedule, to increase the output of iron ore by 200,000 tons as compared with last year, to smelt 250,000 tons more pig iron, 250,000 tons more steel and 150,000 tons more rolled stock. They will turn out 20 million rubles above the plan. In order to improve living conditions, workers and employees will build 200 individual homes and gather in the harvest on the subsidiary farms.

This prompt response among all the Soviet metallurgical enterprises will yield the country hundreds of thousands of tons above the plan for the production of locomotives and cars, rails and motor vehicles, tractors and lathes, power stations and all equipment for agricultural machinery and consumers' goods.

THE SHOEMAKER OF STALINGRAD

By Evgeny Krieger

I met him among the ruins of Stalingrad in 1943. My boots needed mending, and I had a hard job finding his workshop. It was in a pit, under a pile of stones and a ruined staircase.

After he had examined the soles and agreed to replace them, we talked a while, and he offered to show me where he had lived during the most terrible days of the defense. It was on a steep, precipitous bank of the Volga. The heights and tall buildings that towered on three sides were all in German hands. The Red Army was holding out on a few yards of river bank, with the Volga at their backs. The crossing was under machine gun and artillery fire. It was the last defense line of all.

The level plateau on which I stood with the shoemaker, and which was now strewn with bricks and rubbish, had once been part of a pleasant suburb. But there was not a wall standing.

"I lived here with my daughter," the old man said. "Our house used to stand just here. There's nothing left of it now, of course. When it was destroyed we moved into a bomb crater. Come over here and I'll show you. You'll have to kneel down and crawl, I'm afraid. Carefully, now! Are you all right? Well, here we are! Home at last!"

It was dark—not really dark, just gloomy. The crater was roughly roofed in with boards covered with earth. I peered about. There was a bed, a little table with some crockery on it, a kerosene heater, shoemaker's tools, and a doll. A bunch of brightly colored paper flowers was thrust into a crack in the earthen wall, over the bed.

A thin, quiet little girl—she must have been about eleven years old—was sitting on the edge of the bed. When she spoke, I noticed that she had a slight stammer.

"We all got shell-shocked—my little girl and I, and the soldiers too," the old man explained. "The only way we could get anywhere was by crawling. The Germans could see everything we did.

"Our mortar gunners had their trenches practically next door, and the Germans

were only 200 yards away. Oil tanks were burning all around us."

"Couldn't you have got away to the far bank?" I asked. "Was it necessary for you to stay?"

"Well, perhaps I could have got away," he mused. "But I'd lived here all my life, and somehow I just didn't believe the Germans would get as far as my place.

"But it wasn't so bad, really," he said. "The Red Army men were so cheerful. We felt quite at home with them, my girl and I. They'd crawl down to us, all black and deafened by the bombardment, and she'd make tea for us all.

"When I was badly shell-shocked they came and looked after me, and got me right again. They were good lads. They used to make the girl laugh at their jokes and stories. They cheered her up. When we were asked to go away to the opposite bank, she cried so much that there was nothing for it but to stay.

"The worst time was after that—when the Germans were preparing their biggest attack. Our men could not possibly retreat. I don't remember much about the day of the attack, because we were stunned. It seemed as though the earth itself had cracked. But as you know, our men held on.

"When after the battle the commander saw me and my little girl he was astounded. He said, 'You don't mean to say you stayed here with that child?' My little girl was quite frightened by his look. So she offered him some tea to calm him down. Then he picked her up and put her on his knee and began to laugh until the tears ran down his face. Perhaps he was crying, not laughing. I couldn't quite make out."

* * *

It was by ignoring the horror of what was unspeakably horrible that Russia held on in that early hell of defense. Russia took the danger as easily and quietly as the shoemaker and his daughter, in the crater on the Volga bank.

At the beginning of the war, when the Russian people were using home-made incendiary bottles to stop tanks,

they made fun of the whole business as they stepped out to certain death. They were not at all inclined to dramatize themselves.

It was in those days that pilots who had run out of ammunition started the ramming technique. The first perished along with the enemy. Those who came after, while honoring the pioneers' supreme courage, learned to employ ramming tactics with such skill that they could smash the enemy's propeller while keeping their own plane intact.

Among Russian soldiers the brave exploit of one becomes a rule for all. That was why the level of sheer heroism reached such a stupendous height as the war progressed.

I remember the dread of encirclement during the first months of the war. Yet somehow units found their way out, fighting their way across scores and sometimes hundreds of miles. Before long, encirclement maneuvers were studied as one of the regular methods of fighting. Big formations purposely went into "encirclement," broke through the enemy front, spent weeks on end in the German rear.

That is characteristic of the Red Army—the knack of making the heroic example part of the system of fighting. In spite of their organization and exactitude, the Germans learned nothing during the war, and finally fell victim to their own hackneyed pattern. In the last phase of the war every person in the Red Army, from the youngest platoon commander to the Chief of the General Staff, had learned to outwit the German.

In battle, Russians display a dazzling inventiveness and boldness of thought that the Germans would regard as sheer foolhardiness.

Behind the outflanking of all East Prussia by Marshal Rokossovsky's troops, behind Marshal Zhukov's break-through from the interior of Poland to Berlin, lay all the experience amassed since June 22, 1941, by every soldier of the Red Army, and the simple staunchness of the shoemaker of Stalingrad.

Notes on Soviet Life

The news of the award of the rank of Generalissimo to Stalin has aroused a fervent demonstration of the Soviet people for their leader. Messages of congratulations are pouring in from all parts of the country. The occasion is being celebrated with new achievements in industry. Pavel Yemelyanov, leader of a crew of Donbas miners, carried out a pledge to produce 30 extra carloads of coal. The miners of the Gigant colliery finished their plan for the first six months of this year on June 29, and promised to turn out 1,500 tons of coal above the schedule by the end of the month. The collective farmers of the Stalin artel in the Karelian-Finnish Republic have promised to complete the harvesting in record time.

★

A decree has been passed reinstating vacations for workers and office employees, revoked during the war. The Council of People's Commissars of the USSR has the right to withhold vacations in certain vital branches of industry until the end of 1945, for which the workers will receive special compensation.

★

Citizens of Byelorussia are extending a helping hand to families of servicemen and war invalids, orphans, and to the mothers of large families. 55,000 new apartments have been repaired. In the past year social insurance organizations issued more than 330 million rubles in pensions to disabled veterans. Grants amounting to 56 million rubles were issued by the State to 30,000 women with large families.

★

The defense of Leningrad is being perpetuated in a monument designed by a group of Soviet architects. Other memorials will be constructed on the sites of historical battles near the city and on the common graves of the people who perished during the siege. At either end of the famous ice road which stretched from shore to shore across Lake Ladoga, appropriate markers will be erected.

Demobilized Red Army men and officers recently arrived in Minsk, capital of Byelorussia. Everywhere the demobilized men receive a hearty welcome. The trains on which they arrive are decorated with flags. Special halls at the railway station have been placed at their disposal, and they are met by delegations with flowers and gifts. The local Soviets of Working People's Deputies have apartments and dormitories ready for them.

★

At the recent Fourth Session of the Supreme Soviet of the Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic, the budget for 1945 was ratified. Out of revenues of 728 million rubles, about one-third is allocated to the rehabilitation of industry and the economy of the cities and villages; nearly half to cultural measures and improvement of living conditions; approximately one-fourth to public education and the development of science and art.

★

The "Victory" wristwatch is being put into production by the first State watch factory. Three specially built departments will handle its manufacture.

★

An exhibition entitled "German Atrocities" is being held at the Byelorussian State Museum of the History of the Great Patriotic War. All the instruments of torture employed by the Germans are on display, including fetters, chains, whips, lashes and pistols, as well as photographs of a model of cell No. 4, with the inscriptions made on the walls by the people who were later tortured to death. There are copies of letters from many Byelorussians driven to slave labor in Germany. Two halls are used to show the destruction of Byelorussian cities and villages, and photographs of the ruins of Minsk, Vitebsk, Gomel and Mogilev. A shocking effect is produced by the documents of the horrors of the ghetto where sculptor Brozer, Professor Siteman, stage director Zorov and others were brutally murdered.

Grand Master Mikhail Botvinnik, who holds the title USSR Chess Champion, is the winner of the 14th USSR chess championship tournament that ended this week in Moscow. He played 17 games without losing one, and scored 15 points out of a possible 17, with only four draws. Botvinnik left his nearest runner-up far behind, scoring three whole points ahead of Boleslavsky, a fact unprecedented in the history of Soviet chess. Chess Master N. Zubarev, chief judge, said: "Botvinnik is a player at the peak of his creative strength and fully qualified to compete for the world championship." The third place was taken by D. Bronstein, a young and energetic Soviet player. Grand Masters Bondarevsky, Kotov and Konstantinovskiy followed with nine and one half points each.

★

In preparation for the harvest the collective farms are setting their flour and hulling mills in order. Before the war farms had more than 100,000 water and wind-driven mills, 60 per cent of which were wrecked in the regions occupied by the Germans. Last year the collective farms repaired and rebuilt 23,000 flour mills, and this year it is planned to restore 5,500, repair 16,000 and build 2,000 entirely new ones.

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The Demobilized Soldiers Are Coming Home

By G. Volchek

To understand the meaning of Soviet friendship, one should have seen Rostov on July 6. Twenty-five thousand citizens thronged the square before the railway station to meet the first train bringing the demobilized Red Army soldiers.

Flowers and presents were showered on the heroic soldiers who, rather embarrassed, found themselves in the embrace of complete strangers, who kissed them and called them their deliverers from the German yoke. Men who had looked death squarely in the face were now moved to tears.

There is a great joy throughout the Rostov Region, in all the cities and Cossack villages on the Don, where homes are being hastily renovated for the returning soldiers and presents assembled. Many districts planned special allotments for the soldiers' families. In the Zimnikov district alone, more than 2,000 homes have already been repaired for these families, who will receive 140 head of cattle and large quantities of agricultural products.

Rostov is a large railway junction through which the trains carrying the demobilized soldiers proceed to the Northern Caucasus, Transcaucasia, and the Kuban and Stavropol Regions, and the Rostov railwaymen have made preparations to give a fitting welcome to the country's defenders. Repair shops for shoes and clothing have been opened at the station as well as special dispensaries and information offices. Rostov artists decorated the terminal of the North Caucasian railway. Regional theaters have arranged concerts. Books have been provided in Russian, Georgian, Armenian and other languages of the Caucasus.

The first train to carry demobilized soldiers to Minsk arrived at the capital of the Byelorussian SSR on July 6. The soldiers were welcomed by throngs of people and representatives of the Red Army and public organizations. The people had provided excellent food, had arranged for medical aid at the station, and equipped special buildings for relaxation in the city.

During their brief stay in Minsk, the soldiers visited the numerous theaters and museums. In the evening they boarded comfortable trains to continue their homeward journey.

In the same way Baku made elaborate preparations for the soldiers. On the initiative of the October District Soviet, housewives and soldiers' wives in the Azerbaijan capital formed volunteer crews to renovate apartments for the demobilized soldiers.

In the Gorky Region, collective farmers are building more than 500 new homes for soldiers' families and repairing all the cottages and apartments of returning war heroes. The farms have set aside cattle for the returning fighters.

In accordance with the law of demobilization, soldiers returning home must be provided with positions not inferior to those held before being called up for service. The citizens of the Gorky Region have planned interesting work for them. The construction of the 80 collective farm hydroelectric stations now in



Radiophotos

HEROES RETURN TO LENINGRAD—Guardsmen marching through the streets of the city; (right), They pass under the Triumphal Arch

progress in the surrounding countryside will utilize this new source of manpower. Many of the demobilized soldiers will be offered executive positions on the collective farms.

The Molotov auto plant in Gorky, being reconverted to peaceful production, will require a vast number of engineers and skilled workers. How eagerly the plant is looking forward to the return of the demobilized soldiers is evident from the statement of I. Loskutov, director of the Molotov plant: "Demobilized Red Army soldiers will receive a ready welcome in our plant. We will surround them with care and attention to create the best possible living and working conditions for them. We will do everything

to make it possible for the soldiers and officers of the Red Army returning to peaceful labor to work productively and enjoy their leisure together with all our workers."

The Molotov plant is making permanent repairs on 1,000 apartments for frontline fighters. Timber and other materials for private cottage construction have been set aside. The plant is now engaged in housing construction and a large proportion of the 16,000 square meters of new housing space will be for the returning soldiers.

Special posts have been set up at every railway station in the Gorky Region and at every harbor. City and village Soviets

have placed at the disposal of these posts the necessary transportation facilities to take the soldiers home. There are hotels at all transfer junctions.

Step by step the country is returning to the standards of peacetime. Annual vacations are again being granted factory and office workers. Industrial enterprises are producing consumers goods.

The Soviet Union has entered a new phase of peaceful development, for which many citizens of the USSR have shed their blood in the struggle against Hitlerism.

This realization is expressed in the joy with which the Soviet people are meeting the demobilized soldiers.

'WE'RE FROM BERLIN'

By A. Dolmatovsky and A. Surkov

The forest is close to the railway station. The tree trunks and walls of the station buildings have deep scars, traces of recent battles. A large group of German armed forces was routed here in the spring, on the eve of the fall of Germany. But all this is past history.

On the main tracks stand a long string of freight cars, ordinary red box cars which rolled along the railroads, perhaps five years ago—perhaps fifty. In their leaf and flower decorations they can hardly be distinguished from the forest. Bright-colored placards and streamers are tacked onto their sides. One long banner says in fresh white letters: "We have sacredly carried out the will of the people. Now we are going home."

Lined up in front of every car are the

"over-age classes" of men in khaki who advanced so many versts along the roads of war, from Moscow to Stalingrad, Mozdok to Berlin. Nearly all have won decorations for the defense of Stalingrad, Moscow, Leningrad and the Caucasus. Many of them have Orders and For Valor Medals. They are the living pages in the heroic history of the companies, battalions and regiments of the First Byelorussian Front.

Today a group of Soviet occupation troops in Germany bid goodbye to the first trainload of demobilized servicemen, veterans of every ordeal of war.

The roll is called for the last time before the train departs.

"Alexei Vasilyevich Subbotin!"

An elderly soldier with a mustache

replies. The Order of the Patriotic War glitters on his chest. We had seen him in the streets of Berlin when he carried 47 wounded comrades to safety. His fighting career started on the approaches to Moscow and ended in the capital of the vanquished enemy.

"Feodor Timofeyevich Blokhin!"

A Hero of the Soviet Union steps forward. Blokhin took part in the operation which saved the bridge of Vitebsk. It seems ages since this happened.

"Ivan Grigorievich Barsukov!"

A husky Siberian gunner replies. If you should happen to pass through the Berlin-Lincolnerstrasse which leads to the Tempelhofer Park you will see the black skeletons of four German tanks. They were knocked out by Barsukov. In Berlin he met his younger brother, who is staying behind to serve with the occupation troops. Ivan Barsukov is returning today to his wife and children in distant Siberia.

The men break into song. The tunes are the same that they sang in the dugouts and around campfires. This military treat at a station in Germany reminds us of the years of Soviet industrialization, when thousands of people sang in the freight cars on their way to build Magnitogorsk or the town of Komsomolsk on the Amur in the Far East. Now these soldiers are



Units of the Estonian Corps, back in their native Tallinn, proceed through Victory Square

Radiophoto

In a quiet corner of the Moscow Zoological Garden Captain Sergei Biryukov describes the natural life for his son, Vladimir. The captain has received two orders for heroism in action



going back to their homes in the Urals and Siberia.

The sound of a bugle reverberates through the air.

"Hop in!"

The demobilized servicemen sit down among their bags and the gifts presented to them by buddies staying on. Lieutenant Generals Telegin and Galadjev pass down the track, stopping before each car to shake hands with the passengers, to thank them for their services and to extend greetings, from Marshal Zhukov.

Lieutenant General Telegin speaks to the men. He recalls the fighting advance of the First Byelorussian Front from Stalingrad to Berlin and the great battles won.

The officers who have come to see their soldiers off chat with them for the last time.

"Don't forget my address!" is a frequent admonition.

Someone calls out from a car window: "Comrade Major, tell our Colonel not to be worried about us. We feel fine in here."

In some cars accordions are being played, but they are drowned out by the long whistle of the locomotive.

"Happy journey!"

The cars slowly roll past the generals and officers. A sign on one of the cars says: "We're From Berlin!"

The train gathers speed. The familiar faces of comrades-in-arms flash by. There are tears in the eyes of some of the soldiers. They are probably crying for the first time during the war. Their tears are of joy and sorrow, joy at returning home, and sorrow over the separation from friends made in the fire of battles.

The demobilized men cheer and wave their hands. A sergeant major with a red mustache shouts: "Keep everything in order here!" A middle-aged serviceman calls out: "Thanks for your friendship! We won't forget you!"

The first train with the demobilized Red Army men rolls eastward. A west-bound train passes, its red freight cars also decorated with foliage. Over the doors the Tricolor flags of the French Republic flap in the wind. Sun-tanned Frenchmen wave their handkerchiefs and shout: "Vive la Russie!" They are also going home. The road back to their

native land was opened by the men on the train now rushing eastward.

The last car disappears around the bend. The train will roll over bridges restored by the sappers and soldiers of the railway troops. It will speed across Poland, freed by the Red Army, and then further on through Byelorussia. And the soldiers returning home will reflect:

This is where we held defense positions in 1941.

This is where we advanced in '43.

We trapped a large group of Germans here.

The fields, woods and river will spread before them like a book in which many a page of their life is written. At every station people seeing the sign "We're from Berlin!" will throw bouquets of flowers through the open doors of the freight cars.

Glory to the victors! The country meets them with open arms.

The locomotive pulling the trains with the heroes of Berlin has a huge portrait of Stalin drawn by a frontline artist. And the men who are going home carry the image of their leader in their hearts.

Happy journey, friends!

The USSR—Mighty Bulwark of Universal Peace and Progress

By N. Ananyev

From IZVESTIA, July 11:

The United Nations have won the war against Hitler Germany, the common enemy of all the freedom-loving nations. As Stalin stated, "The period of the war in Europe is over. The period of peaceful development has begun."

By winning the war with fascist Germany, the United Nations served a great historic cause. Now the task pointed out by Stalin is to make it impossible for new aggression and new wars to crop up, if not forever, at least for a long period of time.

Our heroic Red Army, all the peoples of the USSR and particularly the great Russian people, played a decisive part in the military defeat of Hitler's robber state, in the deliverance of the nations of Europe and their centuries-old culture from Hitler's tyranny. The USSR is also the mightiest bulwark of universal peace and progress, a most important force in the struggle for enduring peace and security for all nations in the future.

At the conference in San Francisco, Foreign Commissar Molotov reminded all the participating countries that the peoples of the USSR are not only able to fight for their country with arms in hand and defend it to the end, but also are devoted heart and soul to the cause of a durable, universal peace. The Soviet Union, said Molotov, can be relied on to do its share for the defense of the peace and security of the peoples. Behind this great cause stand unswervingly our peace-loving people, the Soviet Government, the Red Army and our great Marshal Stalin.

This is graphically proved by the entire history of the Soviet State.

From the first days of its existence the Soviet State founded by Lenin and Stalin has demonstrated before the entire world both its sincere desire to live in peace and friendship with all nations and its intransigence toward the reactionary forces which interfere with human progress. The Soviet State has proved its fidel-

ity to the principles of friendship with other nations, not just in words but in deeds; also in deeds the Soviet State has shown its policy of peace, its ardent desire for peaceful relations, for economic and cultural cooperation with all nations on a basis of mutual respect for the rights of sovereignty and free development.

Even in the first days of its existence the Soviet Government had adopted a decree on peace, which set forth the principles of the foreign policy of the Soviet State and the renunciation before the whole world of all predatory aims. Since then it has invariably striven for friendly relations with all peoples, irrespective of their past or present, their strength or weakness.

The Soviet Union has shown by its deeds that it respects the freedom of all nations and values peaceful relations with all countries. No one in the world, unless he wants deliberately to distort facts, can deny the Soviet Union has always conducted its policy as Lenin stated, "by no means with the aim of plunging peoples into war, but to put an end to war."

Always and by every means has the Soviet Union adhered to its policy of peace. It constantly denounced the war mongers and always availed itself of the slightest opportunity to safeguard the peace, not only for the peoples of the USSR but for those throughout the world.

The fundamental principle of its foreign policy as proclaimed by the Soviet State is the recognition of the independence and sovereignty of all peoples, and it has always been guided by Lenin's and Stalin's maxims that peace on that basis has every chance for being more durable.

Invariably pursuing a policy of equality and free development in regard to all peoples, the Soviet Government, as is well known, set out to annul all unequal treaties concluded by the tsarist government, the first of which concerned Iran. By the Treaty of February 26, 1921, the Soviet Government entirely liquidated the policy of the tsarist and

Provisional bourgeois government with regard to Iran. Still earlier, on May 2, 1919, the Soviet Government issued a special declaration recognizing the sovereign rights of Afghanistan and, by the terms of the treaty signed in 1921, established diplomatic relations. The Soviet Government from the beginning abrogated as well all unequal treaties and special privileges which tsarist Russia enjoyed in China, and on May 31, 1921, signed a treaty with China which was the first equal treaty to be concluded with that country.

From its very inception the Soviet State sought to establish normal economic and diplomatic relations with all the countries of Europe. Here too, in regard to the states of the west, the peace policy of the Soviet Government and its unrelenting and determined struggle against the war mongers soon led to major successes. In 1924 alone, the Soviet Union resumed diplomatic relations with a number of European countries. Later the USSR concluded a series of non-aggression and neutrality pacts with both the western and eastern countries.

The Soviet Union thus demonstrated from the very first its constant desire for peaceful relations and economic and cultural cooperation with all peoples on the basis of mutual respect for rights. Long before the war, progressive people everywhere became convinced the Soviet Union is a State whose Government's principal concern is to organize a free and secure life for all its peoples. For the sake of this principle the Soviet State has constantly worked for the establishment of peaceful and friendly economic and cultural cooperation with all other countries.

No wonder that soon, particularly after it accomplished the gigantic reconstruction of its entire national economy, the Soviet Union became a great political, economic and cultural force in the international arena, and the center for all the peoples and states interested in the preservation of peace.

Evidence of the unshakable devotion of the USSR to the cause of peace in the entire world, and to the cause of freedom of the peoples of all countries, is provided also by its foreign policy in the years which immediately preceded the Second World War, when the individual hotbeds of war, which then made their appearance, created an atmosphere of apprehension and uncertainty in the relations among countries. In that period the Soviet Union, while working to strengthen its defenses, unswervingly pursued a policy of safeguarding the peace. In May, 1935, the USSR concluded with France a treaty of mutual assistance against possible aggression; a similar one with Czechoslovakia at the same time; another with the Mongolian Peoples' Republic in March, 1936; and in August, 1937, a treaty of nonaggression with the Chinese Republic.

Republican Spain was the first country in which the fascist aggressors challenged world democracy. The Soviet Union saw and understood this, and appealed for the defense of Republican Spain. The USSR fully realized as well the fatal consequences of the Munich policy and exposed its framers, and indefatigably fought for collective security.

In that complicated struggle for peace throughout the world, the Soviet Union relied on its growing economic and political power, on the moral support of all peace-loving peoples, and on the glorious Red Army. This invariable policy of peace, of respect for the rights and liberty of other nations, explains why in the years of the war against the German-fascist invaders and the severe trials for our country, all freedom-loving nations of the world became the friends of the USSR.

In the course of the recent war, progressive mankind was repeatedly convinced of the greatness and noble-mindedness of the peoples of the USSR, and of their love for liberty and devotion to the cause, not only of their own freedom, but the freedom of all other peoples.

In the early months of the war, Stalin said, "We have not and cannot have such war aims as the imposition of our will and our regime on the Slavs and other enslaved peoples of Europe who are awaiting our aid. Our aim consists in assisting these peoples in their struggle for libera-

tion from Hitler's tyranny and then setting them free to rule on their own land as they desire."

And the Soviet Union and its heroic Red Army, which liberated the peoples of Poland and Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria and Rumania, Hungary and Austria, from Hitler's tyranny, have strictly lived up to this statement of their leader and teacher.

Our Red Army and the entire Soviet Union led by the Party of Lenin and Stalin have proved worthy of our Socialist State, worthy of the great mission of liberating Europe from German fascism.

In all the countries liberated from fascist tyranny, the Red Army, in accordance with the statements of the Soviet Government, is setting an example of respect for the honor and dignity of liberated peoples, for their state system, culture, national traditions, and the great monuments of their past. The Red Army in no case prevents the liberated peoples from living their lives on their lands as they see fit.

No one can deny today that the German-fascist brigands, with their robber state and army, presented the most terrible danger to the freedom of all nations, to world democracy, and to the progress of mankind. Nor can anyone deny that the USSR played the decisive role in smashing Hitler's army and Hitler's robber state.

Throughout this war the Soviet people and their heroic Red Army, led by the great Stalin, fought with high courage and determination against the common enemy of mankind. They made great sacrifices, not only because they are boundlessly devoted to their country, but also because they saw and knew that on the issue of the struggle depended the fate of the world, the fate of democracy, the life and liberty of all other peoples. The Soviet peoples and the heroic Red Army, responding to the call of their leader, proved worthy of the great mission which fell to their lot. The enemy has been crushed and, as a result of the combined efforts of the USSR, Great Britain and the United States, now lies prostrate.

The peoples of the USSR were aware that the victory in the war against Hitler Germany depended on the unity of the three leading world powers, the USSR,

Great Britain and the United States, and that on their close cooperation depends the fate of the peace. That is why the USSR unswervingly and strictly carried out the decisions of the Moscow Conference of the three Ministers and the decisions of the leaders of the three powers at Teheran, which vividly demonstrated the strengthening of the fighting alliance between the USSR, Great Britain and the United States. That is why the USSR is consistently observing the decisions of the Crimea Conference, which proclaimed the close cooperation of the three great powers, not only in war, but in peace.

The peoples of the USSR hailed the decisions of the Crimea Conference, which expressed the resolve not only to consummate the defeat of Hitler Germany, the common enemy of all mankind, but also to create, in cooperation with other peace-loving nations, a durable and lasting peace, and for the sake of this lofty aspiration of humanity, to wipe out German militarism and Nazism, to severely punish the war and fascist criminals, to establish true democracy in Europe, and to complete the moral and political defeat of fascism.

The peoples of the USSR are also sincere in their desire that the United Nations international organization for the maintenance of universal peace and security set up in San Francisco should speedily become a really effective organization.

Those are but a few facts illustrating the adherence of the peoples of the USSR to the cause of universal peace and human progress.

The Soviet Union has never threatened anyone. It has always respected the rights and liberties of other nations, a policy which stems from the very essence of the Soviet State. In the USSR there are no classes or groups that could have an interest in enmity among nations or in the acquisition of foreign territory. That is why the USSR, which came forward as the main force in the struggle against Hitler Germany, is also the mightiest bulwark for the freedom, peace and independence of nations and their universal progress.

The foreign policy of the USSR, of respect for the rights and liberty of other nations and of a constant struggle for

peace throughout the world, has been fully vindicated by recent history. And the great role of the USSR in the cultural advancement of nations is now universally recognized.

The Soviet Union, whose political foundation has proved not only the best form for the organization of the country's economic and cultural progress in the

years of peaceful development, but also the best form for the mobilization of all the forces of the nation to repel the enemy in wartime, has emerged from the war stronger and more powerful.

In the years of war it has strengthened and extended its international connections. The peoples of the USSR learned to overcome difficulties. They have ral-

lied closer around the Bolshevik Party and around their great leader, Stalin, the inspirer and architect of our victories.

It is the burning desire of the Soviet people to add further to their country's strength and power in order to advance more speedily along the road to prosperity and to make a still greater contribution to the cause of peace throughout the world and to universal human progress.

Reunion of the Volodin Family

By D. Stonov

With Captain Alexei Volodin home on leave from Germany, the Volodin family is at last enjoying complete reunion. I want to describe this family because it is quite unexceptional. The Volodins are an average family, like thousands of others in Moscow.

In Moscow there is a confectionary plant called Red October, where until 1937, Vasili Volodin was employed. On his 60th birthday he also celebrated 40 years of work at the factory, and was retired on a pension. He had begun as a messenger boy and advanced to foreman. By that time his son had become the shop manager of a large engineering plant, three grandsons and two granddaughters were studying in college and in secondary school. The whole family lived together in a large house.

Then the war burst like a hurricane into the house, upsetting everything.

Vasili Volodin's two grandsons were called up to the Army. The third grandson, a geology student, was in the Urals in summer study. A month later, the Volodins who had remained in Moscow received a letter from him in which he wrote that his geological expedition was now working for war needs and that he would remain in the Urals until the end of the war. By this time another member of the family, Serafima Volodina, a third-year student in the Medical Institute, was called to the service.

At home the customary atmosphere of cheer and bustle disappeared. Grandfather Vasili found idleness so oppressive that he went back to his old job at the factory. Rest became a kind of torture. He protested: "The idleness and aw-

ful silence at home are enough to make me ill . . . everyone is working now; am I different from the others?" The factory took him back.

The two women kept the house going—Klavdia Volodina and her daughter-in-law Elizaveta. With so many members of the family away, there was much less housekeeping to do, so the two women decided to give their spare time to defense work. They took turns in being on duty in the hospital, and sewed and knitted for the sick and wounded.

In October, 1941, the fighting was at the gates of Moscow. The men in the plant where engineer Volodin was work-

ing went to defend their capital. The three women were left at home. A week later, Tanya Volodina, a ninth-grade pupil, disappeared. She left a note saying she had gone to join the guerrillas. "I hated to disobey you, but I could not remain home at such a time," she wrote. "Try to understand and don't blame me. . . ."

Of the large, happy family, only two women and the head of the family, old Vasili Volodin, were left. The women did war work, watched for letters and waited for Vasili Volodin to come home from the factory.

The first to come home brought sorrow: Fedor Volodin, a grandson who had gone to the front at the beginning of the war came back with an amputated leg.

And gradually the house began to fill up. Vasili Volodin's son, the engineer, returned home. A volunteer defender of Moscow, he had remained in the Army until early 1944 when he was sent back to his plant. Her partisan career over, Tanya again took up her studies. Serafima, who had served as an Army doctor's assistant, now resumed her studies at the Medical Institute. The geologist came home, too.

With Captain Alexei Volodin on leave from Germany, the family is once more assembled around the long table. They are sharing the sweet joy of reunion with neighbors and friends. Glasses are filled.

Young Alexei Volodin who has had no experience in making long toasts, says: "To the happiness of the Volodins, to the happiness of our country."

Everyone understands that the two are inseparable.



Бондаренко
Twice Hero of the Soviet Union Mikhail Bondarenko, decorated for his services in the Great Patriotic War

DNIEPER SHIPS SAIL AGAIN

By Georgi Kovalenko

Chief of the Dnieper Steamship Service

We began to get the Dnieper steamship service going again the moment the Red Army emerged on the river banks in hot pursuit of the retreating enemy, in the autumn of 1943. Armed with rifles, men who had worked on our steamers before the war accompanied the Red Army spearhead patrols, fought in the battles for the crossings, helped to build bridges, and salvaged sunken river craft which were used at once to ferry equipment across.

Last spring, as soon as the basin had been cleared of Germans, navigation opened—in a small way at first, because the enemy had left us practically nothing.

The Dnieper is the third longest river in Europe—1,500 miles. The area of its basin and tributaries is 190,000 square miles. Before the war steamship lines served some 2,300 miles of the mainstream and its tributaries.

When, in 1932, the sluices and the Dnieper power station were completed, the river became navigable from Orsha, in Byelorussia, to Kherson, where it flows into the Black Sea.

Hundreds of steamers and barges plied the Dnieper with loads of Byelorussian timber, Ukrainian grain, Donets coal, oil and salt. The passenger boats carried between six and seven million people a year.

The Dnieper flows through a rich land, and all the industries of that area were connected, in some way or another, with the river. The State spared no expense on the upkeep and improvement of this waterway.

The Germans left us only 68 small steamers—all damaged—and a few barges. Only one of our 19 dredges remained—the rest were sunk. But the most terrible loss of all was the Dnieper power station, dams and sluices. Between Dniepropetrovsk and Zaporozhye the rapids had their way again, and for that stretch the river was made unnavigable. Once more, the services on the upper and lower reaches were divided, as they were before

we built the dam on the Dnieper River.

Before the war, 75 per cent of the loading at the various ports was mechanized. The Germans left only a fragment of the equipment intact—at Kiev. All the rest was either blown up or sunk. Not more than one-fifth of all the covered landing stages and warehouses remained standing. Seven out of ten shipyards were totally destroyed. The remaining three were in bad state. Most of their equipment had been wrecked or sent to Germany.

The steamship service used to run hospitals, polyclinics, clubs, nurseries, medical institutions. They all shared the general fate of plunder and ruin.

Our rehabilitation detachments were faced, therefore, with salvaging sunken vessels, deepening the river bed, building new wharves and warehouses, and providing decent living conditions for those who had returned to work. The fruits of so many years of hard work had vanished, it was a task to dismay the boldest, but not our workers.

We began by raising the wrecks. The difficulty was to inspect the boats while they were still submerged, and determine whether there was any purpose in raising them. Since the salvage brigades did not possess a single diving suit among them, they had to select the strongest swimmers, who, following the primitive technique of pearl divers, made a quick survey of the sunken craft and reported on the damage.

The building of quays and warehouses, the restoration of harbor installations and communication lines, and the repair of dredges went on simultaneously.

In a surprisingly short time, the warning lights of buoys were glinting in the shallows. By the end of the first navigation season after the Red Army's crossing of the Dnieper, 646,000 tons of cargo had been transported. True, it was only a tenth of the prewar average, but it was far more than we had dared to hope for.

Our efforts did not slacken during the winter. Vessels were reconditioned, shipping offices were rebuilt.

It is not much more than a year since the Dnieper was completely freed from the invader. In the past twelve months 215 steamers and 247 barges have been reconditioned. Four dredgers are busy clearing fairways and havens. Several passenger stations have been rebuilt. About 800 miles of communication lines are in use again. And we have replaced just about half the wrecked machinery, warehouses, plants and workshops. The total amount spent on the reconstruction of the Dnieper steamship service in the past year was over 50 million rubles.

During 1945 we expect to carry about 1,115,000 tons of cargo—a big increase, but still less than a quarter of the prewar figure.

Our problem today is to acquire new river vessels and new equipment. Our shipyards at Dniepropetrovsk, Zaporozhye and Kherson will be busy for a long time.

It will take another few years of very hard work to restore the Dnieper waterway. But we shall see the day when the dams, sluices and power station will rise again from their ruins, and the steamers will ply again from Orsha to Kherson.

Championship Cattle Bred

Soviet stock breeders have developed a new line of cattle, the "Kostromichka," which holds the world milking record. The best flock of this breed, at the Karavaevo State farm, excels for its weight on the hoof; and the milk yield surpasses that of all other known cattle breeds.

"Poslushnitsa Vtoraya," the champion cow, gave 16,262 liters of milk with 3.9 per cent butter content during the past year.

The Kostromichka breed is the result of 25 years of persistent work by the self-educated farmer, Stanislav Steimanov, now chief zootechnician at the Karavaevo State farm.

A Lesson in Russian

By V. Starikov

Captain Beloglazov, commander of a battalion, was watching his men throw a pontoon bridge across a river at night when his senior aide-de-camp came up and said that a German civilian suspected of being an officer had been detained and refused to answer questions.

The battalion commander, who spoke German fluently, occasionally questioned prisoners himself. He told the aide-de-camp not to send the suspicious German to Regimental Staff Headquarters until he saw him.

Beloglazov returned from the river an hour later and gave the order to bring the suspect into his room. The German was tall, lean, and appeared to be about 40. The end of his right sleeve was tucked in a pocket, and he had a small scar across his right eyebrow. He acted as though he had nothing to be afraid of, bowing to the captain and seating himself in an armchair. Speaking in German, Beloglazov sternly ordered him to stand up. The German leaped out of the chair like a soldier, his left hand pressed to his side, head erect, heels together.

"Now, you may sit down," Beloglazov said. Accustomed to the fact that German civilians were afraid of confessing their nationality, he continued, "So you are a Pole, like the rest of the inhabitants here?"

"Oh, no," the man said calmly, "I am a German."

"Why did you stay behind?"

"I haven't anything to do with the army."

"What about that?" Beloglazov pointed to the empty sleeve. The German said that he had lost his right arm 20 years ago in an automobile accident. That was why he hadn't been called up for the army.

Beloglazov listened to the man's hoarse, affectedly calm, and strangely familiar voice, trying to recall where he had heard it before.

Sitting back in his chair, the German continued his explanations. He had nothing to be afraid of, he said, after all, he was an ordinary civilian and . . .

"That's enough," the Captain almost shouted. "Perhaps we had better switch over to the Russian language and continue a Russian lesson interrupted two years ago."

The German lifted his eyebrows in surprise. What did the Russian Commander want from him?

"You fought on the Eastern Front, didn't you?" Beloglazov said.

The German shook his head.

"Listen," Beloglazov continued in Russian. "I will remind you of the winter of 1942. Do you remember Dedovichi Chikhayevo near Porkhov?"

The German stared at the Captain with dull, uncomprehending eyes.

"So, you still don't understand the Russian language? Very well, I'll start talking aloud to myself. It is winter in Russia. Icy winds blow across the snow-covered country. The guerrillas are giving the German troops in the Pskov area no peace. A punitive expedition, composed of an SS battalion, an artillery battery and three self-propelled guns, sets out to catch the guerrillas. The expedition is commanded by Major . . . Don't you remember his name?"

The German remained silent, staring straight head.

"The major's name was Kreming. The next scene is in the village of Kamenniye Brody. The staff headquarters of an SS battalion is in one of the three houses left in the village. A schoolteacher detained late at night on the road, and other suspects are brought in for questioning. The teacher's name is Beloglazov. He speaks German fluently, but the questions are asked in Russian. Major Kreming sees a chance to improve his Russian. He says that a Russian lesson given by a guerrilla teacher will be quite useful. Need I go on?"

Not a sound from the German.

"The interrogation goes on for a long time. Major Kreming even starts talking about the outcome of the war. He laughs when the teacher says that the

Russians will chase the Germans across the Oder and up to the Spree. The Russian lesson continues for two hours. And then. . . ."

Beloglazov rose from his chair and approached the German.

"Then you order your men to take the teacher out and shoot him. You still don't remember anything? You're no longer interested in the Russian language?"

The German stood up and faced the Captain.

"I know you," he said.

"Where did you lose your right arm. Major Kreming?"

"On the Eastern Front. I am no longer a soldier. I am vanquished. What will happen to me?"

"You'll be taken back to Russia," the Captain said. "You will see the villages around Pskov, where you are cursed in every house. There you will answer for all the sorrow and suffering you have caused. That's all, Major Kreming. Your Russian lesson is over."

The Captain walked away, leaving the German SS officer on the porch. A starless sky hung over Germany.

"The day of justice has come," Beloglazov thought, trying to calm himself—still fighting down the desire to carry out justice on the spot.

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July 22—Navy Day

According to established tradition, the people of the USSR annually celebrate Soviet Navy Day in July.

The Soviet Union's State boundary extends for some 65,000 kilometers, of which 48,000 kilometers or roughly three-fourths, is washed by seas. And then bells are sounded on board Soviet vessels off the Pacific coast as the signal to turn in the night, bells on Soviet warships off the western shores ringing for the morning watch.

As a great power the Soviet Union is proud of its Navy and the many illustrious names among its seafaring people. The Soviet Navy has a glorious fighting tradition behind it, built up by men like Paul Nakhimov, hero of the Sevastopol defense of the last century, and Theodore Ushabov. At the time when Nelson made naval history in the Mediterranean Sea, Admiral Shakov was his ally—a man who never knew defeat, whose motto was: "Don't count your losses—crush them!"

The Soviet Government and its founders, Lenin and Stalin, fully realized the importance of the Navy in the country's defense, and did everything possible to build up the fleet. The

successful fulfillment of two Stalin Five-Year Plans lifted shipbuilding to the level of the foremost branches of Soviet industry. Thus it became possible for the country to embark upon a colossal program of naval construction during the Third Five-Year Plan.

Among the designers of new warships the Soviet Union is the outstanding

scientist Academician Alexei Krylov. In strengthening its Navy, the Soviet State did much to perfect naval armaments,

Stepan Makarov; the torpedo boat, the torpedo launch and the icebreaker originated in Russia.



Poster by V. Karetsky

opening wide horizons for the initiative of its inventors, whose work has always been the pride of the fleet. Russian seamen invented minelaying in the '50's of the last century; the inventor of the radio was the Russian scientist Alexander Popov, in the service of the Russian fleet; the first armor-piercing shell was devised and employed by the Russian Admiral

When the Germans attacked the USSR, the Baltic, Northern and Black Sea fleets gave them a reception that must have reminded them of events on the Baltic Sea in the First World War, concerning which Kaiser Wilhelm II wrote the following: "The war in the Baltic is exceedingly rich in losses without any corresponding gains."

In the First World War the German plans failed when Admiral Tirpitz tried to wipe out the Russian fleet in the Baltic by a lightning blow, in order to be able to concentrate all the forces of the German fleet for a drive against the Allies in the West.

In the Second World War the plans of the Hitler command, aimed at a lightning blow to crush the Soviet fleet, were also scattered to the four winds by the energetic action of the Soviet sailors.

Both in defense and attack Soviet sailors have displayed remarkable fighting qualities. They supported the land forces with the fire of their ships' artillery, set out landing parties, crushed

the Hitlerites on land and sea and in the air, launched offensives and freed Soviet naval bases and ports.

The sailors of the Black Sea Fleet covered themselves with glory defending Odessa and Sevastopol, and fighting on the coast of the Caucasus against overwhelming odds.

The Baltic sailors were in the front

ranks of the heroic Leningrad defenders.

Nor have the men of the Northern Fleet, operating in the Arctic Ocean, lagged behind. Formed by Stalin in 1933, the Northern Fleet, youngest branch of the Red Navy, has proved itself worthy of the high trust placed in it. In collaboration with the Allied fleets, it has kept open the vitally important sea routes linking the Soviet Union with Great Britain and the United States. The crews of the submarines, cutters and aircraft of the Soviet Northern Fleet inflicted irreparable damage on the enemy, harrying German

shipping off the shores of Norway and Finland.

The Soviet heavy warships, underwater fleet, torpedo cutters and Naval Air Force took heavy toll of the Germans. In 37 months of the Patriotic War, from June 22, 1941, to July 22, 1944, the Soviet Navy sank the following enemy vessels: 1 auxiliary cruiser, 2 armorclads of the coastal defense, 37 destroyers, 50 submarines, 3 minelayers, 129 mine-sweepers, 137 patrol boats, 2 monitors, 12 gunboats, 79 torpedo launches, 288 patrol launches, 850 transports, 89 auxiliary vessels, 392

self-propelled barges, and 766 small craft.

In addition, many warships and auxiliary vessels of the enemy were heavily damaged and thrown out of service for a long time.

Soviet ships, the Naval Air Force and naval anti-aircraft batteries brought down 6,829 enemy planes.

The Soviet Navy occupies a special place in the hearts of the Soviet people. They regard their Navy with pride and gratitude, and like the men of the Red Army, the sailors of the Red Navy are the object of universal honor and esteem.

SOVIET SUBMARINE OPERATIONS

During the war Soviet submarine sailors destroyed about 400 enemy ships of various classes and severely damaged more than 100. Along with the enemy transports, the enormous number of tanks, and other combat equipment, thousands of enemy officers and men went to the bottom.

Although the situation in the northern naval theater was unfavorable for operations of Soviet submarines—continuous daylight in summer, erratic weather, numerous fjords where enemy ships could easily hide—even in 1941, in the first period of the war, the Northern Fleet submarine sailors sank 35 enemy transports and three warships. 1943 was a record year, when 50 enemy transports and 18 warships were sunk. According to incom-

plete data, the Northern submarine sailors sank during the course of the war 180 enemy ships, totaling 900,000 tons.

The situation in the Baltic Sea was also difficult, especially in the Gulf of Finland where the enemy had set up powerful anti-submarine barrages. During the "white nights," the submarines had to run the entire length of the Gulf—a journey of 200 miles—in submerged position. The northern and southern shores of the Gulf were held by the enemy who had set up observation posts there. The Germans believed the Soviet Submarine Fleet to be safely blockaded in Kronstadt and Leningrad. But to their surprise, in 1942 when the Baltic was cleared of ice, the Soviet submarines forced the Gulf of Finland

"funnel" and appeared right at the enemy bases.

The Baltic submarines sank 105 enemy transports and seven warships. Besides numerous enemy ships of various classes were put out of commission.

In the Black Sea, Soviet submarines had to act in shallow waters, mostly against small transports, as the Germans conveyed cargoes in small ships which hugged the coastline. Nevertheless, in the Black Sea, Soviet submarines sank about 100 German ships.

The combat deeds of the submarines were highly appreciated by the Government. Fourteen commanders have been awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union. Many underwater ships were decorated with Orders and awarded the title of Guards Units.

The entire Soviet people admires the gallantry of Hero of the Soviet Union Rear Admiral Kolyshkin, Captains Lunin, Starikov, Fissanovich, Iosseliani, Alekseyev and Kalinin. Captain Starikov's submarine sank 16 enemy ships and transports. During the early months of the war, this boat in broad daylight entered the port of Petsamo, sinking two enemy transports. Sailing out of the bay the boat was caught in a net and showered with depth charges for three and a half hours. Engineer Smychkov stood at the powder magazine, grenade in hand, ready to blow up the boat, but at the last moment Starikov, by a skilful maneuver, pulled out of the net and got away from the enemy. The boat returned to base unharmed.



Sailors marching through Red Square in the Victory Parade. In the foreground are Heroes of the Soviet Union V. Alexeyev (left), and F. Kotanov

'POKRYSHKIN' Film Opens in Moscow

By S. Radzinsky

"Achtung, achtung, Pokryshkin in der luft," chant the German radiomen—in a dramatic opening to the film, *Alexander Pokryshkin*, now showing in Moscow theaters.

The story of the Soviet flier, whom President Roosevelt had called the best fighter ace of this war, covers a period of several months. Cameramen of the First Ukrainian Front and of the Siberian Film Chronicle studios caught the famous flier in action and at home on leave. They filmed him at the outskirts of Berlin when he was combating the "Reich" grouping, the last mainstay of the Luftwaffe; and with his family in Novosibirsk.

We see him speaking to childhood friends in his native city. Plain in appearance and simple in manner, he talks of his youth: He had been a roofer, then a fitter. Even in those days he had dreamed of becoming a flier—like the great Chkalov, who captured his imagination.

Again, Pokryshkin is shown in his peaceful home with his young wife, who had been a front-line nurse when she met the flier. Townspeople come in bringing presents for Pokryshkin's baby. It is apparent that the old Russian woman looking tenderly at the young soldier is his mother—there is a marked resemblance. They embrace as he prepares to leave for the front.

Then come the spring battles of 1945 and the final phase of the war in Germany. The Germans have dynamited their airdromes but the Pokryshkin fighters continue to down the Nazis every day. Such persistence baffles the Germans, who dispatch spies and parachutists to locate the Russian flying fields. When one of them, Fritz Fischer, is caught, he is led along the Breslau-Berlin highway—the very road which the Pokryshkin planes are using for their mystifying base of operations!

There is the first exploit of 19-year-old Junior Lieutenant Goldberg, who downs the German ace, Bruno Worms, after a fierce tangle. The young fighter, who, face beaming, stands beside the downcast German ace and receives the eager con-

Soviet aces on their way from the Kremlin after being decorated, September, 1944. Left to right: Guards Senior Lieutenant A. Trud, Hero of the Soviet Union; Guards Colonel A. Pokryshkin, Thrice Hero of the Soviet Union; Guards Captain G. Rechkalov and Guards Captain I. Gulayev, both Twice Hero of the Soviet Union



gratulations of his proud unit comrades.

At once the Nazi demands to know exactly how Goldberg managed to bring him down. And to the Soviet flier's patient explanation, the German protests that the method is not according to any rules he has ever heard of. "Perhaps not," Goldberg answers, "but it is according to the rules of Alexander Pokryshkin."

Pokryshkin keeps the promise he gave to his friends and family in Novosibirsk.

'The Liberation of Byelorussia'

Throughout the four years of the war cameramen shot scenes on the Byelorussian front and in the enemy rear, where 300,000 guerrillas heroically fought the fascists. The new documentary film, *The Liberation of Byelorussia*, has been released as part of the celebration of the Anniversary of the Republic's deliverance.

The film shows the actual struggle of the partisan detachments. Fragments from German newsreels of the Hitlerites in Byelorussian cities and villages reveal the horror of the fascist occupation.

The first scene is the entry of Soviet troops into the first village liberated by the Red Army. Red Armyman Goechchuk finds his wife and children on the ruins of their home. The peasant, Yanin, presents to Soviet soldiers banners of the Second Infantry Samara-Ulianovsk divi-

He reaches the German capital and the skies over Berlin are cleared of Nazi fliers. The heroic career of the "virtuoso of the air," the daring commander and gifted organizer, the trainer of outstanding Soviet fliers, is an exciting and inspiring movie.

As in the life of the man, the high point of the film is reached when he receives the award, Thrice Hero of the Soviet Union, an honor he alone shares with the great Marshal Zhukov.

sion, given him in 1941 by the dying commander.

Soldiers are shown preparing for a general offensive—breast-deep in ice-cold water, they build river crossings; sappers clear mine fields; scouts lie deep in the snow for hours watching the enemy.

The "rail war" of Soviet troops in cooperation with the guerrillas is caught at its height. Massed blows were struck at communications; 6,000 trains were derailed; 4,000 bridges blown up; and 300,000 pieces of rail dismantled.

Episodes of the combat operations in the Byelorussian offensive and the simultaneous assault on the occupied towns are followed in the movie. In conclusion the ceremonial parade of the valiant guerrillas through the capital, Minsk, is cheered by the throngs of people, who hail the Red Army and the guerrillas.

Foreign Scientists Pay Tribute to the USSR

The following statements published in the Soviet press are by scientists who attended the Jubilee Session of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR:

Professor D. A. MCINNES
Rockefeller Institute,
New York City

My chief impression during my visit to the Soviet Union is of the vast purposefulness of human energy, shown by the great achievements during the period of peace as well as by the astonishing recovery being made from the ravages of war.

The Professors Joffe and Frumkin, are old and valued friends; in addition I have appreciated meeting Professors Kapustinsky, Roginsky, Rebinder, Tamkin and Tesemin.

I have had the privilege of visiting the institutes headed by Professors Frumkin, Semenov and Kapitza, and the Karpov Institute. I was most interested in Professor Frumkin's work since it is most closely related to mine. But I was impressed as well by the work done under Kapitza. It should have much importance for the future, both in theoretical and applied physical science.

As to the very important matter of future relations of United States and Soviet science, I suggest three avenues of approach:

The exchange of information in the form of books and periodicals—more Russian books should be translated into English, and English into Russian.

The exchange of instruments and materials of research.

It is to be hoped that the United States and other countries will follow the splendid example of the Soviet Union in calling together the scientists from many nations. The mutual understanding this brings about has most desirable results in other fields. Arrangements might well be made for the exchange of university professors and advanced students.

Finally, I have a feeling of profound indebtedness to the Academy of Sciences of the USSR for the great privilege of

attending its 220th Anniversary. The weeks I have spent in travel to the Soviet Union and in attendance at the festivities here have been easily the most crowded with interest and profit of any of my life.

Professor MAGHNAD SAHA
of Calcutta University; President of
The Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal.

I was particularly glad to receive the invitation of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR to attend the 220th Jubilee celebration, for Russia of the last 25 years has been a mystic land to us. We have read many accounts of the most complete Revolution in history, achieved by her revolution in political and social structure, economics and technics, and also to some extent in religion. But the stories have been conflicting and we could not form a correct picture.

India suffered a great deal during the World War, but in her trials she hailed with joy every Russian victory, for she knew that the Russian victory opens the way for a better world.

I have now been enabled, through the courtesy of the Academy, to see something of the new Russia after her victorious emergence from the great crisis. It has filled me with new inspiration and

new faith in her philosophy of life, which I shall tell my countrymen.

Here science is the very foundation of the Bolshevik philosophy of life. The way in which the Academicians assist in the completion of the technical revolution fills us with wonder, for the Russia of 1918 was just like my own country of 1945, and today Soviet Russia is one of the most advanced countries of the world.

I should be very glad to increase the exchange between Russian science and Indian science. India is justly proud of her great scientists, geologist Ramaswami Sahni, physicist Bose, astronomist Chandrasekhar, and others. I would have liked them to participate in this international conference along with the many scientists from all parts of the world.

The new Russia has a great deal to teach us: the way in which science is applied to develop the resources of the country and to ameliorate the conditions of the common man; the methods by means of which different social and political groups can work harmoniously for the common good.

To the young Indian student, Russia is the land of promise where he can learn new methods in technology and social organization and apply them to conditions in his own country.

Yasnaya Polyana, Tolstoy's home, now being restored from its wreckage by the Germans, is visited by: President Maurice Caullery, of the French Academy of Sciences; (center), Professor Andre Maisson, of the University of Paris and Academician I. Meshchaninov



Radiophoto



EXCURSION ON THE MOSCOW-VOLGA CANAL—(left), Professor Irving Lengmuir of the General Electric Company studies the chart held by Corresponding Member of the USSR Academy of Sciences M. A. Shatelen. (Right), on the docks U. Uspanov, of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences converses with Dr. C. E. Kellog of the U. S. Department of Agriculture

Radiophotos

Professor VAILLARTA
President, Mexican National
Academy of Science

This is the second time I have visited the Soviet Union. Eighteen years ago I visited Leningrad and Moscow, made a pleasant trip on the Volga from Gorky to Astrakhan and visited Baku, Tbilisi and Batumi.

During my present stay I devoted all my time to the study of the work of Soviet scientists. I inspected Academician Kapitza's laboratory where I was particularly interested in the work of his collaborators, the Alikhanov brothers, who discovered a third component of cosmic rays.

I also acquainted myself with the activities of Pomeranchuk and Migdal, who calculated the terminal energy of cosmic rays. In my opinion the contributions of Soviet physicists represent an absolutely new departure.

In the Lebedev Institute I had a chance to meet the group of physicists headed by Professor Skobeltsin engaged in the study of the powerful ionising particles in cosmic rays and a number of other phenomena connected with cosmic radiation.

Lastly, I saw at first hand the work on semi-conductors at Joffe's laboratory in Leningrad. I was also glad to have the opportunity to discuss my own work with Soviet colleagues. We hope to conduct joint experiments in the future. On behalf of Mexican scientists, I proposed the publication of an international newspaper of scientists. This need has long been felt, and we shall do everything we can to realize it. I hope that after the war normal relations will be established

between the scientists of Mexico and the Soviet Union which will make it possible to organize exchange visits of Soviet professors and students to Mexico, and Mexican professors and students to the Soviet Union. We shall be pleased to have Soviet scientists at our Scientific Congress.

In conclusion, I wish to note the important changes which have occurred in the Soviet Union during the past 18 years. I refer not only to the achievements of Soviet science and the laboratories with up-to-date instruments. The whole country has improved. I am struck particularly by the new appearance of Moscow—the beautiful buildings, the wide streets and squares which have changed the face of the city. I am deeply touched by Soviet hospitality and highly gratified at having the opportunity for discussion with Soviet scientists.

Professor HENRYKH RAABE
Rector of Curie-Skladkowska
University in Lublin

The participation of Polish scientists in the Anniversary celebration of the Academy of Sciences is of great significance for the resumption of our scientific work.

Polish scientists have seen what great successes were made in Soviet science, especially during the war, and how the Academy put science into the service of war. We also discovered that there are many mutual scientific problems between the two neighboring and amicable peoples.

I was particularly pleased to be in Leningrad, for it was here that the acquaintance of the two Revolutionary

poets, Mickiewicz and Pushkin, once ripened into friendship.

The deep friendship of our countries is my earnest wish, for the well-being of the Polish people and the peoples of Soviet land.

MAURICE CAULLERY
President, Academy of Sciences
of France

I was very much gratified to have the opportunity of seeing your great country and its Soviet system of order and good organization.

I have the greatest admiration for the creative spirit of the Soviet people, a truly great and powerful country.

I consider the USSR Academy, at the height of its creative powers, a wonderful ensemble of institutes, laboratories and museums.

The Soviet Union has achieved the most ideal organization in the scientific work of the laboratories and museums. The result is that young people are drawn into scientific activities on a wide scale in the Soviet Union, and in many cases they help the growth and the development of science.

I was particularly struck by the way in which the achievements of your scientists are immediately put into practice. Soviet scientists are solving highly important problems directed towards the consolidation of the public good. Science in the USSR is full of enthusiasm.

We return home inspired by the wish to increase and strengthen our contacts with our Russian colleagues.

STATE PEDIATRICS INSTITUTE

By Professor Georgi Speransky

Member, Academy of Medical Sciences of the USSR

The program for the welfare of children has always been a prominent feature of Soviet Government activity. Shortly after the Revolution, the Department of Mother and Child Welfare was set up and work begun on a network of nurseries, welfare centers, children's homes and milk kitchens.

This tremendous task, new in concept, required a scientific approach based on the knowledge of the anatomical and physiological peculiarities of the young child and the reaction of the child to his environment.

At the end of 1922, the Government established the State Research Institute for Mother and Child Welfare with the following departments: Physiology of Infants, Education and Social Hygiene and Child Pathology, and various clinics (therapeutic, tuberculosis, syphilis, etc.), all of which were closely bound up with the work of the Department of General Pathology. Although certain changes have been made, the Institute is still organized on practically the same lines. The chief task of all departments is the study of the special features and reactions of the child organism in different age groups.

The Institute guides the work of all Soviet pediatric institutes and plans research work on a national scale.

During the early period of its existence the Institute was engaged in the study of the physiology and pathology of children up to three years of age. Questions of feeding, nursing, digestive organs of infants, and the secretory and motor functions of the alimentary canal in sick and healthy children were studied. The data obtained enabled the specialists to work out a diet system for new-born infants suffering from disorders of the stomach and intestines.

A program of public education explained the principles of diet therapy in the treatment of dysentery and the dangers of the "sympathy diet" used by mothers with no specific knowledge of what constitutes proper feeding. Approved by the

majority of pediatricians, this propaganda played an important part in decreasing infant mortality from dysentery.

Simultaneously the Institute began its investigations on a problem of great importance—digestive disorders in infants. The Institute studied this problem for a number of years, making a detailed record of the etiology and pathogenesis of these disorders. The work resulted in a new classification of stomach and intestinal disorders in infants which appeared in 1940.

Chronic indigestion is also the subject of continued study. Effective therapeutic methods were employed: diet, insulin, blood transfusions and others now widely employed by children's doctors.

Pneumonia in infants is studied from the standpoint of its pathogenesis and the reactions of the child; this work has led to a new classification of the types of pneumonia. The Therapeutic Clinic of the Institute was one of the first institutions in the country to employ sulphonamide products to treat children, and the methods developed have been generally accepted throughout the Soviet Union. The Institute is now studying the use of penicillin to treat sepsis and other diseases in children.

Considerable research has been made into the problem of mortality among newborn infants. Twenty years ago the Institute organized a special department to study the organism of prematurely-born infants and methods for feeding them. Feeding, early diagnosis and prompt treatment are responsible for reducing the mortality of premature infants and for developing strong healthy children.

The study of infectious diseases among children has brought significant results. Special work has been done on measles prophylaxis. Extensive propaganda on the correct methods for preventing measles has led to a decrease in the number of cases and the mortality from the disease in infants. During the past few years clinics have been engaged in a search for a method for active immunization against

measles and also for a more effective method for treating whooping cough.

The Institute initiated attempts at the early diagnosis of congenital syphilis, its rational treatment and prenatal prophylaxis.

Specific features of clinical forms of tuberculosis in young infants and their relation to the reaction of the child organism are studied by the Institute's tuberculosis clinic working in collaboration with other tuberculosis research centers of the Soviet Union.

On the basis of a study of the anatomical and physiological peculiarities of the child, the Institute has developed standards for various children's institutions. The development of nervous activity in the child is being studied in great detail to form a basis for a correct regime for children. These principles now form the basis of the work of the children's institutions (nurseries and kindergartens) throughout the Soviet Union.

The Institute also provides undergraduate and postgraduate training for children's doctors and nurses. Hundreds of physicians from all parts of the Soviet Union visit the clinics and laboratories of the Institute every year. Many scientific workers have prepared theses to be submitted for Masters or Doctors degrees under the guidance of the Institute.

At the end of 1944, the Institute as the research center in the field of pediatrics became a part of the Academy of Medical Sciences of the USSR.

War Orphans Find Homes

In Kuibyshev Region the popular Soviet custom of adopting war orphans is widely practiced. Some families have taken as many as five or six children. A. A. Derevskaya, of the village of Orvazhnoye, who had five boys and girls of her own before the war, now has a family of 16 orphans. The Panayevs also have 16 foster children and the Gadalinas, 11, three of whom distinguished themselves in the Great Patriotic War.

HOUSING RIGHTS PROTECTED

By Tikhon Alexeyev

*Senior Consultant on Housing Legislation, People's Commissariat
of Municipal Services of the Russian SFSR*

During the war against Germany, Soviet Government authorities took special measures to protect the rights of citizens who, for reasons connected with the war, had to leave their homes for some time. An ordinance issued by the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR on August 5, 1941, stated that persons serving in the ranks of the Red Army and Navy retained possession of their dwellings or flats in the municipal, factory or office-owned houses. Furthermore, they were exempt from paying rent for the duration. In Moscow, for example, accommodations totaling 1,250,000 square meters were rent-free in municipal houses alone. The total rent paid for that space before the war amounted to 1,380,000 rubles per month. Persons temporarily occupying the flats and dwellings of servicemen must vacate on the return of the original occupants.

The legislation of all the Republics of

the Soviet Union provides for the suspension of any litigation involving housing of persons on military duty. Accordingly, the Supreme Court of the USSR instructed the courts on the second day of the war, June 23, 1941, to discontinue suits for eviction brought against citizens called to the colors and their families.

The invasion of Soviet territory by the German-fascist barbarians led to the evacuation of large masses of civilians farther inland. The Soviet Government ruled that persons moved on account of the war likewise preserved their rights to flats in municipal houses, with the sole exception of factory and office workers who permanently settled in the East (the Urals, Siberia, etc.) with their factories.

During the battles, many private homes were abandoned by their owners. The People's Commissariat of Municipal Services of the Russia SFSR instructed the

municipal service bodies in towns near the front to care for the property, and to restore such abandoned dwellings to their owners as soon as they made a claim. Similarly, in towns from which the German invaders have been expelled, the municipal service authorities are protecting the deserted private houses until the return of their occupants.

At present, most of the evacuated civilian population have returned to their home towns, and are living in their own homes again. The Soviet Government is also doing its utmost to speed up the restoration of wrecked houses and the building of new ones. Particular care is being taken to have satisfactory homes waiting for the men in the Armed Forces and their families. Those whose homes have been destroyed will be provided with accommodations or receive material assistance to build their own dwellings.

The Girl From Oswiecim

Twenty-three-year-old Esther Margolis, liberated from Oswiecim by the Red Army, has come home. During the 25 months she spent in Oswiecim she was known as No. 30,910. The figures are tattooed on her arm. In Oswiecim, she was not conceded her human name.

She told me that she and her mother arrived in Oswiecim on December 22, 1942, together with 10,000 Polish citizens. In spite of the terrible cold, 20 degrees Centigrade below zero, the Germans drove the women into barracks where there was not a single unbroken window, and stripped them. Five hundred healthy young girls, Esther among them, were selected after a thorough inspection. The rest, including her mother, were trans-

ferred to the big crematorium building.

Esther was given heavy field work. The day began at 4 A.M. Those who were too slow had dogs set on them. Each day the Germans weeded out the sick and exhausted, and sent them to the crematorium.

Twice in 1943 she fell seriously ill with typhus. Aware that if her condition were observed it would mean her death, she tried to conceal the fact, but became delirious. The camp doctor, Koenig, listed her for the crematorium, but by a tremendous effort of will she succeeded in creating the impression that she was recovering, and escaped execution.

Nearly all the 500 girls the Germans selected on December 22, 1942, died.

Many of them lost their reason. While in the camp, Esther Margolis made friends with a Russian girl, Nadya, and a Ukrainian girl, Galya, who had been sent to Oswiecim for trying to escape from German forced labor. Both went mad. A Polish girl, Dora Zweiboden, from the town of Zdunska Wolia, went insane when her parents and sister were burned.

On January 22, 1945, Gestapo men arrived from Katowice with instructions to close down the camp. They drove off 800 prisoners who were later shot on the road. Esther escaped by hiding in the barracks among the sick whom the Germans had no time to kill off. She was liberated on January 27, 1945, by the Red Army.

The Ukraine Is Growing Rubber

By M. Zubov

The Ukraine as a land where rubber grows is a startling conception. We know of the rich wheat, the record grain harvests and crops, the vegetables and fruits. We recall the numerous smokestacks of the industrial giants in the region of coal and metal ores.

And now in Kiev, Cherkassy, Sumy and Kharkov, kok-sagyz, the rubber-bearing plant, is almost as numerous as sugar beets.

Kok-sagyz, the poetical name for the rubber-bearing dandelion, came to the Ukraine from the high mountain valleys of eastern Kazakhstan. The milky juice and the fibers in the bark of its roots contain the rubber.

An acre of the perennial kok-sagyz in its second year produces about 400 kilograms of roots of which 80 kilograms is a 30 per cent high-grade rubber. Automobile tire treads made of kok-sagyz brilliantly stood the test of the famous automobile run in the Kara-Kum Desert.

The advantage of kok-sagyz over other rubber-bearing plants, particularly the Brazil variety, is that it is frostproof.

Thirteen years ago the first specimens of kok-sagyz were planted in the Ukrainian black soil region. Today there are thousands of acres. The Ukrainian peasants have proved as proficient in rubber plant cultivation as in wheat or sugar beet.

Elena Khobta, a farmwoman of the Pereyaslav-Khmelnytsky District, Kiev Region, was famous before the war for her unprecedented crop yield of 28 tons of onions per acre, for which she was awarded a silver medal at the All-Union Agricultural Exhibition in Moscow.

She has also had success in cultivating potatoes, hemp and peppermint. In her native village they used to say that she cast a spell over the land, that she knew a magic secret which made her land bear rich fruit. But there was no magic in Elena Khobta. Her only "secret" was honest labor in the collective farm fields.

When kok-sagyz was first mentioned in her village, Khobta was the first to offer to try it out. No one knew exactly the nature of the plant. Khobta learned by trial and error.

When the question of the cultivation of rubber was seriously considered in the village last fall, Khobta insisted upon having space allotted to her for kok-sagyz. It was not included in the plan of the Shevchenko collective farm to which she belonged, but she was determined to try her luck.

She plowed the land, put in manure and carried out the sowing. When sprouts appeared she weeded the plantation by hand—heavy work for a woman of 64. But she secured a high yield.

When Agrippina Parmuzina, from the Sumy Region, started her rubber project, she already had a thorough knowledge of the plant. She had worked out a system of her own. Discarding prevailing theories on the quantity of seed to the acre and the methods for sowing, Parmuzina and her followers have a high yearly yield from rubber-bearing plants. In the past year on the two-year-old plantation Parmuzina has produced four tons of roots and about 70 kilograms of seeds per acre.

On the money Agrippina Parmuzina earned in growing kok-sagyz last year, she bought a plane which she presented to the Red Army. This year she intends to use her earnings to buy two houses and to furnish them as homes for war orphans.

Sidor Kuznets, chairman of the Proletari collective farm in the Kiev Region, is another enthusiastic cultivator of kok-sagyz. The complicated process of sowing required a great deal of work. To reduce the expenditure of labor he designed the special kok-sagyz sowing machines with contrivances for mechanical fertilizing. They have been highly praised by the collective farmers of the district and approved by the People's Commissariat of Agriculture of the Ukraine. They were adopted by all the kok-sagyz collective farms of the Kiev Region.

Other improvements were developed, among them implements for mellowing the soil and a horse-drawn three-link mel-

lowing device with an adjustment for protecting the young shoots from being covered by the earth. Kuznets also designed the kok-sagyz horse-drawn seed-harvesting machine, which is time and labor saving.

As a result of the efforts of the farmers and their bold innovations in agrotechnique and the mechanism of plowing and sowing, cultivation of this little-known plant was modernized within a brief period.

In the current year, despite all the losses inflicted by the Germans, the Republic expects new successes in rubber growing, which gives promise of becoming a profitable industry.

Fine new sprouts of kok-sagyz are appearing on all the plantations. On the basis of the seedlings, the Kiev Region estimates that the State plan for the cultivation of kok-sagyz will be exceeded five or six times.

By utilizing agricultural science, the Ukrainian farmers have had the highest kok-sagyz crop yields in the USSR.

Within the next few years the Ukraine will undoubtedly become the main raw material base for the production of natural rubber in the Soviet Union.

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5

The Weapons and Equipment of the Red Army

By Lieutenant Colonel Sergei Rostovsky

At no period of the war was the Soviet Union inferior to Germany in the quality and efficiency of its armament, although at the beginning of the war the Germans had the advantage in quantity.

Hitler's army had more aircraft, tanks, mortars, automatic weapons and mechanized transport than the Red Army. This is not surprising for when Germany went to war against the USSR, she was already fully mobilized, had seized immense booty in the West and placed her industry and the industry of the vanquished countries on a complete war footing. But even in the early stages of the war, the principal types of Soviet armament were not inferior, they were actually superior to the German.

The celebrated Soviet T-34 tank appeared on the battlefield in the early months of the war. The medium tank creditably stood the test of battle, and the modernized form is still in use in the Red Army. The heavy KV tank was also effective practically the length of the war, and withdrawn only in favor of the more perfected heavy tank. In the second year of the war the Red Army was supplied with self-propelled guns which, improved and greatly increased in number, became more than a match for similar German weapons.

Germany repeatedly found it necessary to change her tank armament, and it is of interest that German designers copied Soviet models. In 1943, the Germans first brought into action their Tiger and Panther tanks and the Ferdinand self-propelled guns. But in the first engagements it was demonstrated that they were unequal to the Red Army weapons.

Later, in 1944, the Germans introduced a more powerful tank, the Royal Tiger. But it did not alter the situation.

It was reported that the Germans in their vexation shot the designer of the Royal Tiger. Belatedly they realized that from the metal wasted on the production of 1,500 Royal Tigers, they could have built 15,000 medium and light tanks, although these would scarcely have helped to postpone Germany's defeat. The Soviet self-propelled guns could knock Royal Tigers out with one shot.

In the early part of the war Soviet airmen faced German Messerschmitts, Junkers, Focke-Wulfs and other types of planes. As the Soviet aircraft industry was rapidly expanded, new types of machines were turned out. The Yakovlev and Lavochkin fighters proved formidable opponents and eventually outfought the Luftwaffe.

The Germans were unable to produce anything to equal the armored Ilyushin

Stormovik, which they christened "Black Death." The Soviet Petlyakov dive bomber and the modernized Tupolev bombers stand up to anything in their class in any country.

Attaching prime importance to tanks and aircraft, the Germans under-rated the importance of artillery. They preferred mortars to guns, to fit in with their blitzkrieg strategy. The mortar did indeed prove an exceedingly effective weapon; it was cheap and light and eminently adapted to modern operations of maneuvers.

At first the Red Army had fewer mortars than the German army. But the lessons of the first battles were soon learned; the Red Army was practically deluged with mortars of all types and its men quickly mastered their use. The Germans' original superiority was quickly



The *Sovietsky Polyarnik* tank column moving forward on its way to the front

nullified. And the Red Army did not stop there. In the autumn of 1941 the roar of the Guards mortars, "Katyushas," reverberated outside Moscow. Subsequently they were employed on aircraft and tanks, as well as in other ways. The Germans were never able to create anything of like power; their six-barreled mortars were not worth comparison with the Katyushas.

As for artillery proper, the Soviet guns from the very first excelled both in quality and in quantity, and in the course of the war all types and calibers were perfected. The various systems of artillery employed by the Red Army answered the actual needs of the war. Soviet artillerymen helped to smash Guderian's Panzer hordes at Bryansk, insuring the defeat of the Germans at Moscow; they played a part in the encirclement and annihilation of Von Paulus' army, 300,000 strong, in Stalingrad; and foiled the Germans' offensive at Kursk in 1943. The artillery battered down every wall the Germans erected in the path of the advancing Red Army, and crushed to atoms their supposedly impregnable fortifications in East Prussia, on the Vistula and the Oder, and around Berlin.

The Germans paid heavily for their underestimation of the value of artillery in the early part of the war, and for their defective blitzkrieg strategy.

There was never any shortage of infantry weapons in the Red Army. To meet the German tommy guns, Soviet industry supplied the Red Army in quantity with a more reliable and effective



A Soviet heavy gun at its firing station in the Sevastopol area

tommy gun. While at first the Soviet soldier would do anything to get himself a German tommy gun, later he surrendered it to booty squads without regret. The same is true of the anti-tank guns designed by Soviet engineers in 1941 which proved their value throughout the war. With the single exception of the Faust Patrone, the German anti-tank guns are virtual copies of Soviet models.

In the course of the war every conceivable type of armament and equipment needed in modern warfare, including engineering machinery and motor vehicles, was provided the Red Army.

But it is obvious that modern armament itself is not enough to insure victory. Millions of men and officers must wield the weapons of war. The great strides the Soviet Union made in industry had acquainted the people with the use of machinery, and the collectivization of agriculture had likewise familiarized rural youth with mechanical equipment. This is a pronounced change from tsarist Russia, which never had adequate armaments, and even if it obtained them could not have taught its army to master the use of modern weapons quickly enough.

The technical superiority of the Red Army over the German was the logical result of the preceding 25 years of development in the USSR. Above all, it was the unity of the Soviet people, the moral superiority of the Soviet soldier over the German, the quality of strategical and tactical leadership, and the experience gained in battle, which insured the victory of Soviet arms.

New Sanatoriums

New sanatoriums for expectant mothers have been opened in picturesque spots of Moscow, Leningrad, Baku, Sverdlovsk, Omsk, Kazan, Alma-Ata and Tashkent.

The sanatoriums have libraries and reading halls, as well as art, embroidery and dressmaking clubs. There will be regular lectures, concerts and moving pictures.



(Left), Soviet tank destroyers placed in ambush; the enemy has been sighted

(Right), In Silesia anti-aircraft gunners fire from the streets of Oppeln



When Allies Meet

By Major S. Penchalov

In the very places where the bitterest fighting against the Germans occurred, only a month and a half ago, there are friendly meetings between Russian and American troops today. The warmest hospitality prevails. One such event was the farewell of the troops of the Ninth American Army to the Red Army men of Colonel Gervasiyev's division. Presenting arms, the Guards of Honor—in white gaiters, gloves and belts—stood on both sides of the street before the building of the Ninth Army Staff. A double row of sentries lined the lobby.

The Russian officers were led to the office of Lieutenant General Stimpson in command of the Ninth Army. After brief but warm greetings, General Stimpson invited his guests onto the square, where there was a special Guard of Honor of three companies—infantry, tank and Air Force—and a four-gun battery.

At the word of command, the battery fired 21 salutes. The Army band played the Anthem of the Soviet Union and the *Star Spangled Banner*.

As the strains died away, the drone of aircraft was heard. Formations of 100 planes spelled the four letters, "USSR."

The ceremonies at an end, the Americans took their Soviet guests to Staff Headquarters and to their apartments for dinner. Colonel Gervasiyev joined Major General Kiting, in command of the 102nd American Infantry Division.

The offices of the Staff, the building and the street had gay banners with the slogans, "Welcome to Our Russian Comrades," "Long Live Marshal Stalin," and "Long Live the Russian People."

Dinner was followed by a concert. American officers and soldiers alike called for Russian repertory numbers.

The American soldiers unanimously expressed their desire for friendship with the Red Army and the Soviet Union and decried the tendency of certain civilians in the United States who reported events incorrectly and slandered the Russian people.

Major General Gillem, in command of the 13th Army Corps, declared, "As is known, there is no stronger friendship than that formed under fire. Regardless



Kaavopphoto
Soviet and United States flags are raised side by side at the meeting of the armies. Standing together are: Major General Reinhardt, Commander of the American 69th Division (left), and Major General Rusakov, Commander of the 58th Guards Division of the USSR

of what the scoundrels may write, we soldiers know the value of the Russians and stand firm for friendship with them."

Concluding his speech on the friendship of the American and Soviet peoples, Major General Kiting proposed a toast to Marshal Stalin. The General observed that he admired Stalin not only as an outstanding Army leader and friend of the American people, but also as the man who said little and did much, a man whose words and deeds are one.

Brigadier General Fox of the 102nd American Division proposed a toast to the Russian and American infantry: "I know the importance of aircraft, tanks and artillery," he said, "but the main arm continues to be the infantry; that is why I propose a toast to the victorious Russian and American infantry."

The time passed quickly, but there seemed little inclination to separate. At the last the Americans collected Red Army stars from fatigue caps and epaulettes as tokens of friendship. When the Russians

were ready to leave they found that 35 men were without fatigue caps.

"I guess they have gone as souvenirs, too," the American general apologized. "If you like, you may have 35 American fatigue caps in exchange."

Russian and American songs were heard in the streets for a long time before the friends and comrades-in-arms went to their quarters.

It is apparent that there is a high mutual regard between the Soviet and American soldiers and officers. The Americans expressed their approval of numerous Red Army customs—awarding battle decorations at once; giving officers certain awards after a specified length of service; honoring entire regiments and divisions collectively with Orders of the Government, and the comradely relations between the Red Army officers and men. They mentioned their admiration for the staunchness of the Russians in defense and for rapid action in offense.

The Russian soldiers, for their part, were impressed by the smart appearance of their American comrades-in-arms, their hospitality and their knowledge of current events. "One may be friends with the Americans in every way. They are straightforward, honest, good people," said the Russian officers and soldiers when they returned to their units.

Jobs For Veterans

In the Volga valley, the industrial enterprises, collective farms, offices and ships of the merchant fleet, are making extensive preparations to meet the demobilized soldiers. Director Loskutov, of the Molotov automobile plant in Gorky, says the industry needs a large contingent of engineers, technicians and workers.

The plant is preparing to start mass production on a new "Victory" six cylinder model passenger car, and two-and-a-half ton trucks of a new design.

"The demobilized veterans will be heartily welcomed at our plant," writes Loskutov in *Izvestia*. "We shall surround them with care, help them improve their skills, and provide the best possible working and living conditions for them."

Soviet Farmers Are Studying

By A. Rozovsky



Workers assemble binders at the Lubertsy agricultural machinery works. The plant produced equipment for the front during the Patriotic War

This year the harvest in the collective farm fields will be gathered by a new detachment of combine operators—30,000 strong. All of them—former tractor drivers or assistant combine operators—have had four months of supplementary training at schools that specialize in the mechanization of agriculture. About 25,000 have completed their studies, and many are now busy repairing their machines. By the end of summer 7,500 drivers for collective farms will graduate.

The State farms themselves develop expert agricultural mechanics. The People's Commissariat of State farms maintains a network of schools with short-term courses from which tens of thousands of students graduate annually. According to a decision of the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR, the collective and State farms should be provided this year with more than 192,000 tractor drivers, 27,000 repair hands, and other skilled workers.

Hundreds of thousands of farmers are studying various branches of agriculture, such as the cultivation of the soil, raising bumper crops and livestock and poultry breeding. Without exception, everyone is now studying—from the collective farm chairmen to the milkmaids, from shepherds to poultry tenders.

Actually there is hardly a person more in need of acquiring a thorough knowledge of agricultural work than the collective farm chairmen, especially now, when as a result of the war many are rank and file farmers. Last year 100,000 collective farm leaders completed the special study courses offered in all the Re-

gions, Areas and Republics; more than 80,000 will graduate this year.

The Union Republics have numerous schools with varying courses for farmers. The popular one-year curriculum for men and women having a middle-school education trains specialists in grain cultivation, vegetable growing, horticulture, livestock-breeding and soil reclamation. The agricultural colleges, experimental stations and State farms where these courses are given have ample agricultural equipment and livestock for practice work. In the Russian SFSR alone there are some 300 one-year schools with an attendance of 24,000.

There are many other short-term courses in agriculture—lasting from two weeks to three months. Nearly a million people annually improve their agricultural proficiency in the Russian Federation alone, and the number of students is increasing from year to year.

Important features of the system of education are the seminars and lectures conducted by specialists in agronomy, zoo technology, veterinary surgery, and the like. Last year in the RSFSR these talks and lectures were attended by more than 1,700,000 farmers.

FARM MACHINE PRODUCTION RISES

The manufacture of agricultural machinery, pushed into the background by the war needs, has emerged again.

The first steps toward reaching the prewar production level are being taken in the current quarter, according to V. Andreyev, the man who heads the Soviet farm machine industry. In the next three months, four times more tractor plows and horse-drawn mowers, twelve times more combines and ten times more cultivators and threshers will be turned out than in the first quarter of this year. The production of spare parts, of which the countryside is in urgent need, should exceed the prewar level in the third quarter.

The task of making up the damage inflicted on agriculture in the Ukraine, Byelorussia and the Western regions of Rus-

sia, by the Hitlerite invasion—the collective and State farms in Byelorussia and the Ukraine alone lost from 60 to 70 per cent of their machinery and equipment—is all the more difficult since the farm machine industry was hit hard by the war. The large factories at Rostov, Zaporozhye, Odessa, Gomel, Kirovograd and Pervomaisk, which before the war supplied three-fourths of all the machinery used in Soviet agriculture, were reduced to ruins.

These plants are gradually being restored and are producing while in the process of reconstruction. The output of complex threshers will soon be resumed at the Kharkov Hammer and Sickle Works Shops totaling 28,000 square meters of floor space have been re-built at the

Continued on following page

Construction of Gas Pipeline

By S. Slobodchikov

Construction of 850 kilometers of gas pipeline from Saratov to Moscow began in the fourth quarter of 1944. Originally the project was to be completed in about two years. The Government calculated that it could be accomplished earlier and fixed December 1, 1945, as the date of completion. Initiating a high-output competition, the workers voted to complete it no later than November 7, the Anniversary of the Great October Revolution.

The shortage of skilled workers required a new organization of labor. As in the early years of the Moscow subway construction, engineers and technicians—old specialists—gain valuable experience and at the same time reach young workers. By means of special courses 1,500 skilled workers were trained by the end of June. Further steps have been taken to train some 1,200 highly skilled workers, welders and drillers in the very near future.

The Socialist methods—Socialist emulation, shock workers and Stakhanovite movements, educational work, reports, talks, wall newspapers, and so forth—have assumed mass proportions. *Militant Project*, a printed periodical issued on the site, brings to light defects in the work, points out ways for their elimination and prints consultations with specialists. Regular broadcasts on questions relating to construction have been arranged. Clubrooms with photographs and bulletins, mobile libraries and cinemas are at the service of the workers.

The special dining halls set up are checked by doctors, who also keep a health record of workers. Builders are required to undergo a regular medical examination and receive prophylactic injections and vaccinations. In addition to the dispensaries set up all along the site, there are traveling medical units which follow the working squads.

All these measures are a stimulus to

labor productivity and successful construction.

The Saratov-Moscow gas pipeline has received a great deal of publicity. A special exhibition of the project, directed by the well-known Professor Williams, opened in the Gorky Park of Culture and Rest in Moscow. The vast problem of gas utilization and distribution all over the USSR is also depicted.

Film-goers will soon have the opportunity to see the progress of the construction and the distinguished Stakhanovites at work, in a special newsreel being produced by the Moscow Studios.

Lengthy articles on gasification in general and on the new pipeline have been published in the Soviet press. This wide discussion has awakened tremendous interest and secured assistance from public bodies. Thousands of factory and office workers and collective farmers in districts adjoining the location have volunteered to help in their free time. On their own initiative, people in a number of regions along the line are building highways and improving the existing roads.

Special conferences of the Academy members and professors have been held in Scientists House and at the Lomonosov State University with a view to offering special assistance. The All-Union Scientific Society of Oil and Construction Engineers, the Regional Committee of the Union of University Teachers and Scientific Institutions have formed commissions for solving the concrete problems connected with this construction.

The great enthusiasm among the builders and the encouragement and advice of the Soviet Government and scientific and public bodies indicate that the pledge of the builders to Generalissimo Stalin will be fulfilled, and that Moscow will receive Saratov gas on the promised date.

MACHINE PRODUCTION

Continued from page 4

Zaporozhye works. The Rostov plant is turning out spare parts and preparing to manufacture binders and other machines.

Andreyev pointed out that the development of the farm machinery industry proceeded at an exceedingly fast pace in the decade prior to the war. So great had been the expansion that in the five-year period from 1936 to 1940 the USSR produced on an average more combines, threshers and tractor-drawn plows annually than was produced in the United States in 1935. By the outbreak of hostilities, the Soviet Union possessed a series of first-class plants which were swiftly geared to the war.

The agricultural machinery industry played an important role in supplying the Red Army with mortars and mines in wartime. Many millions of mines were produced by a single plant. In the second stage of the war a number of factories began gradually to reconvert.

During the war, the construction of eight new factories in various parts of the country was started. Four are now in operation and the rest will be producing before long.



Radiophoto
The smiling girls are busy on one of the first restoration projects in Novorossiisk—the Seamen's Club

Restoration of Music School

In Odessa the German and Rumanian invaders burned down the famous Stolyarsky Music School for children, first looting it of 20 pianos. Restoration of the school has already begun, with two million rubles allocated for the work.

UNITY OF THE POLISH PEOPLE

By L. Kudrevatykh

The following is the first of a series of LETTERS FROM POLAND which appeared in IZVESTIA:

Warsaw met us with black storm clouds which hid the entire airfield from view. But our Douglas, piloted by experienced airmen, dived into the clouds, found some gaps in them and soon brought us down safely—a score of Soviet, American, British, French, Canadian and Australian correspondents, the guests of the Polish Government of National Unity.

We came to see the new Poland, the free and democratic Poland, whose people, under the leadership of their government, are rehabilitating the country's economy and culture wrecked by years of German occupation and war.

There is scarcely another country whose postwar life has aroused so many divergent judgments and opinions. Until a few days ago, besides the Polish Government in Warsaw, the so-called "London Government," the last bulwark of fascist-minded Polish reactionaries, still existed and operated. Its aim was not only to split the forces of Poland, but to undermine the confidence of the Polish people, to discredit all the measures being carried out by the Polish democratic parties and the government, to sow suspicion among the people in regard to their true friend and great neighbor in the East, the USSR.

But no matter what the methods or calumnies spread in the world by the Polish reactionary emigres, they could not prevent the people from following their own path of rehabilitating their country's political, economic and cultural life, their own program of building an independent democratic state.

We spent some time in Warsaw, visited the Katowice factories and the villages in Silesia, went to Cieszyn and Cracow, made flying trips to Gdansk and Gdynia, and met governors, leaders of political parties and representatives of the intelligentsia, the working class and peasants. And everywhere we felt the immense constructive drive of the Polish people, saw the flowering of their creative

forces and the first, and in many spheres, already sizable, fruits of their work.

This is the second time I have been in Poland in the last year and a half. At the beginning of this year I went with the troops of the First Byelorussian Front through the towns and villages of western Poland. Those were the days when the Red Army and Polish troops were delivering the Polish people from the yoke of the German occupation. How the people celebrated the victory; how they rejoiced in the bright sun of liberty coming from the East!

In the first days after the battles it was hard to form an idea of how long it would take and what means would have to be employed for life to return to this country, five millions of whose sons and daughters had perished—fallen in battle, been burned in the furnaces of Maidanek, slain in Oswiecim and other camps, or guillotined in the prisons of Poznan and Gdansk. The Germans not only pillaged the country, removed its factories, steam engines, railway cars, stole its grain, and drove off its cattle; they barbarously destroyed Poland's beauty and pride, the magnificent capital, Warsaw, and shattered Poznan and Gdansk.

But we know that where freedom and democracy reign, the creative energy of the people is inexhaustible. Even last March I saw in Poznan the smoke curling above the factories, and tramcars in the streets; new bridges were in use, and the cinemas were open.

This time a new Poland appears before our eyes, plainly and palpably. The outburst of popular rejoicing for victory over the enemy has given way to calm, constructive labor, to the work of rehabilitation in all spheres of life.

Our visit coincided with the most important political events for the country and its international relations. Referring to these developments, Mr. Edward Osobka-Morawski, the Prime Minister of the Government of National Unity, said: "We have not waited in vain for the triumph of our political line and its recognition—by the Allied Powers as well as by our people. We have not waited in

vain for the unity of the entire Polish people; the remnants of the democratic groups which did not cooperate with us before have now merged with the Government. The Government of National Unity is now recognized not only by the Soviet Union, France, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia, but by the United States, Britain, China and many other Allied countries."

We also sensed the political unity of the Polish people at the 26th convention of the Polish Socialist Party, the P. P. S., at a huge rally held in Warsaw in honor of the formation of the Government of National Unity. At the P. P. S. convention the leaders of the party and the delegates were unanimous in their opinions regarding the need to rally all forces for the speedy rehabilitation of the economy and culture of an independent, sovereign, free and democratic Polish state, and regarding the need to strengthen further the bonds of friendship with the Soviet Union, with all Slav nations, and with the other democratic countries.

The popular rally in Warsaw was held on a square surrounded by the ruins of the many-storied buildings barbarously wrecked by the Germans. The Warsaw population by the thousands, in their best holiday clothes, filled the square and formed a sort of amphitheater on the heaps of ruins. Above the crowd waved the banners of the democratic parties, with slogans calling for national unity. The speeches of the representatives of all democratic parties were met with cheers and shouts of "Niech zyje", (Long live).

The demonstration which followed the well organized and picturesque meeting once again manifested the unity of the people of Warsaw and of the democratic parties forming the coalition Government. The people of Poland look upon the President of the National Council, Bierut, and the Prime Minister of the Government of National Unity, Osobka-Morawski, as their true leaders. They trust them and are ready to give them every assistance toward the resurgence of their country.

There is another important motive

uniting the Polish people—a sincere wish for brotherly friendship with all the Slav peoples of the Soviet Union. We have seen many proofs of this desire. In Cracow the governor, Dr. Ostrowski, arranged a reception in honor of the Command of Soviet troops of the Fourth Ukrainian Front, which liberated the province of Cracow and a large section of Czechoslovakia. The speakers at the reception not only referred to the close friendship among the Soviet, Polish and Czechoslovak peoples whose armies fought to deliver the Slav lands from the Hitlerite brigands, but also recalled that there was once a meeting in Cracow of the greatest geniuses of mankind, Lenin and Stalin, the founders of the Soviet State and of the Army which smashed the Germans and gave Poland back its freedom and independence.

Wherever we go in Poland these days we see testimony of the profound affection of the Poles for the Army which liberated them. Fresh wreaths and bouquets of flowers lie on the graves of Soviet officers and soldiers who fell in the battles for Poland. In many Silesian towns impressive monuments are erected to the sons of the Soviet Union who died for Poland.

Polish journalists tell me how keenly interested the readers of Polish newspapers are in the life and culture of the Soviet Union. Newspaper editors receive numerous letters with requests for more information on the restoration of the Donetz Basin, the Dnieper hydroelectric plant, about Magnitogorsk, the discoveries of Soviet scientists, and new Russian books. There is a demand for translations of Soviet poems and stories. Soviet moving pictures recently shown in Poland are popular with the most diverse sections of the population.

In the mighty chorus of the unity of the Polish people one can still occasionally hear the squealing voices of the agents and henchmen of the Polish reactionary emigres. Since they cannot hope for any success in open activity, these circles resort to the cheapest and most contemptible methods, spreading wild rumors, calumnies and innuendos. It is to be regretted that rumors still have some currency in Poland. They are spread with the idea of undermining the unity of the

United Nations and the friendship between Poland and the Soviet Union. In Katowice one man "confidentially" said to a member of our group, a correspondent of a foreign newspaper, "The Soviet Union has removed the entire equipment of factory so-and-so." The correspondent, who had on several occasions found out that such reports were mere slander, made inquiries at the governor's office. It turned out that the factory in question, far from having been removed, was working full blast, and contributing to the building up of Poland's economy.

Recent political events inside Poland and the successes in the sphere of foreign policy have silenced the many purveyors of slander and innuendos. But there are still some devotees of the sharp game of politics. At one of the receptions in Katowice, some militant speakers were prepared to inflate the Tesin problem almost to proportions of war between the two Slav peoples, the Czechs and the Poles.

We visited Cieszyn (Tesin); the town, which is divided into two parts, is peace-

ful and tranquil. The residents of the Czech and Polish sides readily mingle with each other, and go to work or school in either section of the city. We felt no tension. The officers of the Polish and Czech armies with whom we talked expressed mutual friendship. It has become clear to us that all enemy attempts to set the Polish and Czech peoples at loggerheads are doomed to failure.

Prime Minister Osobka-Morawski told us, "We want to settle the question of Transolsa Silesia with Czechoslovakia amicably, and to settle it so that neither of the two nations is wronged. The correct settlement of this question is to the interests of both nations."

The Polish people are united around their democratic government and will calmly and judiciously settle all internal and international problems according to their own will, in their own interests and in the interests of friendship with Slav nations and with all democratic countries. And that is what will silence the votaries of slander.

Youth Newspapers Receive Awards

President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR Kalinin has presented decorations to the newspapers *Komsomolskaya Pravda* and *Pionerskaya Pravda*. For "extensive and fruitful work in educating Soviet youth in the spirit of selfless service to the Motherland and for active mobilization of Soviet youth to the struggle against the German invaders," the Order of the Patriotic War, First Class, was awarded to *Komsomolskaya Pravda*, and for "long and fruitful work in educating and bringing up children; for successful organization of school children to participation in labor for their country commensurate with their strength", the Order of the Red Banner of Labor was given to the *Pionerskaya Pravda*.

Kalinin congratulated the staffs and stated: "Permit me to felicitate you first because your papers have seen the fruit of their work on the battlefields, in the factories and plants, on collective farms and State farms, in the profound patriot-

ism and the selfless loyalty of our youth to the Motherland, to the Socialist State, to its Government and our leader, Stalin, who has constantly and especially in difficult situations supported Soviet youth." Kalinin praised *Komsomolskaya Pravda* for rendering valuable assistance in the direction of the Young Communist League.

He pointed out that the *Pionerskaya Pravda* has carried out an enormous task in seeing that people in the "dawn of their lives" naturally develop the habit of reading newspapers, so that "their consciousness broadens steadily, not as formerly when a person could remain ignorant until the age of 40 and suddenly, perhaps have knowledge come to him."

In conclusion, President Kalinin said that youth in the Soviet Union can continuously quench its thirst for information through channels like these two excellent publications.

CONCERT OF MODERN AMERICAN MUSIC

By Grigori Shneron



A duet from *Porgy and Bess* is sung by artists of the All-Russian Theatrical Society, K. Malkova and I. Petrov

Radiophoto

No longer is American music merely a topic for discussion at meetings of Soviet composers. Via concert hall and radio, during the past three years many "moderns" have become popular in the USSR. They left the narrow domain of the specialists in American music and reached the people, who are now familiar with the works of such composers as George Gershwin, Roy Harris, Wallingford Riegger, Samuel Barber, Aaron Copland, Elie Siegmeister and Walter Piston.

A concert held at Tchaikovsky Hall in Moscow on July 3 was broadcast to a wide audience. The program included Roy Harris' *Ode to Friendship*; Wallingford Riegger's *March in Memoriam*—dedicated to those who have given their lives in the struggle against fascism; *Rhapsody in Blue* and music from the operetta, "Porgy and Bess," by George Gershwin; *Essay for Orchestra*, by Samuel Barber and Elie Siegmeister's *Ozark Set*.

The greatest applause was for Gershwin, with his haunting melodies and original harmonies and rhythms. We may overlook a certain patchiness of form, a roughness in some parts, and at times an excess of color effects, for this is real music to which no one can remain indifferent. It is new and fresh, vivid and alive, the very pulse of American life.

When Dmitri Shostakovich first heard the operetta, *Porgy and Bess*, performed by the ensemble of the All-Russian Theatrical Society, he became so interested that he took the score home and studied it for several days. He called it "an original composition by a gifted artist"—and

Shostakovich is seldom lavish with praise.

Siegmeister's suite in four movements picturing life in the Ozark Mountains is expressive and colorful, combining the simplicity of folk songs and square dances with intricately woven harmonies and original and daring instrumentation. There is a particularly appealing third movement, full of graceful and lyrical episodes in which the theme, which suggests Negro spirituals, is developed. The fourth movement—the colorful festival section, with the square dance and the fiddles—is superb.

The outstanding American composer, Roy Harris, whom we know for his fine overture, *When Johnny Comes Marching Home*, and the monumental *Fifth Symphony*, was represented at this concert by his *Ode to Friendship*. Notwithstanding its polyphonic mastery and sincerity of intentions, the *Ode* did not sound sufficiently convincing or significant. This seems due to a static quality of the material and the pallid orchestration. The development never reaches a climax or any great elevation.

Wallingford Riegger's excellent composition is sustained in mood and simple in conception. His *March in Memoriam* is written with a confident hand. It literally breathes sincerity and conviction. The subtle and skillfully instrumented *Essay for Orchestra* by Samuel Barber reaffirms him as a talented young composer. The appeal of his style, which is sparing of modernisms, lies in its healthy approach to his creative aim and its clear realization. His themes are always noted

for their good taste and noble design.

The July 3rd concert in its entirety was an interesting and important event which brings us closer to the work being done by the composers of the United States. Unfortunately, the lack of scores prevents us from becoming acquainted with some other American music; we are not yet able to perform the symphonic music of Aaron Copland, whose chamber pieces have been heard at the Union of Soviet Composers.

Among the notables attending the concert were Mr. W. Averell Harriman, United States Ambassador; Mr. E. Patrick, United States representative on the Inter-Allied Reparations Commission; Mr. Edwin Smith, director of the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship; Doctor Victor Hoo Chi-tsai, Chinese Vice Minister of Foreign Affairs; Mr. Pu Ting, head of the East-Asiatic Department of the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Mr. Chiang Ching Kuo, member of the Chinese delegation visiting Moscow; the Very Reverend Dr. Hewlett Johnson, Dean of Canterbury; and Mr. A. T. Deye who is accompanying his members of the diplomatic corps and military missions; V. S. Kemenov, Chairman of VOKS (The All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries) and officials of the People's Commissariat of Foreign Affairs and of VOKS.

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The Protection of Mothers and Children

A year ago, July 8, 1944, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR issued a decree on the increase of State aid to pregnant women, mothers of large families and unmarried mothers, the improvement of the protection for motherhood and childhood, the institution of the honorary title, Mother Heroine, the Order of Glory of Motherhood and the Motherhood Medal.

In an interview with a Tass correspondent, People's Commissar of Health Pro-

tection of the USSR Miterev stated: "In the year since the promulgation of this decree, one and a half billion rubles in State allowances were paid to hundreds of thousands of mothers of large families and to unmarried mothers. In this period tens of thousands of mothers were decorated with the orders and medals created by the decree. The honorary title of "Mother Heroine" was conferred on hundreds of women.

Local health protection organs accom-

plished a great deal in extending the number of institutions for women and children. Over 11,000 beds were added to maternity homes and maternity wards. Permanent creches increased their facilities to accommodate an additional 28,000 children. Over 1,400 new children's and women's consultation centers were opened.

The work of the public health organs in the regions liberated from German occupation deserves special mention. In



A new-born baby is returned to his place in the infants' ward of a large maternity center in Tashkent. The nurse is in charge of this group

spite of all obstacles, new institutions for mother and child-care were organized.

In giving effect to the decree, the public health organs also achieved an improvement in the quality of many children's and maternity hospitals. As a result the rate of disease and mortality among children is falling steadily. The fight against contagion and epidemics in children's institutions has also been eminently successful.

Now under peacetime conditions even more serious tasks face us. In the years of peace, during which a sharp rise in

the birth rate is to be expected, more maternity homes, consultation centers and nurseries will be necessary. The leading and supervisory personnel of new public health institutions must strictly control construction of the buildings, so that they will be ready in the shortest possible time.

Another important task of the postwar period is to extend the care in all children's and maternity centers. It is necessary to raise the quality of service in the consultation centers of the polyclinics and hospitals for younger children

as well as to extend the medical service for older children.

There is no doubt that in peace the public health organs will equal and surpass their record during the Patriotic War and successfully meet the tasks assigned to them by our Party and our Government. Every assistance—physical and financial—will be available. This year alone, 2,452,123,000 rubles have been allotted from the State budget for the protection of motherhood and childhood.

CHILD WELFARE

By Evgenia Yakhnina

When the Patriotic War was at its worst, in January, 1942, the Soviet Government passed a decree for the care of children orphaned by the war or separated from their parents while being moved from place to place.

The youngsters were placed in spacious, comfortable children's homes, and provided with every attention.

Today there are 4,000 children's homes for 400,000 boys and girls throughout the Russian SFSR. Five hundred of these are special institutions for children of preschool age.

Children between four and fourteen in the liberated territories live in 129 especially equipped homes.

There have always been child-care facilities in the USSR, but their number has now been greatly increased. A new type of institution has been created where no differentiation is made for age, in order to keep children of the same family together.

Every child receives a complete outfit of clothing. The children attend a school of seven grades, after which they go to vocational schools, or those with special aptitudes enter secondary schools.

Recently I went through the file of letters received by the head of the Children's Welfare Department. Parents who had found their children with the aid of the People's Commissariat of Education or the special bureau instituted by the Council of People's Commissars, wrote in praise of the work of these organizations.

During an air raid on Kirovograd, a Ukraine mother lost her two children. The Welfare Department located them both in institutions, and the family were happily reunited.

Smirnova, a nurse, went to the front when war broke out, leaving her four-year-old daughter Zhenia in Gomel, Byelorussia. The children's home where the child stayed was evacuated to Verkhotursk in the Urals. Zhenia's father, a partisan, was among the missing; her mother helped save the lives of our soldiers in the battle of Stalingrad. Today, the wounded mother is in a sanatorium in the Moscow Region, and the People's Commissariat of Education transferred the little girl to a home near there, where her mother can come to see her.

Red Army man Dubenetz, whose wife perished during the occupation of the Ukraine, traced his 12-year-old son through the Welfare Department. In a letter from the front he wrote, "The knowledge that my child is under your excellent care has spurred me on to fight still harder."

Partisans transported a group of "nameless" children from the Bryansk woods by plane. The tots, who knew only their diminutive names, were evacuated to Cheliabinsk. When the Red Army liberated Bryansk, Smolensk and the Orel Regions, and parents began to search for their children, the home sent photographs of the children to the places they had come from. In this way they were able to

locate the families of eight youngsters.

A widespread movement in the country to give homes to the children orphaned by the war is supervised by the State which controls all such adoptions. During the war the People's Commissariat of Education placed 265,000 children with working-class families.

Permanent control is established over their education and care through the organs of Public Education and the Institute of Public Inspectors.

The Welfare Department protects the property and personal rights of Soviet children. This means that the child is entitled to the housing space occupied by his parents and all the furnishings which are inventoried and placed in safe storage. No item included in this list may be sold or disposed of without the permission of the Welfare Department.

There are three types of adoption:

First, the child may be placed with a family which will receive from the State funds for his support, and also clothing, school supplies, etc.

Second, there is the guardianship of relatives wishing to rear the child.

Third is complete adoption by means of which the child becomes entitled to equal rights with the family's own children.

In all cases a preliminary investigation is made by State authorities to establish the ability of the family to provide satisfactory care.

POLITICAL EDUCATION IN THE RED ARMY

By Colonel Ivan Gvozdevski



Between battles anti-aircraft gunners listen to one of their comrades reading aloud the latest copy of the Army newspaper

The education of every soldier in the Red Army to a high degree of political consciousness and enlightenment, which has always been the object of the Soviet Government, has been intensified in the midst of the struggle.

Educational work in every unit and regiment of the Red Army is directed by its commander. Relationships with his subordinates and a personal example of activity, bravery and general military knowledge and high political development are the means by which the commander can educate his troops.

The commanders receive advice and assistance in the program of education from the political departments of the Red Army.

Political instruction to privates and non-commissioned officers is offered both in peacetime and in wartime. They are instructed separately—the privates in groups usually comprising a platoon, the non-commissioned officers of a whole company, in another group. The regular procedure in these study classes is for

the instructor to outline a subject to arouse discussion. Another form of instruction is known as "political information." The study groups discuss the history of the Soviet State, its social and political system, the structure of its Armed Forces, etc.—subjects which lay the foundation of political enlightenment; the political information classes discuss questions of home and foreign policy and of economic and cultural life, the material for the discussions being drawn from newspapers and magazines.

The political information group usually consists of a whole company. In discussions lasting 30 to 45 minutes, the leader briefly outlines the subject and answers the questions. During active military operations the sessions are held less often. Political talks are substituted. The groups are smaller with only a few men; the leader, who may be a non-commissioned officer or even a private, discusses current events or reads newspapers, magazines or fiction to his class.

"Red Army meetings" have been found to have great educational value. With the commander presiding, a whole company has lectures on the plan of the military training for a given period, the duties of the men, or a review of the performance of some mission. The chief speaker at these company meetings is usually the company commander.

There are regular talks to every branch of the Army on political and cultural subjects and military history. The lives of Suvorov, Kutuzov, Alexander Nevsky, Dmitri Donskoi, Minin and Pozharsky and other famous figures in the history of wars in defense of Russia's liberty and independence are universally well known.

For inspirational effect, the presentation of the regimental standards and of titles to the regiments and divisions which distinguished themselves in action, the award of decorations, and the permanent inscription on the regimental rolls of men and commanders for heroism are attended by great pomp and ceremony.

Printed propaganda also holds an important place in the educational program. Every Army division and group has its newspaper. Among the active contributors to these newspapers are privates, non-commissioned officers, officers and generals. The papers or even the manuscripts circulated support and stimulate the spirit and morale of the men during operations. At such periods, too, handbills are distributed to report the heroic actions of individual men and officers so that their fame is quickly known by a whole regiment or division.

During the war the commanders would send written congratulations to the men for acts of bravery and heroism and would call upon whole battalions or regiments, to follow the example of those who had distinguished themselves.

Marshal Stalin's Orders of the Day on the victories won were also turned to educational account. The significance of the victory would be demonstrated and a copy of the Order of the Day given every man and officer mentioned.



Ships of the Red Banner Baltic Fleet which successfully thwarted all German plans to bottle them up

Soviet People Honor Red Navy

By Captain N. Nikolayev

In July of every year, on the Sunday before the last in the month, the Soviet Union celebrates Navy Day. The holiday, which fell on July 22 this year, is an opportunity for the Soviet people to show their respect and affection for the seamen and to pay them homage for their contribution to final victory over fascist Germany.

The four years of struggle of the Soviet Navy in theaters so close to land differed markedly from classic naval wars. There were no grand battles between the primary forces of the opposing fleets. Neither were there the customary lulls in fighting which inevitably follow major engagements. The Black, Baltic and Barents Seas extended along the 3,000 kilometer flanks of the vast battlefield on shore where the outcome of the war was being decided so that the operations at sea were subordinated to the objectives of the central sectors. The Naval Forces were confronted with the enemy's land and air forces more frequently than with his naval units. Throughout the war, therefore, the principal task of the Soviet Fleet was to facilitate the operations of the Red Army on land.

Major operations at sea were not excluded, of course, but the German command consistently evaded such operations. The fascists hoped the war in the East would be won without risking their battleships or cruisers. These were to be preserved for the invasion of the British Isles, after the victory over Russia. The subjection of England was to be the

second phase in fascism's plan for world conquest.

The enemy was certain he would quickly rid himself of his opponent in the East, that he would capture all the Russian ports, and that the Soviet fleet, deprived of its bases, would either capitulate or be destroyed by the Luftwaffe. To prevent Soviet warships from aiding the Red Army, the Nazis on the first night of the war attempted to bottle up the Soviet Fleet in its bases by para-



Soviet artists give a concert for the seamen on the deck of a battleship

chuting thousands of mines around the roadsteads of Sevastopol, Odessa, Murmansk and Kronstadt.

But the enemy's plans went awry. The "rain of mines" which had descended on Russian ports on the night of June 22, 1941 could not prevent the Soviet Fleet from putting to sea and opening battle operations. As early as the third day of war, Soviet warships heavily shelled Constanta, the main naval base of the enemy in the Black Sea. At the same time, destroyers helped the Red Army to repel the invaders' onslaught upon Murmansk. Thenceforth, the flanks of the Army on the sea coasts were constantly supported by the guns of warships, or "fire from the sea."

Soviet ships of all classes participated in the defense of Sevastopol, which riveted huge forces of the enemy to the south for a long time. The battleships and cruisers of the Baltic Fleet played a primary role in the defense of Leningrad. Navy gunners ceased to deplore the lack of major sea engagements when they saw what havoc their guns were wreaking upon German tank columns, batteries and fortifications.

Landing parties of the Navy were a mainstay of the Red Army. Even at the peak of their offensive operations the Germans did not dare land a single unit from the sea at the flanks of Soviet troops. On the other hand, Soviet task forces repeatedly went into German-held territory, even in the period of retreat. Many of these operations were extraordinary for their daring conception and execution.

Many a Naval unit was set ashore after dark directly in the breakwaters and quaysides of large ports in enemy hands, as at Feodosia, Novorossiisk and Kerch. Menaced constantly from the sea, the German command was compelled to maintain large coastal forces and this considerably relieved the Red Army in the central sectors of the front.

When they launched the war in the East, the Germans did not anticipate the problem of defending their seagoing transports. They had hoped to seize all Soviet ports at once. The Baltic and the Black Seas then were to become internal basins of the Reich where no harm could come to transports. By the beginning of 1942 the Germans believed that they had already achieved their goal in the Baltic, and that the Soviet Fleet, crowded into the eastern corner of the Gulf of Finland behind ramified mine barriers, would not be able to interfere with German shipping in the central districts of the Baltic.

German transports, therefore, began to sail these waters unescorted, sometimes with their port and starboard lights cheerfully alight. The Nazis were soon paid off by Soviet submarines, which had forced the minefields and the net of barriers in the Gulf of Finland and reached the high seas in the Baltic. In the summer of 1942 Russian underwater craft here sank more than 60 German transports with a total displacement of 500,000 tons.

The next to join the battle in the enemy's sea routes were the Soviet motor torpedo boats and torpedo bombers. Russian fliers later adapted their Ilyushin anti-tank plane for action against enemy ships, and this machine, a fixture of the Fleet, became the terror of German shipping in the war zones.

From then on the Germans were unable to use the sea routes for the transportation of troops, armaments and strategic war materials, and had to move their transports strongly escorted. As the activities of the Soviet Fleet increased, the Germans were compelled to augment the number of these convoys until



READY AT THE RANGE FINDER—Enemy ships have been sighted and sailors Repyahov and Levochkin of the destroyer *Soobrazitelny* have taken their positions

there were five, seven, and often ten of them to every transport ship. The battle in the sea routes, therefore, tied down Germany's naval units destined for other tasks. But even then, German escorts failed to prevent heavy losses. The Soviet Union attacked them with the combined blows of all branches of the Fleet. The fighting over sea communications became espe-

cially furious in the second half of the war and undermined the naval strength of fascist Germany.

The final figures of Germany's total losses in warships and transports at the hands of Soviet sailors are yet unknown. But the results of the fighting in certain phases of the war are revealing. In the five weeks preceding the ejection of German troops from the Crimean Peninsula, more than 200 German and Rumanian ships of various types went to the bottom. In the four weeks preceding the dispersal of the Nazis from Varanger Fjord, more than 150 fascist vessels were sunk. The total displacement of German ships sunk in the Baltic in March, 1945, alone exceeded 350,000 tons.

These figures lead to the conclusion that the sea war in eastern Europe, though lacking major battles, inflicted truly monstrous losses on the Germans. The Soviet Fleet emerged from the conflict stronger than ever.



A destroyer sets out for active service with the Black Sea Fleet

VACATIONS START AGAIN

By Bee Yakovlev

After an interval of more than four years Moscow's railway stations are again crowded with vacationers. Every day the trains carry hundreds to summer resorts in various parts of the country.

The most popular resorts today, as before the war, are those along the coast of the Black Sea in the North Caucasus and in Georgia. As the number of visitors increases steadily these southern resorts will soon be as busy as in prewar years.

All this activity, slightly less than three weeks old, was started by a Government decree on the resumption of annual vacations as of July first. This decision is an important postwar measure affecting tens of millions of Soviet wage earners and salaried people.

The state and the trade unions have spent thousands of millions of rubles to provide the facilities for the Soviet people to have vacations, as proclaimed in Article 119 of the Constitution of the USSR. By the outbreak of war there were 1,750 sanatoriums, close to 1,500 summer hotels and boarding houses of different types and thousands of smaller-scale rest places.

In the year preceding the war, one out of every five wage earners spent all or part of his vacation at these resorts. The majority received accommodations at reduced prices.

Today these good old times are coming back. Thousands of bookkeepers are busy calculating the average earnings to be paid to each factory worker and office employee before he leaves on his vacation. The length of vacations this year is the same as before the war: from two weeks to a month or more, depending upon the person's occupation, position and length of employment.

The trade unions fully support the State viewpoint that disabled war veterans now employed again, minors, expectant mothers, persons engaged in arduous or dangerous occupations and outstanding work-



A view of the Selenga River in Buryat-Mongolia, which is becoming a point of interest for Soviet tourists

ers should be placed at the head of vacation lists. They are also to be given priority in sanatoriums and rest home accommodations.

During the remaining five and a half months of this year it is estimated that the resorts will be able to take only 1,300,000 to 1,500,000 persons.

There are two reasons why we cannot cater to vacationers on the prewar scale, according to N. Denisov, head of the Resorts Administration of the People's Commissariat of Health of the USSR. First, in wartime many sanatoriums and rest homes were turned into hospitals.

Wounded soldiers are still undergoing treatment at a number of them and we cannot reconvert these places until the men are restored to health.

The second reason is that the Germans wrecked a vast number of resorts in the territory they occupied. An estimated 40 per cent of the sanatoriums and rest homes in the Ukraine—which before the war accommodated hundreds of thousands of people from all parts of the USSR—were destroyed. Half of the sanatoriums and rest homes in all the occupied districts of the Russian SFSR were likewise wrecked. Osipenko, Slavyansk, Odessa and a number of towns in the Crimea, on the Black Sea coast and in the North Caucasus have to be built up anew as health resorts.

It will take no less than two or three years before the country's one hundred largest sanatoriums are able to receive as many people as they did before the war.

* * *

Of 17 women workers of Moscow's huge Trekhgornaya textile mills who will shortly take their vacations, three are expecting their husbands or sons to return from the Army, and hence do not intend to leave the city. Four will go to the rest homes maintained by the mill.

Two are traveling south to Black Sea resorts. Four will spend their vacations with relatives in the country. Two who live in the suburbs will stay at home. The other two have not yet made up their minds.

Before the war we provided rest and cure facilities for all who wanted them. Tatyana Zhukova, chairman of the mill's union committee told me. But now that the southern sanatorium of our union is in ruins we can furnish accommodations only to those in special need. As soon as the sanatorium is rebuilt, we will be able to offer places there to about 50 per cent of the vacationers.

WARSAW ARISES FROM THE RUINS

By L. Kudrevatykh

The following is the second of a series of LETTERS FROM POLAND which appeared in IZVESTIA:

From the window of my room on the fifth floor of the Polonia, Warsaw's comfortable hotel which by some miracle survived the general destruction, there is a view of a central part of the city.

In the course of four years of warfare I saw many cities wrecked and burned by the Germans, but none can compare with the havoc of Warsaw. More than 2,000 buildings were shattered. But it is not the barbarity alone which strikes you so much as the fiendish methods. The city was wrecked methodically, house by house, block by block. Altogether 6,500 houses were either drenched in gasoline and burned or set afire by flamethrowers.

In the former ghetto, which occupied one-third of the city, not a single wall is standing; everything is rubble, and in the ruins you can still see remnants of human bodies, household utensils and clothing. What they could not destroy before their flight from Warsaw, the Germans had planned to mine: sappers of the Red Army and the Polish Army removed 200,000 mines and unexploded shells from the surviving buildings.

I have been through the greater part of ruined Warsaw, most of which has been cleared of rubble and wreckage, and the Warsaw townspeople have grown accustomed to the bleak and dreary appearance of the ancient streets. No one seems conscious any longer of the smoldering stench that the wind has not yet swept away.

The main thoroughfares are lively with traffic: newspaper boys do a brisk trade, porters hail passers-by and flourish their brushes. There are many vendors of cigarettes, sweets or haberdashery. In little stalls fruits and flowers are offered for sale. Here and there in the black hole of a wrecked building a small shop, a cafe or a restaurant has opened, quaintly named "Heart of Love" or "Rendezvous." The first tramcars already rattle through the ruins, and trucks replace buses.

Thousands of citizens returned to Warsaw. Living in crowded conditions, they suffer numerous inconveniences and walk many kilometers to and from their work. We visited one of the inhabitants. Like Alpinists we climbed over the piles of broken bricks that still clutter the narrow streets of the old town, we found Eleonora Szwigodinskaja, a shabbily-dressed weary-faced woman, who was chopping wood with a rusty axe. Szwigodinskaja and her chestnut-haired daughter, whose blue eyes peered at us timidly from behind her mother's skirts, live somewhere in this rubble—in a cellar.

"There are about 100 families here," she told us. "We lived through the terror of five years and never left the city. We saw the battles on the barricades. Even now we have to walk one and a half kilometers for water. But we are waiting and hoping Warsaw will be rebuilt and we shall be given apartments."

Warsaw townspeople are confident that they can rebuild the capital of their homeland to more than its former grandeur and beauty. In the undamaged building of one of the museums the Warsaw Reconstruction Bureau arranged an exhibition, where I saw evidence of the barbaric "activities" of the German invaders that have no parallel in world history. This evidence includes some fragments from Warsaw's famous monuments violated and mutilated by the invaders, for example, the head of a statue of Mickiewicz, the knife-slashed and bullet-riddled canvases of world-famous painters, shattered pianos, splinters of ancient delftware and porcelain. Here also the plan of the new Warsaw is displayed—a city with parks and beautiful esplanades, a city designed to reflect the spirit and willpower of new Poland.

Professor Michal Kaczorowski, Minister of Reconstruction, who placed at our disposal facts about the progress in the reconstruction of the capital and the plans for the immediate future, told us: "Two factors inspired us and gave us hope that

Warsaw would be restored rapidly—the formation of the government of the Republic and the great effective help of the Soviet Government, and in particular, of the neighboring Ukrainian and Byelorussian Republics."

It has already been decided which of the buildings and blocks are to be pulled down and rebuilt first. Meanwhile, a settlement of prefabricated wooden cottages, a gift of the Soviet Government to Warsaw, is being erected to meet the needs of the industrial workers and employees of government institutions. But the chief efforts at present are directed toward rebuilding the railway junctions, the industrial enterprises, and setting the municipal economy in order. Warsaw already has electric light and the gas and the water works are functioning in many districts. Over 30,000 persons are engaged in the restitution of Poland's capital.

"We are confident that now the other Allied nations which have recognized the government of our Republic will help us with materials, primarily equipment," said Professor Kaczorowski.

Sunday I made a trip to Roszin, a Warsaw suburb where there was formerly a radio station, one of the most powerful in Europe. The Germans carried off all the equipment and blew up the building. We saw the new station already erected, with a capacity of 50 kilowatts. All the equipment was a present from the Soviet Union and it is being assembled by Soviet engineers. The day is not far off when all Europe will again hear the powerful voice of the Warsaw station.

I saw the ruins of Warsaw. But I also saw the new city rising from the ruins—the capital of free Poland. And the time will come when from the windows of the fifth floor of the Polonia Hotel you will see the magnificent panorama of a new Warsaw, rebuilt by the hands of the Polish people with the help of its neighbors and Allies.

Notes on Soviet Life

The following letter of congratulation was sent to Generalissimo Stalin by the Red Army artillery, which he called the "god of war." "On the fronts of the Patriotic War and in the rear, artillerymen and mortar gunners have always felt your special attention and your concern for the most powerful branch of the Red Army—the glorious artillery. On behalf of the personnel of the Red Army artillery, we congratulate you on becoming Generalissimo and beg you to accept our gratitude for your leadership, assistance and solicitude."

★

Harvesting has started in Uzbekistan, Turkmenia and Tadzhikistan, Azarbaijan, Georgia and Armenia and is gathering momentum in the Krasnodar and Stavropol areas, the Crimea and many districts of Kazakhstan. The southern districts of the Ukraine are already mowing their fields.

★

Returning soldiers are expected to take an active part in the construction of 80 collective farm hydro-power stations in the Gorky Region. The smaller enterprises and local industry and industrial cooperatives are also eagerly awaiting the veterans. Rural authorities and farm boards not only are planning projects on which the men can work but also are making provision for their families.

★

In the last three years nineteen new diamond deposits have been discovered in the Urals. In 1944 more diamonds were mined than in the record year of 1941.

★

The Stalin ordnance plant has completed its 100,000th gun. In the prewar years 5,000 guns were built; the rest—95,000—were made for the war—19 times more than in peacetime. The plant also found time for the production of equipment for the oil industry.

A new wave of Socialist competition has been initiated by the metallurgists of the East. The preceding All-Union competition, "More Metal for the Front," launched in May, 1942, was also started by metallurgists and aircraft workers. In tackling their new tasks the iron and steel workers rely greatly upon the rich organizational and technical experience which they gained during the war.

★

The Ukrainian Government has allotted forty-five million rubles for the restoration of the huge stadium in the capital of the Ukraine with grandstands holding sixty thousand spectators.

The stadium will have a military sports ground, athletic grounds, a palace of physical culture, a swimming pool, eight basketball fields, eight volleyball courts, and eight tennis courts, and a hotel-restaurant to accommodate the guests.

★

The gas and fuel industry of the USSR is prospecting for natural gas in the central areas adjacent to Moscow. Geological material and prospecting data show that the vast Russian plains may become new oil and gas districts with potential gas and oil deposits at a depth of 900 to 1,500 meters. The most promising are the Devon strata. In 1944 powerful oil gushers occurred near Kuibyshev on the Volga and in western Bashkiria.

★

"What Shall I Study?" Under this headline the newspaper of young men and women, *Komsomolskaya Pravda*, lists a full page of the higher schools in all parts of the country where veterans can register, among them the Shipbuilding Institute in Nikolaev, navigation schools in Vladivostok, Baku, Rostov, Leningrad, and Arkhangelsk, the Kiev Institute of Cinema Engineers, the Moscow Institute of Fur and Furriers Trades, the Gorky University in the Urals, the Teachers Institute in Kolomna, the Institute of Law in Leningrad, the Medical Institute of Odessa, the Lvov Institute of Trade and the Institute of Applied and Decorative Arts in Moscow.

The commanding officer of a self-propelled gun, Vladimir Gushchin, formerly a turner at the Stalin auto plant in Moscow, was recently awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union. In reply to a letter of congratulation from the workers at his plant, he wrote:

"Thank you for your Victory Day letter, dear comrades. Our path was long from Stalingrad to Berlin, from the Volga to the Spree. But through it all we felt your support. And now our Zis cars are running on the streets of Berlin."

★

Four hundred and sixty social centers and workers clubs, 131 libraries and 1,079 Red Corners for recreation and culture are now functioning in the Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic. People come to read, listen to lectures, play chess, see a new film, dance and converse.

★

The Maly Theater—the oldest in Russia—has staged Shakespeare's *Twelfth Night* which had not been performed there for the last 30 years. The play was translated by Mikhail Lozinsky, well-known for his translation of Dante. The songs were put into Russian by Samuel Marshak.

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Five Years of the Soviet Baltic Republics

PRAVDA wrote editorially, July 21:

July 21 is a momentous date, for on this day the peoples of the Soviet Baltic Republics, and with them all the peoples of the Soviet Union, observe the Fifth Anniversary of the proclamation of Soviet power in the Baltic Republics. This Anniversary is all the more significant as it is being celebrated in the days of the great victory over German imperialism.

Greetings from the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union to the peoples of Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia have been carried by the whole Soviet press. The messages emphasize that the Soviet system has given the peoples of the Baltics genuine freedom and independence, and the possibility for rapid economic, political and cultural progress.

By joining the fraternal family of the peoples of the Soviet Union, the peoples of Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia have radically changed their international status. These Republics have acquired independent statehood, real independence and the guarantee of their security by the armed might of the great Soviet Union. The Baltic Republics have ceased to be a pawn in the hands of foreign powers.

It is an open secret that the Baltic states were always regarded by German-fascist imperialism as the springboard for an attack on the Soviet Union. With the aid of their agents entrenched in the bourgeois governments of Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia, the German imperialists were transforming these Republics into hotbeds of sinister intrigues, directed against peace, against the Soviet Union. In order to make the Baltic Republics as dependent as possible, German imperialism did everything to retard their economic and cultural development.

It is generally known that before the establishment of Soviet power, the Baltic states were sinking deeper into the quagmire of poverty, becoming agrarian appendages of the large capitalist countries and developing into the most backward part of Europe.

The historic turn in the fate of the peoples of the Baltics has ended this miserable past. A new era has dawned for the peoples of the Baltics. The aid of the fraternal peoples of the USSR and the Lenin-Stalin national policy of the Soviet Government enabled the peoples of the Soviet Baltic Republics to transform their economic, political and cultural life.

But the peaceful constructive labor of

the young Soviet Republics was interrupted by the treacherous attack of Hitler Germany on the Soviet Union. The Soviet Republics in the Baltic were among the first to be attacked by the German-fascist predatory hordes. It was not the first time that greedy German imperialism had stretched out its rapacious claws towards the Baltic regions in pursuance of its plans of conquest with the object of enslaving and destroying the Baltic peoples.

Those were days of trying ordeals for the peoples of the Soviet Baltic Republics. The German-fascist brigands proclaimed the Baltics a German province and appointed the Hitlerite executioner, Rosen-



Inhabitants of Tallinn crowd around the first Soviet tanks which appeared in the center of the Estonian capital shortly after its liberation by the Red Army.



A militiaman, formerly a guerrilla, safeguards the peace of the Latvian town of Rezekne

berg, Reichskommissar of "Ostland," with headquarters in Riga. Unbridled fascist terror raged in the Baltic countries.

But the jubilation of the enemy was premature. The peoples of Estonia, Lithuania and Latvia refused to bow or to submit to the enemy. They knew that with them were the peoples of the Soviet Union and the powerful and heroic Red Army, defending their land, their freedom and independence. And responding to Stalin's appeal, the Baltic peoples in return, like all the peoples of the USSR, rose to the defense of the Soviet homeland. The sons of Estonia, Lithuania and Latvia fought in the ranks of the Red Army on the fronts of the Patriotic War and in the ranks of the guerrilla detachments.

In recognition of the valuable contribution made by the Soviet Baltic peoples to the common cause, high Government decorations were awarded to the soldiers, officers and generals who fought on the battlefields and the guerrillas who struck blows at the enemy from the rear. Sharing with all the peoples of the USSR the hardships of war, the Baltic peoples also won the great glory of victory.

The heroic struggle for the liberation of the Soviet Baltics from the German-fascist yoke, in which the Latvian, Estonian and Lithuanian units took a direct

part, affords brilliant proof of the inviolability of the fraternal friendship of the Soviet peoples and is a striking confirmation of the fact that the Baltic peoples chose the correct historical path when they adopted the Soviet State system five years ago.

The plans of the German-fascist oppressors, who had banked on a split between the peoples of the USSR, have completely failed. Like soap bubbles the forecasts of the disintegration of the Soviet Union have burst. The Soviet Union has shown itself to be the most stable State in the world, the most powerful force in the struggle against Hitlerite aggression, the bulwark of universal security and lasting peace between nations.

The defeat of German imperialism as a result of the notable victories of the Red Army concludes the age-old struggle waged by the Baltic peoples against the German oppressors. Once again the Estonian people breathe freely. The people of Latvia, who for centuries had been suffering from the yoke not only of the native bourgeoisie but also of the German barons in the country, fear the German menace no longer. For the first time in centuries, the Lithuanian people are rejoicing at the reunion of their territories. Joined under the banner of Soviet Lithuania now are ancient Kaunas, the old Lithuanian capital of Vilnius and the Lithuanian port of Klaipeda.

The Baltic peoples are celebrating their liberation. The significance of this Anniversary stands out in especially bold relief against the background of Victory Day,

not only because the correctly chosen historic path has secured the peoples of the Baltics their freedom and victory over the enemy, but also because as members of the Soviet Union, the Baltic Republics will rapidly be able to heal their serious wounds.

The Soviet Baltic Republics suffered heavy losses in the war. The German fascist brigands pillaged and looted the Baltic countries. The terrible memory of the rule of the fascists still lives in the ruins of the wrecked cities, in the burned-out plants and factories, the blasted bridges and destroyed villages.

Despite the tremendous destruction, despite the suffering, the Soviet Baltic Republics are coming back to life and restoring their economy and culture. Equipment, raw materials and building materials stream into Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia from other fraternal Republics. Life hums with activity and with constructive labor.

Seven hundred and sixty-five enterprises have already been restored in Lithuania; the output of the partly-renewed shale industry in Estonia is increasing; hundreds of Latvian enterprises are already operating and 220 more will be opened before the end of the year. Many schools, universities and theaters are functioning.

On the historic occasion of the Fifth Anniversary of Soviet power in the Baltic Republics, the peoples of the USSR send to Soviet Lithuania, Soviet Latvia and Soviet Estonia their fervent greetings and wishes for future success.

A Soviet officer explaining developments in other parts of the world to inhabitants of Kaunas. The group observes his map closely



Americans Receive Awards of the USSR

For Outstanding Military Activities Which Facilitated the Sailing of Transports with War Supplies to Ports of the Soviet Union During the War Against the Common Enemy of the USSR and the U.S.A.—Hitlerite Germany—and for the Valor and Gallantry They Displayed, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR has Awarded Decorations to the Following Servicemen of the Navy, Naval Reserve, Coast Guard and Coast Guard Reserve of the United States of America:

The United States Navy:

Order of the Patriotic War, First Class, Commander JOHN CORBUS, Lieutenant Commander SHELDON H. KINNEY, Lieutenant Commander HOWARD M. AVERY.

Order of the Patriotic War, Second Class, Lieutenant ROBERT L. BAUGHAN, Chief Boatswain J. H. HARSHAW.

Order of the Red Star, Lieutenant NORMAN DOUGLAS HODSON, Lieutenant (j.g.) ROBERT B. HOPGOOD, Chief Ship's Clerk JOHN A. MCGINNIS, Seaman First Class PAUL NEIL WEBB.

Order of Glory, Third Class, Lieutenant WILLIAM COLE, Lieutenant DONALD F. MASON, Lieutenant ROBERT C. MILLARD, Lieutenant LEONARD E. HARMON, Lieutenant (j.g.) JOHN SULTON, Aviation Chief Ordnanceman DALLAS HARDING JONES, Aviation Chief Machinist's Mate CECIL R. HAYCRAFT, Aviation Machinist's Mate, First Class, WILLIAM B. C. SMITH, Machinist's Mate, Second Class, CHARLES IRVING RANDOLPH SAUM, Seaman First Class N. RATZ, Seaman Second Class FAUSTIN GALLEGOS, Seaman Second Class GARNETT CURRY DEBAUN.

Medal of Ushakov, Signalman First Class FLOYD EUGENE RICHARDS, Apprentice Seaman JUNIOR WISHON.

Medal of Nakhimov, Gunner's Mate, Third Class, GEORGE CLIFFORD COOPER, Seaman First Class EMMETT DOTSON ANDERSON.

Medal for Valor, Boatswain's Mate Second Class FRANCIS MARION SHIPLEY, Coxswain HARRY MADISON GOSSMAN, Seaman First Class FRANCIS PETER PERRET, Seaman Second Class ALBERT ONEY YINGLING, Seaman Second Class RAYMOND PETER PEER, Seaman Second Class CHARLES CLAYTON HARRIS.

Medal for Distinguished Service, Radioman Second Class BERNARD ALOYSIUS MALLOY, Gunner's Mate Second Class THOMAS EDWARD BROWN, Seaman First Class EDWARD THOMAS ANDERSON, Sea-

man First Class FRANCIS LEE DUNCAN, Seaman First Class ALLAN ANTHONY THOMPSON, Seaman First Class HUBERT WILLIAMS.

The United States Naval Reserve:

Order of the Patriotic War, First Class, Lieutenant Commander DAVID M. KELLOGG, Lieutenant Commander WILLIAM A. SESSIONS, Lieutenant Commander ROBERT H. WANLESS, Lieutenant Commander NORMAN C. HOFFMAN, Lieutenant CHARLES HARRIS HUTCHINS, Lieutenant (j.g.) WILLARD W. BROWN, Lieutenant (j.g.) MORTON E. WOLFSON, Lieutenant (j.g.) WILLIAM A. CARTER, Lieutenant (j.g.) ALBERT MAYNARD, Lieutenant (j.g.) ROBERT B. RICKS, Lieutenant (j.g.) BRIAN C. WELCH, Ensign ROY M. BILLINGS, Ensign WILBUR P. COLLINS, Ensign KENDALL H. CRAM, Ensign RUDOLPH H. KROETZ, Ensign ARTHUR D. MADDALENA, JR., Ensign DANIEL J. ROOKER, Ensign MERRILL R. STONE, JR., Ensign CHARLES S. FINK.

Order of the Patriotic War, Second Class, Lieutenant Commander JOHN H. CHURCH, JR., Lieutenant PHILIP BAUSCHE BROWN, Lieutenant WESLEY NORTON MILLER, Lieutenant ROBERT A. NISBET, Lieutenant RICHARD M. STONE, Lieutenant (j.g.) WALTER R. DALEY, Lieutenant (j.g.) MICHAEL L. MERLO, Lieutenant (j.g.) WILSON D. RUTHERFORD, Lieutenant (j.g.) HARRISON SMITH, Lieutenant (j.g.) MILTON A. STEIN, Lieutenant (j.g.) PAUL W. THOMPSON, Lieutenant (j.g.) JAMES B. WILLIAMS, Lieutenant (j.g.) BLAKE HUGHES, Ensign NORMAN O. W. ADAMS, JR., Ensign JULES H. BLOCH, Ensign JOSEPH T. GILLEN, Ensign WALTER J. GUDAT, Ensign MARCEL DESGALIER, JR., Ensign JOHN T. MCNAUGHTON, Ensign HOWELL S. MURRAY, Ensign GEORGE T. SMITH, Ensign BLAKE C. HOWARD.

Order of the Red Star, Lieutenant Commander HOWARD STOWE ROBERTS, Lieutenant ROBERT EDWARD BUCKBEE, Lieu-

tenant GERALD G. HOGAN, Lieutenant (j.g.) LETSON S. BALLIETT, Lieutenant (j.g.) JOHN G. GROTENRATH, JR., Lieutenant (j.g.) PAUL BRUCE KINNEY, Lieutenant (j.g.) LOUIS D. MARKS, Lieutenant (j.g.) DAVID O. PUCKETT, Lieutenant (j.g.) HERBERT M. SONNEBORN, JR., Lieutenant (j.g.) WILMA S. F. FOWLER, Lieutenant (j.g.) ELBERT S. HELM, Lieutenant (j.g.) DAN R. SCHWARTZ, Lieutenant (j.g.) GILBERT S. YOUNG, Ensign HOWARD E. CARRAWAY, Ensign WILLIAM R. KIRBY, Ensign DAVID A. PICKLER, Ensign KENNETH W. TIPPING, Ensign WILLIAM FARRAR, Ensign JOSEPH D. HORN, Gunner's Mate Third Class WILLIAM A. SCHILBE.

Order of Glory, Third Class, Lieutenant LOWELL L. DAVIS, Lieutenant WILLIAM TEPUNI, Lieutenant JOHN B. WATSON, Lieutenant C. RORNEY, Lieutenant STEWART B. HOLT, Lieutenant GEORGE ALBERT ENLOE, Lieutenant (j.g.) ALEX X. BROKAS, Lieutenant (j.g.) JAMES JOSEPH DELHOM, Lieutenant (j.g.) THOMAS KINASCZUK, Lieutenant (j.g.) WALLACE S. PORTER, Lieutenant (j.g.) KENNETH LEON WRIGHT, Lieutenant (j.g.) BERNARD C. SISSLER, Lieutenant (j.g.) JACK HOWARD STEWART, Lieutenant (j.g.) THEODORE STANLEY THUESON, Lieutenant (j.g.) ROBERT W. HAYMAN, Lieutenant (j.g.) MILTON JOHN SHERBRING, Ensign PHILIP RANDOLPH ANDERSON, Ensign BRADFORD M. DYER, Ensign ROY WALTER JOHNSON, Ensign WILLIAM M. MCLANE, Ensign BERT J. HUDSON, Ensign HAROLD L. HANDSHUH, Chief Machinist's Mate WILLIAM J. GRENDL, Machinist's Mate Second Class MARIO JAMES PAGNOTTA, Gunner's Mate Second Class NORMAN ERWIN HYMAS, Boatswain's Mate Second Class JOSEPH JOHN CHATTERTON, JR., Coxswain JOHN H. CURRANT, Coxswain ARTHUR LATNEY FARMER, Coxswain NORBERT LEWIS SCHWARTZ, Coxswain CHARLES EDGAR WALTERS, Seaman First Class DONALD

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Medal of Nakhimov, Radioman Second Class JOSEPH DONALD LEAHY, Radioman Second Class ROBERT GLENN HENDERSON, Gunner's Mate Third Class GEORGE CECIL GODDARD, Gunner's Mate Third Class CECIL BILLY GRAFF, Gunner's Mate Third Class FRANK C. GAY, Gunner's Mate Third Class ALBERT DELLOYD FRIDAY, Gunner's Mate Third Class JOHN HENRY HARMON, Boatswain's Mate Second Class ARTHUR LESLIE ADLER, Signalman Second Class JAMES NATHAN GUYTON, JR., Seaman First Class VAUL OSCAR LESSARD, Seaman First Class REX ELDON ROBERTSON, Seaman Second Class WILLIAM M. THOMAS HARKINS.

The Medal for Bravery, Gunner's Mate Second Class RONALD H. BLAKE, JR.,

Gunner's Mate Third Class LUTHER WILLIAM PERDUE, Radioman Third Class JOHN WALLACE MCDOLE, Boatswain's Mate Second Class JOSEPH OSAVAGE, Coxswain JOHN JACOB OURS, Coxswain THOMAS NIGHTINGALE, Coxswain JAMES WILLIAM PERNELL, Coxswain HARRY PARKS WILSON, Signalman PERCY LEON SPAN, Seaman First Class HARRY JONES, JR., Seaman First Class MILTON PARKER, Seaman First Class WILLIE H. PHILLIPS, Seaman First Class LEONARD DURWOOD HORTON, Seaman Second Class EARNEST E. GRANDEY, JR., Seaman Second Class OSWALD IRWIN CASSIDY, Seaman Second Class LEWIS WILLIAM KROEGER, Seaman Second Class ANDREW OLIVER MATHSON, Seaman Second Class LELAND HALL.

Medal for Distinguished Service, Chief Boatswain's Mate EATON PLEASANTS DECOTTES, Gunner's Mate Second Class THOMAS JACKSON DIXON, Gunner's Mate Second Class EDWIN B. NEWMAN, Gunner's Mate Second Class CLIFFORD HARMON STARNES, Gunner's Mate Third

Class ELI PHILIP BOURG, Gunner's Mate Third Class EDWARD C. HOBAN, Gunner's Mate Third Class GUSTAV W. SCHILL JR., Boatswain's Mate Second Class ALEXANDER LAGUE, Boatswain's Mate Second Class HARVE CARROLL SMALLEY JR., Coxswain WILLIAM STEWART SHARP, Seaman First Class DONALD SHERMAN BIGGS, Seaman First Class ELDEN SAMUEL KIRBY, Seaman First Class JOHN W. CANNON, Seaman First Class MILTON CLAYTON CASSEY, Seaman First Class MAURICE ELVIN LARSON, Seaman First Class OMAN AMBROSE NELSON, Seaman First Class SENVA TRAHAN, Seaman First Class MERLIN G. HOUNDESHELL.

The Coast Guard Service:

Order of the Patriotic War, First Class, Lieutenant Commander FRANCIS C. POLLARD, Lieutenant Commander ROBERT WILCOX.

The Coast Guard Reserve:

Order of the Patriotic War, Second Class, Lieutenant Commander SIDNEY M. HAY.

THE WAR EFFORT OF OSOAVIAKHIM

By S. Tiunov

Osoaviakhim is the Soviet society for air and chemical defense which, through its widespread program of education on the home front, was able to render a valuable patriotic service throughout the war. The mass volunteer defense organization with a membership of over 13 million, has local branches in all factories, offices, institutions, collective and State farms and machine tractor stations.

Long before the war local branches had begun training reserves for the Red Army—sharpshooters, cavalrymen, parachute jumpers and glider and aircraft pilots. The famed Soviet ace, Thrice Hero of the Soviet Union Alexander Pokryshkin with a score of 59 German aircraft to his credit, received his initial training at an Osoaviakhim aeroclub.

Vladimir Pchelintsev of Leningrad and the Moscow girls, Natasha Kovshova and Marusya Polivanova, all Heroes of the Soviet Union, also took courses at the Osoaviakhim snipers school. Volunteering for service at the front, they annihilated a total of 400 Nazi soldiers and

officers. During the war the activities of the society increased tremendously and the membership grew by seven million. Four hundred trainees of the Moscow Osoaviakhim aeroclubs and snipers schools have been awarded orders and medals.

Osoaviakhim contributed over 218 million rubles to the defense fund. In the villages the societies contributed 738,000 poods of grain to the Red Army fund; in the factories they collected 575,000 tons of scrap iron. The women and girls of Moscow, Leningrad, Stalingrad, Kursk, Saratov and other towns made 1,563,000 articles of underwear and clothing for Red Army soldiers and officers.

Last year in Moscow offices 600 locals were set up. The school and house committees recruited 200,000 new members, and trained twice as many tommy gunners, anti-tank riflemen, snipers and machine gunners as they had planned. They carried out 200,000 other mass measures, including talks and lectures on war topics, military games, and instruction on tactics.

The Moscow organizations made 54,000 gifts for the fighting men, helped 30,000 families of soldiers to till their vegetable gardens, and assisted in the repairs of 4,000 apartments for these families.

In the Akmolinsk Region of the Kazakh Republic Osoaviakhim provided military training for several thousand people in 1944. The collective farm branches alone trained 226 cavalrymen. Members of the organizations cultivated 3,220 hectares of grain above the program and delivered 93,520,000 poods of grain to the State.

There have been accomplishments in other spheres as well. The Stalingrad membership, for example, started the clearing of mines in the liberated districts. This initiative was followed all over the liberated areas. Thousands of people took a special course of instruction and are now engaged in this arduous and dangerous work. Altogether they have removed or rendered harmless 50 million explosives of various kinds—mines, grenades, shells and bombs.

New President of the Academy of Sciences

At a general meeting of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, July 17, the members heard the request of Vladimir Komarov for release from his post as president, in view of his poor health.

In considering the resignation, Academician Volgin outlined Komarov's activities as head of the Academy since 1936. He had worked in the Presidium first as a member and later as vice president. While taking a prominent part in the development of the Academy, Komarov helped with Socialist construction and the growth of the productive forces of the whole country. He was a force in the spread of culture in the various Soviet Republics, and himself organized local branches of the Academy of Sciences and encouraged the training of native scientists. During the Great Patriotic War Komarov directed the work of the Institutes toward strengthening the defense of the country.

In conclusion, Volgin said: "In our concern for the health of Vladimir Leontievich, who will be seventy-six next October, we must concede to his wishes and release him from his duties as president, in order to enable him to take regular and uninterrupted treatments."

In the ensuing discussion on the election of a new president, a number of outstanding scientists proposed Academician Sergei Vavilov to succeed Komarov.

Leader of an independent school of physicists, author of a number of brilliant works on optics, Vavilov was warmly received by the 94 Academicians at the meeting, and the secret ballot was unanimously in favor of his election.

One of the younger members of the Academy, Sergei Vavilov is 54 years old. On graduating from the Physics Department of Moscow University in 1914, he immediately entered upon his scientific and pedagogical activity. Prior to the First World War, he published a number of works on the photometry of varicolored sources and the fading of colors under the action of heat. For the four years he was in the army his scientific work was interrupted. In 1918 he was taken prisoner by the Germans, but he



Sergei Ivanovich Vavilov

succeeded in escaping after two days and returned to Moscow, where he resumed his science and teaching. In 1932 he was elected a member of the Academy of Sciences.

Sergei Vavilov is recognized as one of the Soviet Union's foremost physicists. His numerous experimental researches have been chiefly in the field of optics, and he is an authority on photo-luminescent phenomena. With a group of associates Vavilov recently discovered a type of illumination resulting from the motion through a particular medium of electrons moving with a velocity higher than that of light in the same substance. This lays the groundwork for a new approach to optics, of greater-than-light velocities.

Investigations undertaken by Vavilov proved that the absolute luminescence of solutions of dyeing materials could be significant, contrary to previously held opinions. On the basis of the idea of quantum mechanical resonance, the scientist built up a theory which gives a quantitatively correct characterization of all known phenomena of fluorescence and permits the determination from experi-

mental data of the meanings of constants which characterize the nature, and the special features of the behavior of molecules.

Among Vavilov's contributions is the discovery of a source of cold light—converting ultraviolet radiation arising during a gas discharge in mercury vapors into visible light by covering lamp bulbs with luminophores. Under Vavilov's guidance the technology of the production of such gas-filled lamps covered with luminescent compounds was worked out. They are three to four times more economical than incandescent lamps and give radiation similar to daylight in composition.

Among Vavilov's published works are translations from Latin into Russian of Newton's studies in optics. For many years the Academician has edited the physics section of the Soviet Encyclopedia. Along with his academic publications, Vavilov has been a popularizer of science, and his books for public enlightenment are widely read.

As the administrator of the Physics Institute Vavilov made valuable contributions to the war effort, especially in designing complex optical instruments for the Army, Air Force and Navy.

The Soviet Government has expressed its appreciation of Vavilov's work by awarding him three Government orders. In 1943 he was awarded the Stalin Prize.

After his election to the presidency, Vavilov spoke briefly on a plan for future activities. "Our great victory over the enemy," he said, "has made accomplishments in culture and techniques imperative. This is the desire of the Soviet people and requires the mobilization of all the forces of science with the greatest possible concentration of our scientists.

"We are all familiar with the unflinching interest and attention given the Academy by Comrade Stalin and Comrade Molotov. The recent Jubilee session demonstrated to the whole world the respect and esteem accorded us by our Government and Party. With all the members of our Academy, I am confident that guided by the great leader who brought our country to victory, we shall cope with the noble tasks of Soviet science."

How Soviet Cooperatives Work

By Ilya Semyonov

The consumers' cooperative movement in the Soviet Union is only a little younger than the oldest cooperative movement in the world—that of England, which celebrated the centenary of the Rochdale Pioneers in 1944. Soviet cooperatives in the same year marked the eightieth anniversary of the formation of the first consumers' society in Russia—at Kynovskoye in the Urals.

In tsarist Russia the cooperative movement developed very slowly. At the turn of the century there were only a few hundred associations. Foremost among them, for membership and turnover, were the credit cooperatives, which worked mainly on capital borrowed from the State bank. The tsarist government barely tolerated them, and not infrequently hampered their work. It was only after 1917, that the movement began to develop rapidly.

The Soviet population is supplied with food and industrial commodities without the intervention of middlemen, dealers or profiteers, large or small. The townsfolk are served by a network of State trading organizations, and the rural population by cooperatives. In the villages, trading is conducted by consumers' societies, 28,000 of which existed before the war.

These societies have their own warehouses, shops, restaurants, bakeries and enterprises turning out consumer goods, as well as farms, vegetable gardens, dairies, pig and rabbit-breeding farms and poultry farms. They also run depots where agricultural produce and raw materials are bought and processed.

The consumers' societies, which embrace practically the entire rural population of the USSR, are closely connected with the industrial cooperatives which supply them with various goods.

The organizational structure of the consumers' cooperatives in the USSR is as follows: associations of shareholders are united in district unions of consumers' societies, and these in turn are organized in regional or territorial unions, forming part of the Union of Consumers' Societies of the Union Republics.

All Republic cooperative unions are

linked in the Central Union of Consumers' Societies of the USSR—Centrosoyuz—which directs the work of the entire system of consumers' cooperatives, plans and controls their economic activities, and is a wholesale outlet for goods to the regions, territories and Republics.

All activities of the consumers' cooperatives, beginning with the nucleus, the consumers' society, take place with the active participation, and under the control of the consumers, themselves. Shareholders' meetings are held at intervals of not more than three months, at which all the most important questions relating to the society's activities are discussed and decisions adopted.

The members of a consumers' society served by a particular shop or restaurant elect from among themselves a commission which supervises the daily work of the enterprise.

General meetings of shareholders are held once in two years to elect, by secret ballot, a management committee and an auditing commission, and to declare the dividend payable to the shareholders. The principle of democracy is strictly observed.

The general meeting also discusses and votes sums for the upkeep of nurseries, kindergartens, sanatoriums and rest homes for members of the society. The number of such establishments increases from year to year.

Twentieth Century Methuselahs

Three or four hundred years ago, when the standard of health protection was very low, the average duration of human life was barely 20 years.

The widespread opinion that the biological length of human life does not exceed 70 to 80 years was disproved by the great Russian scientist, Ilya Mechnikov, who showed that normal longevity is 100 years or more. Many famous scientists and artists have lived 90 to 100 years. Ivan Pavlov died at 87, Leo Tolstoy at 82, Michelangelo at 84, and Titian at 99.

According to prewar statistics the number of persons over 100 years of age

During the ten years before the war the membership of consumers' cooperatives in Soviet rural areas increased from 24,000,000 in 1930, to 36,400,000 in 1940. The capital stock of these cooperatives increased sevenfold—from 200,000,000 rubles in 1930 to 1,400,000,000 rubles in 1940. Retail turnover increased from 5,000,000,000 in 1930 to 42,900,000,000 in 1939—an increase of more than eight times.

These figures clearly illustrate the great rise in the living standard of the rural population of the USSR. During the years of Soviet power, consumption of sugar biscuits and confectionery has increased tenfold. The Soviet countryfolk are buying 14 times as much soap as they did before the Revolution, seven times as much clothing and 30 times as much furniture. In 1939, the Soviet village cooperatives sold 900,000,000 rubles' worth of gramophones, cameras, bicycles and sports equipment—commodities unknown in the old days.

In wartime the village cooperatives organized thousands of industrial enterprises producing footwear, clothing, kitchen utensils, soap, knitted goods and other essentials. In nearly every district—excluding, of course, the areas that suffered German occupation—retail trading increased. The "co-ops" set up dining rooms and canteens to relieve the housewives and enable them to do war work.

per million inhabitants was: 2 in Germany, 10 in England, 31 in Denmark, 65 in Sweden, 140 in Colombia and Brazil, and 428 in Bulgaria.

The 1926 census in the USSR includes over 30,000 centenarians. In 1939 there were 6 men and 44 women over 100 in Moscow; there were 611 residents aged from 90 to 100. The inhabitants of certain districts of the Caucasus are famous for their advanced age. Before the war in Abkhazia 35 examples of rare longevity were discovered—people of 113 to 136 years of age. The oldest man on record in the Soviet Union is a 166-year-old man living in Daghestan.

HOLIDAY OF THE SEA

By L. Kudervatykh

The following two articles are the third and fourth of a series of LETTERS FROM POLAND which appeared in IZVESTIA:

In Poland traditions are sacred. On the market square, in the center of Cracow, stands a beautiful old church with a high tower rising above the city. Every hour a herald appears on top and from each of the four sides he plays a tune on a long horn. But at the highest note the tune is abruptly cut short. There is a legend that many centuries ago, in the times of the Tatar invasion, a herald playing the tune on the tower at the appointed hour was hit by a Tatar arrow, which pierced his throat. Since then, the herald on the tower has always stopped on the note on which the melody was terminated long ago.

The Holiday of the Sea is one of such traditions, dating back many centuries. On this day Polish youths, children and old people would come to the shores of the Baltic Sea, sing songs to it, dance in circles, throw gifts of their land and wreaths of field flowers into the foamy waters of the sea. This demonstration expressed the ancient dream of the Polish people—to be close to the sea.

But the Poles were deprived of their wish. The Slav lands on the coast were taken and settled by the Germans. Ancient Polish cities were proclaimed German or "free." A narrow corridor running through the forests and marshes, led from the heart of Poland to Gdynia, once a tiny settlement on the seashore. The Poles loved the sea and knew its value. In a few years they had turned Gdynia into a first-rate seaport, with rail terminals, breakwaters, docks, factories and warehouses. From here they carried on trade with the entire world, and never tired of dreaming that the long-awaited day of justice would come and the Holiday of the Sea would be celebrated, not on a narrow strip of shore in the neighborhood of Gdynia, but on a wide coastline.

The dream of the Polish people has become true. After five years under the Germans, when the Poles were forbidden to revive their traditions, scores of thousands of Poles again have come out to

sea. Among the happy and jubilant throngs, they saw people from Warsaw, the representatives of their Government and Army. And the words of ancient Polish songs resounded above the sea. Justice has triumphed, fully and freely.

That is why we were not surprised when the local governor, Okienski, who received us at Gdansk, made neither speech nor statements, but said with a shade of lyrical feeling in his voice, "Let us go out to the sea."

We had previously inspected the city of Gdansk, which the Germans utterly smashed and burned before their retreat. In a block near the canal we noticed the acrid smell of smoke. Left in flames by the Nazis, the grain storehouses where the Germans kept the grain from all over Poland, were still smoldering.

The German administration spent effort and time "Germanizing" Gdansk. Tens of thousands of Poles were forcibly deported from the city and replaced by German merchants, officials, middlemen and spies. The few thousand Poles who remained in Gdansk were obliged to swear allegiance to Germany. German propaganda has always tried to prove that Gdansk has never been Polish. But there is no need to refer to textbooks to refute that assertion. Once as we drove in an autobus through the streets of Gdansk, someone drew attention to a quadrangular, steel edifice of wonderful beauty, which escaped fire but was considerably pock-marked by bomb and shell fragments. When we stopped to look it over, the local Polish inhabitants told us, "Here is proof that Gdansk is a Polish city. This building was erected in the 16th century. And above its entrance you can still see the old Polish coat-of-arms."

Hundreds of Polish families now return to Gdansk daily. They roll up their sleeves and set to work, restoring the port, repairing dwellings or doing any of the numerous reconstruction jobs. Streetcars are already running, and in the blocks that have escaped destruction, there are electric lights and running water.

But the main feature of Gdansk and Gdynia is the sea, the hope of all Poland. It was evening when Governor Okienski

led us to the shore at Sopoty Zoppot. We walked over a sort of wooden breakwater which extended far into the sea—a mooring place for yachts, motor boats and sailboats.

"The sea is wonderful," said Okienski. "Its refreshing breeze blows through all of free Poland."

"The fifty thousand Poles returning from Lodz, and 20,000 from Warsaw will revive the port and rehabilitate Gdansk and Gdynia and turn them into one continuous merging city on the coast. We will trade with the West and with our great neighbor in the East with whom we are connected both by this sea and by many land routes." And those were no idle reveries suggested by the calm sunset on the seashore.

We inspected the ports of Gdansk and Gdynia, which before the war handled 18 million tons of freight a year. The Germans wrecked the ports and all their installations, mined the harbors, and, at the entrances to the harbors, sank transports, barges and warships. The entrance to Gdynia harbor is barred by the hulk of the battleship *Gneisenau*, which the Germans blew up. Its dark, sullen turrets stick up from the water. Engineer Szedrowicz, in charge of the dock work, told us, "While the German battleship is being removed, we are restoring cranes and other port installations, building up the breakwaters which the Germans destroyed, and laying railroad tracks."

In Gdansk port we saw the seagoing ship *Africa* which the Germans had sunk near the entrance to the harbor, and which had been raised by the Soviet ship-salvaging trust, Epron. People speaking of these workers say: "According to the boldest calculations it should have taken two and a half months to raise the ship. Soviet crews lifted it to the surface in 38 hours."

Gdansk harbor is now open. The hoisting installations are working and trains have brought in freight; the first trainload of coal has arrived.

"We are waiting for ships," said engineer Szedrowicz. "The first are expected to arrive soon, perhaps even today."

"And what ship is that?" asked some-

one in our group, pointing to a large vessel of the docks.

The port workers accompanying us at once grew excited. They rushed toward

the ship entering the harbor. On the broadside of the ship we could make out the Soviet name, *Vishera*. From the bridge someone shouted: "Greetings! Just be-

hind us are vessels from Finland and Sweden."

The Holiday of the Sea has become reality to Poland.

RETURNING HOME

The ancient Piast lands have been returned to Poland. The timber, coal and ore deposits, the pastures and fields of Silesia and Pomerania are rejoined to the ancient Slav lands. Over a million Poles are again in their own country. Centuries of efforts to Germanize them have come to nothing. Twelve years ago Hitler ordered the construction of a memorial tomb on St. Anna Mountain on the western frontier of what was then Poland. The huge monument was to be in honor of the German conquest of foreign lands, specifically of Polish Silesia. We surveyed that gloomy structure built in the style characteristic of the fascist obscurantists. Inside the tomb we found ten graves with symbolic inscriptions depicting the road of fascist imperialist Germany, and, in the center amid the burials, a statue of a dying German. On the plateau near the tomb, stone benches are arranged in the form of an amphitheater. Here Hitler intended to hold his rallies and call upon the Germans to embark on new campaigns of conquest.

Now this monument to the strength of imperialist Germany has become the symbol of its inglorious collapse. In 1919, 1920 and 1921, the Silesian Poles rebelled against the Germans, and on St. Anna Mountain fought heroically for their independence. Recently over 70,000 Poles assembled at the same spot to celebrate their liberation and pay homage to the memory of the dead insurgents who did not yield to the Germans. We were told,

"We are going to erect a monument here to a free Poland—a bright, strong and radiant monument."

Not far from St. Anna Mountain, in the village of Dlugie Mosty, we met the first Polish peasant families from the village of Pikulevitsy in the Lvov Region of the Ukrainian Soviet Republic, who have moved to western Poland with all their personal property and livestock. They have settled in the houses left behind by the Germans, have received land which they are cultivating, and are fixing up their farms.

I had a talk with Anna Pawlowska. She showed me her apartment in a two-story cottage. In fields not far from the cottage ripe winter crops could be seen. Potatoes, tomatoes and other vegetables were growing in the gardens, and a little farther beyond spread excellent pastures.

"Almost our entire village has moved here," said Anna Pawlowska. "We will get used to the land and things will begin to hum. We will prosper, and we will also help the State."

This year over three million Poles are to be settled in the Polish lands liberated from the Germans. Scattered throughout the world outside of Poland there are about eight million Poles. Many of them have expressed a desire to return to their country, to a free and independent Poland. According to statements by members of the Polish Government, there is room and work for every Pole who wishes

to come back and settle in Poland.

Foreign correspondents invariably ask "What are you going to do with the Germans who remain in these territories?"

There is one reply. "We shall have to transfer them."

Colonel Anatol, the vice-governor of Gdansk, replied to a similar question "We want no fifth column in our country. We remember the examples of the Sudeten and other Slav territories where the Germans invariably engaged in subversive activities. Many Germans are now leaving Gdansk for the West of their own accord. We do not interfere with them. When the transfer of Germans is organized, we will permit them to take along all their belongings. We will supply them with food. We will see to it that the Germans withdraw from here, not because we want to take revenge, but for the sake of our own security."

The ancient Polish lands have been reunited and their original masters are coming back. They will heal the wounds inflicted in the years of German occupation and war. Then the Polish lands will blossom forth in their fertility, and once again unfettered, the broad singsong of Slav speech will be heard.

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Display of Messages to the Academy

An exhibition of the messages of greetings sent by Soviet and foreign scientific institutions to the Academy of Sciences of the USSR on the occasion of its 220th Anniversary has opened in Moscow. About 1,000 messages have been received from the scientists of America, Britain, China, France, Yugoslavia and other countries. Many outstanding scientists, who were unable to attend the An-

niversary meeting, sent their congratulations, among them Albert Einstein, Paul Langevin, and Charles Darwin, (grandson of the famous naturalist).

The American anthropologist and archeologist, Henry Field, on behalf of American scientists, presented two boxes of phonograph records of American folk dances, and a film on the work of the Library of Congress.

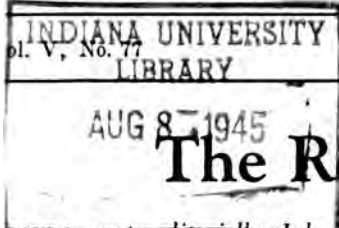
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Information Bulletin

(Issued Three Times Weekly)

Washington, D. C., July 31, 1945



The Rehabilitation of the Rural Areas

RAVDA wrote editorially, July 18:

The war dealt grave wounds to our country. The Nazi invaders wrecked and committed to flames hundreds of cities and thousands of villages. Millions of Soviet citizens were left without any homes or shelter. In the German occupied districts of the Russian SFSR alone, the scale of destruction included nearly one million dwelling houses, 850,000 collective farm structures, 22,700 village schools, 7,250 hospitals and medical centers and 2,250 creches. In the Smolensk region nearly 2,000 villages were burned to the ground; 640 villages were completely razed in the Moscow Region. We find the same story in the Orel, Kursk, Bryansk, Tula and other Regions. Whole districts in Byelorussia and the Ukraine were reduced to charred earth.

For example, of the Byelorussian Republic, only 32 houses out of 6,000 in the Belchits District survived; eight out of 450 in the Osveisk District; 577 out of 670 in the Surazh District.

It has been incontrovertibly established that this wholesale destruction was all carried out according to plan on direct orders of the Nazi government. It demanded that the German troops retreating under the blows of the Red Army leave a desert of ruins behind them. The object was clear: this area in the Red Army's rear was not only to weaken communications and render supply difficult, but also to undermine the economic strength of the Soviet Union and condemn millions of Soviet citizens to starvation, cold and epidemics.

But here, as in everything else, the Nazis miscalculated. The strength of the Soviet State, of the Socialist economic order and the collective farm system foiled their villainous schemes. Obviously, if it had not been for the Soviet Government and the collective farms, millions of people would have been wandering in the

country as beggars, would have died of starvation and poverty, and economic chaos would have been the lot of the country for decades.

The fact that, even in the midst of the war, the Government set about rehabilitating the cities and villages destroyed by the Nazi invaders, is a vivid demonstration of the might of the Soviet State and the vitality of the collective farm system. Two years ago, when the war was still raging in the fields of the Orel, Kursk and Smolensk Regions, and when all Byelorussia, the Baltic States and most of the Ukraine were still under the heel of the enemy, the Government passed a decree outlining urgent measures for the economic rehabilitation of the areas liberated from German occupation.

Since then, with all the difficulties and hardships of war and when all the strength and resources of the country were strained

to the utmost, restoration work has been performed on an unparalleled scale. In this period in the Russian SFSR alone, 536,000 houses have been rebuilt, 2,349,100 persons transferred from dugouts and ruins to new homes. The Government advanced building loans of 255 million rubles to the families which suffered from the occupation. Less than a year has passed since the Red Army drove the Germans from Soviet Byelorussia; but in this brief period the homes of 127,000 Byelorussian collective farm families have been repaired or rebuilt.

Rehabilitation in the Ukraine and Baltic Republics is being conducted on a truly gigantic scale.

In the Moscow Region there is splendid evidence of the part played by the Soviet State and the collective farms in healing the grave wounds of war.

For the purpose of directing the work



Surveyors measure the streets of Stalingrad. Plans have been made for construction of new squares and residential sections in the completely gutted city

of reconstruction in the former German occupied area, the Moscow Executive Committee of the Soviets of Working People's Deputies has set up a rehabilitation board. The actual building of homes was undertaken by the collective farms themselves, which set aside building materials and transport facilities for the purpose and formed their own building brigades. The assistance of the local factories and workshops was enlisted for the manufacture of window frames, doors, nails and building tools. An architectural office was organized to make standard designs for the collective farmers' houses and plans for villages. Moscow's industrial plants and best architects are taking an energetic part in this gigantic activity and giving daily assistance. The result is that in the Moscow Region of 42,000 houses destroyed in the rural areas occupied by the Germans, nearly 30,000 already have been replaced.

Now that the war has been victoriously terminated and repair of the damage it caused is a major task of the State, the regeneration of the ruined villages, the building of homes for collective farmers, farm buildings, and rural public and cultural institutions, is being conducted on a greater scale than ever.

The Council of People's Commissars of the RSFSR recently issued a lengthy decision on rural rehabilitation. This makes

it incumbent on the Soviets in the districts which were under German occupation to assist in every way in the rebuilding of homes. The aim is simple, yet magnificent: it is that every collective farm family still living in a dugout or other temporary shelter shall be installed in a comfortable home in the very near future.

The building is to be done with the forces and the resources of the collective farms themselves, each of which will form a permanent building brigade from among its members. The builders will be credited with workday units (the basis on which the annual proceeds of the collective farms are distributed among its members), which will be correspondingly debited against the workday units earned by the family for which the home is being repaired or built anew. The houses will be made according to standard plans and each village laid out according to approved blueprints, which will provide for the planting of trees and greenery, building roads, bridges, and sports grounds, and the designing of the village square and of the fraternal graves of soldiers who died for the liberation of the village.

The Government of the RSFSR has set up a central board for village and collective farm construction with sub-committees and departments in every Region, Territory, Autonomous Republic and Dis-

trict. Measures have been outlined for supply of building material and the training of building workers. Similar decisions have been taken by the Councils of People's Commissars of the Ukraine and Byelorussia.

The aim is not only that the villages will be rebuilt and the collective farms provided with homes; the idea is that the villages will rise again out of the ruins more beautiful, more modern and convenient than before. In Byelorussia they will be brick cottages with tiled roofs in place of the old wattle and thatch cabins. To supply the materials two big factories will be erected this year in the District of the Republic. In the Ukraine the services of the best architects and artists have already been enlisted in the rebuilding of the villages.

The projects outlined in the decisions of these three Republics are a clear illustration of the constant concern of the Soviet Government and of Stalin personally for the welfare of the collective farmers and for the progress and prosperity of collective farms. The enormous assistance rendered by the Government combined with local initiative and the utmost employment of available resources and potentialities will be the means to an unprecedented improvement in rural living.

A Soviet Trade Union's Postwar Plans

The author of the following article, Fyodor Tayursky, is a member of the Central Committee of the Consumers' Cooperative Workers' Union.

The consumers' cooperatives of the USSR serve the rural population of our country. Over 600,000 people are employed in cooperative stores, restaurants, bakeries, auxiliary farms and workshops.

During the war one of our principal cares was to improve the quality and quantity of the food supplied to people working in cooperative enterprises. We promoted individual and collective allotment gardening on a big scale.

Last year members of our union harvested 123,000 tons of vegetables from their plots. This meant that, in addition to the rations provided under the State

system, they had stored away in their larders a year's supply of potatoes, cabbages, cucumbers, carrots, onions and sugar beets.

This year there will be still more allotments, and we are going to encourage our members to go in for livestock raising at home. We are negotiating with Centrosoyuz (the Central Union of Consumers' Cooperatives) for 10,000 suckling pigs for distribution among our members.

We are doing a great deal to help our members to repair their homes and, where necessary, to build new ones.

At present 6,778 war invalids are working in the cooperative organizations. They hold such posts as managers of stores and warehouses, buyers, bookkeep-

ers or planning clerks. Many of them attend study courses provided by the cooperatives to enable them to improve their qualifications and get better jobs.

For the children of our members, there are one country holiday camps, staffed by experienced teachers, have been opened this year, for which the union is spending half a million rubles.

We are particularly proud of our children's boarding school at Sorokino, in the Altai; Centrosoyuz cooperates with us in maintaining it. It was set up during the war for children who had lost their parents. At first there were 400 pupils between the ages of three and seventeen. We are happy to say that three-quarters of them have now been reunited with their relatives.

The Regeneration of Soviet Estonia

By A. Weimer

Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the Estonian SSR

from PRAVDA, July 21:

In the memorable days of June, 1940, when the Estonian people succeeded in overthrowing the fascist dictatorship, they established a Socialist system and joined the Soviet Union as an equal republic. A new life began. But the reformation of the country was thwarted by Hitler Germany's vile attack on the Soviet Union. For the second time in three decades, Estonia was occupied by the Germans.

The struggle ended in the autumn of 1944 when the gallant Red Army in whose ranks fought the Estonian National Guards Corps, ejected the German invaders and restored freedom and independence to Estonia.

In the short period since its liberation Estonia has succeeded in rebuilding the organs of Soviet rule from top to bottom. Over 20,000 persons were selected to act on the executive committees and their permanent commissions, and for rural representatives. Drawn from among farmhands, urban workers, and intellectuals, many of them ex-servicemen or members of families of Red Army men or partisans, these people have diligently set to work to regenerate Soviet Estonia.

One of the first measures to be adopted after the Germans were expelled, was the institution of the land reform enacted by the Estonian Soviet Government in 1940; as a result, the former landless agricultural laborers and poor peasants have again become landholders. The Government has rendered substantial assistance to these farmers in the shape of implements, horses, cows, building material and loans of money and seed.

The political and economic fruits of the land reform can already be observed, particularly in the successful carrying out of sowing, in the spring of 1945, and in surmounting the difficulties which faced agriculture from the tremendous damage of the occupation.

The success of the sowing plan was facilitated by the restoration of the machine and tractor stations and the machin-



**State Emblem
Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic**

ery and horse-hiring stations. The peasants and the families of the servicemen who still have no horses made use of this help.

Agricultural cooperative societies have been revived, with a network of food processing plants, butter and cheese making plants, slaughterhouses, etc.

The manufacturing industries have also been assisted toward rehabilitation. Before 1917, metal and textile mills operated a total of 750,000 spindles; but during the period of bourgeois rule these industries have declined.

The swiftness of the Red Army's offensive and the self-sacrificing efforts of the working class and technicians and engineers saved over 40 per cent of Estonian industrial plants from destruction by the German invaders.

The municipal services were completely wrecked. Of four big cities, Narva was entirely destroyed, Tallinn was wrecked to the extent of 47 per cent, Tartu 50 per cent and Piirnu 35 per cent. Several small towns were completely obliterated.

The industrial plan for 1945 provides for raising the production output to 70 per cent of the 1941 level. The restoration of fuel, power and building material industries will be given priority.

The Estonian Republic possesses adequate sources of fuel. Native shale is used

as fuel in the factories, power stations and homes; diesel oil and other valuable products are obtained from it by distilling and refining. The peat bog area is also extensive. Timber resources have in the main survived. The rehabilitation of the fuel industry to meet industrial and home consumption is the chief problem under consideration.

Estonia's economic prosperity and the further development of its industries depends on shale. Its transformation into liquid fuel and its use for the production of gas for our neighbor Leningrad involves the sinking of shafts for mines, in the next three years, which will employ 40,000 underground workers. The current year will be devoted to preparatory work. The restored mines are to produce more shale by the end of the year than in the prewar year of 1941.

The rehabilitation of the power industry of the Republic is proceeding satisfactorily. Despite the severity of last winter Tallinn's electricity requirements were filled. Next winter industry will be supplied with power adequate for the Government production program.

Academic life is being renewed. There are about 120,000 scholars, or almost as many as before the war. The ancient university in Tartu and the Polytechnical Institute in Tallinn are functioning again. The technical and vocational schools are being opened. The publication of Estonian literature has been resumed on a wide scale.

The results of these efforts are enormous. Every citizen of the Republic realizes that it was only with the help of the sister Republics of the Soviet Union and particularly of the great Russian people that the Estonians have been liberated forever from the yoke of their old enemies, the Germans, and that the Republic is now able to recover and go forward.

Guided by the leader and teacher of the Soviet people, Generalissimo Stalin, the Estonian people as a member of the family of Soviet nations will march on to new victories in their Socialist life.

The Progress of Soviet Latvia

By V. Lacis

Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the Latvian SSR

From IZVESTIA, July 21:

Five years ago the Latvian People's Diet unanimously decided that Latvia should join the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Those might have been the years of the greatest flowering of the people's creative capacities. But the process of construction of the new life successfully begun in 1940 was interrupted for more than three years by the treacherous attack of the German-fascist criminals on the Soviet Union.

The Lettish people have long been acquainted with the German invaders, and hated them. In the so-called "independent" Latvia formed after the First World War with the help of the Germans and the leader of the Latvian reactionaries, Ulmanis, a ramified network of agents against the Soviet Union was developed. The period of "independence" was in fact the period of the liquidation of the Republic's independence.

Latvia became a springboard for the attack of German imperialism upon the Soviet Union. Lettish intellectuals were stifled by reaction. Unemployment, disfranchisement, and paltry wages were the lot of the broad masses of the people.

In the year of the existence of the Soviet Government in Latvia before the war, firm foundations were laid for the rapid economic, political and cultural progress of the Republic along the new Socialist path.

The People's Diet adopted a declaration on the nationalization of all land, banks and large industrial enterprises. The large kulak farms were divided among the poor peasants and farm laborers, who received every aid from the Soviet Government. Plans were drawn up for the electrification of the Republic, for reconstruction of the largest factories and for the construction of new factories. Then this peaceful labor was halted by fascist Germany's perfidious attack on the Soviet Union.



**State Emblem
Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic**

In the Patriotic War the Lettish people defended their freedom and independence with all the other peoples of the Soviet Union. Lettish rifles took part in the defense of Moscow, fought at Staraya Russa and Velikie Luki, and together with other Red Army troops cleared the fascist slave-drivers out of their land. The Lettish people will never forget that it owes its liberation to the glorious Russian people and the heroic Red Army, and are proud that they had the honor to contribute their share to the great cause of victory over German fascism.

The national Day of Victory marked the resumption of constructive labor. The largest factories have been restored and put in operation, among them the electro-technical and railway car works, textile mills, confectionaries, glass, cement and other works. Two hundred more factories will be put in operation before the end of this year. Three bridges have already been built across the Daugava in Riga and extensive restoration work is in progress in the port of Riga. Latvia's railway workers have repaired over 1,500 kilometers of railway lines and about 400 bridges. In the towns, the municipal services are functioning and housing construction is proceeding.

A new life has come to the Latvian countryside. 60,000 farm laborers, less and poor peasants have again received 631,000 hectares of land from the Soviet Government. 11,000 cows have been distributed where needed. The newly landless peasants have been granted credit amounting to 66 million rubles. Most of the State farms' machine tractor stations and machine and horse-renting stations have resumed operations and provide constant assistance to peasant farms.

Every aspect of life has been revived. Studies have been resumed in nearly 1,200 schools. Over 200 hospitals and medical stations are operating. 13,000 students now attend the Latvian State University and other colleges and technical schools. Almost all theaters of the Republic, 388 popular clubs and a majority of the libraries and cinemas are open. In the new school year 220,000 pupils will attend the elementary and middle schools. The system of children's homes and kindergartens is being constantly extended.

The budget for 1945 adopted at the Fourth Session of the Supreme Soviet of the Latvian SSR is a striking indication of the scale on which Soviet Latvia is rehabilitating its national economy and culture: over 250 million rubles for financing the national economy; 365 million rubles for cultural and educational institutions.

The complex problems facing the Republic can be successfully solved by ensuring the participation of the broad masses of the working people in the Soviet Government. The setting up of village executive committees will enable us to bring the Government closer to the population, enhance the organizing work of the lower Soviets, and include large sections of the population in the rehabilitation of the Republic.

Latvia is making progress. In the equal family of Soviet peoples, the gifts of the industrious Lettish people are finding wide application.

Reunited Soviet Lithuania

By M. Gedvilas

Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the Lithuanian SSR

It is with a feeling of joy and elation that Lithuanian towns and villages are celebrating the Fifth Anniversary of the establishment of Soviet power.

During the past five years, only in the first and last year did our Republic breathe, live and work freely. For three years the hated German-fascist invaders trampled and strangled Lithuania. The contrast between the two periods is immeasurable—they were diametrical opposites. They were the day and night of the history of Lithuania.

The people have felt the advantages of the Soviet system. They have seen that only in a family of equal Soviet Republics can the Lithuanian nation become truly free and independent.

In the first year as a Soviet Republic the national economy and culture made wonderful progress. All the forces of the country came into full play. Industry, no longer stagnant, began to work at full capacity; and unemployment—that scourge of the working people from which bourgeois Lithuania never ceased to suffer—disappeared.

The land was transferred to the working peasants. Culture became the possession of the broad masses of working people. In a short period of time hundreds of new elementary and high schools were opened, as well as colleges, theaters and medical institutions. The Lithuanian Academy of Sciences came into being.

But Lithuania endured three black years beneath the iron heel of the invaders. Many were the misfortunes and sufferings Lithuania endured in the years of occupation, many the sacrifices. Severe damage was inflicted on the national economy. Over a half million people perished at the hands of the German butchers in the Kaunas forts and other death camps. The Germans closed the Academy of Sciences and the universities; preventing teachers, writers, artists and actors from working at their professions.

But the people did not submit to the invaders; they marched to victory with the great Russian people, and with its



State Emblem
Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic

aid defended their independence.

The underground committees of the Communist Party and the Young Communist League were active in Lithuania. In Vilnius and Kaunas, Trakai and Rokiskis, Utena and Zarasai, everywhere the enemy was confronted with an unrelenting force. The committees were the centers of the national struggle against Hitler's "new order." Dozens of partisan detachments dealt telling blows to the enemy, paralyzing the rear of the Germans.

The gloomy years of German occupation are now past and Soviet Lithuania has regained its life of freedom and happiness. The Fifth Anniversary of the establishment of Soviet power comes at the end of the first year of liberation, a year of glory and triumph.

In agriculture the entire apparatus of machine tractor stations and State farms has been restored. The rightful owners, the toiling peasants, began very early to be reinstated. As a result of the land reform, 75,000 former farm laborers and poor peasants received allotments aggregating over a half a million hectares. Inspired by the State's assistance, the peasants, despite trying conditions, have successfully accomplished the autumn and spring plantings and have exceeded the

sowing plan. Rich crops are ripening on the fields of liberated Lithuania. The peasants and the State farm and machine tractor station workers are now gathering the grain crops.

Workers, engineers and technicians are devoting their efforts to the restoration of factories and transport and electrical stations. Five hundred and sixty factories and 32 electrical power plants are now operating in the Republic. Wrecked towns and villages are being rebuilt.

There has been a wonderful revival of culture. Lithuania today has more schools with larger attendance than before the war. Museums, theaters, art shops, art clubs and the Academy of Sciences have resumed their activities.

In the past year hundreds of former factory workers and farm laborers have taken leading Government and economic positions and they are coping with the jobs entrusted to them, displaying splendid organizing abilities.

The conclusion must not be drawn, however, that everything already has been accomplished, that all difficulties have been overcome and that there are no shortcomings to worry about.

When the Soviet Government in Russia was as young as it is now in Lithuania, the great Lenin said that the best way of celebrating an anniversary was to concentrate attention on unaccomplished tasks.

The main tasks of the Soviet Government and party organizations in Lithuania today are, in the first place, to build up power facilities, to exploit local fuel resources, and to develop the building materials industry. The development of the formerly backward industries is a requisite for the further progress of the entire national economy.

Another important task is to strengthen the contact of the Soviets with the people, to encourage the cooperation of volunteers in the activity of the Soviets, and to train and prepare qualified forces for the Government machinery and for the national economy.

'Hygiene Institute' in Gdansk

The following article published in PRAVDA is by the well-known Soviet journalist D. Zaslavsky, who was one of the correspondents to visit the Hitlerite so-called "Hygiene Institute" which was engaged in the technical processing of human bodies.

One of the few buildings in Gdansk which remained intact is the Medical Academy, though the Germans had tried to set fire to it three times even after the town had been occupied by the Red Army. The Hitlerites had special reasons for trying to destroy the Medical Academy. They intended to conceal all traces of the monstrous crimes committed within its walls—in the basements and special buildings of the "Hygiene Institute." But they failed; the evidence did remain.

We enter the yard, where several steps lead down into a dark basement. There are a number of large square concrete baths covered with zinc sheathing. Several halls are filled with these installations; until the last day new ones were being built to expand this monstrous factory. The baths are occupied by human bodies, which lie in disorderly array in a carbolic acid solution—ten bodies to each bath. These are the remains of Poles and Russians. Experts have established that they were shot or hanged, and that many were even brought here with symptoms of life. On the chest of one victim is tattooed the name of a Polish warship.

On boards between the tubs lie human heads. They were accurately cut off with special guillotines. We counted 89 such heads. There are the heads of old and young, all of them raw material for the experimental factory of the German-fascist professors of medicine.

The chief of the laboratory and experimental factory, Professor Spanner, and his assistant Doctor Wohlmann, were working out methods of the utilization of human fat and skin to make industrial products, human fat to make soap, the

skin for boots, briefcases and handbags.

A small brick building was erected for this factory. In the first room there are boilers in which human soap was made. The walls are covered with chalked graphs and formulas. And some soap remains in a pail.

The tubs contain samples of tanned human skin. This is the only semi-finished article. In the manufacture of soap from human fat, the German-fascist devilish "science" made greater progress than in the production of human leather.

On tables in the second room lie the remnants of the materials used by Professor Spanner and his assistants, such as heaps of caustic soda.

The third room is called the crematorium. The residue of human beings unsuitable for industrial use were burned in a small electric furnace.

We leave the experimental factory. Before us are neatly stacked-up bones: arms, legs, hip bones and vertebrae lie separately. It was not the professor and his assistant alone who worked in the factory. Here German students also studied the methods for utilizing human bodies for industrial purposes. Those were scientists of the Medical Academy in Danzig and young army doctors who evidently arrived from various concentration camps and from German death factories. They received a course in the production of human soap under Spanner's and Wohlmann's direction.

Prominent Hitlerites used to come from Berlin to inspect the work of this experimental factory, including Minister of National Education Rust, Minister of Health Konti and Gauleiter Forster. Professor Grossman, the head of Danzig University, also visited this factory.

The Hitlerites attached great importance to the monstrous experimental factory. The recipe for the manufacture of soap from Russian, Polish and other bodies was sent to various institutions engaged in the mass extermination of the

population in the German occupied countries.

Spanner and Wohlmann have disappeared, and now only traces of their loathsome activities remain. But their technical executioner and preparator, who did the processing of bodies and boiled the human fat in huge boilers, was arrested. Still on the job. His name is Sigmund Mazor, aged 25. He studied at the Medical School and was preparator for the Anatomic Department of the Institute. Mazor calls himself a Pole, but he speaks bad Polish and good German. This is a completely Germanized Pole. The Hitlerites had deprived him of every human trait and made him the obedient executor of their designs.

This horrible corner of Gdansk concealed the fate being prepared for Poland and the Polish people. The small experimental factory has an even more ominous aspect than Maidanek. Only a policy of mass extermination of nations could bring the fascists cannibals to the ghastly idea of utilizing human remains in industry.

The new branch of industry was being created in Hitlerite Germany on a scientific and technical basis. The entire Polish people were threatened with the prospect of becoming raw material for large German soap factories and tanneries, and the fate of the Polish people would have been shared also by other peoples who fell under the rule of German-fascist traders in live and dead human beings.

The Red Army has saved the Polish people from a ghastly menace. The German experimental factory in Gdansk remains a threatening monument to the most heinous German atrocities. It bears evidence against not only Hitlerism, but also all Germanized Poles, the Sigmund Mazors who joined hands with the Hitlerites, placed their political stake on Germany's victory and prepared war against the Soviet Union in company with the fiendish German soap makers.

THE POLISH DONBAS

By L. Kudrevatyhk

The following is the fifth in a series of LETTERS FROM POLAND which appeared in IZVESTIA:

Many kilometers before you approach Katowice, the appearance of the landscape becomes familiar: the dark, bare hills and small green mounds, smoking chimneys and box-like factory buildings lying in the valleys in an almost unbroken chain of villages—all this reminded me of the Donbas Region, of the iron and steel and coal of the Soviet land. Silesia, which lies on the right and left banks of the Oder, is one of the areas which in its time was divided up between Poland and Germany and has now again become a united industrial district of Poland.

The Germans destroyed Warsaw with malice aforethought, and they would have wrecked Katowice, and the whole of the Silesian basin still more thoroughly. But their plans did not allow for the swift offensive of the Red Army troops, unprecedented in history, as a result of which this piece of land was preserved for the Polish people almost untouched.

"And those fires which the Germans did succeed in starting were extinguished by the heroic efforts of Polish miners who were able to save the people's resources. Our mines and factories are now working to produce coal, rolled iron and tubing for the country," General Zawadski Voevode told me later.

With my traveling companions I visited the shops of the Batori metallurgical plant and the Chorzow coal basin. We saw molten metal streaming from the electric furnaces, felt the hot breath of the open-hearth furnaces, saw the calm rhythmic work of the rolling-mill operators, the long trainloads of coal. Later we met the first echelon of Silesian coal in the Gdansk port where it was waiting for ships from the Allied countries that were to bring to Poland the goods and equipment she needs in exchange for coal.

Before the war the Batori metallurgical plant belonged to a Polish joint-stock company; later it worked for the Germans and their army. Today the enterprise belongs to the State. Its director is Tadeusz Kszikowski, a former worker at the plant, who has as consultants a committee of 25 men elected at a general meeting of the industry.

We saw the workers' dining room, attended classes in the school for young workers, visited the library, foodshop and first-aid station. And in the production shops we learned that the output of such articles as rolled steel and forged iron had almost equalled the prewar level.

All this is evidence of the new direction of the Polish enterprises. And the low, round, concrete sentry boxes, with narrow slits facing all sides of the room,

stand like an oppressive monument of the past nightmare. Under the Germans the workers here were Russian, Ukrainian, Czech and Polish slaves, and every step was watched from these sentry boxes by a German overseer. He neither admonished, warned nor urged: he simply pushed the barrel of his tommy gun through a slit, pulled the trigger, and a short burst put an end to the life of a slave.

The same working conditions existed under the German rule in the Chorzow coal basin, estimated to contain 200 million tons. The miners found the basin wrecked and partly flooded. The Germans had exploited it in a barbaric fashion—taking that which was the easiest to mine without heed of the future fate of supplies. A considerable part of the equipment was ruined. At present the basin is reviving. Jan Stefanski, who is in charge of work here, is very optimistic.

"The Polish Donbas will learn from the example of its friends in the East. Polish coal will supply the needs of our country and will also go to any countries which wish honest trade with us."

In the air of the Polish Donbas you feel the creative might of the Polish people, freed by the Red Army and the Polish Army from the yoke of fascism and entering upon the broad road of independent development.

Robinson Crusoe Stereoscopic Feature Film

In an old Moscow side street is the first stereoscopic film studio in the world. Semyon Ivanov, manager of the studio and inventor of the film, states that in a few days' time a short stereoscopic reel of concert performances and fragments from a film about children during the war will be shown in a Moscow cinema.

A full-length film, *Robinson Crusoe*, is now being shot on the Black Sea coast. Another movie, *Car No. 2216*, a comedy featuring Carandache, the well-known

Moscow circus clown, is being prepared. The May Day parade of the Red Army has been produced for the stereoscopic screen. It will be ready in the autumn.

The types of stereoscopic pictures shown abroad involve the use by spectators of special glasses, without which the effect is impossible. Ivanov has replaced the glasses by the stereoscreen.

A special stereoscopic cinema will be reopened in Moscow this November. The Soviet Government has allotted

1,000,000 rubles for experimental research into the stereoscopic cinema technique during 1945. Ivanov and his colleagues are convinced that these films will supplant the present type just as the "talkies" replaced silent films.

Demonstrating the use which can be made of stereoscopic films in the service of science, Ivanov has produced a stereofilm in color of the removal of a tumor from a man's brain.

HUNTING POLAR FOXES

By G. Kublitsky



Setting out in pursuit of game in the remote Siberian Taiga

At the beginning of this century Niki for Begichev, a hunter, with two companions set out on a risky trip over the Arctic Ocean in search of a place called "Devil's Land," of which the people who lived in the region told mysterious and terrible stories.

After many adventures the daring three reached a small island unknown to geographers. Today it has a place on charts of the Arctic Seas, under the name of Begichev Island.

Exploring its coast, Begichev came upon an old shack. In one corner were some ancient, rusty halberds, and in another a heap of furs. Most of them fell apart at the first touch. Only the polar fox skins had survived the test of time. Of course a finicky furrier could have found plenty of defects in them. But they had been lying there for well over a century.

* * *

The polar fox feels at home in the tundra, no matter how cold it is. Nature

has matched its fur to the virgin snow. Its rarer brother is the blue fox, highly prized for its beautiful smoke-coloured fur. At the international auctions held in Leningrad before the war, foreign firms readily bought large quantities of polar fox skins.

I saw plenty of polar fox hunting during a recent tour of the Taimyr Peninsula, one of Asia's northernmost extremities. A slight rustle woke me up one night, and in the light of the Arctic sun, I noticed several animals with flat, grayish fur, gnawing at the sacks where our food was kept.

I aroused my companion. "They're polar foxes," he yawned. "Nothing to equal them for impudence. In the summer, when no one would give a cent for their skins, they hang onto your heels like glue in the hope of snatching something. But try to catch them in winter!"

He whistled sharply. The animals ran to cover, and began to bark viciously.

Later he showed me how, in winter, the foxes are trapped. I saw a primitive contraption called the "mouth"—simplicity itself, yet very effective. On light supports, to which the bait is attached, rests a hollowed beam, which closes right over the fox.

It is next to impossible to hit a polar fox with a rifle, for the keenest eye cannot spot it against the snow, even a few steps away. Nor is the ordinary trap any good, for the other foxes would make short work of their fellow in trouble and leave nothing of him but bones and tail. But the "mouth" defeats them, and all the gourmands can do is to walk around it smacking their greedy lips.

When winter sets in, the hunter travels through his sector, which may stretch for hundreds of square miles, attaching the baits. All he has to do afterward is to call from time to time for his prey.

Sometimes it happens that no trace of fox is found in districts where hundreds were caught the previous season. In search of food—their main diet is polar mice—the animals cover long distances in the most unexpected directions.

Scientific expeditions now at work in the tundra are studying the migrations of the polar fox, and the possibility of breeding the animals in preserves.

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Samovars Again

The samovar is a purely Russian invention, but who actually had the idea first is still wrapped in mystery. Only one thing is certain—the original samovars were made in Tula. At the peak of peacetime production, the local factories turned out more than 600,000 a year.

During the war one of the largest Tula

factories went over to munitions; now it is again making samovars. This year it plans to turn out 120,000 samovars, 20,000 teapots and 20,000 coffee pots.

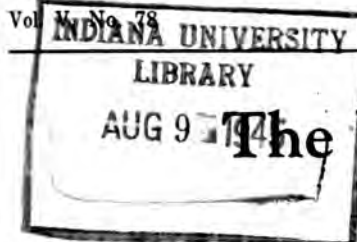
A new, modern samovar is being designed. It will be cheap, simple and convenient to use, and will heat the water by either electricity or charcoal.

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Information Bulletin

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The Victory of Soviet Agriculture

By Professor Ivan Laptev

The recent war provided fresh and cogent proof of the great progress made by agriculture in the Soviet Union. In pre-Revolutionary Russia, the domination of landlordism and the dependent state of the numerous small—actually dwarf—peasant farms, employing primitive implements, condemned agriculture to backwardness and stagnation. The result was that in the First World War Russian agriculture failed to produce adequate supplies for the Army or the people, and before long the country found itself in the throes of a severe food crisis.

An entirely different situation prevailed during the Second World War. Soviet agriculture managed to keep both the Armed Forces and the population as a whole adequately supplied with food products, and also provided the raw materials for Soviet industry.

This progress was made possible by the collectivization of agriculture—the voluntary amalgamation of the small, scattered peasant farms into large collective farms. This new system of agriculture introduced up-to-date, efficient machinery, making possible a considerable expansion of crop areas, which had increased on the eve of war by 31 million hectares. The mechanization and widespread application of scientific methods of farming brought about a rise in the yield, with the result that the total harvest of grain crops alone was two and a half billion poods greater.

Even more marked is the contrast shown between the collective farms of the present and the individual farms of the past. Before the Revolution the middle and poor peasant farms of Russia produced altogether two and a half billion poods

of grain per annum, whereas now the collective farms produce over six billion poods.

The new geographical distribution of crops, particularly the expansion by 20 million hectares of the areas in the eastern sections of the Soviet Union, has also contributed to the progress of Soviet agriculture.

Since scientific collective livestock farming has developed, animal breeding has also improved. In addition to growing grain and other crops, the farms raise livestock and poultry and have their meat and dairy departments. And every member of the collective farm has a cow of his own as well as small livestock and poultry. Thus poor peasants who for genera-

tions could not scrape together enough to purchase a cow, obtained cows after they joined the collective farms.

The strength and vitality of the collective farm system enabled Soviet agriculture to keep the country and the Army supplied with food, and industry with raw materials at a time when the German invaders over-ran the granaries of the Soviet Union—the Ukraine, the Don and the Kuban country—and when the war diverted from the countryside a large part of the labor power and tractor resources.

The Soviet tractor and agricultural machinery plants in Kharkov, Stalingrad, Rostov, Gomel and other cities were completely wrecked by the Nazis. The German advance to Stalingrad impeded the



Yakutyanka wheat, raised in the State selection station, yields a high harvest in the rigorous climate of the Yakut Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic in Siberia

delivery of fuel for the tractors and combines in the eastern regions. In fact, Soviet agriculture during the war was confronted with difficulties perhaps graver than those of any belligerent country. Nevertheless, Soviet agriculture coped with the wartime tasks. In 1942 when the situation at the front was critical, the crop area in the eastern regions of the Soviet Union was expanded two million hectares and the number of livestock on the collective farms was increased 10 per cent.

Those achievements were the result of the high public spirit displayed by the collective farmers and the self-sacrificing labor that overcame every wartime difficulty.

At present, the farmers are devoting a great deal of effort to the rehabilitation of agriculture in the liberated regions. The German barbarians wrought enormous destruction on the countryside and inflicted incalculable damage on the agriculture of the occupied parts of the country. In the Smolensk Region, for example,

they exterminated 300,000 civilians and deported 200,000 to Germany as slaves. Machine tractor stations and farm buildings were systematically wrecked and about half of all the peasant dwellings were razed. Smolensk, Gzhatsk, Vyazma and many other towns are in ruins. Only 2,000 head of cattle remained on the collective farms of a total of 336,000. The Germans left not a single pig, sheep, chicken or beehive.

The collective farms and farmers in the liberated regions are now receiving material assistance from the Soviet State and from collective farms in other regions. As a result the work of rehabilitation is being carried out rapidly. In the regions liberated two years ago the agricultural output has almost reached the prewar level. It would scarcely have been possible for small, individual peasants to rebuild their farms after such appalling destruction. It is by collective effort that the Soviet collective farmers are able to make headway.

In the Ukraine, 1,187 machine tractor

stations and 26,446 collective farms have been put in operation. In Byelorussia which endured so much from the German invaders, every collective farm has been rehabilitated, and since the liberation, 120,000 dwellinghouses and thousands of barns, stables and grain storehouses have been built in the rural districts.

In 1944 the crop areas in the Soviet Union increased by 12 million hectares. The Government-approved plan for 1945 calls for 8,100,000 additional hectares of cultivable land. And there is every indication that the goal will be reached in full. The spring sowing, despite the season's lateness and the rainy weather, was accomplished more speedily and in better order than in prewar years. By June 15th the total area sown in the USSR was 10,600,000 hectares, larger than on the same date a year ago. This includes the 5 million hectares in the regions liberated from the Germans in 1944.

FRATERNAL ASSISTANCE

By Gavril Klevakin

In the southwest corner of the Tula Region are the collective farms of the Belev District. Coniferous and deciduous forests alternating with fertile fields and meadows, stretch along the banks of the placid Oka River. Before the war the Belev collective farmers lived prosperously, steadily improving their land and multiplying their herds.

In the autumn of 1941 the Germans swept through the district, turning the farm fields and forests into a theater of war for almost two years. The once blossoming fields of 113 collective farms fell into neglect, almost every house in the village was burned by the Germans.

The rehabilitation of the ruined farms, the weeding and tilling of neglected land began in the autumn of 1943. The collective farms which suffered severe damage at the hands of the Germans are being assisted by more fortunate agricultural artels in the district.

I visited the Belev District recently and was deeply impressed with the spirit of solidarity existing among the collective farmers and the brotherly way in which the farmers are helping each other. During the recent spring sowing this assistance was on a greater scale than ever.

The collective farmers of the First of May artel of the Streletsky Village Soviet organized a brigade of eight plowmen led by the veteran farmer, Andrian Fedotov, which went to work in the Berezov Village Soviet. When I got there the brigade had already plowed and planted more than 150 acres of land. The same artel also sent four horses and six oxen to help out the collective farm in the Budogovischensk Village Soviet. These more fortunate farmers of Streletsky donated from personal stores 20 tons of potatoes, 615 tons of grain and 23 calves to their neighbors who had suffered from the Germans.

The seventy-two collective farms of the Belev District are giving every possible aid to their brothers robbed by the Germans of their farm implements and seed and left without homes and farm buildings. Carpenters and stove setters, plowmen, horses and oxen travel to the district to build new homes and to plant the land.

Artels needing help were supplied with more than 3,650 tons of grain seed and 6,650 tons of potatoes for planting. This year the Belev District sent other collective farms 430 horses and 286 oxen and bulls to help out with the spring sowing, as well as many plows, harrows, carts and about 20 collective farm brigades. As a gift to the collective farms and the collective farmers of the devastated zone the district shipped 43 horses and 2,277 cows and calves and a quantity of poultry and agricultural equipment.



Radiophotos

'WE ARE FROM BERLIN'—The demobilized men part with their comrades-in-arms. On the extreme left is Hero of the Soviet Union Sergeant Major Feodor Blokhin. Right, Lieutenant General Telegin sees the soldiers off. The first trains carry men who participated in the storming of Berlin

HOMECOMINGS—*Citizens of Moscow*

By V. Shepelev

The linden trees are flowering in Moscow and the air is heavy with their fragrance. Early in the morning thousands of Muscovites, carrying bouquets of flowers and scarlet banners shimmering in the sun, gather in the square outside the Rzhev railway station.

The crowded platform is like a blossoming garden, flowers everywhere—roses, carnations, daisies and field flowers which the schoolgirls gathered at dawn outside the city.

From the same station Moscow saw her sons depart for the front four years ago—the first volunteer regiments and detachments. Workingmen and scholars left their lathes and laboratories and went to war.

And today the people have come again. Wives, mothers, children and white-haired fathers have come to meet the victors. On a platform festive with green fir boughs, flowers and crimson banners they stand, watching for the train.

"You can't imagine how glad I am," excitedly exclaims Maria Kuklina, a garment worker. "In a quarter of an hour I shall see my husband again."

Her little daughter Lyuda, who, of course, does not remember her father, shouts, "Daddy is coming! I will see my daddy and give him flowers!"

The loudspeaker announces that the train with the demobilized men will arrive in five minutes.

In the crowd stands Krotovich, an offi-

cial of the People's Commissariat of Trade, with a huge bunch of flowers. She has no one to meet—her husband was killed in 1941. But she could not stay at home.

"On such a day I want to be here with the people," she says with a catch in her voice.

A faint whistle, and around the bend comes the locomotive, garlanded in flowers and greenery. A scarlet placard bears the inscription: "The Motherland Welcomes Her Victorious Sons!"

Craning their necks the soldiers peer out of the windows in search of their relatives and friends on the platform.

Before the train has stopped, people jump onto the steps embracing and kissing the soldiers, throwing flowers into the cars. Two pretty, golden-haired girls have thrown their arms around an elderly soldier. Next to them stands a boy awaiting his turn. Lyuba, Zoya and Kolya Morozov meet their father Vasili Gerasimovich Morozov. Tears of joy run down their cheeks—four years of separation! Hand in hand the little group walks down the platform.

"God grant them happiness in life," says an old woman with tears in her eyes. She holds a bunch of flowers in her thin hand. "I have come to meet my grandson . . ."

The most poignant are the unexpected meetings. Two years ago Anastasia Yershova received notice that her son

Sergei, a gunner, was among the missing. But he has returned, decorated with the Order of Glory and two medals. Tenderly he embraces his mother. They have much to tell each other, but their happiness is too sudden for the words to come.

Guards Sergeant Major Peter Subbotin was met by his wife Irene, of the Vakh-tangov Theater. She had just received the telegram notifying her of her husband's return and barely managed to reach the station in time.

"I could not even buy any flowers," she complained.

Red Army man Anton Venchikov of the Guards discovers his sister Klavdia in the crowd . . . another happy meeting!

With firm steps the soldiers march down the platform into the station square where bands played merrily and a storm of cheers and clapping hands greets them. After long years of war the Moscow fighting men once again see friends and relatives, and their beloved city, with its familiar streets and houses.

A tribune has been put up in the center of the Rzhev square with a huge portrait of Generalissimo Stalin and a broad red streamer with white letters reading: "Welcome to Our Victorious Warriors, the Heroic Defenders of Our Soviet Homeland!"

There they stand on the square in Moscow, the valiant soldiers and their civilian comrades who in the stern days of the great Patriotic War would not leave their factories day or night, but diligently

forged the weapons for the front.

The meeting of welcome is opened on the square by Parfenov, Vice Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Moscow City Soviet.

"The working people of our capital, our country, rejoice to meet the soldiers and officers of the heroic Red Army who defended the independence of our Motherland and won the victory over the enemy," he said. "The people know that we have won because we were led by the great Stalin. Thanks to the Red Army, thanks to Stalin for the great victory!"

"During the war our country developed and gained strength. Moscow, our capital, has also grown. In 1942 the Zamoskvoretsky line of the subway was built and opened for traffic, and in 1943, the Pokrovsky line. On Stalin's initiative the fourth section of the Moscow subway is being built.

"Now under construction is the great Saratov-Moscow gas pipeline, by which millions of cubic meters of gas will be supplied to the capital for the household needs of its population, for the needs of its industrial enterprises, power stations and municipal services.

"New houses are being built in the city, the streetcars and trolley buses have improved and autobus traffic has been resumed.

"The law on the demobilization of the

older-age classes of the Army on active service is striking evidence of the solicitude of the Soviet Government and of Stalin personally for the Red Army men.

"The Moscow Soviet is adopting the necessary measures to carry the law out to the letter.

"You are the first, commanders and privates of the Red Army. Welcome home, dear soldiers!"

The first to reply on behalf of the veterans was Guards Sergeant Nikolai Shabalin. His name is well known among the builders of the Moscow subway, as one of their best toolmakers.

"Comrades, Muscovites," he says, "in the grim days of 1941 when the enemy was approaching the gates of our capital, the whole of Moscow rose in defense of the heart of the country. I, a Moscow mechanic, like other Soviet workers had to change my peaceful trade for the war-like labor of a soldier. I became an artilleryman and with my Moscow comrades I took part in many battles. We successfully defended our capital and kept the enemy on the run westward. The guns of my battery smote the Germans at Vitebsk, Dvinsk and Siauliai. Among other actions, the artillery finished off the Kurland grouping of the enemy. Now we have returned in victory to our beloved city, to our families. We shall labor at our

vises and machine tools as selflessly as we fought for our native land. This is what is in the minds of my comrades men at the fronts yesterday, peaceful inhabitants today."

Guards Warrant Officer Ilya Gudkov, decorated with the Order of the Patriotic War and the Order of Glory, speaks. "Accept the sincere thanks of the soldiers, dear countrymen, for your hearty welcome. Our gratitude is for everything—for providing us with the weapons of victory and for caring for our families, our wives and children."

Major General Chernykh then announces the procedure for the registration of the demobilized at Army offices.

As the meeting ends, scores of automobiles, autobuses and trolley buses are lined up to take the men and their families to their homes.

Warrant Officer Subbotin and his wife, Sergeant Romachev with his wife and daughter, and Junior Sergeant Kanushin travel in an autobus to the Kalinin District. On the way they call at the district Military Commissariat.

"We have returned victorious from the front!" reports Sergeant Romashev to Lieutenant Colonel Yefremov the District Military Commissar. "From this Commissariat I left for the front and here I have returned."

A Reunion in Leningrad

By R. Benyash

I first met Guards Sergeant Nikifor Vinogradov two years ago in a hospital where he was recovering from a serious wound. He was a reticent man, but when he learned that I came from Leningrad, his home town, he told me his story.

It was a common enough story for those days. Before the war he had been a foreman at a musical instrument factory. Then he volunteered for the Army. In action on the Leningrad front he was wounded three times. Meanwhile, his home was bombed out and his wife was killed during an artillery barrage. His five-year-old daughter had been evacuated far into the interior and he had no idea of her whereabouts.

Vinogradov felt very deeply about it

all. He had little hope of ever seeing his daughter again. He said over and over again that if he came out of the war alive he would never return to Leningrad.

The rest of Vinogradov's story I learned just the other day when I met him at the demobilization center here.

It seems that upon discharge from the hospital, the doctors wanted to release him from further service. But Vinogradov protested. He showered the Command with letters: "I have lost everything and have no reason for returning home. Please let me fight." Permission was given and he returned to the Army in the field.

Several days ago he arrived in Leningrad in one of the first trains of demobilized men. On his tunic were three battle

honors, evidence of his bravery.

He appreciated the gala homecoming arranged at the railway station, but his heart was not in it; there was no tender feminine voice waiting to greet him. When the ceremony ended, Vinogradov checked his bag and walked out onto the streets he had not seen for four years.

On the street facing Griboyedov Canal, not far from Nevsky Prospect, he stopped in front of the house in which he used to live. Where the windows had been on the third floor, there was now a gaping hole. He gazed at the house for a few minutes, bent down automatically to pick up a brick lying at his feet, and then turned on his heel to leave. still

(Continued on page 8)

WELCOME HOME!



SOVIET CAPITAL GREETES THE VICTORS—The veterans marching into Rzhev Square, where their families await them. Right, in front of the Byelorussian Station, Moscow, thousands of people stand in the streets holding banners and streamers of welcome



A daughter finds her father in the crowd. Right, a group of demobilized girl fighters who took part in the Battle for Berlin



THE OVATION FOR THE GUARDSMEN IN LENINGRAD—Artillery units of the Guards Corps ride through the square in front of the Winter Palace; (right), Little Leningraders presenting bouquets of flowers to the war heroes

Radiophotos



Radiophotos

LENINGRAD—Workers of the Kirov Flour Mills offer the traditional Russian platter with "bread and salt" to arriving Guardsmen; (right), Girls of the city presenting their floral tributes to the first trains of Red Army veterans

REUNION

(Continued from page 4)

holding the brick. It was at this point that he heard his name called from somewhere up above. He looked up at the scaffolding on the house and saw a woman, one of his neighbors. He could not remember her name, and he did not feel like talking to her, but still he could not just walk away without saying a word.

Holding her paintbrush in one hand and grasping the edge of the scaffolding with the other, the woman leaned over to shout:

"Why don't you step in? The back part of the house has been repaired. Wait a minute and I will take you over to the house manager."

A few minutes later Vinogradov learned that he could have a good new room in that same house if he wished.

"I don't need a room," he muttered. "I am leaving Leningrad."

"Leaving, and what about your daughter?"

This was how the veteran learned that his daughter was safe and sound in Children's Home No. 12. There was talk of transferring her to a special school at the Conservatory of Music, as she has shown a real talent.

His suntanned, weatherbeaten face beaming, Vinogradov told me these things in the comfortable waiting room of the demobilization center. While we were talking his name was called and he left to enter a room at the right. He came out 15 minutes later with a paper in his hand.

"Well, now I have received my papers," he said. "I am no longer Sergeant Vinogradov, but just plain Nikifor Vinogradov."

We started to walk to the exit. "Just a minute," he said. He opened the door of the reading room and called out,

"Zhenya!"

A girl of about nine rose from her chair, put back the magazine she had been reading and walked over to us across the carpeted hall.

"This is my daughter," Vinogradov said. She was a pleasant child, round faced, rosy and blonde.

Out on the street Vinogradov told me about his room. It was a better one than he had before the war he said. The interior decorations were being finished and he would be able to occupy it in a few days.

"We'll move in," he said, "and in the autumn Zhenya will start going to the Conservatory. As for me, I will help to rebuild the wind instrument shop at my factory."

"So you are not leaving Leningrad?"

"Leave my city? Never!" he said.

"Why, Papa and I are Leningraders," Zhenya added.

The Repatriates

By N. Shagin

Dozens of trains pull in every day at the station in Luga, a small town some 150 kilometers from Leningrad. The passengers are Soviet citizens from the Berlin District of Kurland and other regions in Germany, and from all parts of Europe. The Luga center today serves as the receiving station for Soviet citizens driven from their homeland by the Germans. After months and years of tribulations these Soviet citizens once more set foot upon their native soil at Luga. Local authorities are doing everything to make

their homecoming as happy as possible.

With a group of friends I was at the station when a train came in with a large party of repatriated Soviet citizens. Women, children and old men descended to the platform. We met a Russian peasant woman, Catherine Markovak. She had returned from Danzig with her two daughters. Her face showed the traces of recent suffering. Her seven-year-old Zina needed immediate medical attention.

"We have endured much," she said.

While we were talking the medical inspectors passed through the train telling the passengers what to do and asking who needed medical attention. Many who required a doctor, particularly the children, were taken to a first-aid station at once.

Naturally the people returned from Nazi bondage desire to get home as soon as possible and every effort is made to shorten their stay in Luga. Most of them leave for their native towns and villages

within a few hours of their arrival.

But there are many who have come to stay in Luga. From the districts of the Leningrad Region alone the Germans carried off 300,000 Soviet citizens. It is difficult as yet to say how many will come back. During the Red Army's westward drive, liberated Soviet citizens did not wait for their return to be organized by the authorities. They wanted to go home at once, and they set out on foot, begging rides from carts or trucks on the highways. According to official estimates some 10,000 returned to the Leningrad Region in 1944. It is known, for example, that 6,000 returned to the Gatchina District near Leningrad. Of the 600 families now under the jurisdiction of the Orlin Village Soviet, 400 have returned from Nazi bondage.

From Luga we went on to Kurina Village.

In the Volunteer collective farm there are 47 families back from Germany. Many found their homesteads intact. Those whose homes are destroyed live in temporary shelters and with the aid of the collective farm are rebuilding their houses.

Every help—money, food, clothing and household utensils—is offered repatriated citizens by the State.

In this village we heard a curious story from the peasant woman Praskovya Demidova. She and her entire family—husband, daughter Maria and son Ivan—had been confined in a German concentration camp. The Red Army liberated three of them, but 19-year-old Maria had been driven off by the Germans the day before.

When Praskovya Demidova came home she received seed for sowing and a cow. Her husband returned to his job in the factory. But constant worry over the fate of Maria darkened the lives of the Demidov family. Some days ago Praskovya received a letter from her son, who had joined the Red Army after the liberation and entered Berlin with Soviet troops. He wrote he had found his sister in one of the camps captured by his unit. The old woman could not repress her tears as she read the letter to us.

"When my daughter comes home we all will be together again."

Many other Russian families are waiting for their dear ones. We saw cottages in the villages with the windows and doors nailed up, awaiting their masters, now perhaps on their way home.

NO LONGER IN BONDAGE

By L. Kudrevatykh

The following is the sixth of a series of LETTERS FROM POLAND which appeared in IZVESTIA:

In one of her novels, *Earth in Bondage*, Wanda Wasilewska gives a truthful and stirring picture of the life typical of the Polish countryside, with the survival of feudal relationships and the hopeless want of the enslaved peasant. The writer might have taken as an epigraph the words sung by one of the characters:

"Bright is the sun and golden the field. Why does my heart to anguish yield?

The field is not mine, nor the sun shining bright.

Only one thing is mine, my bitter plight."

The Polish peasant could call nothing his own, not the sun nor the field. But he had his share of poverty and landlord tyranny. There were not many countries before the war perpetuating such a barbarous regime—the peasant disfranchised, his situation desperate.

According to official statistics, before the war 19,000 landlord families owned nearly half the land of all Poland, while 3 million peasants had no land at all; 8 million peasants had not enough to eke out the bare necessities. That was why nowhere in the world was the land ques-

tion so urgent and palpitating a topic as in Poland. The peasant dreamed of land, his every cry was "Land."

Now the age-old vision of the Polish peasant has come true.

* * *

We were driving toward the little Polish village of Podhusz deep in the Carpathian foothills. A cool wind blew from the green mountain tops and brought rain clouds with it. The bright, hot sun was suddenly shrouded in grey, and we were in the midst of a sharp torrential rain, drumming on our car. As we turned off the shiny asphalt our car skidded on the country road, pulling up sticky mud.

"A Godforsaken place," said one of the correspondents next to me.

It was indeed a secluded corner in a rural district of southwestern Poland. All the more amazing are the changes that have taken place there in recent months. Before the Red Army liberated this part of Poland, most of the land around the village of Podhusz belonged to the German landlord Stanowski. He had more land than the entire village of 120 households, of whom 18 had no allotments at all.

We entered a house in which the vil-

lagers were awaiting us. The elderly, swarthy, somewhat embarrassed faces contemplated the foreigners askance. One peasant came over to me—I wore the uniform of a Soviet officer—and squeezed and shook my hand. He said nothing, but his dark eyes were moist as they gazed into mine. I understood.

"Many thanks to you, to the Red Army."

During our entire journey through Poland we never made as copious notes and asked as many questions as in that village of Podhusz. The conversation was a regular press conference. Every reply revealed the great changes now taking place in the Polish countryside. We learned that 168 hectares of forest land which had belonged to a Podhusz landlord has now become State property; that the waters covering an area of 200 hectares will be turned into fisheries, some of the ponds drained and the land used for crops and pastures. One hundred and thirty hectares of land have already been distributed among 45 peasant households—those who owned no land at all and those who owned too little. About 70 hectares have been set aside for experimental work, and a farm school has been opened in the former landlord's

manor house. The crops sown under the landlord last autumn are being harvested in common, part of it divided among all the villagers, and the rest to be turned over to the seed fund for the needy.

When the general picture became clear, the correspondents showered the peasants with questions.

"Are there any among you who have now received land for the first time?"

"Yes. I, Urbansky, for one."

"Are you satisfied?"

"Of course. So far I have not taken much, only two hectares, but it is now my own land. I have two sons who have not yet returned from Germany where they worked as slaves. When they come back I will take an allotment for them, too."

"Did any of you work for the landlord a very long time?"

"I have tended the master's cattle for 34 years," said Franciszek Gowlas. "There were ten other men and six milkmaids who tended cattle. Now I have also received land."

"Where is landlord Stanowski now?"

"The devil knows where he is. When the Red Army was approaching these parts, he fled to Cieszyn. From there he must have made his way to Czechoslovakia. But the Red Army got there too. So, if he is not dead, he is probably a prisoner."

"What is the situation with regard to livestock?"

Almost all the peasants in the room answered at once. "Very bad. The Germans have driven off all the livestock, not only the landlord's, but ours, too."

"And what about machines?"

"Also removed by the Germans. Whatever machines have remained, we have collected, repaired and are now turning them over to the cooperative so all of us can use them."

Urbanski put in, "We hope that the Government will help us with livestock and machines."

"How was spring sowing?"

"Good. Though it was hard without horses and machines. But we are now working for ourselves. We have planted almost all the land. Only five per cent remains uncultivated and we will plow that up for winter crops."

Now in the morning when hundreds of thousands of Polish peasants leave their cottages to look toward the East where the sun is rising they say, "There it is, my sun, my own."

A peasant goes into the field and enraptured with the dew on the crops or the grass says, "My field."

The Polish peasant has cast off the yoke of bondage. He is a free man working for himself and his country.

Writers' Clubs

In the Cracow Drama Theater I saw the new comedy, *Penelope*, by the Polish playwright Ludwik Morstin. The play was staged with taste and acted with skill, and the audience which filled the house received it very warmly. One of my neighbors in a box said, "You have no idea what all this means to us. Did you like the actress Jaroszevska in the principal part? Well, this is her first play in six years. Under the Germans this was a German theater. Not a single Polish actor in Cracow wanted to join that company. Comedians, tragedians and leading men became waiters, bookkeepers and librarians. Now they are again on the stage, and every performance is like a holiday to them."

Apart from a handful of fascist emigres, the Germans found no collaborationists among the Polish intelligentsia in Poland. At the meeting in Cracow of the Polish Writers' Clubs, the prominent author Kazimierz Wyka told us with some pride: "Not a single writer in Poland sold out to the Germans. Many authors, among them the poet Stanislaw Rogowski, and the critics Boy Zelenski and Leon Pomierowski and others lost their lives in death camps."

We sat at small, square-top tables with the Polish literati, drinking coffee and listening fascinated to their stories of how they had managed to circulate their works illegally, sometimes hectographing them; how they had eked out an existence by tutoring in wealthy families, or selling their manuscripts for next to nothing to collectors, or even doing office work.

Polish literature is being born anew. Although there is a scarcity of paper, books are already being published. I have been shown a score of collections which

have appeared in recent months. A literary weekly has started in Cracow. Newspapers of the democratic parties proliferate and stories.

The Polish poetess Zytomierska showed me her translations of poems by the Soviet poets Konstantin Simonov and Surkov. She said: "You have many good poets, but we don't know them. And we don't know them it means that the people don't know them. I have translated whatever I could find, but it is a matter of chance. To translate a poem you must know the poet's work well; you must feel his style and manner. We never see books of your poets."

I have heard similar complaints from the translators of prose. They have practically no information as to what Soviet writers have produced during the war. In Katowice, for example, we learned that not one Soviet moving picture had been shown in any of the city's 15 moving picture houses, in spite of the demand for Soviet films. Wherever a Soviet picture has been shown in a city, it has run for six or seven weeks and all the tickets are sold days ahead.

Many representatives of the Polish intelligentsia have told Soviet correspondents: "We are reviving the national culture of a new democratic Poland. You must help us in line with the principles of Slav brotherhood and friendship."

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Achievements of Soviet Railways in War

By A. Mikhailov

The triumph of the Soviet people in the war against Hitler Germany was insured not only by the fact that the Red Army had won a military victory over Germany, but also by the fact that the working people in the Soviet rear gained an economic victory over the Hitlerites. Soviet railways played an important part in these achievements.

When the Hitlerites prepared their attack on the USSR they had their transport system ready for action. They had been building new bridges and extra lines, increasing the traffic capacity of junctions and laying new strategic railways in the East. Every year there were rest mobilizations when hundreds of thousands of people were transported to fascist parades in Nuremburg, sports festi-

vals in Berlin and other places, to the annual fair at Leipzig, etc. The results were carefully studied and the necessary corrections were made in timetables—German transport was making urgent preparations for the Second World War.

On the basis of their experience in the First World War, the Hitlerites believed that Soviet railways, like those of Nikolai II, would be unable to cope with their wartime task. One important consideration was overlooked, however. This time the Germans were not faced by a giant with feet of clay, not backward tsarist Russia, but a strong industrial power with a well-organized railway system.

Transport has always been an integral part of Soviet economy; it grew and developed during the years of the Stalin

Five-Year Plans, together with other branches of the national economy.

The Soviet lines were able from the beginning of the war to meet all the demands that were made of them under all conditions. They were in first class technical condition, the locomotives and other rolling stock were available in sufficient numbers, and all stations and other installations were well-equipped. The railwaymen—true Soviet patriots—were ready to meet the test of war.

A modern army requires the daily transport of a tremendous amount of arms, equipment, ammunition, food and reinforcements. The USSR was able to cope with this task, although during the first phase of the war the job was made more difficult by the evacuation of a huge number of industrial enterprises and many thousands of people from the western districts into the interior of the country.

From Siberia, Kazakhstan, the Transvolga Region and the Urals, troops, guns, tanks, equipment, bombs, oil and food flowed westward. In the opposite direction moved endless trainloads of equipment from the factories that were being transferred to the East together with their workers. This was the challenge in which Soviet railways came off with honors.

Then the second phase of the war began. From the banks of the Volga and the Terek, from the ruins of Stalingrad and the foothills of the Caucasus, the great westward offensive of the Red Army began.

Close on the heels of the advancing Red Army Soviet railwaymen followed. Everywhere they traveled they found wreckage. Stations were burned to the ground, roundhouses and water towers had been blown up, bridges no longer



Grinding locomotive wheels in a new machine engineering plant built in Krasnoyarsk, Siberia. The workers kept the transport system operating throughout the war

existed, the permanent way was honey-combed with shellholes and craters, rails were chopped into pieces of a yard or less. . . .

Nevertheless, these lines were rebuilt in less than the time allowed by the Red Army. The first trains from the East arrived at the front, and the troops of the Red Army could hear the familiar greeting of the engine whistles.

The skeletons of cars and locomotives fired by the Germans were still smoking, the dust created by explosions at the stations had not settled, when the railway repair battalions came on the job. Supplies to the front were maintained regularly from the interior of the country and everything needed for the offensive was delivered.

Here are a few railway facts from the last months of the war. On the 17th of January the flag of victory was raised over liberated Warsaw. Four days later Warsaw junction, with its 140 lines aggregating 84 kilometers, was already handling traffic for the front. By the 30th

of January trains were running on all roads. The final defeat of the fascist group in Budapest was completed on the 13th of February, and by the 27th of February a Soviet train ran into Budapest. On the 13th of April Vienna was finally cleared of the enemy; the first Soviet train had arrived in Vienna station on the 10th.

The task performed by Soviet railwaymen was truly titanic. On liberated Soviet territory alone they rebuilt almost 51,000 kilometers of railways. Beyond the borders of the USSR, in Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary and Rumania, they repaired 22,000 kilometers. In addition, they restored 21,000 station tracks and thousands of stations and way stations. Hundreds of thousands of kilometers of telegraph wire were laid along the tracks.

In all, Soviet railwaymen have reconstructed approximately 94,000 kilometers of line. It has been estimated that if all the bridges rebuilt by Soviet railwaymen during the war were lined up, they would

stretch for 185 kilometers and would join the shores of the Sea of Azov.

Throughout the whole of the four years of war the Soviet railwaymen proved equal to every emergency. They not only drove their trains from the industrial centers to the front day in and day out they not only carried tremendous freight needed by the Army and big industry but they also opened many new railways. The number built during the 46 months of war exceed in length, quality of equipment and traffic capacity, the total network of an average European country.

The heroic labor of Soviet transport is given full recognition by the Soviet people and by the Government of the USSR. One hundred twenty-seven railway workers wear the gold Hammer and Sickle of the Hero of Socialist Labor, while many thousands have been awarded orders and medals of the USSR for their selfless work in helping the Soviet Union to achieve military and economic victory over Hitler Germany.

NEW OCCUPATIONS FOR WOMEN

During the war 70 per cent of the total number of railway workers were women. Now 20,000 women work as stokers, engineer's assistants and engineers—occupations unheard of seven years ago. At some railway stations, for example, Kanatchikovo of the Moscow-Kazan railway line, the entire staff, from station master to railway guard, is composed of women.

Zinaida Troitskaya, who in 1938 was the first woman in the world to become a locomotive driver and subsequently the first woman railway director in the world, is now Chief Inspector of the People's Commissariat of Railways.

The three women upon whom the high title of Hero of Socialist Labor has been conferred are railway workers and had been working on railways in the battle zones during the war. During the German offensive, the Stalingrad train driven by Elena Chukhnyuk, one of these three women, was hit by a bomb which destroyed the tender and started a fire in the cars. At the risk of her life Elena Chukhnyuk uncoupled the cars and withdrew them to safety. Later she became the first



Zinaida Troitskaya

engineer on the new Northern Pechora railway which was built in the extreme north during the war.

The other two women heroines are

simple switch operators, Anna Zharkova who worked in a small station of the Kirov railway, and Anna Alexandrova from Leningrad.

Under incessant air raids, Zharkova for a long time did the work of three switchmen as well as acting as assistant station master. Wounded, she crawled to the switchpost and shifted the switch before falling into a faint. Her heroism saved the train.

During the Leningrad blockade when dozens of people starved to death daily, Alexandrova manned six switch posts and also did the work of a signalman and coupler.

Many women who became railway workers for the first time in the war as, for example, engineer Irina Zubareva, have established records for their work. Zubareva, without a second locomotive or a second engineer, drove a heavy train with munitions up the steep Urals Mountains gradient from Chelyabirsk to Zlatous. Dozens of railwaymen have emulated her performance so that there was a great increase in the freight handled by the railways of the Urals.

Provisions for Disabled Veterans

By A. Rozovsky

The Birluki Home for Invalids located in picturesque surroundings on the river Vora has since the war been reserved for veterans. They receive board and lodging as well as medical treatment at the expense of the State, and are given initial training in various trades and professions under the special care and supervision of physicians.

At first the disabled are given simple tasks, mainly to exercise the damaged limbs. Due to these activities, gradually more complicated as time goes on, development and strengthening of the injured limbs are considerably accelerated.

After a period of time the invalids are permitted to choose trades according to their health capacities. Birluki has its own carpenter, machine and watchmaker shops. In spring and summer some invalids are allowed to do a little work in the fields which tends to improve their physical condition and also their state of mind.

But the homes for invalids are established chiefly for rest. The training program is conducted at the factories, offices, collective farms and special trade schools. Last year over 40,000 invalids were taught new trades. In the Ivanovo Region, a number of war invalids are learning engraving for the textile industry. At Kazan a boarding house was opened for war invalids studying at the higher and middle technical schools. Sixty-three trade schools function under the auspices of the cooperative stores. Many towns have set up music schools for war invalids. It is interesting to note that blind war invalids prefer music to other trades and professions.

Experience shows that the invalids are just as competent as healthy people. True, many factories have created special conditions for the veterans—tools to suit

of war invalids and provide them with certificates entitling them to employment and to offer advice on what trades and professions to pursue. The administrators of industrial enterprises and offices are forbidden by law to refuse employment to a disabled veteran or to employ him on a job that might endanger his health.

In the Ukraine

The following report is by V. Muratov, People's Commissar of Social Maintenance of the Ukrainian SSR:

What have we in the Ukraine done to implement the Soviet Government's instructions to all industrial enterprises, offices and institutions, to provide work for war invalids, secure housing accommodations for them and arrange for their vocational training and retraining?

More than 90 per cent of war invalids of the third category, and 50 per cent of the second category have received employment in the Ukrainian Republic. Nearly 20 per cent of them are employed in industry, more than 50 per cent in agriculture, and some 30 per cent in various economic and Government institutions.

Soviet soldiers who have already proved their mettle on the battlefield, as a rule are among the most efficient workers and are readily entrusted with responsible positions.

About 35,000 war invalids hold leading executive positions in the Ukraine.

In the Chernigov Region, for example, 233 ex-servicemen are chairmen of rural Soviets, 326, chairmen of collective farms, 13, directors of machine and tractor stations, etc. Two thousand and forty-one ex-servicemen hold leading positions in the Stalino Region; 2,368 in the



Lieutenant Nikolai Klyuev with a nurse at a Black Sea health resort in Sochi, where he was sent after being wounded for the fifth time. The rifle section he commanded was among the first Red Army units to meet the enemy on the Prut, June 22, 1941

them, various devices for benches, etc. A recent inspection revealed that only four per cent of the injured fail to accomplish a day's quota, the majority exceed the quotas and some double them. And invalids working on the collective farms are doing as well.

In every town and district there are boards of physicians to define the fitness



A game of chess in the garden of the Stalin Clinical Institute. The three war invalids, Pyanov, Panfilov and Kislyansky, are convalescing at the Sochi sanatorium

Kharkov Region, and 2,717 in the Odessa Region.

Special schools and courses have been set up for the training and retraining of invalids unable to return to their old occupations. Thousands of war invalids who had no specialty before the war became bookkeepers, tailors, shoemakers, etc. About 8,000 invalids are now attending farm and business schools, becoming skilled workers for Soviet agriculture. A large number are attending high school and college. There are more than eight hundred ex-servicemen among

the college students of Kiev.

Invalids attending high school and college are not only exempt from tuition fees, but also receive State stipends in addition to their pensions. Working invalids likewise retain the pensions granted them by the Government and receive various other privileges.

Apart from being able to provide for himself and his family, the war invalid derives tremendous moral satisfaction from the knowledge that he is a useful citizen to his country and that every field of endeavor is open to him.

Tribute to Servicewomen

At a meeting of women veterans of the Red Army and Navy, Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR Mikhail Kalinin offered his congratulations on their participation in the Great Patriotic War. "In this unusual war," he said, "women not only supported the Army in the rear, but also in battle, arms-in-hand. Selected on the basis of education, cultural level, state of health, physical hardiness and military aptitude, the best part of our young womanhood went to the front, and they acquitted themselves well. Participation in war was not easy, nor is demobilization. At the front, 20 to 23-year-old girls in the first important work of their lives grew accustomed to hardship and danger. Naturally you are anxious to know what civilian life holds for you. You enter a strengthened physically and spiritually. Most of you will quickly adapt yourselves to new conditions. You will be received with pleasure everywhere. More, you will soon be promoted to social, political and organizational work. It is natural that a girl who worked three years under discipline is a valuable person. You have won equality for women in still another sphere—in defense of the country.

"I believe that you will play an important part in the new life. Peace is the country's normal condition. With all my heart I wish you to contribute to the peaceful life a portion of your creative forces."

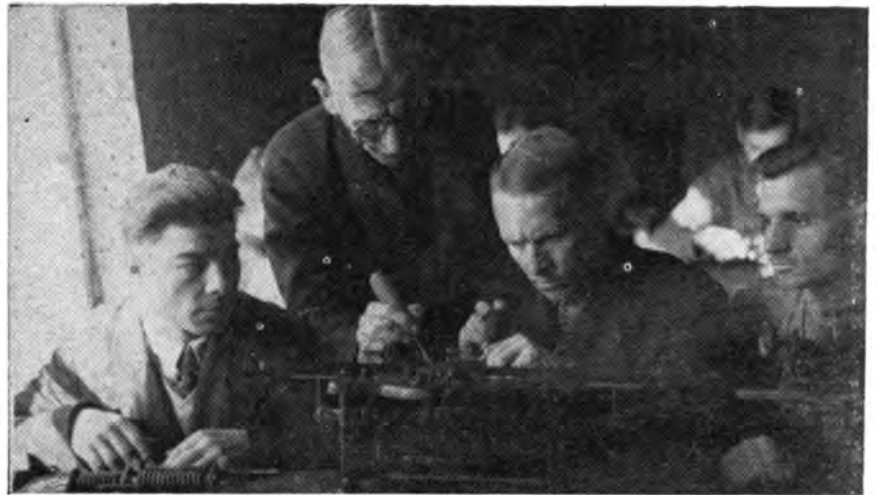


A patient receiving treatment in the diathermy department of the Moscow Research Institute of Prosthetics



In a military hospital-sanatorium at Sochi the stronger patients play games to strengthen their muscles

RECUPERATING HEROES FIND VOCATIONS



Above, a veteran at work in the shoemaker shop. Below, recovered patients studying to become bookkeepers and accountants

Top, Convalescent soldiers learn trade of typewriter mechanics. Center, at a shop of the Moscow Department for Social Maintenance instruction in tailoring is given. Bottom, watchmaking is popular with disabled servicemen

Recent Issues of Stamps of the USSR



Above, 'To the Signal Corps'; 'Stamp of the United Nations, June 14'; 'Hero Cities'—Defense of Leningrad; center, 'Anglo-Soviet-American Friendship'; 'Death to the German Invaders'—artillery; below, 'To the Guerrillas'; 'Everything for the Front'; 'Scouts of the Red Army Who Boldly Fought in the Enemy's Rear'

The People's Commissariat of Communications of the USSR has inaugurated an exhibition of Soviet postage stamps and postcards issued during the war and, in addition, the first stamps of the postwar period, devoted to the Jubilee of the Academy of Sciences.

Vivid episodes in the heroic struggle of the Soviet people against the German-fascist invaders are depicted by the best artists of the country. In all, 105 postage stamps presenting a pictorial record of the war were issued in the past four years.

The first stamp, called "Be a Hero," which appeared on August 13, 1941, shows a Red Army man and his mother saying goodbye as he leaves for the front. Next the blue stamp, "Popular Volunteer Force," was issued.

In 1942 stamps appeared dedicated to the first heroes, the participants in the heroic defense of Moscow and Leningrad. There are stamps in honor of the combat

operations of the Soviet guerrillas, of scouts, snipers, signalmen, girl stretcher-bearers, aircraft, anti-aircraft and anti-tank actions, artillery and aircraft factories, farmers in the fields, and housewives in cooperative shops sewing clothing for the Red Army.

The 25th Anniversary of the October Revolution was celebrated during the war. For this memorable date, artists Mandrussov and Alyakrinsky created a series of stamps portraying the work of industry and agriculture. Another series was issued commemorating V. I. Lenin.

Several series were issued on the occasion of the 25th Anniversary of the Red Army and Navy.

In honor of the Anglo-Soviet-American fighting alliance, two stamps depict in their natural colors the flags of the USSR, Great Britain and the United States.

In the difficult years of the war the Soviet people have not forgotten their

scientists, inventors, writers and actors, and they were also commemorated in postage stamps.

By the 200th anniversary of the death of the great navigator, Vitus Bering, four Jubilee stamps had been issued, including a picture of Bering and the route of his travels.

Several series were printed to celebrate certain occasions: the 75th anniversary of the birth of Maxim Gorky; the 50th anniversary of the birth of Vladimir Mayakovsky; the Jubilees of Academician and Hero of Socialist Labor Sergei Chaplygin and of the composers Tchaikovsky and Rimsky-Korsakov.

The edition, "Hero Cities," perpetuating the defense of Sevastopol, Stalingrad, Odessa and Leningrad, is extremely popular.

In a recent set the decorations instituted during the war are reproduced in full.

The 'Heroes of the Soviet Union' Series



IN COMMEMORATION OF HEROES OF THE USSR—Above: left, Viktor Talalikhin, first pilot to use the ramming technique against the enemy during the defense of Moscow; right, Nikolai Gastello, who aimed his burning plane onto enemy troops. Below: left, Shura Chekalin, young partisan who gave his life resisting the Germans; center, Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya, the young girl guerrilla tortured to death by German officers for refusing to give information about comrades; right, General Lev Dovator, a heroic defender of Moscow

Merited Awards to Medical Personnel

By G. Volchek

For their outstanding services in healing the men and officers of the Red Army and in safeguarding the health of the civilian population during the Great Patriotic War against German fascism, 3,000 professors, doctors, nurses and medical institution administrators have been awarded Government Orders and Medals of Merit.

The excellent medical service of the Red Army returned 73 per cent of the wounded to the ranks. Wherever the soldier, in whatever battle he participated, he was always sure that in case of need he would find a medical orderly at hand to carry him from the field, and that near the front line there would be doctors and nurses to give him first aid, to save his life, before evacuating him to a base hospital.

As a result of the excellent work of Soviet Army surgeons, the death rate was kept far below what it was during the First World War. Among the wounded, mortality was a little over one per cent. Moreover, the number of amputations, which was 60 per cent of limb wounds during the First World War, was reduced to less than one-third of such cases. Medi-

cal progress in the present war enabled Soviet surgeons to eliminate lockjaw, and the number of cases of gas gangrene was considerably cut.

Death from loss of blood, a problem with which physicians formerly could not cope, was averted in many thousands of cases by timely blood transfusion.

Epidemics have always been considered the inevitable outcome of wartime conditions. In spite of the enormous difficulties caused by the devastation of large regions and the German attempts to spread such diseases as typhus, Soviet medical men succeeded in averting the danger both at the front and in those places in the rear where millions of people were concentrated.

Among the names that have become popular during the war, outstanding is Hero of Socialist Labor Nikolai Burdenko, Chief Surgeon of the Red Army, who is recalled with feelings of deep gratitude by thousands of soldiers and officers. Another is Professor Bagdasarov, an expert in blood transfusion.

Millions of soldiers and working people will always remember the unselfish and death-defying toil of the nurses in the

hospitals and on the battlefield, those heroic women who spent their days and nights alleviating the pain of the wounded and carrying out prescribed treatment. And the country will never forget the vast army of blood donors who came forward voluntarily to save the lives of our heroes at the front.

It is in recognition of their devoted service in wartime that the Government with the wholehearted approval of the people has made awards of honor to the physicians and nurses of the USSR.

Soviet health institutions have had the full support of the Government. As one of the first tasks of postwar construction, the Government has set about rehabilitating the medical centers. In the Ukraine, where these facilities suffered the most, 4,025 polyclinics and dispensaries, 1,817 hospitals in the cities and villages and 1,477 infant nurseries have been restored, and this is only the beginning.

An Academy of Medical Sciences was recently founded in the USSR, whose task is to spread the knowledge and the experience gained by Soviet medicine in the war.

In the Realm of Sports

By Stander



A soccer match between the Dynamo and Spartak teams at the Dynamo stadium in Moscow. There is wide public interest in these events.

As the play in the first round of the USSR soccer competition draws to a close, one of the 12 teams participating has already settled its standing beyond dispute. This is the ill-starred Locomotive Eleven, which from its first game to its last has stuck to the cellar with a tenacity worthy of a better cause: it has not won a single game.

The same can hardly be said about the two leading teams—the Lieutenants of The Central House of the Red Army, and the Moscow Dynamo—whose score will be decided at their next meeting. A few games back they were neck and neck, not only in equal number of points, but also in the proportion of goals netted to the goals scored against them—something quite unprecedented in soccer play.

The last games played by the top teams were scarcely walkaways. It was only a minute before the final whistle that the Moscow Dynamo succeeded in making the goal that gave it the three to two victory over its powerful Leningrad namesake on the latter's home ground.

The Lieutenants had an even harder time against the Tbilisi Dynamo in that

city. The Georgian players are known to offer stronger opposition under the encouragement of their rooters. What is more, the Tbilisi Dynamo had tied in its two preceding games and only a win over the leading team could bring it closer to the first place it had occupied at the beginning of the tournament.

The Lieutenants flew back from Tbilisi with another conquest under their belts. Coach Boris Arkadyev told me some of the details of the game.

"What worried me most of all was the heat," he said. "In Tbilisi the mercury now registers 30 degrees centigrade. We Muscovites are not used to playing in such hot weather. I put the team through a couple of workouts before the game so that the boys could become at least a little acclimatized.

"The opening did not bode us any good. The Georgian center forward, who is now in excellent form, was able to shake off three backs and drive home a beautiful goal.

"The second half was a real hurricane. Notwithstanding the weather, my boys set a fast and furious pace. In the seventh

minute of play Vladimir Bobrov, our new rising star, evened the score—two to two. Then it was my turn to get nervous. Twice our goalie, Nikanorov, hurled himself at the feet of the center forward, Paichadze, and averted a goal.

"The deciding play was made by little Demin. Shaking loose the Tbilisi back who was covering him and running clear across the field from the left edge to the right, he lobbed a pass to center, and forward Grigori Fedotov shot in the third goal. Then Bobrov broke through along the left edge and Fedotov again scored, bringing the count to four to two.

"I consider this game in which we had to stage a comeback twice the toughest of all we have played in this series," the Moscow coach wound up.

Thus, the Lieutenants and the Moscow Dynamo have 18 points each. The former, however, have 38 goals netted to the eight scored against them, whereas the corresponding ratio for the latter is 37 to eight. This extra goal gives the Lieutenants first place. Of course, this is no advantage to speak of. Only a game between the two will definitely decide the winner of the first round. There is not a single ticket left in the box office of the Dynamo Stadium for that game.

Information Bulletin

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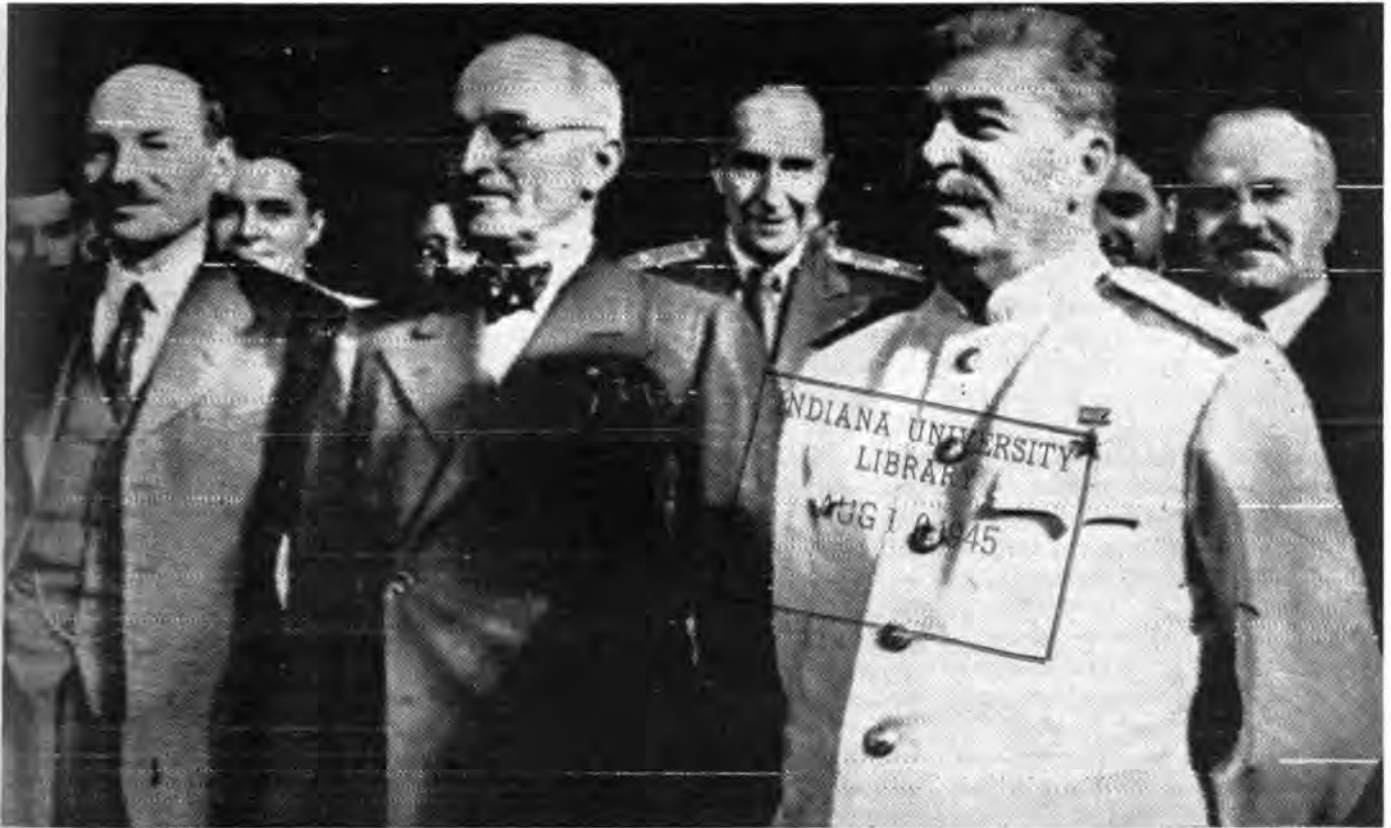
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Washington, D. C., August 7, 1945



Decisions of the Berlin Conference of the Leaders of the Three Great Democratic Powers



Radiophoto

AT THE TRIPARTITE MEETING: THE HEADS OF THE GOVERNMENTS OF GREAT BRITAIN, THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS—Left to right: Prime Minister Clement R. Attlee, President Harry Truman, and Generalissimo J. V. Stalin

IZVESTIA writes editorially, August 3:

The materials of the Berlin Conference of the heads of the Governments of the three great democratic Powers which took place between July 17 and August 2 represent a document of great political significance. The Berlin Conference strengthened the relations between the three Governments and extended their cooperation and mutual understanding. The victory of the great Anglo-Soviet-American coalition over Hitlerite

Germany, achieved at a cost of great sacrifices, was a triumph of the fighting companionship of the freedom-loving peoples. In February 1945 in the Crimea, the leaders of the three Allied Powers jointly planned this victory. At the same time they proclaimed the basic principles of the implementation of victory. They confirmed "a common determination to maintain and strengthen in the peace to come that unity of purpose and of action which has made victory possible and certain for

the United Nations in this war."

The Conference of the heads of the Governments of the three great democratic Powers—the President of the United States of America, Harry Truman, the Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Generalissimo Stalin, and the former Prime Minister of Great Britain, Winston Churchill and the new Prime Minister, Clement Attlee, with the participation of foreign ministers, chiefs-

of-staff and other advisers—which has come to an end in Berlin, gives a new striking confirmation of the strength of the Anglo-Soviet-American coalition and of the vitality of the ideals and principles enunciated in the Crimea six months ago.

The important decisions and agreements achieved in Berlin develop and supplement these principles in their application to postwar Europe. The organization of a stable and equitable peace, the extirpation of German militarism and Nazism, the concern for the earliest rehabilitation of Europe on sound democratic foundations, were the focus of attention at Berlin. The Conference took a decision on the creation of a permanent instrument—the Council of Foreign Ministers—composed of the ministers of foreign affairs of the five leading Powers—the USSR, the United States, Great Britain, France and China—to continue the necessary preparatory work for the peace settlements. The immediate task with which the Council has been charged is the drafting of peace treaties for the former enemy countries in Europe with whom the armistice had been signed—for Italy, Rumania, Bulgaria, Hungary and Finland—as well as the drafting of the proposals on the settlement of the territorial questions outstanding in connection with the termination of the war in Europe. The Council of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs will also be utilized for the preparation of a peace settlement for Germany. A corresponding document is to be accepted by the government of Germany when such a government is formed. Other matters will be referred from time to time to the Council of Foreign Ministers by agreement between member governments.

The conclusion of the peace treaties with Italy, Bulgaria, Hungary, Rumania and Finland which will be prepared by the Council of Foreign Ministers will not only open the road for the re-establishment in full of diplomatic relations with them, but will also enable the three Governments to support the applications of those countries for membership in the United Nations Organization.

The Berlin Conference especially noted that the conclusion of the peace treaty with Italy is the first task. Italy was the first of these powers to break with Ger-

many; she freed herself from the fascist regime and made great progress toward the re-establishment of democratic institutions in the country.

Agreeing to support the application for membership in the United Nations Organization of those states which remained neutral during the war, the heads of the three Governments emphasize that this cannot apply to the present Spanish Government which, having been founded with the support of the Axis powers, does not, in view of its origins, its nature, its record and its close association with the aggressor States, possess the qualifications necessary to justify such membership. Beyond any doubt, the competent and unequivocal appraisal given to Franco's pro-fascist government will be received with tremendous satisfaction by the democratic public the world over.

It was with great impatience that the world awaited the result of the negotiations of the three Governments on Germany. Agreement on the political and economic principles of a coordinated Allied policy in regard to defeated Germany in the period of Allied control has been achieved at the Berlin Conference. The main purposes of military occupation—in conformity with the Crimea Declaration on Germany—are complete disarmament and demilitarization of Germany and the creation of guarantees that Germany will never again threaten her neighbors or the peace of the world. The total and final abolition of all military, quasi-military and Nazi organizations, institutions and institutes in Germany, the prohibition of the manufacture of all arms, the abolition of all Nazi laws, the punishment and prosecution of all war criminals, the isolation of the leaders and high officials of the Nazi party and its institutions—must be carried out in a clear-cut and uncompromising manner. The decisions of the Conference especially provide for the removal from public or economic offices of all active Nazis and other persons hostile to the Allied aims.

The Allies do not intend to destroy or enslave the German people. The heads of the three Governments agreed that the occupation of Germany is to serve the purposes of preparation for the eventual reconstruction of German political life on a democratic basis and for the eventual

peaceful collaboration of Germany in international life. This should be facilitated by Allied control over education in Germany, the re-establishment of the organs of local self-government built on a democratic foundation, and the permission and encouragement of activities of the democratic political parties all over Germany. The formation of free trade unions will also be permitted and essential civic liberties will be granted within the limits consistent with military necessity. Germany's ability in time to take up a place among the free and peaceful nations of the world will depend on the German nation's own efforts. The economic principles of the treatment of Germany worked out in detail in Berlin, provide not only for the prohibition but also for the prevention of any production which might be used for military purposes. The system of Allied control, within the necessary limits, over the German economy and the decentralization of this economy for the purpose of eliminating the present excessive concentration of economic power—as exemplified in particular by cartels, syndicates and trusts—must tear out the venomous sting of German industry and destroy the German war potential. The principles of the treatment of Germany worked out in Berlin provide for the organization of German administrative machinery, which must assume full responsibility to the Allied Control Council for the administration of the separate economic branches. This will not mean, however, the formation of any central German government for the time being.

A very important result of the Conference was the agreement on reparations from Germany as compensation for the loss and suffering she has caused to the United Nations, and for which the German people cannot escape responsibility. The agreement on reparations provides for the satisfaction of the Soviet Union's claims for reparations through removals from the zone of Germany occupied by the USSR, and from appropriate German external assets. Besides, the agreement fixes the conditions of the additional apportionment to the Soviet Union of a certain part of the capital equipment from the western zones of Germany.

The Conference dealt with a very ex-

tensive set of problems: the transfer of the German population, the German fleet and merchant ships; territorial trusteeships; revision of the procedures of the Allied Control Commissions in Rumania, Bulgaria and Hungary and the authority of the Austrian Provisional Government; and the acceleration of the trials of the major war criminals. The desire was expressed that the trials of the major war criminals be started at the earliest possible date. The first list of the defendants will be published before September 1 of this year.

In a special declaration on the Polish problem, the heads of the three Governments noted with satisfaction the successful execution of the decisions of the Crimea Conference on the formation of the Polish Provisional Government of National Unity. The Governments of the United States and Great Britain made a declaration of the steps they had taken for the protection of the interests of the Polish Provisional Government in regard

to the property of the Polish State located in their territories or under their control. The heads of the three Governments considered the claims of the representatives of the Polish Provisional Government of National Unity concerning the western frontier of Poland, and agreed that pending a final settlement at the Peace Conference, a definite part of the former German territory fixed in the agreement, including the territory of the former free city of Gdansk, is to be administered by the Polish State.

The Conference agreed with the proposal of the Soviet Government to the effect that pending the final determination of territorial questions during the peace settlement, the section of the western frontier of the USSR which is adjacent to the Baltic Sea should pass from a point on the eastern shore of the Bay of Gdansk to the east, north of Bransberg-Goldap, to the meeting point of the boundaries of Lithuania, the Polish Republic and East Prussia. The Conference

agreed in principle to the transfer of the city of Koenigsberg and the adjacent area to the Soviet Union.

The decisions of the Berlin Conference are aimed at insuring security and maintaining a lasting and stable peace. At the same time these decisions indicate the continued cooperation of the Allies in the main problems of the organization of the postwar peace. The unity of action of the three great Powers has already brought them a great victory in war. The dark forces of reaction, fascism and war have been taught a proper lesson. The successful and fruitful collaboration of the Allies in peacetime will enable them to establish new and stronger foundations for the international cooperation of the peace-loving nations. The result of the work of the Berlin Conference gives fresh assurance that the Governments and the peoples of the three great democratic Powers jointly with the other United Nations will maintain a stable and equitable peace.

COMMENTS OF THE SOVIET PEOPLE

The Soviet people unanimously welcome the decisions of the Tripartite Conference. Meetings are held at factories, plants, scientific institutes and collective farms, greeting the historical decisions aimed at consolidating the victory of Hitlerite Germany and the establishment of a stable and lasting peace.

"The Berlin Conference demonstrated the close collaboration of the great Powers in all of the most important postwar problems and dealt a decisive blow to the forces of reaction," says the resolution adopted by the workers of the "Borets" plant in Moscow. "Its decisions have confirmed once more the firm determination of the Governments and peoples of the three great Powers to exterminate the leftovers of Hitlerism in order forever to deliver freedom-loving peoples from the menace of fascist enslavement."

"We greet the decisions of the Berlin Conference," young turner Vladimir Sergeyev of the plant said, "because they testify to the further consolidation of the companionship of the great freedom-loving Powers founded in the grave days of war. This combat alliance brought about

victory over fascist Germany, and the postwar collaboration of the great Powers is no less essential. We greet these decisions because they safeguard the coming generations against the horrors of war."

"The Berlin Conference," member of the Academy of Sciences of the Ukrainian Republic Professor Bogolyubov declared, "crowned the achievements of the great democratic countries in a worthy manner. Everything has been done to prevent German militarism from ever rising again, everything that the democratic people achieved in war has been sealed forever at the historical Berlin Conference."

At a meeting of the faculty and students of Vilnius University, Professor Balydzhius, expressing the unanimous opinion of the gathering, declared: "The Germans have been severely and justly punished. We sincerely rejoice at the fact that the heads of the three Governments have again confirmed their determination to destroy to the end Nazism and exterminate everything that had formed the basis of the German gangster militarism. And we Lithuanians are especially glad of the fact that the breeding ground

of imperialism on our frontiers—East Prussia—threatening our people for many centuries, has been destroyed forever."

Peasant Zinovii Shusherts from the Iluks District of the Latvian Republic said: "Our farmers will now work with trebled energy. Never again will our age-old enemy—Germany—trample our land and lay waste our farms."

The Soviet people awaited the results of the Berlin Conference with tremendous interest and when the radio announcer broadcast the communique on the results of the conference, thousands of Leningradites gathered at the loudspeakers in the streets and squares, at factories and institutions.

Discussing the Conference decisions, the Leningradites warmly greeted them as the most important historical document of postwar time. The workers of the Kirov plant declared: "These decisions express our own sentiments and thoughts. Fascist Germany is defeated. The hour has struck for the German people to bear the full responsibility for all the suffering and destruction which fascism brought to the Soviet and other peoples of the world."



The National Theater of Soviet Khakassia

By A. Akimova

The language of the ancient Khakass people, who live in the southern part of the Krasnoyarsk Region, Siberia, did not contain the words "theater, actor, stage-play, performance or rehearsal" before the Revolution. The words did not exist because before the establishment of Soviet rule these people had no theater, just as they had no literature, schools, hospitals or even a written language.

There are only 50,000 Khakassians inhabiting this beautiful country with its rich pasturelands and inexhaustible deposits of gold, iron, coal and various metals and minerals. The Khakass Autonomous Region, one of the youngest national regions in the Soviet Union, will be 15 years old October 1945.

The State National Theater, whose development was contemporaneous with that of the Region, was organized in 1931 by Alexander Topanov, one of the most

eminent Khakass writers and actors, now the art director of the Theater.

A theater in Khakassia! For playgoers of an advanced European country it is difficult even to imagine the significance of a national theater for people who in the course of 15 years traveled the road from the clan system to Soviet rule. The troupe is the first and only of Khakass origin. Young Peter Sarychev pioneers as a Khakass artist, and D. Katayeva, and E. Kilizhekova as costumier and theatrical coiffeur. And if, perhaps, they committed certain stylistic errors in the presentation of Moliere's *Le Medecin Malgre Lui*, they may be forgiven. In its infancy the theater is putting forth mature efforts.

In 1931 when Topanov formed his company from among the most gifted students of the newly-opened Khakass institutions of higher learning, there was limited personnel and neither repertoire nor traditions. But in 1945 the Khakass National

Theater participated as an equal in the festival of national theaters of the Russian SFSR, presenting two plays and an excellent concert program.

The first of the productions, *Khorkhlo Fooled*, is a historical comedy by Alexander Topanov and Nikolai Zingerovsky, built up around a story of how the poor peasants fooled the lascivious Bey, the rich farmer, how the poor man's beautiful daughter Porcho succeeded in escaping marriage with the hated Khorkhlo and happily wedded the daring hunter Ezhon. All the settings of life in olden times in a Khakass village are designed with taste and skill and the performance is of great interest from the ethnographical viewpoint. At the same time it is a true work of art, Topanov's brilliant melodrama being complemented by talented acting.

Charming Ekaterina Nachinova, star of the troupe, is moving in the role of Por-



Finale of the opera, *Enkhe-Bulat Bator*, staged by the Buryat-Mongolian State Musical Dramatic Theater. The scene above portrays the death of the hero, Darkhan. The theme of the opera is concerned with the bravery and courage of the Mongolian people. The poetic libretto was written by the native playwright, Namzhila Baldano, and numerous folk tunes were written into the score by the composer, M. Frolov, an authority on the culture of Buryat-Mongolia.

The State Musical Dramatic Theater was opened in 1936, and after four years of successful productions, went to Moscow to participate in the "Decade of Arts" presented by groups from the various Republics to display the development of their native culture.

ho. The Russian actor Alexander Shchutin creates the character of the Khakass national hero in the role of Ezhon. The impulsive Khorkhlo of Nikolai Kokov; the dissolute yet good-natured poor peasant Papchi, father of Porcho, portrayed by Mikhail Sargov; his shrewish wife Khorly, played with great temperament by Anna Todikova; the figure of Bey as presented by Mikhail Kilchikakov—all go to make up an excellent ensemble. The noble scenes abounding in vivid colors and merry songs and dances are staged with distinction.

The Khakass people, like other nomads, formerly had no national dances or music; only a primitive stringed instrument had been known. Therefore the theater origi-

inated the national dances, and both in this performance and in the concert program full of passion and color, they were staged by the Russian ballerina and ballet master A. Averyanova and the Khakass actor Mikhail Kilchikakov, a war invalid.

These dances have become popular with the people as have the new songs by composer Alexander Kenel.

The second play shown at the festival, Moliere's *Le Medecin Malgre Lui*, is part of the theater's classical repertoire. By means of the National Theater the Khakass people have become acquainted with Jean Baptiste Moliere, Carlo Goldoni, Alexander Ostrovsky and the outstanding works of Soviet Russian playwrights. At the same time throughout the 14 years

of its existence the theater has worked on the creation and stage presentation of national plays.

Collective farms compete for fulfillment of their plan to win a visit from the theater company! And the actors who tour twice a year throughout their region, not always by motor car, but sometimes in carts, on horseback or on foot, are rewarded by the gratitude of the people and the knowledge that their work is necessary and useful. When they perform Topanov's *Son of the Khakass People*, about the Khakassian who bravely defended the Soviet Motherland—they are acting the story of themselves, true sons and daughters of the Soviet Khakass people.

The Scientists and Engineers of the Ukraine

By M. Amshinsky

The door was opened by a tall, well-built man with gray hair, drooping mustache and thick eyebrows which made his face seem rather stern. But his severity vanished under a radiant smile.

The man was Hero of Socialist Labor Eugene Paton, Vice President of the Academy of Sciences of the Ukrainian SSR and widely known in the USSR and abroad as a specialist on bridge construction.

The past 15 years the Academician has devoted exclusively to theoretical and practical problems connected with the automatization of welding. His methods of automatic welding and equipment designed by him have been very effective and have resulted in greater labor productivity and an improvement in the quality of welded seams. More than 5,000 kilometers of seams have been automatically welded in Soviet tank factories during the war. The high appreciation of the scientist's services by the Soviet Government is manifested by the five Orders he has received and the award of the Stalin Prize and the title of Hero of Socialist Labor.

The recent 75th birthday of this eminent scientist and the 50th anniversary of his scientific activity were widely celebrated in the Soviet Union.

In his study, noting the astonishment on my face as my eyes traveled over the empty room, Paton said: "You are probably astonished by the unusual appearance of my study. It is the work of the fascists who looted my apartment. I have lost everything accumulated through persistent labor for half a century. The most painful loss is my library. I had several thousands of the most valuable technical books in Russian and foreign languages. Of course there was also my furniture, and I was very fond of my paintings, ancient porcelain and china. I found nothing but four walls when I came back. And yet I am among few fortunates! You must remember that tens of thousands of Kiev citizens are homeless, their dwellings blasted or burned. Mankind will never forget the supreme sacrifice made by the

Soviet people in order to free the world from fascism."

I called the attention of Professor Paton to the purpose of my visit. I had come to inquire: "What precisely did the Ukraine's scientists and engineers contribute to victory?"

"It is very hard to answer your question," he said, "because literally every engineer, every technician, every foreman and worker—all those modest people whom Stalin described in his address in the Kremlin as cogs in the wheels of the great State apparatus—have dedicated themselves wholly to the country's defense from the first day of war.

"I shall, however, try to give you some idea of the work of the Ukraine's intelligentsia. As the fascist invaders pushed on deeper and deeper into our native land, Ukrainian engineers and technicians were evacuated to the interior of the country. Some of them worked in Bashkiria, others in Central Asia, in the Urals and like areas. And wherever they were they did a great deal to help defeat the enemy. A large group of Dniepropetrovsk engineers and several professors of the Dniepropetrovsk Metallurgical Institute, for example, worked at the Magnitogorsk steel mills during the war. They introduced improvements in the blast furnace and rolling mill departments and helped the workers to master more rapidly the production of new grades of pigiron and steel for defense industries.

"All the scientific workers of the six technical institutes of the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences were engaged in war work. Professor Pavel Emelyanenko, a corresponding member of our Academy, made important improvements in the processes of rolling thin drawn tubes and tubes of durable steel alloys. Furthermore, during the war he carried through a number of brilliant experiments in rolling gun barrels. For his successful war work Professor Emelyanenko received the Stalin Prize.

"Nikolai Dobrokhotov, a member of our Academy, helped tank factories to

make great advancements in steel armor manufacture.

"Interesting and important work was carried through at one of the aircraft factories by Academician Sergei Serensen with corresponding members Boris Gromov and Fedor Gayanin, both of the Institute of Construction Mechanics.

"In addition, the staff of this Institute filled a number of important defense orders of the Scientific Research Institute of the Red Army's Air Force. Among other achievements were new methods for raising the dynamic endurance of parts for aircraft engines by introducing changes in design and technology.

"For the production of high grade pigiron Professor Vashchenko of the Iron and Steel Institute recommended a system now extensively employed in the munitions industry. The same Institute elaborated technological procedures used for converting war scrap into steel alloys now also employed in the production of alloys for armor plating.

"The miners of the Donbas and Krivoy Rog, who during the evacuation period worked in the iron and copper ore and coal mines of the Urals, Kazakhstan and Siberia, did not lag behind our scientists.

"During his two years of work in the East, Alexei Semivolov, famous Stakhanovite miner of Krivoy Rog, accomplished a 10-year production job and trained scores of Urals miners in his efficient methods of work.

"I have not seen a single enterprise in the Urals where Ukrainians were not employed, all working with great enthusiasm in carrying out their patriotic duty.

"I could cite numerous other examples illustrating the energetic and successful war effort of our scientists.

"But this is all in the past. All our institutes are now cooperating in the rehabilitation of the national economy ruined by the fascists. I am confident that in the restoration of industry, the Ukraine's intelligentsia will show many brilliant examples of inventiveness and heroism."

ACADEMICIAN B. G. GALERKIN

Soviet Science has suffered a great loss in the passing of Academician Boris Grigorievich Galerkin, a Lieutenant-General of the Red Army and a director of the Academy's Institute of Mechanics. His death occurred on the 12th of July after a long and severe illness.

Throughout his 74 years of life Galerkin set a fine example of service to his country. He was a direct participant or a consultant in many of the largest constructions of the USSR—the Red October power station, the Volkhov power station, and the Palace of the Soviets. He founded a number of laboratories and was a member of various scientific bodies and institutes. The Russian School of Building Mechanics became famous with Galerkin as its director, and his theory of resilience was known throughout the world. Eighty printed papers cover a number of the problems connected with the resilience theory of building mechanics and civil engineering, and show a profundity of thought and the ability to select from important technical problems results applicable to engineering practice.

His works offer a general solution to three-dimensional questions in the theory of resilience, with the aid of three independent bi-harmonic functions. Galerkin applied this concept to the study of thick metal sheets of various shapes, to the problems connected with cylindrical and half-cylindrical, and spherical envelopes, and determined the degree of accuracy which can be obtained when solving problems for metal sheets.

Of greatest importance was Galerkin's work in building up the approximate theory of stability and equilibrium in envelopes, for which he was awarded the First Class Stalin Prize of 1943. This work was used in investigating the equilibrium and stability of circular pipes.

Academician Galerkin's many years of work on the bending of metal sheets were summarized in his "Thin Elastic Sheets." The approximate method of integrating differential equations, now known as the Galerkin Method, is widely used in the solution of problems of mathematical physics and technology.

Contributions to the field of length bends completed the classical work of Euler



Boris G. Galerkin

and Lagrange; in building mechanics, many of Galerkin's ideas are followed in calculating trusses and frames.

The scientist's extensive pedagogical work was connected with the Leningrad Polytechnic Institute where he had worked since 1909; he trained several generations of engineers, and to the last held the Chair of Building Mechanics.

Galerkin's work as an engineer began in 1899 at the Kharkov Locomotive Works and he aided in the solution of many problems arising in the design or building of new types of structures and installations.

Between 1913 and 1915 Galerkin designed the first large metal structure in Russia to carry a heavy load—the boiler-house of the St. Petersburg power station. In boldness and originality this was one of the foremost engineering projects in Europe.

In 1936 Galerkin was appointed by the Council of Peoples Commissars of the USSR as head of the Commission of Experts on the construction of the Palace of the Soviets; all the intricate problems arising out of the calculations of the erection of this huge building were carried out under his direction.

Galerkin's student days coincided with the growth of revolutionary ideas in Russia, and from 1904 onward Galerkin took an active part in the revolutionary movement. He was arrested in 1906 and sentenced by tsarist authorities to 18 months in a fortress. After the October Revolution Galerkin was able to work for the public benefit. He was elected chairman of the All-Union Builders Technical Society, and in 1939 was elected Deputy to the Leningrad City Soviet.

The Soviet Government showed its appreciation of Galerkin's work by the award of two Orders of Lenin and the First Class Stalin Prize.

Boris Galerkin's name is one that will not be forgotten, and those who knew him will remember him as a great scientist and a fine comrade.

An Eminent Biochemist

Academician Boris Zbarsky is the scientist who, in collaboration with the late Vladimir Vorobyev, preserved the body of Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, founder of the Soviet State, and thus enabled many generations to see his features fully preserved.

Zbarsky has devoted 35 years of his life to biochemistry, the field which has produced such remarkable medical aids as penicillin, sulphamides, streptocide and so forth.

Working in the Urals during the First World War, Zbarsky evolved a method of producing chloroform to supply the Russian Army Medical Service.

Among Zbarsky's works are scientific proof of the fact that erythrocytes supply human tissue not only with oxygen but also with amino acids and thus increase the feeding of tissue with albumen. Zbarsky is now engaged in the study of methods of early diagnosis of cancer. In 1930 he founded the first research institute on food problems in the USSR.

Academician Zbarsky has been decorated twice with the Order of Lenin, twice with the Order of the Red Banner of Labor and with the Order of the Badge of Honor, and has received the Stalin Prize.

Notes on Soviet Life

The 100th Anniversary of the All-Union Geographical Society will be celebrated this year. Founded in St. Petersburg by famous Russian geographers and travelers, the Society numbers among its leading members Pyotr Semenov-Tian-shansky, Yuri Shokalsky, Prince Peter Kropotkin, former President of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR Vladimir Komarov and Nikolai Przhevalski. Society representatives have explored Central Asia, Siberia and Kamchatka. The famous Russian traveler Nikolai Miklukha-Maklai spent many years exploring New Guinea. Admirals Fedor Litke and Sergei Makarov made investigations on the seas. The Society's expedition to Mongolia, under Peter Kozlov, in 1923-26 unearthed some dead cities.

★

Joyous in their liberation, Ukrainian youth seek normal activities again, in the music, art and theatrical schools. Studios of the well-known Ivan Franko drama theater, the Russian drama theater and musical comedy and the children's choreographic Studio of Kiev have announced the resumption of classes. The 100 openings of the Kiev conservatory were sought by 400 applicants.

★

Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga has published a statistical handbook, *The Production of the Most Important Commodities in Foreign States*, which gives the latest data on a number of commodities, not included in the tables of *The Statistical Year Book of the League of Nations*.

★

In connection with the Government's decision on the reintroduction of vacations for workers and office employees, the trade unions will send 750,000 of their members to rest homes and sanatoria this year compared with 270,000 in 1944.

The trade unions now have 254 rest homes and 68 sanatoria, situated mainly in the Moscow Region, in the Urals and the Volga valley.

The children of Leningrad are coming home. Gaily decorated trains arrive in the city from various parts of the country. In the first war months when the blockade was threatening Leningrad, over 200,000 children were evacuated to the interior. Now 25,000 have returned after four years of evacuation.

★

Soviet armaments used in battles with the German invaders are being shown in an exhibit of the Red Army. Among the displays are a sniper's rifle which belonged to an Ivashchenko Guardsman who destroyed more than 100 Nazi officers and soldiers, and the gun which under the command of Senior Sergeant N. T. Lyubarsky fired 7,320 shells at the enemy and moved with the advancing troops all the way from the Dnieper to Vienna. There are also on display tanks which covered 3.625 kilometers, an anti-aircraft gun which shot down 14 enemy planes and an anti-tank rifle which knocked out four German tanks.

★

A network of poultry farms is being organized in the Ukraine, 65 of which are completely new and 32, restored. The cold storage facilities at each farm will have a capacity of 2,400 tons. There will be departments for processing poultry and eggs. One of the new poultry farms will produce 6,000 tons of chickens, ducks and frozen eggs this year.

★

Moscow actors, who appeared in 60,000 plays and concerts staged for troops during the four years of the Great Patriotic War, have been honored at a testimonial meeting at the Maly Theater. All the leading theaters of the capital, concert organizations, theater schools, studios and choirs were awarded honorary certificates by the Command of the Moscow military area.

In an inventors contest held by the iron and steel industry, three first prizes of 25,000 rubles each have been awarded to a group of workers in the Magnitogorsk and Novo-Tagil plants in the Urals for their original method of repairing blast furnaces without dismantling them. Twelve second prizes of 15,000 rubles each have been awarded to inventors of a number of devices, including a portable steelscope for grading steel. In all there were 177 prizes.

★

There will be 8,000 engineers, doctors, teachers and agronomists graduating in the Ukrainian Republic this year. 145 colleges are functioning again with 750,000 students. Before the destruction by the German barbarians, there had been 100 institutions of higher learning with a student body of 130,000.

★

A third shale refining oven has been restored at the largest Estonian shale refinery, Kivnyil. This has resulted in a considerable increase in the production of gasoline and combustible oils.

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Developments in Grain Cultivation

By A. Savchenko-Belsky

If anyone thinks the wheat we grow now is perfected, there is a man at the non-chornozom zone (beyond the central black-earth belt) Grain Growing Institute in Nemchinovka, 40 kilometers from Moscow, who disagrees. Moreover, he has already shown that the years of research and experimentation to produce the present-day varieties that fill the flour bins of the world are only a beginning for the grain selectionist.

He is Academician Nikolai Tsitsin, who more than 15 years ago first crossed domesticated wheat and wild couch grass, a weed that sweeps the farmer's fields like a pestilence, once it gets a foothold, too tough to die of drought or cold and hence long the enemy of all field crop growers. As a young agronomist Tsitsin had made up his mind to take from this scourge its tremendous vitality, its high reproduction capacity and its resistance to the fungus diseases that assail wheat, and to transmit these qualities to the grain.

This was trail-blazing that required patient, painstaking work. Crossing tens of thousands of plants, Tsitsin worked out new ways to augment the selectionist's weapons. The result was successful—a perennial wheat which, like couch grass, comes up two or three years in succession. It is easy to see what this promises in the way of simplifying grain cultivation.

Yet the hybrid suffered from a serious shortcoming: it did not inherit the frost resistance of couch grass. Thriving in the south—there are collective farms in Kazakhstan where it has grown for some years—the hybrid wheat could not endure the northerly latitudes.

Now Tsitsin believes he has solved his remaining problem. Recently during

my visit to the Institute he showed me wheat-couch grass hybrids that have survived several Moscow Region winters and have produced crops two or three years running without annual sowing. Perhaps a new strain of perennial wheat suitable for the Central and Siberian belts will spring from these hybrids.

The scientist discusses his work with the confidence that there is no obstacle that cannot be overcome. He has made it a rule to push on where most others would retreat. "I have developed immunity against failure," he says. But that is not boasting. He soberly appraises his work and, though spurred on by a dream, he never leaves the solid foundation of reality. That was the case 15 years ago too when I first met him, for time has changed him but little. There are gray strands in his black hair, and the charac-

teristic wrinkles of his face are perhaps a bit more marked, but the ardor of the past is still there, and is undoubtedly one of the guarantees of his success.

Splendid evidence of his ability to rise above failure and not allow setbacks to thwart him is his work on crossing wheat and barley with wild lyme grasses. The latter grow in sandy soil from the coast of the Arctic Ocean to the desert zone of Kazakhstan; they stand both fierce frosts and scorching heat and the lyme head contains up to 800 seeds.

Tsitsin began working on the crossing of these wild cereals with cultivated ones long before the war. He spent years and made a thousand experiments, but with no results. Researchers regarded the idea as futile, for no one had ever succeeded in effecting such a union. But finally in 1942 Tsitsin obtained the first hybrid of



Radiophoto

The farm workers of the Kuban using a combine during the 1945 peacetime harvesting season on the large Krasny Partisan collective farm

soft wheat and a variety of lyme grass. The next year the lyme-barley hybrid was obtained and then a number of crosses with three different varieties of soft wheat. Now these peculiar plants that look like lyme and wheat at the same time are heading out well. Tsitsin says that this accomplishment gives the selectionists opportunities to develop varieties of grain crops eclipsing productivity in all formerly known ones.

Other interesting exhibits of the Nemchinovka Institute are the perennial hybrids of rye, wheat and couch grass, and also a product of recent years which displays characteristics of all three members of the triangle.

Tsitsin attaches great importance to further research with these plants with a view both to productivity and the baking qualities of the grain. At present only the wheat of cultivated grain contains the tenacious gluten which accounts for its superiority for baking purposes. The prospects are that a new grain, possessing better baking properties than the best wheat now grown, may be evolved by combining wheat and rye with couch grass, some varieties of which have a gluten content one and a half to two times as great as the best wheat.

On the experimental fields of the Institute I also saw new annual wheat-couch grass hybrids, both winter and spring which are now being grown for seed after passing practical tests on the collective farm fields. Like ordinary wheat they must be sown each year, but from the wild parent they have inherited both great vitality and high productivity.

The spring variety is obtained by crossing wheat and blue couch grass and, known as Number 2285, is already being sown by the Moscow Region collective farms. Last year the Krasny Oktyabr collective farm raised on one plot a crop of 5.3 tons of this wheat per hectare, which is a record for this region.

Among the winter varieties of wheat-couch grass hybrids particularly promising this year is Number 599. The Nemchinovka Institute expects it to yield no less than 3.5 or 4 tons per hectare.

The work on grafting woody and



Radiophoto
Maria Kovalenko, one of the leading farm workers on the Avangard collective farm in the Kuban. She is helping with the peace time crops in this Cossack region of the North Caucasus

herbaceous plants is dramatic as well as practical. In one of the spacious hot-

houses are peas, lentils and beans grafted on white acacia and doing as well as if they were deriving their sustenance through their own roots. A Mediterranean weed was found to act as host to the egg plant, pepper and potato, all of which have taken very well and are developing splendidly. This method extensively used by Ivan Michurin, the Russian plant wizard, makes it possible to cross remote varieties. As Tsitsin says "Wild plants are an inexhaustible source of the latent powers of nature." And he does not miss a chance to tap that storehouse to create more productive and better-cultivated plants.

The Institute in Nemchinovka was in the Soviet defense lines in the critical period of 1941 when the German armies lunged for Moscow, but throughout those perilous days the staff continued working. They were able to preserve all valuable varieties including the hybrids, and normal research work was established soon after the Germans were driven back from the approaches to the capital. Recently the Institute's experimental fields were visited by American, French, British and Czechoslovak scientists, all of whom had high praise for the work done under Academician Tsitsin's guidance.

The Harvesting Program

This year's successful sowing campaign presages a good harvest and a considerable increase in the stocks of staple crops—grain, cotton, flax, oil seeds, sugar-beet, potatoes, vegetables, tobacco, and kok-sagyz.

The spring sowing was carried out more efficiently, quicker and better than last year.

The collective and individual farms exceeded the plan for planting summer crops by one-tenth of one per cent, grain crops by 2.8 per cent, sugar-beets by one per cent. The entire able-bodied rural population over 14 years of age, including the non-farm population residing in the rural areas not occupied in industry or transport, takes part in the harvesting. Harvester combine-drivers employed else-

where are to be sent to the countryside, as well as engineers, technicians and workers to help care for the combines, tractors and other agricultural machines.

The urban workers who take part in the harvesting will be remunerated in cash and kind and besides will get half their average wages at their regular jobs in industry, to which they will return after the crops are gathered.

In order to insure the active participation of women in the harvesting, the system of village nurseries, kindergartens and playgrounds is being increased, and child groups in the homes will be formed. Thus during the working day the farm mother will be relieved of the care of the children.

'TIME IS STEEL'

A report on the industrial and agricultural achievements of the Kuzbas during the first half of 1945 as well as during the war has been published in the Soviet daily press. This highly industrialized area in western Siberia was developed in the years of the Stalin Five-Year Plans. A large producer of coal, iron and steel, the Kuzbas has played an important part in the economics of the Soviet Union. During the war when the Donbas was in enemy hands, the Kuzbas became even more significant.

Some of the facts and figures mentioned in the report indicate the rapidly growing might of the Kuzbas and its contribution to the great victory.

Today the daily coal extraction in the Kuzbas is 35 per cent higher than in 1940, by virtue of the all-out war effort of the miners and the technical innovations introduced to coal production by engineers and scientists. A new type of shield invented by Professor Nikolai Andreyevich Chinakal, who has the Stalin Prize, helped to increase the output of coal fivefold in the Kuzbas mines.

The work of the metallurgists gave valuable support to the war. The Kuznetsk iron and steel mills turned out a quantity of special steel sufficient for the manufacture of 100 million shells, and made steel for 50,000 heavy tanks.

The annual steel output is now 500,000 tons more than before the war. The output of rolled metal is 280,000 tons more than the 1940 level. In wartime the blast furnace workers produced 270,000 tons of pigiron over and above the program and saved 600,000 tons of iron and manganese ores as well as 120,000 tons of coke. During the last war year alone, blooming mill workers conserved 36,000 tons of metal, sufficient for the manufacture of 10,000 guns.

A favorite saying of the Kuznetsk iron and steel men is, "Time is steel." The saving of ten minutes in each smelt is enough to produce no less than 10,000 extra tons of steel a year. In the first half of 1945 the Kuznetsk mills exceeded

Women workers rifling gun barrels at an ordnance plant. Loyal workers like these kept the fronts supplied with equipment throughout the war.



their program by 12,000 tons of pigiron, 20,000 tons of steel and 20,000 tons of rolled metal.

There have been outstanding achievements in the Guryevsk iron and steel works. The output of metal in the first half of 1945 is 40 per cent higher than in the corresponding period of 1941. The Kemerovo coke chemical plant has increased its output of coke one and a half times over a comparable prewar period. The manufacturers of the chemical works of the Kuzbas are five times greater than in 1940. An excess of five and a half million rubles of production was turned out by the chemical workers of the Kuzbas in the first six months of this year. Labor productivity increased six per cent.

In the first half of 1945 the power workers of the Kuzbas supplied the industrial enterprises of the region with 137 million kilowatt hours more electrical energy than during the same period last year and as much as during the whole of 1941. The electrical industry exceeded its program, turning out 15 million rubles more than during the first half of 1944.

The report mentions the achievements of the Kuzbas railwaymen, who in the first half of 1945 increased the loadings of important freights by 755,000 tons.

During the same period locomotive crews drove 10,000 heavy freight trains which carried six and a half million tons of freight beyond the schedule.

Supplies of grain and food for the country come from the Kuzbas. The collective farms extended the potato area by two and a half times compared with 1940 and almost tripled the area under other vegetables. The spring of 1945 saw a further rise in the area under wheat, which increased 27,000 hectares over last year, and the area under potatoes and other vegetables, 17,000 hectares. The sown areas of the auxiliary farm set up by the factories more than tripled during the war years, reaching 86,000 hectares in 1945.

The collective farmers are ready to gather the first postwar harvest. They have promised to average no less than 1.6 tons of grain crops per hectare, 12 tons of potatoes and 13 tons of other vegetables.

The Kuzbas together with the rest of the country celebrated the great victory, and has now entered a period of peaceful development. In their report signed by nearly one million people, the working people of the Kuzbas pledge to exert a still greater effort to restore in the shortest possible time the Nazi-wrecked industries and towns and villages.

The Republic of Turkmenia Launches a Land Reclamation Project

The following article is based on an interview with Vasili Chikhladze, director of the Tropical Crops Experimental Station of Turkmenia:

A sweeping program aimed at opening to agriculture close to 2,500,000 acres of semi-desert land in southwestern Turkmenia is being mapped out by the State Experimental Station set up recently in this area.

While still surveying the land, the station has already begun the large-scale cultivation of a number of crops. The first collective farm-olive orchard of nearly five acres has been laid out and the staff is now working on a 50-acre experimental date grove, an olive orchard, a pomegranate orchard, a nursery, vineyards and large vegetable gardens. Industrial and decorative plants, including cypress palms and Australian eucalyptus, will also be planted.

The first steps toward making this vast semi-desert available to cultivation were taken several years ago by the All-Union



An extensive irrigation dam on the Tedzhenka River, one of the numerous works completed in the Turkmen Republic to facilitate agriculture



Water flows from a nearby canal to cotton fields of the Shtifok collective farm

other such installations. Another source of water is the Karakum Canal in the neighboring Uzbek Republic, the construction of which was begun this year. Running close to southwestern Turkmenia, this undertaking will supply water to large areas there as well.

The revival of the semi-desert zone of Turkmenia is of great importance for the national economy. The area abounds in deposits of the valuable mineral ozocerite as well as oil, coal and gold. The promotion of agriculture in the region will facilitate its industrial development.

It has been established that seven or eight centuries ago southwestern Turkmenia was a prosperous agricultural area with a widely ramified irrigation system. But fierce wars and predatory incursions forced the local population to abandon their settlements and become nomads. The canals and other water systems were abandoned and fell into decay, and the land returned to a wild state in the course of centuries. Now only the ruins of ancient aqueducts and stone reservoirs bear witness to the once flourishing agriculture that existed there.

SUCCESS IN ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

During the past twelve months the number of cattle has increased by 9 per cent on the collective farms and by 12 per cent on the State farms; the number of hogs by 8 per cent on the collective farms and 56 per cent on the State farms. The number of cattle owned individually by collective farmers and industrial workers also shows a big rise.

The Council of People's Commissars of the USSR and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union have now approved a "Plan for the Further Development of Animal Husbandry." This envisages further increases for 1945 in the number of horses, cattle and hogs. It provides for the artificial insemination, this year, of 5,610,000 sheep and goats belonging to collective farms.

Subtropics Research Institute when it launched a program of experimental work. It was established that this part of Central Asia, which has the mildest winter climate in the Soviet Union, is the only place in the country where dates can be grown. It was also found that figs and pomegranates thrive there, and olives grow better than in the Crimea or the Transcaucasus, with yields of up to 90 kilograms per tree, which would be considered a record even in Italy or Spain.

Experiments have shown that even in the winter, cabbage, carrots, beets and radishes can be grown in this area out in the open. Moreover, two or three crops are possible in the course of one year.

The greatest problem is promoting agriculture in southwestern Turkmenia.

To supply the deficiency, the Atrek and Sumbar Rivers will be utilized for irrigation. The excavation of small, local canals has been initiated and later it is planned to set up special reservoirs and

Fortifying Nature in Armenia

By G. Kolmanov

The mountain districts of Armenia are unquestionably the most interesting to a traveler from the North. There is a completely unique environment; not only is nature different, but also the mode of life and work.

From all sides the mountains bear down on the Armenian farmer; they cut into his fields and his village. The site of his home has virtually been hewn from these towering masses, these enormous solidified volcanoes with their summits in the clouds, which now dominate the horizon. Wherever you look, you see the blue glint of glaciers and the white peaks of mountain tops.

Suddenly you discern green quadrangles of cultivated fields somewhere near the edge of the glacier and next to them farm cottages clinging to the mountain-side like a colony of eagles' aeries. Barely visible threads of roads wind their way up.

Through field glasses you can see cows, burros and oxen harnessed to farmers' wagons crawling along up and down these roads, and on the approach to the village—which, from here, looks like a tightrope—you observe running children. In one such mountain village, almost on the Georgian border, an old farmer pointing to a field no bigger than an acre and a half, said:

"We hauled away about 250 carloads of rocks. But it is a good field. . . ."

He stood before me leaning on his staff, a gray-haired but sturdy mountaineer in a high sheepskin hat, and calmly surveyed his mountains. I thought of General Bagramyan, who also hails from the mountain country and who once claimed that the best Armenian fighting men came from these parts. There is an Armenian mountain village called Khndzoresk that has given the Red Army several hundred soldiers and 200 officers, among them a major general, three colonels, six lieutenant colonels, nine majors and 29 captains.

The combat with the hills begun thousands of years ago is nearing its culmination. Man has won nearly every

THE MOSCOW VOLGA CANAL— Ships passing through the fifth lock of the waterway that is to be part of a system linking five seas, the Caspian, the Black, the Azov, the Baltic and the Barents



UZBEKISTAN, SOVIET CENTRAL ASIA— An excavator diverting the waters of the Syrdarya River to the bed of the Fergana Canal, used to irrigate about 1,250,000 acres of cotton-growing land. The canal is 166 miles long and 13 feet deep, one of the largest projects of its kind in the USSR



Technical experts are present at the opening of the Chirchik power and irrigation system, as the water flows into the derivation canal. On this site are the Chirchik Electro-Chemical plant and one of Central Asia's largest hydroelectric stations



bit of land that can be farmed. Fields of wheat and barley have penetrated into the wildest gorges and reached altitudes of

1,800 meters. Orchards alternate with vineyards and tobacco plantations on the mountainsides. Cotton and sugarbeet have

taken over all the low spots and irrigated plains.

Armenian farmers have made even the ruins of their ancient towns serve them today. At Garni, for example, there was an old fortress which historians say was built some 22 centuries ago. This is one of the most distant corners of the Republics, in the heart of a limitless string of mountains almost bare of vegetation. The only green was in the little fields of the collective farms down in the valleys and up at the dizzy heights. When I finally reached the ruins of the ancient fortress, I was confronted by eloquent testimony to the enterprise of man: in the midst of remnants of walls and buildings were vineyards and beet plots. The vines wound their way along what had been streets, they filled what once had been courtyards, and at one spot they had taken over what perhaps had been the grand ballroom of a palace of which only three battered walls remained.

The battle for land has not been limited to the mountain zones. It has been going on in the lowlands as well, though here it has been of a different nature. It has been a quest for water for the arid soil.

Nature must have been in a capricious mood when it ordained that water should be as precious as each bit of arable land in this country of glacier-topped mountain ranges. If in the mountains the folk speak with pride about the number of carts of rocks and stones they have hauled from their fields, in the plains they speak with the same pride about the irrigation canals they have dug. You have only to look at the sun-scorched gray landscape of the Armenian steppes to appreciate the meaning of water.

It seldom rains in summer. In the course of 23 days in June, there was only one brief shower in the daytime and one heavy one at night. Since earliest times canals have been the only way to water the land. Nerses Nurijanyan, Deputy People's Commissar of Water Resources of Armenia, and a land reclamation engineer by training, told me that irrigation structures built

as far back as the Eighth Century, B.C., have been discovered in the Republic.

Even in those distant times, he said, when the country was known not as Armenia but as Urartu, the entire Ararat valley, as well as the slopes of the mountain were irrigated. Many of these ancient canals and reservoirs have been modernized and are still in use.

As to the present policy in agriculture pursued by the Armenian Government, Nurijanyan regarded the establishment of collective farms and the setting up of a ramified irrigation system the Republic's greatest achievements. Without collective farms and irrigation a farmer working alone would have been doomed to lead the poverty-stricken existence of the past centuries. Only the joint efforts of the hundreds of thousands of farmers and the consistent promotion of irrigation by the Government could put farming on a modern footing.

It must be remembered that of the Republic's total area of about 3 million hectares (29,900 square kilometers) only 550,000 hectares are arable and under cultivation. This amounts to little more than half a hectare per capita of the rural population. Of the 550,000 hectares under farm fields, orchards and other plantations, 200,000 are watered by irrigation canals.

During the 25 years since the establishment of Soviet Armenia, irrigation authorities have accounted for 154,000 of these 200,000 hectares. Over 7,000 kilometers of canals and about 2,000 irrigation installations were built. Now the irrigation canals run the length and breadth of the Republic and can be found even in Sevan Plateau, 2,000 meters above sea level. To win these 154,000 hectares for cultivation, the Government spent about 250 million rubles.

"We have had two revolutions," elderly farmwoman Nora Mirzoyan told me during my visit to Shirak Valley. "The first was in 1920 when Soviet power was established and our State came into being. The second came several years later

when our Canal had been completed.

Shirak Canal is not the largest in Armenia, but it is the first of those dug during the Soviet years. Together with its branches it totals 300 kilometers in length and brings water to 11,700 hectares of land. This area is used almost exclusively for sugar beet cultivation and supplies the raw material for Armenia's first sugar refinery.

In the Oktemberyan District, formerly the Kurtugulin, I spent two days viewing the vineyards, fruit orchards and cotton plantations opened where 20 years ago there was only an arid, sun-parched plain. With the 55 kilometer canal watering 21,000 hectares of collective farm lands, barren fields have come to life.

The system of canals has changed both the appearance and the character of the Republic's farms. Old Armenia grew only wheat, barley and grapes, and those in quantities insufficient even for local needs. Today Armenian farmers grow almost all the varieties of industrial crops suitable to this climatic zone and their produce has won a name beyond the bounds of the Republic. Armenia ships to the North canned fruit, tobacco and textiles made of home grown cotton, and this year she will refine her own sugar for distribution.

Irrigation has laid a solid foundation for all of Armenian agriculture and made it far more intensive. The Armenian District has three times won the banner of the State Committee of Defense of the USSR, for year after year raising larger crops of potatoes than anywhere else in the South. The collective farms have become famous for their high yields of tobacco and sugar beet. They have increased their wheat crop by two and one half times, and the grape harvest by three times.

If in spite of the little land there is per capita, I saw modern city-made furniture and even pianos in the homes of the Armenian peasants, the reason for this prosperity is undoubtedly the intensity of farming.

In practically every village of the Kamaryu District I was shown telegrams of

thanks sent by Stalin to the peasants who had subscribed to 20,000, 30,000 or 40,000 rubles worth of war loan bonds.

Irrigation experts have now utilized all the waters that flow during the summer months for irrigation projects.

"Does this mean that you have finished the building of new canals," I asked Nuri-janyan.

"By no means," he replied. "We are out to give our Republic another 100,000 hectares of land in the next 10 to 15 years. We need this land as badly as one needs air to breathe. The population is increasing, children are growing up and acquiring their own families; they need land for their homes, the collective farms need more land."

"But where will you get water?" I asked.

"We have two sources to draw from," Nurijanayan said. "There are the spring floods and Lake Sevan. We can build reservoirs and store up the spring rains. Of course this is a very costly proposition requiring much labor. To build one large reservoir on Lake Akhuryan, about 60 million rubles will have to be spent."

"What about the second way?"

"Sevan is a rare natural lake located at 1,900 meters above sea level. It is estimated that its waters can be drained gradually in the course of 50 years until the lake becomes one-sixth its present size. A chain of hydroelectric stations is being built to harness the energy of Sevan. From the stations it will flow to the fields. Then we will have water for the additional 100,000 hectares."

FOREIGN SCIENTISTS VISITED PULKOVO

By Ivan Bondarenko

The Jubilee Session in honor of the 220th Anniversary of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR had its closing meetings in Leningrad. Scientists of various countries were able to become acquainted with the life of the city and the work of its scientific and research institutions.

In driving through the town on the way to Pulkovo heights, the guests saw the destruction of dwelling houses, hospitals, the House of Soviets and other institutions.

Revealed in their horrifying actuality were the ruins of the renowned Pulkovo Observatory, the main building and the pavilion which before the war housed a huge telescope—all destroyed by the German shells.

Harold Spencer Jones, Astronomer Royal at the Greenwich Observatory, assured Professor Grigori Neumin, director of the Pulkovo Observatory, that English scientists would do anything in their power to help in the rehabilitation of this "capital of astronomy."

A visit was also paid to Pushkin (formerly Tsarskoyeselo), where the great Russian poet lived and after whom the town was renamed. It has always been the favorite resort of Leningraders. Mountains of brick lie around the ruins of the houses and demolished cottages. Baring their heads the scientists stood before Rasstrellis, the wonderful palace of Catherine. Its blue walls, white pillars and silver roof used to glitter amid the fresh green of the park. Now there are heaps



Klanphoto
Viewing the ruins of the famous Pulkovo Observatory in Leningrad, which was completely demolished by the Germans

of shattered bricks, fragments of marble sculptures and charred ruins.

Along with the Germans, the "Blue Division" of Franco had occupied the palace. Together with the Germans the Spaniards looted the church, tore pictures from the palace walls, smashed precious statues, shipped out valuables worth millions of rubles, and blew up the walls of the palace before their flight.

"I can hardly find words in which to express our indignation," declared Academician Said Naficy of Iran. "The world knows of the barbarities of Genghis Kahn and Timur, but they pale before the German-fascist enormities."

"The German barbarians, incendiaries and assassins left their mark everywhere here," said a Chinese scientist, "but we are happy to have seen something else—traces of the gigantic battle, of the heroism and courage of the Leningraders. What happiness that the Soviet people have been victorious and that culture has won!"



Observers were shocked at the damage to the valuable main telescope of Pulkovo. These visitors were in the Soviet Union for the 220th Anniversary of the USSR Academy of Sciences

Radiophoto

An Old Page in Russian-American Relations

A forgotten page in the history of Russian-American relations in the Sixties of the last century is revived by Sergei Markov in *Siberian Lights*, a magazine published by the writers' union in the town of Novosibirsk, Siberia. Drawing upon unpublished archive material, the author tells about the attempt made at that time to establish telegraph connections between Russia and America across the Bering Strait.

"It began in 1863," writes Markov, "when Alaska was still a Russian possession and the Russians in the town of Novoarchangelsk Sitka on Baranov Island were conducting an extensive study of the North American continent. That year, for the first time, a Russian merchant named Ivan Lukin sailed up the Yukon all the way to the Canadian frontiers and set eyes on the grim and fabulous land of the future golden Eldorado.

"The Russians penetrated boldly into the North American continent, studying its rivers and mountains, forests and volcanoes and the Indian tribes who inhabited it. Russian steamers made their way through the Strait, and the pages of St. Petersburg newspapers and magazines were filled with thrilling articles about Russian America."

That year, Collins, a United States citizen in the service of the Russians, submitted to the Russian Government a project for laying a telegraph line from America to Russia. The line was to run from some point on the shore of the

Pacific across British Columbia and Russian American possessions to Cape Prince of Wales and thence across Bering Strait to the Russian mainland, following along the Sea of Okhotsk right down to the mouth of the Amur.

In the negotiations that ensued the United States consented to participate in the laying of the line.

Shortly afterward the American Telegraph Company was founded, with a capital of 5 million dollars. The Russian Government undertook to shoulder the construction of a nearly 2,000-mile section of the line, running from Verkhneudinsk to Bering Strait. For survey work on their part, which was to begin at Portland, the Americans intended to employ Russians from Siberia.

Not far from Sitka the surveyors discovered gold nuggets worth four to five thousand dollars each. The find started a long correspondence between the board of the Russian-American Company and Prince Makutsov, governor of Russian possessions in America.

In November 1866 the chief engineer of the American Telegraph Company and his staff arrived in Sitka, the center of Russian America. By this time the building workers had already been hired and telegraph poles were in readiness in northern Alaska.

"California newspapers," says Markov, "followed the progress of the work with the closest interest. Prince Maksutov's reports show that the California press

gave much space to the activities of the American Telegraph Company.

"Work hummed on both sides of the Bering Strait. Houses and shops sprang up in Kavyak, the American port, and in Plover Gulf on Chukotsk Peninsula. Russian interpreters and navigators sailed with American explorers up and down the shores of both continents."

The bustle and excitement caused by the preparations for the building of the telegraph line attracted undesirable visitors to the Russian possessions along the Bering Strait. Smugglers and pirates did a lively business along the coast, selling vodka and weapons to the natives. The records reveal the efforts made by the chief engineer of the American company to combat the pirates and smugglers.

George Kennan, a well-known California writer employed by the American Telegraph Agency as its special correspondent, wrote a book on life in Siberia on the basis of the material collected during his extensive travels through Alaska, Chukotka and Kamchatka.

In 1867, when the tsarist government sold Alaska and the Aleutian Islands to the United States, work on the telegraph line was suspended, and it was not until many years later that direct communication between both countries was finally established.

ANNIVERSARY OF PORT CITY

The port of Vladivostok is 85 years old.

On a sunny day in July, 1860, a vessel entered an unknown bay. Startling a bear on the beach, a handful of soldiers under non-com Komarov landed, the first garrison of a new outpost.

Out of the gigantic pines and cedar trees which grew on the shores, the soldiers built the first houses. Thus was founded the future city of Vladivostok.

The settlement was connected with the

hinterland first by the Chinese Eastern and then by the Amur rail lines and gradually became an important port on the Pacific visited by vessels of all nations. With the advent of Soviet power Vladivostok became the political and cultural center of the maritime province. Ship whistles rend the air over the Golden Horn Bay: passenger vessels sail for Sakhalin and Kamchatka, carrying geologists, fishermen, gold seekers and lumbermen.

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The Declaration by the Soviet Government of a State of War With Japan

On August 8 Foreign Commissar of the USSR Comrade Molotov received Japanese Ambassador Sato and in the name of the Soviet Government gave him the following statement for transmission to the Government of Japan:

After the defeat and capitulation of Hitlerite Germany, Japan remained the only great power which still stands for the continuation of the war.

The demand of the three powers, the United States, Great Britain and China, of July 26 for the unconditional surrender of the Japanese armed forces was rejected by Japan. Thus the proposal made by the Japanese Government to the Soviet Union for mediation in the Far East has lost all foundation.

Taking into account the refusal of Japan to capitulate, the Allies approached the Soviet Government with a proposal to join the war against Japanese aggression and thus shorten the duration of the



Vyacheslav M. Molotov

war, reduce the number of casualties and contribute toward the most speedy restoration of peace.

True to its obligation as an Ally, the Soviet Government has accepted the proposal of the Allies and has joined in the declaration of the Allied powers of July 26.

The Soviet Government considers that this policy is the only means able to bring peace nearer, to free the people from further sacrifice and suffering and to give the Japanese people the opportunity of avoiding the danger of destruction suffered by Germany after her refusal to accept unconditional surrender.

In view of the above, the Soviet Government declares that from tomorrow, that is from August 9, the Soviet Union will consider herself in a state of war against Japan.

IZVESTIA wrote editorially August 9:

People's Commissar of Foreign Affairs Molotov on behalf of the Soviet Government made the declaration to the Japanese Ambassador in Moscow that from August 9 the Soviet Union will consider herself at war with Japan.

The declaration of the Soviet Government was not unexpected. After the defeat and surrender of Hitlerite Germany, Japan was the only great power which still stands for the continuation of the war.

In the course of a number of years

Japan has been pursuing an aggressive predatory policy. Being in alliance with Hitlerite Germany and taking advantage of Hitlerite aggression in Europe, on the night of December 8, 1941, the Japanese imperialists treacherously attacked the United States of America and Great

Britain. Taking advantage of a temporary superiority of forces, Japan seized vast territories in Eastern Asia, occupied a considerable part of China, French Indo-China, Malaya, Indonesia and the Philippines.

In accordance with the military-political alliance concluded between Hitlerite Germany and Japan, Japanese imperialists set themselves the task of taking full control over and enslaving the peoples of the Eastern Asiatic countries, using as a cover the slogan of the establishment of a so-called "New Order."

The Japanese "New Order" in Eastern Asia which bore the flowery name of "Eastern Asiatic Sphere of Co-Prosperity" was essentially the same as the Hitlerite "New Order" in Europe.

No matter what phrases were used to mask the brazenly predatory bandit essence of the Japanese "New Order," it represented the institution of a hegemony of Japanese imperialists over Asia.

The adventurous nature of the Japanese plans has been objectively revealed by the entire course of the war in the Pacific. Japan lacked the real means to retain her conquests. Just as the Hitlerite strategists who came out with delirious plans for the establishment of German world domination went bankrupt in the course of the war, so the Japanese militarists displayed their complete insolvency.

By their joint efforts the United States of America, Great Britain and China not only checked Japanese expansion but swung into the counter-offensive themselves and inflicted serious defeats on Japan.

The offensive operations of the Allied Anglo-American forces against Japan whose scope increases daily bear witness to the total lack of any prospect for success of the predatory plans of the Japanese militarists.

After the rout of Hitlerite Germany, Japan lost her ally in Europe and found herself in complete political and military isolation. Despite all this the Japanese ruling circles stubbornly insist on the continuation of a senseless war.

On July 26 the Governments of the United States, Great Britain and China addressed Japan with a demand for the

unconditional surrender of the Japanese armed forces. Despite the categorical warning of the three Allied Governments, the Japanese government rejected the demand of unconditional surrender.

"Thus," says the declaration of the Soviet Government, "the proposal made by the Japanese government to the Soviet Union for mediation in the Far East has lost all foundation."

The refusal of the Japanese imperialists to cease resistance plainly indicates their intention to drag out the war by every means. Considering this, the Allies proposed that the Soviet Government join the war against Japanese aggression.

The Soviet Union's entry into the war against Japan draws nearer the termination of the war, will reduce the number of victims and facilitate the earliest restoration of general peace.

True to its duty to its Allies, the Soviet Government accepted the Allies' proposal. It joined the demand of the Allied powers of July 26 for Japan's unconditional surrender. This course of the Soviet Government is the only means capable of bringing peace nearer.

The lessons of the past show that imperialist conquests and colonial plunder form the basis of the Japanese policy. On more than one occasion Japanese militarists have demonstrated not only their adventurous nature, but also their treachery and contempt for existing international obligations and treaties. Suffice it to recall the history of wars unleashed by Japan in the course of the last 50 years to realize how cheap are Japanese statements of pacifism and how little regard Japan displayed for international law and custom.

Japan's perfidious attack on China in 1894; the treacherous assault of the Japanese samurai on Russia in 1904; their bandit intervention against the Soviet people in 1918 (accompanied by knavish pretexts to "justify" their action) are repeated in the current equally treacherous acts of aggression.

Japan long since has won her reputation for being a militaristic and aggressive power. Stalin credited the temporary successes of imperialist Japan in the initial phase of the war in the Pacific to the fact that Japan as an aggressor nation

was much better prepared for war than her adversaries.

Indeed, Japan has been preparing for war long and persistently. Tempted by the example of the Hitlerite robber gang, she conceived the dream of creating a "great" colonial empire by force of arms under the banner of the fascist "New Order."

It is well known that in April, 1941, Japan concluded a neutrality pact with the Soviet Union. But after Hitlerite Germany's treacherous attack on the USSR, Japan, instead of observing the treaty of neutrality, continued by every means to consolidate her military and political alliance with Hitlerite Germany and to render support to the German fascist gangsters.

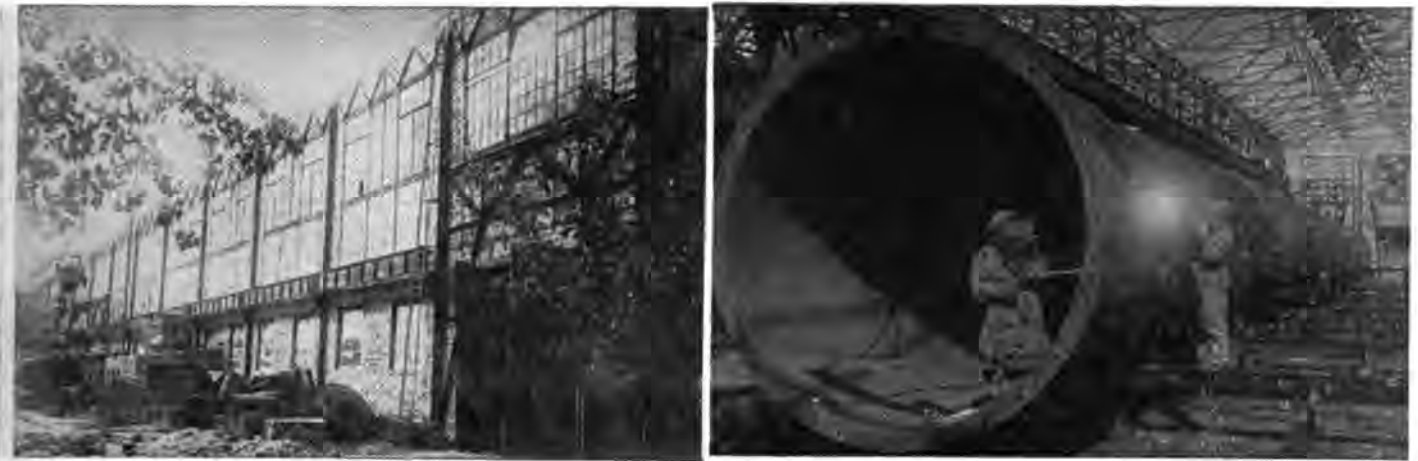
Japan as Germany's ally helped the latter in her war against the USSR. This compelled the Soviet Government to denounce the neutrality pact which had already lost its meaning.

Japan failed to heed the serious warning contained in the act of denouncement by the Soviet Union of the treaty of neutrality. Even now, after the collapse of Hitlerite Germany, faced with the fiasco of their adventurous plans and calculations, the Japanese imperialists stubbornly drag out the war.

The peoples of the Soviet Union as well as all freedom-loving nations of the world, can no longer tolerate the situation in which Japanese fascist militarists obstinately condemn the countries of Eastern Asia to the horrors of destruction of war.

The interests of all humanity demand that the last center of war which continues to function in the Far East be extinguished as soon as possible. The Soviet Union's entry into the war against Japanese aggression is not only an expression of its faithfulness to its obligations to the Allies, but also an expression of concern for the earliest termination of the war and the restoration of general peace.

The Soviet people without exception will warmly support their Government in its wise decision to declare a state of war with Japan in order to insure the earliest termination of the war and the transition to peaceful labor for the peoples of the whole world.



The cast iron foundry (left), of the Stalin heavy machinery works in Kramatorsk now restored; (right) Workers welding the smokestack for the press shop. The cylinder, 65 meters long and weighing 56 tons, was made with local materials

Blast Furnace in Mariupol Resumes Production

By I. Andronov

A blast furnace with a volume of 1,300 cubic meters has been restored and is again turning out pig iron in the southern part of the Ukrainian SSR. It is one of the four Nazi-wrecked blast furnaces of the Azovstal iron and steel works of Mariupol on the coast of the Azov Sea.

Prior to the German invasion the Azovstal works with an annual output of up to two million tons was one of the most modern plants of the Soviet Union. In one year, 1930, it produced 1.5 times more steel than in the preceding five years. Five years later the output of pig iron and steel had doubled, and had tripled on the eve of war.

The settlement built for the Azovstal workers had more than 12,000 dwellings, surrounded by flower gardens and orchards. There were many new schools, nine clubs, four moving picture theaters, seven libraries, a large general hospital, a polyclinic, a maternity hospital and a rest home situated in a park on the seashore.

Another park was laid out on the grounds of the plant. White acacias blossomed in the lanes between the factory buildings, and fountains played in the squares. The waves of the Azov Sea washed right up to the base of the blast furnaces. Sea shells were scattered all

along the railroad tracks running parallel to the coast. A fresh sea wind blows between the 400-ton open-hearth furnaces and the huge hoisting cranes, between the poplars and the ruins of the wrecked buildings overgrown with wild grass. There is a fine beach with golden sand just beyond the plant.

The war left its terrible traces here. German troops broke into Mariupol in October, 1941, and German engineers appeared at the Azovstal iron and steel works soon afterward. For 22 months they ransacked the town and the workers' settlement, and shipped the plant equipment to Germany. On the eve of their retreat the occupationists placed scores of tons of high explosives in Mariupol and the Azovstal works—under the workers' dwellings and the giant blast furnaces. The explosions at the iron and steel works shook the town like earthquakes. Chunks of blasted metal weighing as much as eight tons were later found half a kilometer from the scene of the explosions.

Mountains of twisted metal and rubble rose on the sites of the former shops of the huge enterprise.

Restoration of the damage done by the enemy was started immediately after the liberation of Mariupol. The first thing

the veteran workers, foremen and engineers of the Azovstal works did when they returned from the Urals was to clear away the debris. Thousands of new workers who arrived from the villages and towns in the Azov area participated in the work.

Metallurgists restored a small cupola to provide themselves with iron castings. Then several machine tools were put together from parts salvaged from the wreckage. Parts of the blasted equipment which could be repaired were used in rebuilding cranes, open-hearth furnaces and power units.

A complete cycle of metallurgical production was gradually restored. Eight open-hearth furnaces have been working at the Azovstal plant for the past year as well as a foundry for the manufacture of special castings, two cast iron foundries, several sheet and armor rolling mills and a tube welding department. In the latter, the largest of its kind in the Soviet Union, tubes of large diameters for the oil industry are welded. In good order again at the Azovstal works are the forge shop, fire-brick plant and skull cracker. Progress has been made in the rehabilitation of the power facilities.

But how can pig iron be produced from Kerch ore? Two of the blast furnaces

were blown up beyond repair and the rest damaged so badly that it required months of hard labor to clear away the debris of metal and rubble.

Blast furnace number three now completed was comparatively easy to rebuild, and at the same time, restoration was started on the coke battery, which has now resumed production. Mariupol metallurgists displayed ingenuity in utilizing all the materials they could find among the ruins. Blast furnace number three and the coke battery have resumed production.

Engineering history was made in the rehabilitation of blast furnace number four where problems had to be solved that had not been tackled before. This blast furnace which will soon be ready for operation settled 3.5 meters and tilted to an angle of 30 degrees as a result of the damage to its foundation from nearly a ton of high explosives planted by Nazi

engineers. Instead of dismantling the furnace and constructing a new one, Kaminsky, one of the restoration engineers, suggested saving time and materials by raising the gigantic structure by hydraulic jacks. The blast furnace had a volume of 1,300 cubic meters, was 70 meters high and weighed nearly 1,500 tons. It was a bold scheme—to raise it first a half a meter, then move it more than a meter back to its old place, turn it several degrees on its axle and finally raise it 3.5 meters, and to hold it in the air while eight new supports were put up under the section of the hearth which had been completely replaced. But the Mariupol engineers and workers took this risk in order to speed up the rehabilitation of the iron and steel plant. It took 3,200 man days to complete the complicated job instead of the 16,000 man days which

would have been required if the blast furnace were dismantled and built anew.

Two more 250-ton open-hearth furnaces will be put into operation together with blast furnace number four.

The Azovstal works is rapidly rising from the ruins, not only restored to pre-war capacity, but considerably expanded. Other metallurgical plants in the southern parts of the USSR are also being quickly rebuilt. When the blooming mill starts working the cycle of metallurgical production will be fully restored at the Makeyevka plant. Many iron and steel plants are already operating in the Dnieper areas. Dozens of Nazi-wrecked blast furnaces and open-hearth furnaces, coke batteries and rolling mills have resumed operation. When blast furnace number three of the Azovstal plant was ready, an important stage was reached in the revival of the iron and steel industry of the South.

URALS AUTOMOBILE PLANT

By V. Leibov

One of the many huge construction jobs completed in the Urals during the war years is a new automobile plant put into operation a year ago. It was built by high speed construction methods in the foothills of the Ilmen Mountains of the gold mining area of Miass.

The work on the first automobile plant in the Urals was begun in January, 1942. Part of the equipment of the Moscow auto plant, which was evacuated to several cities in the East, was shipped to Miass, and a large group of engineers and veteran workers of the Moscow factory came to supervise the assembling process.

Construction went on day and night despite bitter frosts and raging blizzards. In January, during one of the heaviest frosts, a small group of workers were entrusted with the job of building a high-voltage line, 17 kilometers in length. They had to cut a road through the mountains and excavate 4,000 cubic meters of frozen ground, prepare some 2,000 cubic meters of timber and set up 20-meter towers. All this work was accomplished in the record time of 18 days.

Electricity and power were provided immediately and a few months later the engine, thermal, heat-treating, pattern and other shops were completed. The first lot of engines and other automobile parts were manufactured in May, 1942.

With the passing of several months new shops were put into operation. The assembly and foundry shops equipped with modern machinery spread over an area of thousands of square meters. Then work began in the main conveyor department.

More than 40,000 automobile engines, 60,000 gear boxes and millions of rubles worth of spare parts were turned out by the beginning of last July. The first truck came off the assembly line July 8, 1944.

In the past year thousands of trucks have rolled off the conveyor. Georgi Khlamov, the director of the Urals automobile plant, said, "Many innovations have been introduced into our shops with considerable success. Thus, for example, we are making wide use of high fre-

quency current in machining the main parts. As a result we have been able to boost the output of these parts tenfold and to cut down considerably the amount of expensive materials for automobile manufacture. We have applied the direct-route system of production in the manufacture of tools."

The director of the automobile plant pointed out that designers and engineers are constantly working on new models of automobile engines. Three new models have thus far been designed which surpass the old models both in capacity and quality.

"Our enterprise is only a year old," Khlamov said, "and our employees are working and studying. More than 1,000 technicians are now being trained at special schools set up in the factory. Several hundred young workers have graduated from the factory trade school and are doing fine work in the shops. New dwellings, and schools, and a theater and hospital are being built in the factory settlement."

Fur Riches of Kazakhstan

By Ivan Polushin

The Kazakhstan Republic is one of the chief sources of raw material for Soviet industry and export. Several million skins, hundreds of thousands of tons of wool and furs, to the value of tens of millions of rubles, are purchased here every year. The forests and steppes of Kazakhstan abound in fur-bearing animals and game. Over 50 varieties are found here, including precious sable, silver fox, otter, marten, muskrat, and squirrel. Mountain sheep and roe deer live in the hills; swans, geese, pheasants, ducks and snipe nest along the banks of the rivers and lakes.

The supply of the livestock breeding farms, and the catch of hunters and trappers are purchased by State organizations and cooperatives. During the war when many experienced hunters, furriers and other specialists went to the front, and there was a shortage of transport and preserving materials, there was, nonetheless, no decrease in furs, hides or wool from this Republic. On the contrary, there was an increase compared with pre-war figures.

The people of Kazakhstan sent industrial enterprises hides for several million pairs of army boots, wool for many million pairs of felt boots, and hundreds of thousands of meters of material for sheep-



Kazakh shepherd women shearing their sheep on the Chuvarchi ranch. Twice a year the collective ranches of the region take the best wool from their herds

lined coats. At the same time they also exported furs and skins to the value of tens of millions of rubles. It may be said that a considerable number of Red

Army soldiers and officers were clothed and shod from the materials of the Kazakh SSR.

While fulfilling current deliveries, the Republic is engaging in an effort to stock the breeding grounds. Purchasing organizations take an active part in helping the farmers to develop astrakhan sheep and to preserve valuable fur-bearing animals such as muskrat, suslik and others. During the war six muskrat-breeding farms were formed which by 1944 had provided one-half the entire fur deliveries of the Republic.

The Balkhash muskrat farm alone provided furs for export to the value of several millions of rubles in 1944 and won the first prize, the Challenge Banner of the State Committee of Defense.

The great victory over Hitlerite Germany inspired the Soviet people to still greater efforts for their country. Kazakh hunters and stockbreeders are working with renewed energy and the Republic of Kazakhstan holds first place among the other Central Asian Republics of the Soviet Union for deliveries of furs. Fourteen out of 16 regional purchasing offices overfulfilled their plan for the first quarter of the current year. There is no doubt that the half-yearly and annual plans will also be exceeded.



IN KAZAKHSTAN—The hunter, Dovlitbak Koshkunov, singing a song of his own composition about a successful hunt



LIVESTOCK BREEDING IN TAJIKISTAN—Pastures of the Pamir State farm in the mountains of the Republic

THE JUDAS OF FRANCE

By Ilya Ehrenburg

Apparently the climates of various lands affect Olympians in different ways. In the first few weeks following the liberation of France, Nemesis, goddess of retribution, stalked the length and breadth of the land.

Then came the turn of Themis, the goddess of law and justice. Frenchmen yearned for justice as starving men long for bread. But Themis in France was extremely sluggish and slow.

France knows that she has been through the most terrible disaster in her history. She is waiting for justice to be meted out to the chief culprits. But, instead, justice is being stingily doled out to the small fry.

It is true that, every now and then, bigger fish are brought before the courts, but toward them Themis is obviously inclined to be indulgent. Their judges explain that all the second-rank traitors have one indisputable argument: they all claim to have been subordinates, and they all point the finger at Philippe Petain.

"I obeyed the orders of the marshal," Admiral Esteva, who was responsible for the destruction of France's splendid navy, stated at his trial.

A year ago I talked with French prisoners-of-war—officers and men of the "Legion." These polecats also sought shelter behind the back of the old jackal—who, in their eyes, was a veritable tiger. When I asked a French officer how he dared don a German uniform and commit violence and rapine on Soviet soil, the traitor modestly replied:

"Oh, it's quite simple—I'm just an ordinary lieutenant, and I obeyed our marshal."

More than three months have passed since Petain fell into the hands of justice. His trial was repeatedly postponed. The marshal's name vanished from the columns of the press.

But the French people had not forgotten Petain. On May 1, May 17 and July 14, the old stones of Paris heard hundreds of thousands of people crying: "Put Petain up against the wall!" And on the Place de la Bastille an orator of

the people said: "We took the Bastille. We liberated Paris from the Boches. We shall see that Petain is brought to trial!"

Perhaps the circumstances of the case were not clear, or further investigation was needed, or the evidence was inadequate? Not at all! Petain's betrayal was quite open. His indictment is written in French blood on French soil. The French people have long ago passed judgment on this traitor, in the heroic struggle of resistance, in the revolt of town and country, in victory. It remains only for the judges to confirm their verdict.

If Themis is slow it is not because the treason case against Petain is full of obscurities, but because it is all too clear. The trial of Petain is the trial of the entire Fifth Column, and of those who inspired, financed and extolled it.

One may try the small fry without touching those in high places. One may execute a Vichy gendarme without disturbing the tranquillity of the big industrialists, the bankers, generals, dignitaries and diplomats who betrayed France, and who now—without even having troubled to provide themselves with false papers—are trying to pass themselves off as patriots.

Such people are not afraid of the trial of underlings, but they are afraid of the trial of Petain because the marshal cannot be dissociated from those who helped him, from those who pushed him forward and whom he served after he had ceased to serve his country. And also because, besides betraying a man, there is such a thing as betraying a clan, a caste, a world of luxury and greed. Petain knows too much. He is an old man but he clings eagerly to life, and is skillful in trampling upon others in order to save himself.

That is why the trial of Petain is a big event, not only for France but for all Europe which has been liberated from German slavery. One scarcely expects the King of Belgium or the Pilsudskyites or the Greek monarchists to be pleased with the trial of Petain.

For the Germans Petain was the most astute camouflage they could obtain. He was their *Gauleiter*, but he called himself Head of the French State. He was a de-



Cartoon by B. E. Egan

Petain: I recall the wonderful moment...

serter, but he remained a marshal. He was a traitor, but for four years he talked patriotism. Marshals like that cannot just be picked up on the street, so Hitler was right to be proud of such a find.

What is a tramp like Quisling, a non-entity like Hacha, a gangster like Mikhaïlovich or a crafty swindler like Laval in comparison with Petain? These men were despised by their own people long before they committed their treacheries. But Petain was "gallant, honest and loyal to his country."

Yet Petain did not become a traitor overnight. He nurtured treason in his breast for a long time; he pondered over it and prepared for it. He did not betray his country for a petty bribe, he betrayed it deliberately, seeing in this betrayal a means of saving both himself and those with whom he consorted—the corrupt upper strata of French society who, long before the war, had proclaimed: "Rather Hitler than the Popular Front."

The marshal is rich in many things: in years of life, in decorations and in servants. He even has a lot of names. He is committed to trial as Marshal Henri Philippe Benomi Omard Joseph Petain. Of his five given names the marshal usually used only one, Philippe. However, when he came to power with the help of the Germans, he began to speak of himself in the plural—"We, Marshal Philippe Petain—"

Every engine needs fuel of some sort. Some people are motivated by patriotism, others by greed. Petain never loved anybody, nor did he love France. But he was by no means exempt from greed.

In 1937, when the French capitalists were sending their capital abroad, the supposedly non-mercenary Petain made arrangements for a Canadian insurance company to pay him an annuity of 120,000 francs. After the capitulation of France, he proclaimed Great Britain an enemy. Nevertheless, he saw to it that the Canadian insurance company continued to pay him his annuity—and in foreign currency!

But these are only trifles. Petain's real motivating force was his hatred of democracy and his insatiable ambition. He had long dreamed of power.

In the days of the under-surface civil war in France, when the "two hundred families" strove to gain the upper hand over the people, Petain was the marshal of the underground army of French fascists who called themselves Cagoulards. In 1937 Max Dormoy, then minister of the interior, established the fact that the Cagoulard conspiracy was led by Petain and that a man named Deloncle and a General Duseigneur were only the marshal's instruments. The Cagoulards were receiving automatic weapons from Germany and money from the "two hundred families." A warrant was issued at that time for Petain's arrest, but the Daladier government saved the marshal.

That Petain had ties with the Germans was established long ago. When he was sent to attend Pilsudski's funeral he stopped off in Berlin. The marshal did not break his journey here in order to admire the statues in the Siegesallee. He had more important business. He had a heart-to-heart talk with Goering—after which he stated: "Our two peoples must get together." The marshal mentioned the French people only for the benefit of the gallery—what he really meant was that he had got together with Goering.

Daladier, who now strides through the streets of Paris with the air of a victor—as though he had Savoy behind him instead of Munich—sent Petain to Madrid as ambassador to General Franco. In San Sebastian the marshal encountered Von Storer, the German ambassador. They

became bosom friends. War was on between Germany and France, but Petain in Burgos publicly saluted the enemy's swastika banners.

Even in the French ministry of the interior which was staffed by Cagoulards, or simply by fools, Petain was referred to as "the ambassador of Spain," for he made no secret of the fact that the interests of Franco were nearer to him than those of France.

In March, 1940, the marshal returned from Spain to Paris. This was the period of the "phoney war" and Daladier had given the assurance that he would beat the Germans with "footballs." The marshal went to see De Monzie and said: "France will need me at the end of May." Do not for a moment think that this traitor was a prophet—he had simply been apprised by his German masters of their impending offensive.

On May 10, 1940, the Germans invaded France. General Huntzinger opened up the front for them. This general was a zealous follower of Petain. A few days later I listened to the radio broadcast from Stuttgart. Ferdennet said: "Soon Marshal Petain will be at the head of France."

They say Paul Reynaud is now writing a book with the sensational title "France Saved Europe." He would do better were he to entitle his memoirs, "I Killed France." Reynaud could not help but know the role Petain was playing. Yet he appointed the marshal his deputy.

Petain got his way. He appointed the traitor Huntzinger minister of war and sent him to Hitler. The marshal presented Germany with Alsace and Lorraine. The marshal agreed to an armistice which amounted to unconditional surrender.

France was robbed of everything, of two-thirds of her territory, of her food stocks, her army, her liberty and her honor. She was left with only one thing: Marshal Petain.

After that, Petain became the avowed agent of Germany. He supplied her with food, thereby bringing about the death of hundreds of thousands of French children. He supplied her with labor, dispatching his fellow countrymen to work as convicts in Germany. He carried out all the orders of the Gestapo. He sent

his gendarmes out against the heroes of the resistance movement and delivered patriots into the hands of the Germans.

He became the patron of the "Legion" which was sent against Russia. And if witnesses are needed at his trial, one might add to the voices of millions of Frenchmen the voices of the widows and mothers of Mozhaik, Karachev and Borisov whose husbands and sons were shot by the "Legionnaires."

When the Allies landed in Normandy, Petain was still exhorting the French to aid their jailers.

In June, 1940, Petain said, "I shall not leave for Algiers, for a government which deserts its own territory should be regarded as a deserter." But when the Allies reached Belfort, the marshal dashed off to Germany. The Germans assigned him luxurious quarters in the Hohenzollern castle of Sigmaringen. From its windows he admired the view of the Danube. Every morning he took a long drive by automobile. He said, "I feel splendid—I have only one malady: old age." He was 89, but he felt certain he would live to be a hundred.

He read the memoirs of Talleyrand. Perhaps he thought of following in the footsteps of that astute politician who had lived through four changes of regime? However that may be, he told Swiss journalists that he, Philippe Petain, "had nothing against De Gaulle." Having outlived the Third Republic, he wanted to outlive the Third Reich also.

Laval chose to run off to Spain. He knew no one in France would dare to come forward in defense of a scoundrel like himself. But Petain played a different card.

In Switzerland he was greeted like a conqueror. The country which was once the land of William Tell had become a land of hotel porters who throw the doors wide open to notable spies and rich renegades. The Swiss did not grudge the marshal either narcissus or milk chocolate. So he plucked up courage.

On the French border he was met, not by policemen with handcuffs, but by a general who saluted him. There were "good souls" everywhere who took care of everything. I recently read in a Paris paper that the special train which brought Petain to Paris from the border cost the

French government around 175,000 francs.

Yet the day of the trial has come. Petain is now confronted, not by compassionate Swiss, nor by diplomats, nor even by the secret patrons who turned Fort Montrouge into a rest home. He is confronted by the French people. On August 12, 1941, the marshal declared: "In 1917, I suppressed mutiny in the army. In 1940, I put a stop to panic flight. Now I want to save you Frenchmen from yourselves."

He miscalculated: Frenchmen saved themselves, both from the Germans and from Petain.

Now the marshal will have to meet Themis face to face. And, however debilitated that goddess may have become in the mansions of Saint-Germain and Auteuil, she will not dare cover with a marshal's cloak this man who used his cloak to cover the assassination of the French Republic.

The trial of Petain is the trial of the entire Fifth Column. His accuser is the French people who proved their moral strength during the years of the resistance. And they bring forward their accusation, not only in order to rid the earth of one vile old man, but also in order to put an end to the semi-Petains, the semi-Lavals, to those military men who cast longing eyes at the title of "Chief," to put an end for all time to the influence of the turbid waters of Vichy which spread all over France, preventing a talented, courageous and freedom-loving people from building up a state truly worthy of them.

'The Peoples of the World'

A nine volume series entitled *The Peoples of the World* is under preparation in the Ethnography Institute of the Academy of Sciences.

The volumes on Siberia and Central Asia are ready for the press. Work is underway on the volumes on Europe, America, Oceania, Australia and the Caucasus. The editor-in-chief of the publication is Director of the Ethnography Institute Sergei Tolstov. The most eminent geographers and ethnographers of Moscow, Leningrad, the Ukraine, the Caucasus and Siberia are taking part in this work.

VOLGA RIVER EXPRESS

Many foreign visitors to the USSR will remember the large gold star studded with precious stones and mounted on a 70-foot steeple high above the airy Khimki River station of the Moscow-Volga Canal. An excursion to the Khimki reservoir was a favorite Sunday trip from Moscow before the war.

When the Germans approached Khimki in 1941, the station was turned into a fortress and became part of the defense of the Soviet capital. The building, formerly brightly illuminated, was blacked out, its gold star well camouflaged.

But by the end of 1944, the Khimki station was livelier than ever. For the first time in its history, it received a party of passengers direct from Astrakhan, after a voyage of 2000 miles from the Caspian Sea. For the Moscow dock to receive the fast Volga riverboat expresses was unprecedented. During this navigation season, passengers arrived from the Kama River along the Moscow-Molotov line.

Representatives of the Allied powers arriving in Moscow rarely fail to visit the canal. Excursions are made by British and American airmen and sailors, by representatives of various foreign business circles and embassy staffs. All are warmly received at Khimki station.

The large gold star has been stripped of its camouflage, and is now being polished. Resplendent after its renovation, the ceiling and walls of the terminal are once more covered with frescoes. A special section is reserved for passengers' children, for whom a dormitory, dining room, playroom and shower baths are provided. The playrooms are fitted with nursery-size furniture, and the walls are covered with pictures from fairy tales.

From Khimki station, granite and concrete quaysides lead to the freight docks of the northern port of the canal. During the war this small Moscow port assumed great importance. Enormous cargoes were received there. When the Soviet Union temporarily lost the Donbas, and wood instead of coal had to be used in the war factories of the capital, timber was rafted to Moscow along the canal. Other cargoes included salt, machines, wheat and manufactured goods.

The mightiest riverboats now visit the northern port. One of them is the great refrigerator ship, the *Admiral Nakhimov*, which brings fresh fish from the Caspian Sea. Huge barges transport Baskunchak salt; Archangelsk sends timber to this point; Baku sends oil.

The State Institute of Machine Building for the Coal Industry has designed new equipment for the transportation of coal. Of particular value is a scraping transporter with a capacity of 60 tons of coal per hour, twice as much as the shaker belts now in operation. The consumption of electric current has been reduced to one-third. By this method coal can be conveyed horizontally as well as vertically.

In 1944, the first oil caravans to make a direct voyage, sailed from Astrakhan to Moscow. The largest and most powerful ships of the Volga Oil Flotilla were chosen for the journey, including the *Academician Gubkin*, the *Sviyaga* and the *Balkhna*.

These voyages were made possible by the increased depth of the passage between Gorky and Rybinsk on the completion of the great reservoir, the Rybinsk Sea. Until then only small rugs and barges with a cargo capacity of no more than 1,000 tons could negotiate the passage to the northern port.

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August 12—Physical Culture Day

Athletics are an important and permanent feature in the life of the Soviet Union. In pre-Soviet times an athletic club with 100 members was considered large, and occasional clubs with smaller memberships were to be found only in large cities. There was no financial support from the State, and clubs depended exclusively on membership dues. Higher school students were excluded. Under such conditions there could be no talk of general athletic skill, although certain Russian professional athletes—like the wrestlers I. Poddubny, I. Zaikin, I. Shemyakin, V. Vakhturov and I. Romanov—won international fame.

The Soviet sports system was therefore "a new structure on a new foundation." Training for labor and defense form the basis of Soviet athletics. Sports—not an end in themselves, but part of the general cultural life of the country—are a means of creating a spiritually healthy and physically sound generation.

An expression of the nationwide nature of Soviet athletics is the program known as G. T. O.—the initial letters of the watchword *Gotov k Trudu i Oborone*—Ready for Labor and Defense. Millions of people in the Soviet Union have passed the G. T. O. examinations.

The institution of the G. T. O. program has played an important part in the development of athletics in the Soviet Union, raising their level and emphasizing their importance. The program gave rise to new popular forms of mass contests such as cross-country races in the summer and ski runs in the winter, in each of which an average of 4-5,000,000 people take part annually throughout the Union. In 1943 the cross-country races drew about 9,000,000 participants.

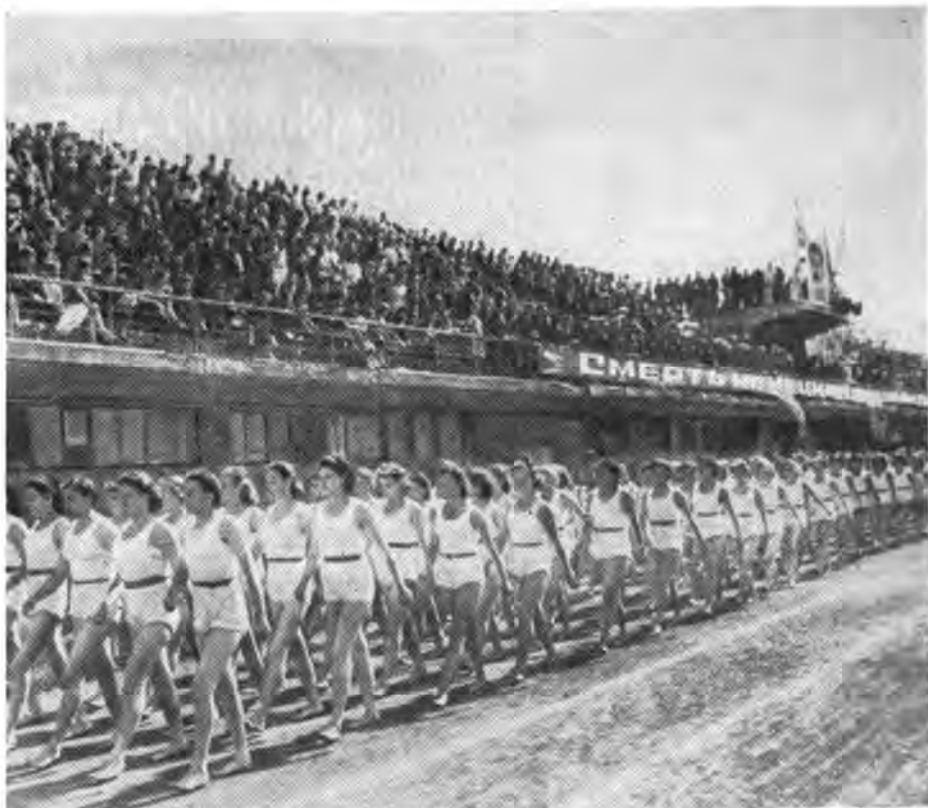
Since 1934, 7,000,000 persons have

earned the G. T. O. badge of the first class and 94,000, the second, higher class, while 2,000,000 have won the special badge for juveniles.

The regulation of activities is in the hands of committees on physical culture and athletics, united in the All-Union Committee for Physical Culture and Sports under the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR. Every year a country-wide Physical Culture Day is held in Moscow. Representatives of all Republics, the athletes from dozens of nationalities,

gather together for the All-Union meets.

Membership in the numerous athletic clubs of the Soviet Union is voluntary. With the exception of the *Dynamo* and *Spartak*, the clubs have been established by the trade unions and include in their membership workers from various branches of industry. Before the war there were 86 such clubs embracing 62,054 smaller groups. During the war two new clubs have been added to these: *Smena* (The Shift) and *Trudovye Rezervi* (Labor Reserves). The first includes junior



Nurses and medical workers of Leningrad front-line hospitals march in a sports review held during the war

athletes of children's physical culture schools, of which there are about 150; the second unites hundreds of thousands of trade school pupils.

In the countryside athletic activities are carried on through groups set up at collective farms.

There are as many as 30 forms of athletic contests listed in the official meets. Before the war annual championships were run by athletic clubs, schools, and Red Army and Navy units, in the cities, regions, territories, Republics and, finally, there are All-Union tournaments. In addition separate inter-club and city matches and those between military organizations and the like were widely encouraged. For example, in 1941 there were about 140,000 meets in which 6,500,000 persons took part.

The organization of athletics on a mass scale is facilitated by the fact that all participation is free of charge.

There are so-called membership dues, but they are so insignificant (less than the fare for one trolleybus ride to the gym and back) that they are more sym-



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The Soviet Offensive in Manchuria

The following dispatch was written by a PRAVDA Far Eastern correspondent on the portico of Japanese barracks at the foothills of "Camel" hill, from which the samurai had been dislodged after stubborn resistance:

The Camel, a craggy, steep and rocky hill 700 meters high, dominates the surrounding terrain and is a really modern fortress. From here one can distinctly see Japanese shells bursting on the slope of a neighboring height and hear the machine gun rattle.

It was raining heavily at night when the order for attack was given. Enveloped in an impenetrable darkness, Manchuria lay before our men. Despite the bad weather the troops could hear engines roaring overhead in the dark sky. These were Soviet bombers heading in the direction of the Japanese airdrome. . . .

The cold night's downpour yields to the exhausting heat of day. An incessant avalanche of military equipment contin-

ues to stream along the roads. Tractors drag heavy guns. Amidst the taiga hills overgrown with young forests and shrub moves an endless stream of light guns, heavy mortars, pontoons, "Katyusha" rocket guns, self-propelled guns, ammunition trucks and field kitchens.

The sappers have already laid several kilometers of roads on Manchurian territory. But these roads cannot contain all the vehicles and they move along the mountain slopes in several rows, crushing the shrubs.

The war experience gained by Red Army troops in the West is particularly evident here, both in big and small matters. It is evident at a small bridge where the traffic regulator prevents "jams." It can also be seen from the fact that promptly after the wires are strung up on poles the signalmen place in the ground permanent, not temporary, telegraph and telephone poles. It is also evident from the way the infantry, continuing its advance, confidently by-passes in-

dividual centers of resistance which the Japanese considered impregnable; specially assigned elements moving in the wake of the infantry's advance will destroy these centers.

While these lines are being written, an aerial combat of Japanese fighters and Yaks is in progress overhead. The Japanese pilots try to withdraw from combat but our fighters never let them escape.

During the day our fliers made the acquaintance of Japanese tactics—Jap pilots fly at low altitudes singly and suddenly emerging from behind the hills, make a short burst and hasten to make off.

The offensive of our troops continues to develop successfully.

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In the grim days of the people's Patriotic War large numbers of athletes volunteered for the Army. Many of them were active in the guerrilla movement. Nearly the entire Leningrad Institute of Physical Culture joined a partisan detachment.

Athletes are chalking up records now on the production front, at war plants and are training the youth for military service, as well as carrying on training in Red Army units in such sports as skiing. They are also doing their share at Army hospitals where they conduct classes in restorative gymnastics.

Many Soviet athletes have won orders and medals of the Soviet Union for their bravery in battles with the German-fascist invaders.

Flotilla of Fifteen Rivers

By Lieutenant N. Lanin

The fate of the Dnieper Flotilla in this war was both tragic and fortunate. Tragic because, in the autumn of 1941, when the German hordes overran the Ukraine, the crews cut off from the Dnieper estuary had to sink their own ships, and fortunate because three and a half years later the Flotilla was reestablished and later defeated Berlin. And if in September 1941 their fellow comrades beached the lot of the Dnieper sailors, in May 1945 they envied them.

I myself experienced the bitter days of 1941 when the Flotilla, encountering the enemy in the area of the River Pina, had to withdraw to the Pripiet and the Dnieper, where the route east stopped. And when the Dnieper was already forced on several sectors by the enemy, our Soviet monitors, gunboats and armored launches continued to operate at isolated points between crossings. They engaged enemy tanks, repulsed air attacks, and helped guard units cross from the western to the eastern bank of the river. Some camouflaged ships, behind wooded banks in a remote estuary, continued the struggle in the enemy rear. And not one of the ships fell into the hands of the Germans. When all the ammunition and fuel was used up, the sailors scuttled their vessels and made their way eastward on foot. I will never forget the grim faces of the crews on the day they sank their ships, nor their vow to return and pay the fascists off.

I again heard the oath on the Volga, near Stalingrad, where the Dnieper sailors were given new ships. After the Pina, Pripiet, Berezina and the Dnieper, the Volga was the fifth, but not the last waterway where the sailors fought.

When the Red Army began its famous Stalingrad offensive the Dnieper sailors started their return trip west. From the Volga the armored boats were conveyed by rail as far as Chernigov, the ancient Russian town located on the Desna. And in the autumn of 1943 the Flotilla began its campaign on 15 rivers and numerous canals stretching for 2,000 kilometers, a river which did not slacken until the fleet reached the heart of Germany.

A torpedo boat of the Black Sea Fleet on patrol on the sea communications of the Germans off the shores of the Crimea



From the Desna the ships were moved to the Dnieper. In the summer of 1944 the Flotilla distinguished itself in the battles for Bobruisk on the River Berezina, and for Luninets and Pinsk on the Pina. The detachments landed in the enemy rear disorganized the German defense line, while the ships' guns gave valuable support to the advancing Red Army units.

Winter found the sailors on the Vistula. In January the gunboats cooperated with the Red Army in reducing the enemy defenses before Warsaw. But then the front moved farther west and the Flotilla was left in an icebound river in the rear of Soviet troops.

At this point it would seem that the war had ended for the Dnieper seamen, since the small rivers and canals joining the Vistula with the Oder were blocked by dozens of blown up bridges and locks. It should have taken months to clear a route, but the Dnieper sailors had their own views. They were confident they would get through to the Oder as successfully as they had to the western Bug, where the crews had to push their ships through shallow waters for a distance of a hundred kilometers.

In early spring, the boats sailed with the ice down the Vistula to Bromberg, where the Bromberg Canal, blocked in 36 places by wrecked bridges, confronted

them. Acting as sappers, they made passages for their ships by blowing up the wreckage. In some places they had to flood half the compartments to allow the ships to pass under the demolished bridges. Overcoming all obstacles the ships forged ahead and reached the Warta first and then the Oder, where they overtook the forward detachments of the Red Army and were just in time to take part in the general offensive against Berlin. And when the thousands of guns began to pound the German fortifications before the Nazi capital, the ships of the Flotilla did their share.

The Flotilla played a notable part in the Battle for Berlin. A detachment of marines under Lieutenant Lupachev captured Fuerstenberg, a strong pocket of resistance on the approaches to Berlin, and hoisted the Navy flag on one of the tallest buildings. The ships of Lieutenant Kalinin broke through under enemy fire to the canal of the Oder-Spree and carried a full infantry division across the river. "The heroism of the ships' crews played a decisive part in the forcing of the Spree," said Lieutenant General Rosly, a veteran of the Berlin offensive.

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Stalingrad Reestablishes Its Medical Network

By N. Kachalkin



IN DZERZHINSKY SQUARE: As the foe was pushed back, the people of Stalingrad followed the course of the German retreat on a spectacular map in the center of the city

In the German destruction of Stalingrad, plants, factories and houses were uprooted and demolished, and the entire municipal economy was disrupted.

The damage to the public health services seemed irreparable. Nothing remained in the Stalingrad Region of the 25 hospitals with 1,870 beds, the clinics of the Medical Institute with 395 beds, 21 maternity homes with 549 beds, 112 nurseries with 6,422 beds, 100 polyclinics with their outpatient departments and dispensaries, the 26 women's and children's consultations, the 75 first aid and maternity aid centers, and the seven sanitary and epidemiological stations.

With the eviction of the fascist aggressors from the territory, medical workers set about rehabilitation, a task in which they received the wholehearted support of the Government and of medical institutions throughout the country. The People's Commissars of Health Miterev of the USSR and Tretyakov of the Russian SFSR, participated in the restoration of Stalingrad's medical prophylactic network. Within the first few months, 286 doctors and 224 nurses and doctor's assistants were sent to Stalingrad. Large quantities of essential medical equipment

were supplied including four X-ray apparatuses, 21 ambulances, 420,000 rubles worth of surgical instruments and other accessories, and the fittings for several maternity homes and nurseries.

The main burden of restoring the wrecked buildings was borne by the medical workers themselves. The doctors and nurses, besides carrying out their own duties, learned carpentry, bricklaying house-painting, etc., and put strenuous effort into the job.

In the Barrikady District of Stalingrad, doctor's assistant Anna Savelova, nurse Olga Kuprina and midwife Maria Churayeva headed volunteer brigades to reconstruct four consultation rooms of the polyclinic dental department, the isolation ward with 20 beds, the milk kitchen of the children's consultation department and the nurseries with 100 beds. Susanna Lebedeva, head of the department of health in the Novochirsky District, with the aid of the personnel, put all the damaged but not completely ruined buildings of the District hospital in working order with normal medical service. On her own initiative, Doctor Lydia Boyurova repaired and equipped the building of the rural hospital and obtained essential sup-

plies and instruments. Numerous examples like these might be cited.

Thanks to the extensive help of the State, the support of the population and the patriotic spirit and enthusiasm of the medical workers, not only were the original health services resumed—in some cases they were even extended. The city clinical hospital has increased its beds to 500; in 22 hospitals in the cities workers' communities and rural districts the number of beds has been brought up to 4,197. Now functioning normally are a tuberculosis hospital with 100 beds, a regional tubercular and venereal disease dispensary, 21 maternity homes with 234 beds, 200 nurseries with 6,000 beds, 200 polyclinics and outpatient departments, 77 women's and children's consultations, 500 first aid and maternity aid centers, and 29 sanitary and epidemiological stations.

The sharp increase in the number of sanitary and epidemiological stations as compared with the prewar total of 17 is explained by the fact that the Stalingrad Region, as the arena of battle and concentration of troops, was dangerously contaminated. The barbarous destruction of sanitary facilities in the urban and rural localities during the Germans' temporary residence resulted in contagions in the populated places. Add to this the presence of a large number of decomposing corpses and the absence of water supply and draining destroyed by the Germans and it becomes clear that the menace from epidemics was very great—but it was overcome.

The State granted huge sums for health protection measures. Expenditures on capital repairs and the restoration of the wrecked medical network in 1943 amounted to 1,485,000 rubles; in 1944, 4,440,000 rubles and in 1945, 2,957,000 rubles. Expenditures on new construction in 1943 were 5,526,000 rubles; in 1944, 4,970,000 rubles; and in 1945, 4,900,000 rubles.

There is revival in Stalingrad—new life and a strengthening of the old—which will be protected by the extensive network of public health facilities.

THE REVIVAL OF A CITY



Stalingraders build a new fence around Engels Square. Right, on the hollow ruins left by Nazi bombs, a new City Theater is arising. The drama-loving citizens have been promised an early opening



At the Krasny Oktyabr iron and steel production works the restored shops are now in full swing. Left, pouring steel from an open-hearth furnace, one of the seven which have resumed operation. On the right, workers remove a steel ingot



A check-up is made on the automatic telephone exchange which is being installed in the city on the Volga. Right, the girls embroidering are young pupils of a trade school in which textile designing and needlework are popular courses

History's Verdict on the Nest of Infamy and Aggression

By E. Tarle

Member, Academy of Sciences of the USSR

It has come to pass. The circle is complete. Destiny has brought down the verdict on the 75 years of the German military and diplomatic rape of Europe. Now Berlin lies in ruins at the feet of its conquerors.

Not only for 75 years, however, but for more than 200 has Berlin guided the creation of a bandit camp in the heart of Europe; it pursued this aim consistently, undeterred even by the gravest setbacks.

"Brandenburg got its grandeur from Berlin, Prussia got its grandeur from Brandenburg, and Germany got its grandeur from Prussia;" Felix Lampe, enthusiastic historian of the German capital, wrote in 1909.

All the leading German historians of varying political trends and outlooks were agreed that Berlin was not only the center for the massing of Prussia's armed might but also its spiritual capital; here the idea of a victorious march on Europe was conceived, and here each succeeding generation grew increasingly confident of its materialization.

Against whom was this incursion, which was to crown the historic edifice of Prussianism, to be directed? Surely not against one's nearest neighbors, not against Denmark or Austria. Nor yet against France, in whose plunder and humiliation Bismarck took such delight. No, a decade and a half after the empire was created Bismarck was old and out of the running. "The old man does not understand"—"*der Alte versteht es nicht*"—was first whispered and later declared outright in the leading business, manufacturing and military circles long before Bismarck was suddenly and unceremoniously ousted from the court chancellor.

What exactly was it that "*der Alte*" did not understand? He did not understand that Prussianism, which had served him so long and so faithfully in the organization of dashing and successful raids on his three neighbors, was not a passing phenomenon, that Berlin had not become the capital of a mighty empire merely to content itself with that role. Bismarck forgot what the famous Mirabeau had said about war being the national industry of Prussia,

and of course he had never even heard of the observation made by our own great writer Saltykov-Shchedrin to the effect that "Berlin was made for manslaughter."

Bismarck thought it possible to bring up whole generations on the faith that "might marches ahead of right," and that "empires are built on blood and iron," and then suddenly to draw the line and convince victorious Berlin that she must refrain from further dangerous adventures in the sphere of conquest. Yes, his ill-wishers who drove him out of the Wilhelmstrasse were quite right: the old man did not understand that military, diplomatic and industrial Berlin regarded the three successful incursions not as something completed but as the beginning of a new era of conquest.

The formula about Berlin having given its grandeur to Brandenburg, Brandenburg to Prussia, and Prussia taking possession of all Germany, had to be logically supplemented by one more final link—through Germany Berlin set itself the aim of taking possession of Europe, of Russia, of capturing two continents and gaining a firm foothold on two oceans.

No matter that slight unpleasantness occurred on the long historical path, that in August 1760 the Russians were in Berlin, that in October 1806 the Berlin town councillors, unable to get close enough to Napoleon's hand, respectfully kissed the mare on which he rode into the Prussian capital. Who is insured against reverses on the long and thorny path of deliberate plunder raised to a state theory, to the principal goal of a country's political being?

But all these annoying and embarrassing memories were forgotten. The triumph of 1870-71, the victory of Sedan, the formation of the empire, compensated for everything. "In our Berlin, in Berlin of the Sedan victory, we were told that we were the salt of the earth, and we believed it!"—"Man sagte uns wir seien Salz der Erde ueberhaupt, und wir haben es geglaubt!"—exclaims the Berlin poet.

And so the new imperialist Germany sought to take possession of "two oceans and two continents." Again it was Berlin

that led her forward to this achievement.

How splendidly, how smoothly, easily and painlessly it all began! How swiftly did Guderian's tanks reach the shore of one of the coveted oceans—the Atlantic! True, in the case of the other—the Pacific—there occurred a regrettable delay, but after all one could afford to wait. In the meantime Berlin basked in her own glory. I can never forget an article I read about Berlin of that period in some Swiss-German newspaper in the autumn of 1941—as is known, some Swiss can sometimes be as enthusiastic Berliners as the Berliners themselves.

"In the morning the Berliner is awakened by a knock on the door," gushed the author of that article. "It is the postman: outside stands a truckload of parcels. 'Send someone to get your things, please hurry?' he urges. Outside every Berlin house on all streets stand mail cars loaded with parcels from France, from the Balkans, from Norway, from Denmark, from Holland, from Greece, and especially, most especially, from Russia!"

Unfortunately I cannot remember this triumphant article in full. I can only recall that it was filled from beginning to end with a bubbling and sincere enthusiasm for those carloads of parcels, and ended with the fervent remark: "Yes, Berlin has deserved these parcels! For who but Berlin led the German people along the direct path toward them!"

Without this solemn apotheosis of world plunder, without this inspired Swiss hymn to the Berlin mail cars loaded with stolen property, the poetic story of Berlin would be as incomplete as the poetic story of St. Petersburg without Pushkin's *Bronze Horseman* or the poetic story of Paris without Victor Hugo's *Notre Dame de Paris*.

In all justice to German imperialism, it must be admitted that it was consistent. In Berlin, in Berlin's traditions, in Berlin's ability to stop absolutely at nothing and, what is most important, in its power to teach the same to others, the organizers of aggression found precisely what they needed.

All veils were removed, all restriction

discarded. Bismarck with his slogan of might before right was naive. The British Colonel Minshall who in 1942 published his book, *What To Do With Germany*, was amazed at the moral corruption, the utter shamelessness which the new Hitlerite Berlin furnished Germany before leading her off to plunder. He was shaken by the depth of the moral degradation, and he fully agreed with Lord Vansittart, who said that in no other country would it be conceivable for a noted pervert like Baldur von Schirach to be made the leader of the youth movement, or for a besotted creature like Ley to be placed at the head of the working class.

Colonel Minshall added that the vices and perversions peculiar to other Nazi leaders, including the Fuehrer himself, were quite common in Germany. Goering's slogan proclaimed in Berlin, "I place

my bet on the scoundrel," was most inspiring among the youth of the big towns. Goebbels noted approvingly in his radio broadcasts that "the Berlin youth is setting the pace for the young people throughout our vast fatherland."

"In big centers the mind more easily sheds its old shackling prejudices" was the reply given on the eve of the war to an American journalist in Berlin who delicately asked whether Berlin grammar school boys really enjoyed the "hardening of the nervous system," for which they were taken to dungeons to watch prisoners being tortured.

Now the Red Army is putting an end to this age-old nest of infamy and evil, this odious temple of political and moral corruption, this headquarters of aggression where plans to convert entire nations into dumb beasts of burden were hatched,

matured, organized and carried out.

Stalin's heroes are stamping out the fascist reptile in its nest. The Red Army and the troops of the Allies have won a great victory. They will not stop until they have rooted out and crushed the monster of Hitlerism. They will be ever wary, because they know full well that Berlin is not only a city, it is the very soul of Prussianism, the symbol of aggression, and that until Prussianism is annihilated victory can never be complete.

He who victoriously drove the German monsters from the Volga to the Spree, slashing them all the way, will never forget this. Neither will our Allies. The Munich experience of 1938 is too bitter a memory. The taking of Berlin was a great landmark on the eve of the final culmination of the sanguinary struggle.

SUNDAY IN GORKY

By N. Sosonkin

Last Sunday being a fine day, I decided to take a walk around the town of Gorky (formerly Nizhny Novgorod, in Central Russia) to see how people spend their rest day. I started out from the center of the city and headed for the heights which overlook the confluence of the Volga and the Oka. From there I descended to the landing stage where people were boarding small steamers leaving for the sandy beaches farther down the Volga.

Some passengers carried fishing tackle, others had portable gramophones and baskets with sandwiches and soft drinks. Some people carried hoes and spades, intending to work for an hour or so on their allotments outside the town, and then take it easy for the rest of the day.

The small steamers couldn't handle all the passengers so the big river boat had to be put into service. Presently nearly 200 boys and girls arrived at the landing-stage with their parents. A special steamer was to take them to a Pioneer camp.

I strolled back to the center of Gorky. As I climbed the hill I looked back at the river. The Volga and the Oka were congested with steamers, barges, sailboats, motor launches and rowboats. I saw a water-sports stadium and bathing beach near the railway bridge. The sands of the

stadium were filled with people watching a swimming meet between two sports clubs. I could hear the applause when the winner of the diving contest was announced.

Proceeding, I reached the main boulevard of the city. Here in the shade of generous ancient oaks some elderly people were resting.

I sat down on a bench to read my copy of a Gorky newspaper. On the back page I read the announcement of a cross-country motorcycle race to start at two o'clock from the suburban village of Shchelkovo.

Another item announced that bicycle races were to begin at seven o'clock on the Moscow highway. At the same time a boxing meet for junior scrappers would start at the Dynamo Club. Other sports events mentioned included volleyball contests between teams of the Sverdlov District and the Gorky House of the Red Army, and a track meet at the Dynamo sports grounds.

Suddenly I heard sounds of music not far from where I was sitting. An afternoon concert was beginning at the open-air theater farther down the boulevard. This event had been arranged under the auspices of the Gorky House of Amateur Art. I got up and headed for the concert.

Members of amateur musical groups rendered classic compositions and works by Soviet composers, as well as English and American songs.

The sun was setting when the concert ended and I noticed that the boulevard had now filled with young people. The older folk had gone home. Youths and girls strolled up and down, enjoying the cool fresh air and deciding where to spend the evening.

Theater-goers had the choice of *Rigoletto* at the Opera House, *Lad from Our Town* at the Dramatic Theater, or *Distant Point* at the Young Spectators Theater. Then there was a variety show with Moscow artists at the summer theater of the House of the Red Army.

The main attraction at the circus was Kio, the popular magician—with seventy-five assistants! Soviet and foreign films were being shown at cinemas, workers' clubs and palaces of culture.

I decided to spend the evening in the Central Park and I returned home at midnight so pleased with my Sunday in Gorky, that I decided to set down my impressions at once so that you also may know something of the abundant and varied life of this ancient, yet ever-young Russian city upon two rivers.

Notes on Soviet Life

Nine thousand Soviet railwaymen, the leading executives of the People's Commissariat of Railways as well as workers in the least significant jobs, have been decorated for the successful fulfillment of the assignments of the Government and military command, in organizing the transportation of war and civilian supplies during the Great Patriotic War. Among those receiving awards are the employees of the 24 main Soviet railway lines, including the Far Eastern, the Maritime, the Moscow-Donbas, the Stalino, the Southern and the Baltic.

★

Rehabilitation of the power system of the Ukraine has been so swift that all Ukrainian cities now have electric current. In 1945 the power supply of the Republic will be doubled.

★

A herbarium stolen by the German invaders from the Nikitsky botanical gardens in Yalta has been returned to the Crimea from Germany. This collection gathered in the course of 125 years consists of 43,000 specimens of Crimean and Caucasian flora.

Another herbarium of 100,000 specimens, taken from Voronezh University, has been discovered in the Berlin botanical gardens.

★

Demobilized veterans needing rest and treatment will be sent by the Leningrad trade unions to homes and sanatoriums in the Kirov Islands in Leningrad and in the Karelian Isthmus.

★

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic has approved an anthem with words by the poet Semper and music by the composer Ernesank.

Russian military aeronautics will celebrate its 75th anniversary year. On July 28, 1870, the first Army captive balloon was sent up and observations were made for three days. In 1908 the first Russian dirigible, Uchebny, appeared. Veteran Russian airmen, Professor Anoshchenko, stratonauts Birnbaum and Modunov, the oldest Russian flier, Rossinsky, and others are in charge of anniversary events.

★

The Kumyk State national theater which observes its 15th anniversary with a first performance of Shakespeare's *Othello*, was established by native youths with the encouragement of the Government. At first they performed in mountain valleys, their stage an open glade.

One of the minor nationalities inhabiting the North Caucasus, Kumyk has shown great interest in the drama. Some 500,000 people have attended productions in the short history of the State theater.

★

Passenger shipping on the Black Sea between the Crimea and the Caucasus has opened. The Ukraine was the first to cover this route.

★

A council for coordination of scientific activities of the Academies of Sciences of the Union Republics has been set up in Moscow by decision of the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR. The chief program will be the mobilization of all forces to solve the most important theoretical and practical scientific problems.

★

Of the college students who graduate this summer, 10,000 will go to different parts of the country to work in scientific institutions, in the factories and on the farms, and on the railroads and river boats.

The Maritime Province will observe the 15th anniversary of the death of Vladimir Arsenyev, outstanding Russian explorer of the Far East, and a gifted author. Some of Arsenyev's manuscripts will be published. Special newsreels showing the route of Arsenyev's travels are being made. Among the exhibits dedicated to the famous scientist will be Arsenyev's correspondence with Maxim Gorky, with former President of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR Vladimir Komarov, and other well-known authors and scientists, and his travel diaries and books in Russian, English and other languages.

★

An exhibition of Russian lacquer work has opened in Moscow, showing the creations of world famous artists from the centers of the Russian handicraft industry of the villages and farms of the Lestovo District—Palekh, Mstera, Fedoskino, Holui, Zhestov and Khokhloma.

★

An Academy of Sciences expedition to carry out anthropological, geographical and archeological research has arrived in the Chukotka Peninsula to spend several years.

Information Bulletin

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AUG 26 1945

The End of Japanese Aggression

vestia wrote editorially August 15:

The cause of general peace, of freedom and the security of nations has triumphed! The last aggressor power—Japan—faced with inevitable defeat, has surrendered unconditionally to the United Nations. Thus the hotbed of war in the Far East has been crushed. The Second World War is over! The peoples of the Soviet Union and the freedom-loving nations of the whole world greet with joy and pride the news of Japan's unconditional surrender.

On August 9 the Soviet Union entered the war against Japan with the object of defeating the last great power which after the defeat and surrender of Hitlerite Germany stubbornly insisted on the continuation of the war. The entrance of the USSR was to draw nearer the advent of peace and thereby to reduce the number of victims and to save the nations further sufferings. The war against Japan was to insure the absolute security of the Eastern frontiers of our country and the interests of the Soviet people. The Japanese imperialist aggressors encroaching on our State frontiers have always been the enemies of our people.

The Japanese fascist-imperialists had created a hotbed of war in the Far East and always threatened the peace and security of the Soviet people. Voicing the attitude of the whole Soviet people, which warmly welcomed the decision of the Government to declare war on Japan, a Moscow worker said: "An end must be put to aggressors once and for all. And the quicker the better."

Obedying the will of the Soviet Government and the people, the gallant soldiers

of the victorious Red Army bore down upon the enemy. The powerful, vigorous blow of the Soviet troops stunned the Japanese samurai. And the iron tread of the Soviet Armies caused immediate repercussions in Tokyo.

On August 10 the Japanese Foreign Minister visited the Soviet Ambassador and stated that Japan was ready to accept the terms of the Allied declaration of July 26, which the Soviet Union had joined. A similar statement was made through neutral Sweden to the diplomatic representatives of the United States, Great Britain and China. In the course of subsequent negotiations intended to make the statement of the Japanese Government more precise, the four great Allies—the USSR, the United States, Great Britain and China—acted in accord and with solidarity. Yesterday, August 14, the Japanese Government announced that the Emperor of Japan confirmed his readiness to sign the Unconditional Surrender and to issue all the necessary orders and instructions to the Japanese armed forces wherever located immediately to cease active operations, to surrender arms and to fulfill any other demand of the representatives of the Allied Supreme Command.

Thus the war has ended in the complete and final victory of the great freedom-loving democratic powers. The road has been opened to general peace among nations. The Soviet Union, which only recently bore the brunt of the war against the chief and most dangerous aggressor—Hitlerite Germany—has made its great contribution to the defeat of imperialist Japan. Inspired by the great ideals of the

struggle for peace in all the world and for the complete eradication of fascism and aggression in all their manifestations, the Red Army self-sacrificingly and bravely discharged its duty. These soldiers knew well their enemy—the Japanese fascist-imperialists. They also remembered the Japanese crimes committed in the years of intervention, the treacherous killing of Soviet frontier guards during the period of "peace." The glorious fighting traditions of the heroes of Khasan and Halakhin-Gol guided the Soviet soldiers. They were inspired by victory, they were led by the great leader of the peoples, the great strategist Generalissimo Stalin.

The Red Army is the reliable bulwark of our great country, the bulwark of universal peace. It came as liberator to the countries of western Europe enslaved by the Hitlerites; it also came to martyred Manchuria—victim of the Japanese "New Order."

The precious and noble blood of the Soviet people has not been shed in vain. The predatory plans of greedy Japanese imperialism have collapsed. The Far Eastern warmongers share the inglorious fate of the German-facists bandits. As far back as 1936, Stalin spoke about the two hotbeds of military aggression—imperialist Japan and fascist Germany. Now both have been eliminated. The forces of progress have won. The aggressor has been thrown into the dust.

The banners of the great coalition of the freedom-loving nations are flying victoriously. The long-awaited dawn of the peaceful labor of nations is rising over the world.

The Schools of the USSR

by N. Parfenov

Member of Collegium of Russian SFSR Commissariat of Education

This is the 15th year since the establishment of universal compulsory elementary education in the Soviet Union—fifteen years which constitute the entire epoch of public education.

Millions of people in tsarist Russia were totally illiterate. Only 4.7 per cent of the population actually attended school, i.e., 47 out of 1,000 inhabitants, and the tsarist government spent the pitifully small sum of 80 kopeks per capita on education.

A prerequisite for the building of a Socialist society was a higher level of culture and knowledge, and under the leadership of Lenin and Stalin the Soviet State at once set about instituting a system of universal education.

On October 16, 1918, the initial decree was passed, introducing in place of the various discriminatory schools of pre-Revolutionary Russia a unified system of general elementary and secondary education covering a period of nine years for children between the ages of 8 and 17. All privileges of class, religion or the like were annulled. The upkeep of the schools was assumed by the State and education was free. Needy pupils received aid from

the State, such as school supplies, clothes, shoes and lunch. The resolution of the national question was reflected in the handling of public education: lessons were conducted in the native language of each region. Backward areas were helped to develop a written language so that education could be pursued in the native tongue.

The schools inherited from tsarist Russia were wholly inadequate to the new demands. By the 1927-28 school year over 13,000 new schools were opened, attended by more than 3,600,000 children.

In the following year the Soviet Government spent 1,116,800,000 rubles on public education—that is, 8 rubles per capita, instead of 80 kopeks as in pre-Revolutionary days.

As its wealth increased, the Soviet Union was able to provide education for all the children of the huge country. On August 14, 1930, the Government passed a decree introducing universal compulsory education throughout the land. In the following four years, as the result of further extension in the number of schools, universal elementary education became a reality. As compared with 8,770,000 elementary school pupils in

the USSR in the 1928-29 school year in 1931-32 there were 13,456,000.

A decree of May 16, 1934, divided the schools into three types: elementary, junior secondary, and secondary, with a unified course of studies. Elementary schools consisted of four classes; junior secondary schools, seven; secondary, ten. At this time compulsory junior secondary education was inaugurated.

The next task, according to the Third Five-Year Plan (1938-42), called for universal secondary education in the cities and the extension of junior secondary education to the farm areas.

In tsarist Russia a secondary education preparing youth for higher learning had been inaccessible to the wide masses—the number of schools had been insufficient and tuition high, along with social and various other barriers. By 1938-39 the number of secondary schools reached 16,000 with a total attendance of 11,000,000, a significant increase over 1914-15 when 1,950 schools had an enrollment of 635,000.

Expenditures for public education increased, reaching 113 rubles per capita in 1938. In 1939, 21,051,000,000



Many schools arrange to keep the children after classes. Here, teachers are directing games and supervising recreation. Right, luncheon is served in the dining room of the Radischev school in Moscow



Geography students at the Radischev school in Moscow follow the teacher closely, using their desk globes. On the right, second-graders of the Kishinev railway school in the capital of the Moldavian SSR are earnestly at work

bles were allocated for public education. Although the country was at war in 1944, 21,100,000,000 rubles were spent for this purpose.

Between 1933 and 1940, 23,000 new school buildings were erected throughout the Soviet Union. There were already 2,000 schools in 1938-39, compared with 105,000 in 1914-15. Numerous institutions were opened for the training of teachers to staff the expanded school network. The Academy of Pedagogy of the Russian SFSR founded in 1943 was another milestone on the road to universal education.

Although Hitler's perfidious attack on the Soviet Union deferred the complete realization of universal compulsory secondary education, Soviet schools continued the program of educating the younger generation. In the war years the system of public education in the various Republics was improved. New types of schools were founded—Suvorov, Zhukov and Nakhimov schools—open to war orphans as well as to the sons of Red Army men and guerrilla fighters.

Besides the general public education there is now a system of factory and village schools. The course of studies in these schools is accompanied by training in special skills. Students receive maintenance at the expense of the State. There are also schools in factories and on farms carrying a unified program for the

adolescents who because of the war have gone to work.

Courses of study for adults are extremely popular. In 1939 the country had 10,000 such institutions with a total attendance of over 750,000. In this field the Soviet State is an innovator: tsarist Russia had no such program at all.

The total enrollment of the Soviet Union in 1939, including old and young, was 47,400,000—in other words, practically one out of every four persons went to school. This, incidentally, explains the remarkable fact that all recruits drafted into the Red Army in recent years have without a single exception been literate. A large number have had full secondary education.

The introduction of universal elementary education extended far beyond mere organizational questions, for Soviet schools introduced great changes in the scope and content of the curriculum. As teaching expanded, the role and significance of the teacher changed. To form the child's outlook on life in the spirit of humanism, free of superstition and prejudice, the Soviet school follows the ideas and principles of the foremost thinkers and humanists of mankind. Dry formalism—memorization and stuffing the child's head with useless facts—is rooted out. The work of the school is based on respect for the child's individuality; the program aims at developing creative initiative and a conscious mastery of the principles of

science and knowledge. Elements of esthetic training such as drawing, singing and music are included.

While the basic principles of the Soviet school have remained unchanged, several reforms have been carried through in its work. Separate education for boys and girls has been introduced in the seven-year and ten-year schools in the large cities. The grading system has been changed from the "excellent, good, fair" system to five levels of attainment. The separation of sexes in the schools permitted greater stress on physical and military training and discipline, and, segregated, the children showed better concentration in their activities.

The rearing of the child in the Soviet Union is in the hands of the family and the school jointly; the parents are members of school committees and maintain close contact with the teachers, who often visit the pupils in their homes, advise the parents and discuss the progress of their charges.

Great emphasis is placed on the health of pupils. Children receive special care and feeding, and in the summer time are sent to summer camps and country homes. During the summer of 1944 about 1,500,000 children spent their vacations out of the city.

These successes of public education are fruits of the genuine cultural revolution in the USSR, made possible by the Soviet Revolution of 1917.

The Power and Vitality of the Collective Farm System

By A. Bolgov



Radiophoto

Kuban farmers gather the crops by hand wherever machines cannot be brought in. These women are active in the 1945 harvesting campaign

Modern war sets agriculture tremendous tasks. Armies of many millions require large quantities of foodstuffs; industry needs unheard-of quantities of raw materials. Under the system of individual peasant farming the USSR could not have won the war against Hitler Germany. For, as Lenin pointed out, without large stocks of grain it is impossible to form a huge army and move it freely or to organize war industry.

But during all the years of the war collective farming was able to insure an uninterrupted supply of food to the Red Army and the country, and of raw materials to industry, despite the temporary loss of such important agricultural districts as the Ukraine, the Don and the Kuban. The food which the Soviet Union received from its Allies, valuable though it was, constituted only an insignificant part of what the collective farms sent to the front.

The large-scale mechanized collective farm system vastly increased the productivity of labor and thereby the amount of marketable produce. Industry received a new agricultural base which played a tremendous role in strengthening the military might of the country.

In the last decade, having insured the great cultural progress of the village, the collective farm system gave the Army loyal and educated cadres capable of mastering modern war equipment. Millions of tractor drivers and operators of other machines played a vital part in the formation of the tank and artillery units of the Red Army. It is also commonly known that the rural intelligentsia which had grown up during the years of collectivization constituted the nucleus of guerrilla detachments. The collective farmers did not fight blindly; they knew that they were fighting for their own farms.

All this shows that the collective farm system proved not only the most effective means for the economic and cultural rise of the village in the years of peaceful construction, but also the most effective means for mobilizing all forces for repelling the enemy.

The first task which the war set the collective farms was to replace the labor lost. As is well known, in the First World War this labor shortage led to the degradation of agriculture and to disaster.

Because of the high degree of mechanization and the collective organiza-

tion of farming, it was possible to utilize the entire able-bodied village population. Notwithstanding the departure of the men for the Army, the total number of hands engaged in Socialized farming decreased only 7 per cent from 1940 to 1943. In some regions, with enthusiastic women and youngsters eager to operate the farm machinery, the labor supply actually increased. Along with this, the number of workdays to the credit of every collective farmer rose during that period from 262 to 346 per year. Thus the collective farms coped with the agricultural work.

A great part of collective farming during the war was done by women. In several regions of the Volga, the Urals and Western Siberia, for example, the proportion of women's labor on collective farms doubled between 1939 and 1945. During that period there were also more in leading positions; the number holding the post of chairmen of the collective farms increased from 0.6 per cent to 5.6 per cent; field brigade leaders, from 3.5 to 38.5 per cent; and managers of livestock ranches, from 13 per cent to 56 per cent.

To replace the men mobilized into the Red Army the mass training of qualified cadres became necessary. During the first two and a half years of war 1,264,000 tractor drivers, combine operators and other skilled workers of the machine and tractor stations were trained on collective farms, and 2,610,000 collective farmers had other special courses.

With all the difficulties of the war, the collective farms in the interior extended their sowing area of winter crops by 4,000,000 acres in the fall of 1941. Last year the area of sowings exceeded that of 1943 by 17,500,000 acres. The 1945 State sowing plan provided for a further increase of more than 20,000,000 acres including about 15,000,000 acres in the collective farms. This plan was over-filled by the collective and individual farmers.

No less important tasks were accom-

plished in the sphere of livestock-raising. As compared with 1940, the number of animals on the collective farms of the interior increased as follows: cattle, 1.3 per cent; sheep and goats, 12.9 per cent; and pigs, 2.3 per cent. In 1942 the collective farms showed a further rise in the number of cattle by 11 per cent, and sheep and goats also, by 11 per cent.

While donating many head of cattle to the liberated districts, in 1943 many collective farms in the interior achieved further gains in livestock. The cattle increased by 9 per cent, sheep and goats by 3 per cent and pigs by 8 per cent. And along with this many collective farms considerably exceeded the schedule of deliveries to the State and contributed to the Red Army fund large quantities of meat and other such produce.

New bases for the production of grain and industrial crops in Siberia, the Urals, the Volga area and in the Central Asia Republics were created during the war; and the area under potatoes and other vegetables was considerably extended, as was livestock husbandry around the cities and industrial centers of the Urals and the Kuzbas.

The growth of labor productivity on the collective farms during the war is clearly shown by the extension of the sowing area as well as by the gross and marketable production per able-bodied

collective farmer. Thus taking the gross production of 1938 to 1940 per able-bodied collective farmer as 100, labor productivity was 110 in the 1941-43 period in Western Siberia, 113.4 in the Volga area, 143.6 in the Urals and 153.5 in the other agricultural regions.

During the war unprecedented Socialist competition developed between the Regions, Territories and Republics, with the object of surpassing the gross production records and for the fulfillment ahead of schedule of plans for the deliveries of produce to the State.

This friendly rivalry in the villages brought to the fore many new masters of Socialist agriculture who, notwithstanding the difficulties of wartime, made world records in crop yields, in cattle-raising, and in the most efficient utilization of tractors. The feats of Daria Garmash, Koroleva, Anna Utkina (Stalin Prize winner), Lyuskova, Tamara Krutova and many other collective farmers—both men and women—will always be remembered by the Soviet people as the manifestation of a high sense of duty toward the general interests of the Nation and of a strong feeling of Soviet patriotism.

In their activities the farmers were constantly supported by the Soviet Government. Contrary to the First World War when the peasant farms were left

to shift for themselves, State assistance never ceased in the Second World War. The machine and tractor stations continued to carry out a great part of the agricultural work which was of enormous importance for collective farm production especially in view of the labor shortage.

The supply to agriculture of fuel for tractors and other machines, although somewhat reduced, never failed, even in the most trying years of the war. Toward the end, the construction of new tractor works was completed, and those destroyed by the German invaders were in the process of restoration. Many collective farms in the liberated districts were provided with seeds.

The war inflicted great losses on agriculture and, especially in the districts that had been occupied by the enemy, the number of able-bodied workers and cattleherds markedly declined. The order of crop rotation was violated and the fields became overgrown with weeds. The fascist scoundrels looted and burned thousands of villages and hamlets. Now the collective farms are faced with the tremendous task of repairing the damage caused by the war and of the further development of Socialized farming.

Inspired by the victory over the enemy, the collective farmers are redoubling their efforts for the complete recovery of Soviet agriculture.

Monuments Preserved

The 19th-century necropolis is being restored at the Alexander Nevsky Monastery, where the outstanding representatives of Russian culture are buried. Here are the graves of the poets and writers, Zhukovsky, Krylov, Dostoevsky; the painters, Alexander Ivanov, Kramskoy, Shishkin; the actors, Martynov, Karatygin, Dovydiv, Komissarzhevskaya; the composers, Glinka, Borodin, Mussorgsky and Rimsky-Korsakov.

The monastery was founded in 1711 by Peter I on the bank of the Neva River, in commemoration of the victory over the Swedish troops in 1240. During the enemy blockade of Leningrad the necropolis was severely damaged by shells and bombs. But all the bronze parts of the monuments had been saved—carefully removed and hidden by the workers of the Museum of City Sculpture.



Lithuanian farmers greet Red Army soldiers passing through their fields

POLAND ACCLAIMS HER LIBERATORS



Radophotos
Outside Belvedere residence after the presentation of Orders to the Marshals. From left: Marshal G. K. Zhukov, President of the Polish National Council Bierut, Marshal K. K. Rokossovsky, and Prime Minister Osobka-Morawski

A grand welcome to Warsaw was extended to the celebrated Red Army leaders Marshals Zhukov and Rokossovsky, guests of the new democratic Provisional Government of National Unity.

At the airdrome, decorated with Soviet and Polish flags, the Marshals were received by Vice Premier Mikolajczyk, Commander-in-Chief of the Polish Army Marshal Rola Zymierski, Chief of the General Staff of the Polish Army Colonel General Korczic, and other Polish generals, and representatives of democratic parties and youth organizations. Among those present were the USSR Ambassador to Poland Lebedev and Chief of the USSR Military Mission in Poland Lieutenant General Shatilov. A Guard of Honor was drawn up.

On arrival Marshal Zhukov addressed the welcoming party and the crowd:

"Citizens of Warsaw, brothers in arms in the struggle against our common enemy—Hitlerite Germany: I take this pleasant opportunity to convey greetings to you on behalf of the Red Army generals, officers and men. The gallant Red Army troops, guided by our brilliant leader, Generalissimo of the Soviet Union Stalin, fought with enormous heroism and selflessness for the liberation of Poland and the Polish people from the yoke of the German invaders.

"A firm alliance and genuine friendship have been established between the

peoples of the Soviet Union and the Polish people. This friendship has been cemented with the blood of the sons and daughters of the peoples of our countries in the joint struggle against German imperialism. This friendship expresses the common interests and aspirations of our peoples and is deeply rooted in the history of the fight of the Slav nations against the German conquerors. The Gruenwald Battle was an excellent example of the good will between our peoples, established on the field of battle against the common enemy.

"The formation of the democratic Provisional Government of National Unity, which has been recognized by all the great powers and approved by the Berlin Conference of the three powers, is a victory for the Polish people, an important prerequisite for a stable postwar peace and security in Europe and the whole world. The Soviet people follow with admiration the efforts of the Polish people and rejoice in the rehabilitation of the economy and culture ruined by the Germans. And the people of the USSR offer their assistance to you.

"The leader of my country, the great Stalin, is personally concerned that the Polish people shall as early as possible heal the wounds inflicted by Hitlerite Germany.

"The friendship between the Soviet Union and Poland which arose during the

war, aimed at achieving the prosperity of our countries and the happiness of our peoples, will doubtless continue as well in the period of peaceful construction. To serve these lofty aspirations the Treaty of Friendship, Mutual Aid and Postwar Collaboration was signed. As Generalissimo Stalin said, this pact is of tremendous international significance since it denotes the consolidation of a united front of the United Nations against the common enemy in Europe—German imperialism.

"Long live the free, independent, democratic Poland, friend of the Soviet Union!

"Long live the Soviet Union—a sincere friend of Poland!"

Marshal Zhukov's concluding words brought forth a prolonged ovation.

Next to speak was Vice Premier Mikolajczyk. On behalf of the Polish Government of National Unity he cordially greeted Marshals Zhukov and Rokossovsky. Noting the decisive part played by the Red Army in routing the German-fascist invaders, Mikolajczyk expressed confidence that the overwhelmed enemy would never again be able to rise to threaten peace.

"I heartily welcome the Red Army heroes to Polish soil," Mikolajczyk said, "and I believe that the blood shed by Soviet and Polish soldiers will be the best guarantee of the collaboration of the great Soviet Union and free, sovereign Poland."

Representing the Polish Army, Marshal Rola Zymierski greeted the Marshals. Noting the services of Zhukov and Rokossovsky under whose direction Red Army troops ousted the German-fascist invaders from Poland, Marshal Rola Zymierski said:

"I salute the heroic Red Army which without sparing blood, sacrifice or effort expelled from Poland the age-old enemy of our peoples."

In conclusion Rola Zymierski hailed the Supreme Commander-in-Chief of the Red Army, Generalissimo Stalin.

From the airdrome Marshals of the Soviet Union Zhukov and Rokossovsky, accompanied by Vice Premier Mikolajczyk, Commander-in-Chief of the Polish Army Rola Zymierski, USSR Ambassador

to Poland Lebedev, Chief of the Military Mission of the USSR in Poland Lieutenant General Shatilov and others, drove through the Warsaw streets to Belvedere, residence of the President of the Polish National Council, where they were met by President Bierut and Prime Minister Osobka-Morawski.

In the presence of members of the Presidium of the Polish National Council, members of the Polish Government, Soviet and Polish generals, the diplomatic corps and representatives of Polish public bodies, Marshals Zhukov and Rokossovsky were solemnly presented the highest Polish orders.

President Bierut, who made the presentation, said: "Poland, which has suffered more than any other country from the German-fascist invasion, has been liberated by the heroic Red Army and its leaders, headed by Generalissimo Stalin. Today Warsaw is happy to receive those who liberated Poland and her capital.

"Presenting you, Marshals of the Soviet Union, the highest Polish combat decorations, I must tell you on behalf of the Polish people and the Polish National Council that the Polish people regard you as its heroes and will never forget your courage and valor, or the bloodshed and great sacrifices made by the heroic Red Army soldiers for the sake of Poland."

Marshal Zhukov received a blue ribbon with the *Virtuti Militari* Cross of the First Class with Star and Ribbon, and the Order of Gruenwald Cross of the First Class. Marshal Rokossovsky, who had previously been decorated with the Gruenwald Cross, was given the Order of *Virtuti Militari* First Class with a Star.

Stressing the exceptional and historic role played by the Red Army and Generalissimo Stalin in liberating Poland from the German-fascist invaders, Prime Minister Osobka-Morawski stated:

"The Red Army has greatly helped Poland in the rehabilitation of her ruined economy. Poland is now successfully rebuilding her life, and credit for this to a great extent goes to the Soviet people, to the Red Army and its great leader, Generalissimo Stalin."

In accepting the awards, Marshal Zhukov replied:

"At this solemn hour when we receive

the high combat decorations of the Polish State, for myself and Marshal Rokossovsky I cordially thank the Polish Government and the Polish people. We accept these designations as a token of your high appraisal of the skill and gallantry of the Red Army. Many thousands of Soviet soldiers who shed their blood on your land in the battles with the Slav's eternal enemy—the Germans—have opened to the Polish people the wide, bright road to new life, prosperity and happiness. In this sanguinary struggle against Hitlerite Germany we were not alone. Shoulder to shoulder with our soldiers the courageous sons of the Polish people fought against the Germans and fell in battle. In the battles for Warsaw, Gdansk and dozens of other Polish towns and thousands of villages, the young Polish Army showed its valiant strength and the Poles' patriotic hatred of the German oppressors.

"For centuries," Marshal Zhukov went on, "the German invaders deliberately fanned the struggle among the Slav peoples, trying to divide them, to sow discord, to enslave and doom them to death. Now an end has been put to this artificial division of Slavs. A sincere friendship and collaboration, based on equal rights and mutual respect, have taken

shape and asserted themselves between the Soviet Union and Poland."

Marshal Zhukov stressed the conclusions of the Berlin Conference regarding Poland. "Now," he said, "the decisions have become known to the whole world—that all the powers will render substantial aid to the Polish Provisional Government of National Unity and will protect its interests. Our Soviet people wholeheartedly rejoice at the bright prospect of the flourishing might, culture and welfare opening to the friendly Polish people."

Marshal Zhukov once more called attention to the solidarity of the two countries, and concluded: "We are particularly grateful to you, our friends and comrades in arms, for decorating us with the Orders of *Virtuti Militari* First Class with a Star, and with the Gruenwald Cross, instituted in memory of the joint great victory of the Russian, Polish, Czech and Lithuanian peoples over the conceited Teutonic warriors.

"Long live free, strong, independent, democratic Poland!

"Long live the closely knit family of fraternal Slav peoples and all freedom-loving nations of the world!

"Long live the eternal friendship of the peoples of the Soviet Union and Poland!"

A Family of Doctors

One of the 3,000 doctors recently decorated by the Soviet Government for outstanding service during the war is Dr. Leonid Libov, aged 71, who has been awarded the Order of the Red Banner of Labor.

Dr. Libov is the head of a whole family of doctors. His three sons, Alexander, Sergei and Leonid, followed him into the medical profession, and before the war worked as their father's assistants in the town of Lodeynoye Pole in the Leningrad Region. All three boys married medical graduates. Sergei's wife, Sophia, is a pathologist; Leonid's wife, Elena, an obstetrician; and Alexander's wife, Nadezhda, a medical research worker.

When the war came, their hospital and polyclinic were burnt down in a German air raid. All the young Libovs went to the front. Soon their father followed, joining

the Red Army at the age of 67, contrary to all call-up regulations. At first the whole family worked in one hospital, then the sons joined field hospitals. All became colonels in the Army Medical Service.

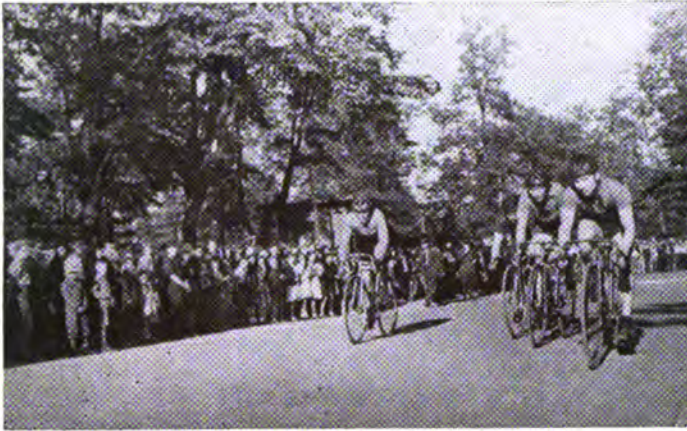
While working at the front, Alexander completed his doctor's thesis. Sergei, who holds three decorations, became an outstanding surgeon. Leonid, Junior, was awarded four decorations and accompanied the Army to Berlin.

When the Germans were driven from Leningrad, old Doctor Libov set to work to restore the Volkhov Medical Center. In midwinter he got together janitors, house managers and doctors and set about reopening the creche, polyclinic and maternity clinic.

Now he is busy restoring his own hospital at Lodeynoye Pole.

Moscow Cycling Championships

By Platon Ippolitov



Bicycle races held at the Sokolniki Park of Culture and Rest in Moscow for the prize of the newspaper, 'Krasny Sport'

When I arrived at the starting point all the contestants were already there, sitting in the shade on either side of the Moscow-Minsk highway, where the city Cycling Title championship races were to be held. Loudspeakers had been set up and dance music was being broadcast over the radio from Moscow.

The races started at 11 o'clock. The cyclists, who were to start at 30-second intervals, lined up in single file.

The women cyclists started first, competing over a distance of 30 kilometers with one turn. When the flag waved, Klavdia Semyonova, a tall blonde with well-developed leg muscles, pedaled away. Lyudmila Rutkovskaya, winner of the 30-kilometer road race in 1940 and 1943, was second. Last year Semyonova and Rutkovskaya fought it out for first place in the 50-kilometer event, the former winning in one hour, 34 minutes and 12.8 seconds. Rutkovskaya finished 19 seconds later.

The spectators, expecting another duel between Semyonova and Rutkovskaya this year, were surprised to see Valentina Larionova, Rutkovskaya's teammate, cross the finish line first. Larionova, who excels in cross-country races, established a new record of 33.6 kilometers in an hour, covering 30 kilometers in 53 minutes, 29 seconds.

Then the men's competition began—a 100-kilometer run. Last year when the highway was not fully repaired and weather conditions were unfavorable,

Alexei Logunov won this event by a comfortable margin, doing the run in two hours, 53 minutes, 26.2 seconds.

Sheleshnev, his strongest rival in the 100-kilometer race, started first. Logunov was 15th to be flagged off. Sheleshnev was well prepared for the long-distance contest, and set a fast pace right from the beginning of the race. At the 50-kilometer mark his time was one hour, 23 minutes, 16 seconds. Logunov disappointed his supporters by being more than a minute behind Sheleshnev. Bosenko was third at this time; being clocked at one hour, 25 minutes and 37 seconds. Behind him came Sergei Vershinin, recently returned to Moscow after an interval of five years abroad. At the 50-kilometer mark his reading was one hour, 25 minutes, 41 seconds. Fifteen seconds behind Vershinin came Kondrashkov.

Following the cyclists our jeep caught up with Logunov, who by that time had overtaken the 10 cyclists who had started out ahead of him. He was now trying to catch up to Kondrashkov, Tarachkov and Vershinin who took an earlier start.

We finally caught up to Sheleshnev just as he was making the turn at the 50-kilometer mark. We heard one of the judges call out to him, "Do you want a drink of water?"

Sheleshnev shook his head and sped away down the highway. He was still one minute ahead of Logunov. His time at that point was two hours, two minutes, 20 seconds. Logunov meanwhile overtook

Kondrashkov and sped after Vershinin.

We stopped our jeep ten kilometers away from the finish line. According to my calculations, Logunov should have reduced Sheleshnev's time advantage, because no cyclist in the Soviet Union today could pedal better against the wind than he.

Sheleshnev was clocked in two hours, 31 minutes, 30 seconds at the 90-kilometer mark. The seven-minute starting interval between Sheleshnev and Logunov passed and no sight of Logunov. Another minute and a half passed by and still no sight of Logunov. Three cyclists suddenly appeared in a bunch, 90 seconds later. Logunov had caught up to Vershinin and Kondrashkov was just behind them. Logunov's time at the 90-kilometer mark was 2 hours, 34 minutes, 25 seconds. It seemed as if victory for Sheleshnev were certain.

Our jeep raced ahead to the finish line. The wind increased. Logunov spurred and soon left Vershinin and Kondrashkov behind. Six kilometers away from the finish, Sheleshnev became ill and dropped out of the race. Logunov won the race in two hours, 53 minutes, 31 seconds. Kondrashkov was second in two hours, 57 minutes, 33 seconds, and Vershinin third in three hours, 34 seconds.

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August 19—Aviation Day



Assembling Ilyushins at an aircraft factory in the Urals. The slogan hanging in the rafters is: "Everything for the Front. Everything for Victory"

Aviation Day is a general holiday in the USSR. This is the day the pilots and designers demonstrate their accomplishments, the fliers display their skill and the designers and aircraft builders show the new models they have turned out.

This year the celebration is a particularly happy one, for it is being held after the victory to which Soviet aviation so gloriously contributed.

* * *

It was a bitter struggle. Aerial warfare on the Soviet-German front lasted for more than 200 weeks, 1,417 harrowing days which culminated in the utter rout of Germany's air fleet massed on the Eastern Front.

What were the principal phases of this unexampled struggle in which So-

viet fliers achieved domination of the air, and in many ways helped the ground forces to attain final and complete victory over the armed forces of fascist Germany?

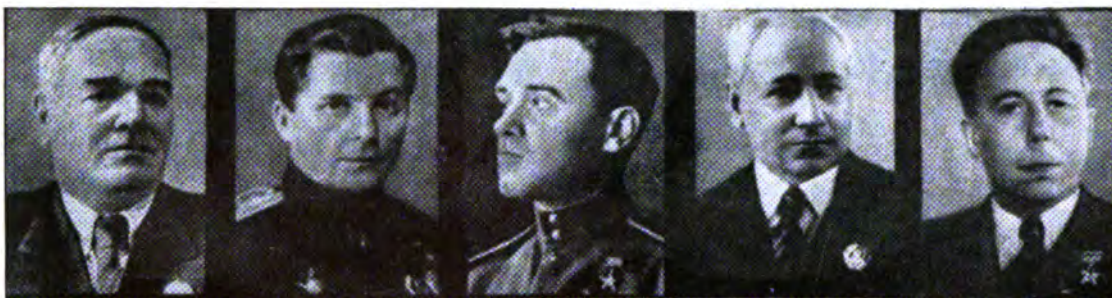
For Soviet aviation the first 20 weeks of war were a period of active defense against superior enemy air forces, very well equipped and excellently trained. Preparing to strike at the Soviet Union in the dark, the Nazi command had massed four of the five air fleets, then at the disposal of the Reich, on the Eastern Front. In addition, German aviation was augmented by the air units of Nazi satellites.

Conditions were rendered even more difficult for Soviet aviation by the fact that a number of aviation plants had to

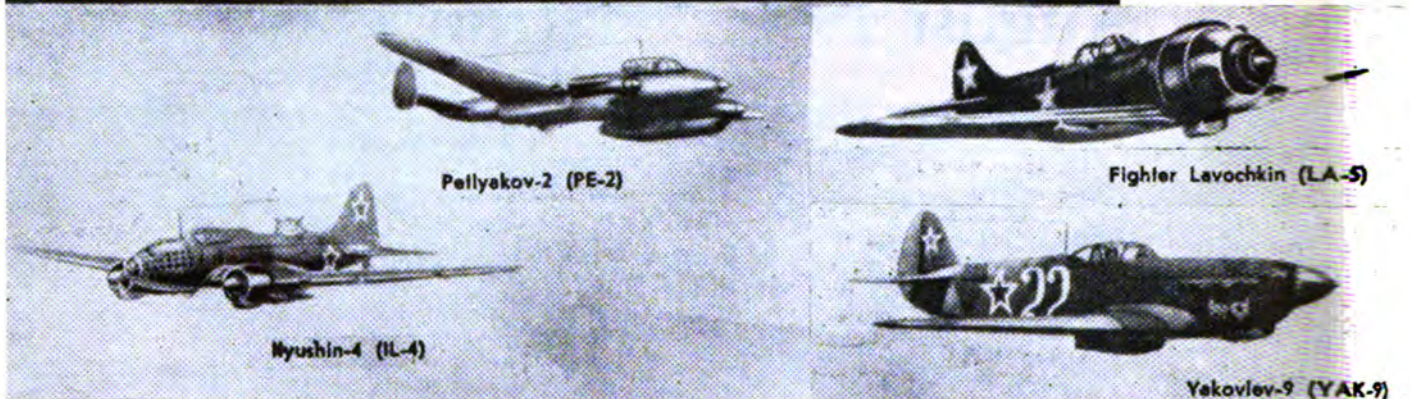
be evacuated from the war zone in the first months of hostilities and reassembled in the remote rear.

Soviet aviation designers and all who were engaged in this industry strained every effort to supply the Red Army with up-to-date armaments in the shortest possible time. No more than 100 days of fighting had passed when squadrons of armored planes designed by S. Ilyushin appeared on the battlefields. They were the first of the Stormoviks destined to add many new pages to the story of the operational and tactical application of aircraft.

By the time of the first serious Nazi set-back, at the approaches to Moscow in 1941, the Soviet air force had gained in strength and experience. It was



SOVIET DESIGNERS OF MILITARY AIRCRAFT—From left: Vladimir Petlyakov, Sergei Ilyushin, Alexander Yakovlev, Andrew Tupolev, Simon Lavochkin



in the Battle of Moscow that the Ilyushin-2 first distinguished itself in hard fighting against the panzer armies. At the same time Soviet fighters gallantly parried the enemy's numerous air raids upon the Soviet capital. Establishing new records for distance and endurance, Soviet heavy bombers repeatedly appeared over Berlin.

Having withstood the onslaughts of Germany's renovated and improved air force in Stalingrad in the second year of the war, and having routed the best of the Richthofen squadrons, Soviet fliers launched decisive offensive operations of their own. By that time the Soviet aviation industry had begun a series of new, modernized fighters designed by the engineers A. Yakovlev and S. Lavochkin, Stormoviks designed by S. Ilyushin, and bombers designed by V. Petlyakov and A. Tupolev. The new ships were fitted with excellent motors of Soviet manufacture and exceptionally powerful armaments.

As Soviet aviation gained the upper hand in techniques, its commanding officers extended their operative and tactical skill. Correctly appraising the role and tasks of the Air Force during the war and observing Marshal Stalin's doctrine of maximum collaboration between



all arms of the service, Soviet aviation generals and officers devised the most effective means for bringing the full weight of their machines to bear. One such method was an air offensive to sustain ground troops, breaching the enemy's defenses. Soviet fliers showered devastating blows upon the enemy's fortifications and continuously supported the infantry and tanks until the latter had fulfilled their missions.

Having lost the initiative at Stalingrad, the German air force made desperate attempts in the spring of 1943 to swing the balance in its favor. In a period of 10 to 15 weeks—at the end of the second and the beginning of the third year of the Patriotic War—Soviet fliers had to fight three large-scale air battles. The first was fought over the Kuban. The Germans had massed 2,000 planes of their picked squadrons here. From 100 to 120 intense air battles were fought over the Kuban every day. Applying new

combat techniques, Soviet fighters destroyed more than half of the enemy's aircraft and continued to maintain the initiative in the air. Many a Soviet air ace first gained renown here. One of them was the famous fighter pilot Alexander Pokryshkin.

The brunt of the air struggle in 1943 fell upon the Soviet flyers and the anti-aircraft gunners of defense. The Germans at that time had launched massed air raids upon Rostov, Kursk, Yaroslavl, Gorky and other cities. Kursk alone was twice raided by armadas of 500 to 600 bombers. Owing to a well-planned defense and smooth coordination, all onslaughts were repelled with huge losses for the enemy.

Another great air battle fought in July 1943 led to the final crackup of German air strength. This was the great battle of the Kursk bulge over a zone in which the Nazi ground forces launched their second "general" offensive upon the USSR. The scale and severity of the fighting is attested by the following figures: throughout 1939, the first year of the war fomented by Hitler, the Luftwaffe lost about 300 planes; in the first days of the Battle of Kursk, Soviet fliers and anti-aircraft gunners downed more than 1,000 German planes.

While the enemy's air force was continuously waning, Soviet aviation grew steadily in power. Soviet fliers actively participated in ten decisive Red Army blows upon the Wehrmacht in 1944, which transferred the battlefields from the Soviet Union to the territory of the Reich and its satellites.

The main events of the summer of 1944 unfolded on the territory of Byelorussia. German fliers were driven from the skies in the first day's operation. The heavy blows dealt from the air to the

enemy's defenses, his troop concentrations and communications largely influenced the outcome of the campaign.

The intense attacks unleashed by the massed forces of aircraft were coordinated closely with the operations of the ground forces. Varying and combining their methods, the Soviet fliers maintained the pace of their air offensive, supported the tanks which had broken through the enemy's defenses, and helped to storm cities and annihilate encircled groupings of the enemy. Soviet fliers

also assisted the ground forces in the final phase of the Berlin offensive.

Soviet aviation—its commanders, fliers and equipment—improved immeasurably during the great struggle. Never wavering from the doctrines of combat and despite all difficulties, Soviet aviation evolved the most effective methods of aerial warfare, gained domination of the air on the Soviet-German front, shattered the main forces of German aviation and proved a vital factor in the attainment of final victory over the enemy.

The Services of Civilian Fliers

The following article from IZVESTIA is based on an interview with the Vice Chairman of the Chief Administration of the Civil Air Fleet, Lieutenant General of Aviation Semenov:

From the first to the last day of the war the Civil Air Fleet fulfilled special military assignments. Under conditions of war, civil aviation was employed for extremely varied military tasks. Arms, ammunition and food were delivered to the advanced lines, wounded men evacuated, preserved blood and medicines brought to field hospitals, and aerial reconnaissance was conducted—all by pilots of transport planes. They bombed enemy railway communications, maintained contact between the General Staff of the Red Army and the headquarters of the fronts and formations, carried food and ammunition to the heroic besieged cities, supplied guerrilla detachments with ammunition and arms and landed troops.

Thus when the Germans captured the MGA railway station, aviation remained the only means of communication with beleaguered Leningrad. In two and a half months transport planes made 3,111 flights to the city. They delivered 4,325 tons of food and 1,660 tons of military supplies almost daily, exceeding their assignment by 50 to 100 per cent. On return flights from Leningrad they evacuated more than 50,000 persons.

In the defense of Moscow, Odessa, Sevastopol and Stalingrad, the Civil Air Fleet played a prominent part. In ten days

of June, 1942, for example, they made 238 night flights to Sevastopol, bringing to the defenders of the city 234 tons of ammunition and food. More than 2,000 wounded officers and men were evacuated from Sevastopol.

The civilian personnel accomplished truly colossal work in assisting the guerrillas in the Ukraine, Byelorussia, Karelia and the Crimea. In 1942 alone they made more than 3,000 flights to guerrilla territories, of which only 40 took place in the daytime.

Ambulance service planes attached to every front were flown by the Civil Air Fleet and transported a large number of wounded men and officers. In the rear this civilian branch flew a total of 1,200,000 hours and transported 145,000 tons of strategical supplies.

The selfless work of the Civil Fleet on the front and in the rear has been highly appraised by the Soviet Government. In the course of the war about 14,000 civil aviation workers were decorated with Orders and Medals. At present, when our country has entered a period of reconstruction, civil aviation faces a number of new tasks. Unparalleled activity prevails on the country's airlines. Dozens of planes fly daily to various places in the USSR and abroad; there is regular traffic between Moscow and the capitals of all the Union Republics. The Civil Air Fleet has also established three lines to the most important health resorts of the country—the Moscow-Crimea, the Moscow-Mineralnye Vody, and the Moscow-Sochi.

Regular service is maintained on the USSR's longest airline, from Moscow to Khabarovsk, a three-day trip. In all, more than 30 regular lines, including those connecting the USSR with other countries, are now functioning. Before the war we had communications between Moscow and only three European capitals. At present, planes from Moscow regularly fly according to schedule to Berlin, Prague, Warsaw, Bucharest, Sofia, Vienna, Budapest, Belgrade and Teheran. Air traffic between Moscow and Stockholm, Helsinki, Insterburg and Kleiwitz is conducted without a definite schedule.

About 500 passengers daily arrive at the Moscow airport by various airlines, and as many leave Moscow. Each day the airport receives about 30 tons of cargoes—mail and perishable products chiefly.

Dozens of local airlines function within every Republic and region. Aviation participates in the struggle against malaria, agricultural pests, etc. The measures against malaria will now be extended to a tremendous territory of 1,600,000 hectares; in the course of three war years, 1,800,000 hectares had already been subjected to treatment. The extermination of field pests will affect an area of one million hectares.

The total length of the airlines by the summer of 1941 had reached 143,000 kilometers. Now the figures are higher. In the coming years civil aviation will do its best to fulfill in an exemplary manner the tasks assigned to it.

Science in the Progress of Air Power

By Lieutenant General B. Yuryev



Students of an air club in Erevan. These workers in the local factories train as pilots, mechanics, or air technicians during their leisure time

The author of the following article, an aircraft engineer, is a member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR:

The Soviet Air Force created by Stalin was one of the most important factors in the great victory over German fascism. Attaining numerical and, even more important, qualitative superiority over the lauded Luftwaffe, the Soviet air fleet largely facilitated our triumph over the strong and treacherous foe.

Aircraft engineering, which makes use of all the latest achievements of contemporary science, is one of the most complicated and difficult branches of human endeavor, and the fact that we were able to surpass German aircraft engineering affords brilliant testimony to the high level of Soviet science.

In these days of peace, the country honors not only the soldiers and generals who fought on the battlefields, but also those fighters on the labor front whose efforts and scientific activities helped bring about the enemy's defeat.

The Academy of Sciences of the USSR is a citadel among the numerous scien-

tific institutions of the Soviet Union. The problems of aerohydrodynamics (the science which involves the laws governing gases and liquids in motion) have always had the attention of the Academy's scientists.

As a matter of fact, these problems were also the concern of the Academy's pioneers. The famous St. Petersburg scientists Eiler and Bernulli laid down the principles of theoretical aerohydrodynamics. The great Lomonosov founded the science of meteorology. Rykachev, another member of the Academy, personally undertook balloon ascents and experimented with helicopter propellers. The brilliant chemist Mendeleev devoted much time to the problems of air navigation and aviation and invented a stratosat for studying the upper strata of the atmosphere. Without any preliminary training he made an ascent to study the atmosphere during an eclipse of the sun.

In the development of aerodynamics and aeronautics Zhukovsky rendered a great service. Modern calculations for aircraft designs are based on his laws of

aerodynamics. The theories developed by Zhukovsky, called by Lenin the "father of Russian aviation," form the principal chapters in the science of aeronautics. The theoretical foundations of aerofoil, aircraft propellers, wind engines and ventilators, and the laws governing air navigation—are all part of the tremendous contribution of Russian science to the world store of aviation and aerodynamics.

Not only a great scientist but also a distinguished organizer, Zhukovsky was the founder of a school with numerous followers. He laid the foundations for a number of Soviet scientific and educational institutions, the most famous of which are the Central Institute of Aerohydrodynamics ("TSAGI"), the Zhukovsky Airforce Academy and the Moscow Aviation Institute.

And Zhukovsky's disciples are the leading force in Soviet aviation. Among the Members of the Academy who follow Zhukovsky's teachings are Mikulin, Chudakov, Yuryev, Kulebakin and Leibensohn, and Corresponding Members Tupolev, Golubev and Nekrasov. Most of the professors of Soviet colleges of aviation have been students of Zhukovsky.

Another member of the Academy who contributed much to building up the powerful aviation laboratories was Chaplygin, pupil and personal friend of Zhukovsky. Chaplygin became the director of the world-famous TSAGI Institute. A distinguished mathematician, he solved a number of difficult problems and pointed out methods for calculating air compression during high-speed flights.

Among Chaplygin's followers are the eminent theoreticians Kochin and Khristianovich, both Academicians, and Corresponding Member Kibel. Khristianovich is the author of an effective theory for calculating aerofoils for high-speed flights, that was verified by experiments in high-speed tubes in the TSAGI laboratories. Kibel has brought theoretical meteorology to such perfection that we no longer speak of weather "forecasts" but of scientifically calculated prognoses, and with a fair degree of precision. This effort

by Kibel won for him a Stalin Prize.

A number of the endeavors of Soviet scientists have been dedicated to the theory and experimental study of the friction caused by the impact of air against the wings and parts of a plane. Special attention to this problem has been devoted by Academy Member Leibenson, Professors Goroshenko, Loitsansky, Ostoslavsky, Dorodnitsyn, Buryi and other scientists of the Institutes, and their efforts have enabled Soviet designers to work confidently on the latest models of fast planes.

Other disciples of Zhukovsky—Professors Vetchinkin, Zhuravchenko, Pyshnov and others—found answers to plane control and equilibrium.

Soviet science has also coped with the complicated problems of vibration, as, for instance, wing-flutter. The efforts of Corresponding Member Keldysh and engineer Grossman indicated to designers how to prevent these disastrous phenomena in newly-designed planes.

Much experimenting with aircraft propellers and aircraft of the helicopter type has been conducted by Professor Vetchinkin, Academy Member Yuryev, and engineers Bratukhin, Isaacson, Khalezov, Sabinin, Polyakov and other scientists.

In the field of equipment and automatic plane control Academician Kulebakin and Corresponding Members Kovalenkov, Berg and others have made significant contributions.

Academy Members Chudakov and Mikulin and Corresponding Member Klimov studied aircraft engines. Durability problems engaged Academician Galerkin, Corresponding Member Ilyushin and other designers. The Galerkin method is well known to aircraft designers in Britain and the United States.

The famous designers Tupolev and Yakovlev, both Corresponding Members of the Academy, made a thorough and successful study of rational dimensions and aircraft layout.

Academics Bruyevich and Blagonravov worked on the problems connected with aircraft armaments. Bruyevich's work contributed to the precision of the complicated calculating machinery of modern aviation, "thinking machines," on which depend the accuracy of flight of cannon fire and bombing.

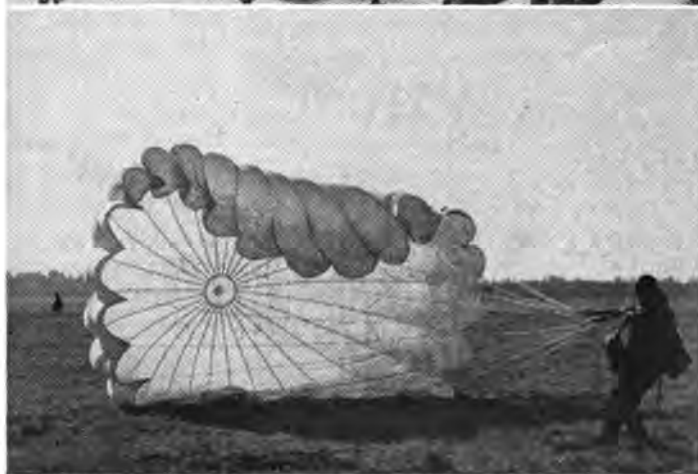
Patrol planes guarding Leningrad during the siege. Their constant vigilance helped to prevent the extension of the blockade



Ready to start off for the Soviet Arctic. In the foreground is an N-172, flagship of the group, flown by the famous flier, A. Alexeev. These planes rescued members of crews of icebreakers imprisoned in the ice-fields of the Arctic



A Red Army parachutist makes a successful landing. As an accessory to flying, the art of parachuting is highly developed in the Soviet Union, where the skill has long been popular sport



This brief review of scientific problems is indicative of the scope of the work conducted by the Academy of Sciences in the field of aviation. It must be remembered, moreover, that most of the leading workers of the Academy are directing the laboratories and design offices in various branches of industry, and have

founded their own scientific schools. The combined efforts of our scientists, designers and airmen, the constant attention paid to aviation by the Soviet Government, and Marshal Stalin's personal guidance have insured the brilliant successes of Soviet aviation and its great part in the Patriotic War.

Review of Army Aeronautics

By Major General V. Semenov, Aviation Engineer



The ascent of the substratosphere balloon, "USSR-VR-79," which made numerous experimental flights

From the invention of the balloon in 1783 until it was used by the Army in 1870, nearly a century had passed.

By order of General Milyutin, Minister of War in 1869, a commission was formed under the chairmanship of General Totleben for the purpose of designing a stationary balloon. Completed and approved by Totleben's committee, the aerostat was turned over to a sapper's unit at Izhorsk-I near Petrograd. All tests were finished by August 1, 1870, the date now observed as the birthday of army aeronautics.

The past 75 years have seen several phases of development. First, scientists and technicians tried to devise a mobile airship. Self-taught inventors of Russia, such as Kostovich in 1880 and Tsiolkovsky in 1887, submitted unique dirigible designs, but technical limitations prevented their realization.

Russian army aeronautics had its baptism of fire in the Russian-Japanese War of 1904-1905.

The first Russian dirigible *Uchebny* took off in 1908, a soft gas container

fitted with a 16-horsepower motor. Basic theories for future aeronautics were covered in a course of lectures on the flight of mobile balloons and dirigibles delivered in 1911 by Professor N. E. Zhukovsky, chief of the Aviation Theory School of the Russian Fleet.

Stationary balloon crews attached to Russian artillery units in the war of 1914-1917 added not a few pages to the story of Russian valor on the battlefields.

Special task aeronautic detachments were formed at the peak of the Revolution in 1919-1920 when the Red Army as yet possessed little aviation equipment. Their coordination with the ground forces, river flotillas and armored trains proved of inestimable value.

The interim between the Civil War and the Second World War was the most important phase in the development of Russian lighter-than-air craft. The concerted efforts of such scientific research centers as the TSAGI Naval Air Academy, the work of the testing grounds, and the contributions of the eminent members of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, yielded important results: new designs, including the so-called motorized observation balloon, and new types of captive balloons and uses for them.

Ballooning unfolded on a large scale in the USSR. Soviet aerostat flights begun in 1920 assumed the character of a sport with periodic ballooning contests held.

Advanced military aerostation and navigation were widely used for meteorological research and studies of stratosphere properties.

Notable successes were scored in atmospheric research by the famous Soviet aerostat altitude flights, which produced valuable information and prompted a number of works written by members of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. These studies received careful attention at the All-Union session of the Academy in 1934 for the purpose of investigating the properties of the stratosphere.

The names of such stratosphere aeronauts as G. A. Prokofiev, K. D. Godunov, E. K. Birnbaum and also the participants in the second stratosphere flight, Zille,



One of the hundreds of barrage balloons that rose over Leningrad daily during the Great Patriotic War

Prilutsky and Professor Verigo, are known throughout Sovietland. The people honor the memory of the first victims of the stratosphere flights: Fedoseyenko, Vasenko and Uyskin.

The available data on the construction and exploitation of dirigible balloons enable Soviet engineers to design new and original lighter-than-air craft. Designer V. G. Garakanidze supervised the construction of his small V-1, now the V-12 dirigible, one of the best of its kind in the Soviet Union. Another design by Professor N. V. Fomin is highly valued.

Soviet lighter-than-air ships during the war contributed their share to the final victory. The aeronauts who directed the fire of the Red Army and Navy from captive balloons are remembered with respect. They served in great measure as the eyes of the artillery.

Aeronautic research during the war was not discontinued. In recent years the Zhukovsky Military Aviation Academy has made notable progress in theory and in the training of new personnel.

The Victory of Soviet Designers

By Colonel Nikolai Denisov

When Soviet aviation plants in the early months of the Soviet-German war had to be transferred to the interior regions, where they had to be rebuilt, the work of the aircraft designers was seriously complicated. The Germans at the time commanded the latest aviation techniques previously tested in battles in the West. Soviet inventors nonetheless launched a determined struggle against their German counterparts from the first days of hostilities.

The first to score a victory over the German aviation engineers was the Soviet designer S. Ilyushin. No more than 100 days of war had passed when a new Soviet plane appeared on the battle fronts. Well armed and armored, this plane flew low over German tanks, infantry and artillery. Bullets and shrapnel could leave only insignificant marks upon its hull. Its fire was nothing less than murderous. Panzers were set blazing. German guns tumbled from their carriages. Nazi soldiers and officers perished by the hundreds. Named the "Black Death" by Hitler's soldiers, this assault plane appeared over the battlefields in growing numbers and came to form the backbone of Soviet attack planes, unsurpassed in war.

German designers attempted a reply with attack planes of their own by revamping their older models. General Richthofen, for example, was furnished with a revamped Henschel-129 during the Battle of Stalingrad. Then followed the Junkers-87 bomber. Three-fourths of the German machines participating in these experimental actions were destroyed. Not even the Focke-Wulf-190 fighter, having lost its best fighting qualities when applied as an attack plane, could solve the problem.

The Soviet Ilyushin-2, on the other hand, was steadily improved, and became one of the most effective aircraft of the Red Army.

When the Germans launched their predatory war against the USSR, they loaded their fighter squadrons with Mes-

erschmitts. Soviet engineers, therefore, had to design a superior machine for speed, maneuverability and firing potential. The difficulties were enhanced by the fact that the Messerschmitt fliers began to wage battle on the climb and dive. This called for great durability of aircraft and extremely powerful motors. In the summer of 1942 Soviet engineer Alexander Yakovlev designed his Yakovlev-1, which filled the requirements admirably. Flying these machines the airmen of a Soviet Guards aviation regiment gave a splendid account of themselves against top-notch German fliers of the so-called peak ace squadrons. This Soviet regiment in a short time downed about 100 Messerschmitts, losing only two fliers and three planes.

Another Soviet fighter to appear at the same period was designed by engineer S. Lavochkin. This craft could not be excelled by the Germans on the climb or on the dive, and soon took a leading place among Soviet fighters combating German bombers.

Neither A. Yakovlev nor S. Lavochkin rested on his laurels. Both designers continued to improve their respective machines. Best known of their models by the end of the war were the YAK-9, YAK-11, and YAK-7. Improving upon the speed and maneuverability of these planes, introducing certain changes in their equipment and augmenting their armaments, the designers rendered them superior to the German fighters.

An important factor was the methods of the Soviet designers. Soviet aviation engineers are not laboratory recluses. It would be difficult to determine the limits of their activities. The designing bureaus, factory departments and flying fields are only some of the places where they may be found on the job. During the war they spent much of their time observing their machines in action and constantly kept touch with the Red Army Command and with Generalissimo Stalin, whose apt suggestions often put them on the

right track in their search for perfection. Thus they were able to improve their planes quickly and effectively and to render them fit for all combat conditions.

Having created a formidable assault plane and fighter, excelling those of the enemy, Soviet designers achieved equal successes in bomber craft. The late Petlyakov had worked out two basic models of a light and heavy bomber. The four-motored Petlyakov-8 is well known to British and American fliers and aviation engineers. In 1942 this plane carried Molotov over Germany and England to the United States. The Petlyakov-2 is an excellent dive bomber, far superior to the German one. Numerous PE-2 squadrons during the war solved the entire gamut of problems from operations on the field of battle to bombing raids against targets in the enemy's hinterland.

S. Ilyushin, Soviet attack plane king, designed the IL-4, an excellent day and night bomber. The qualities of this plane, its enormous carrying capacity and range of flight, were most thoroughly exploited by the Soviet fliers in their complex operations.

These are by no means the only Soviet bombers which participated in the battles of the Soviet-German war. One of the most successful models was the TU-2 designed by A. Tupolev. A multiple-task plane, it can fly over long distances without fighter escort and can serve for operations in the field as well as for distant raids against the enemy's hinterland. An excellent light bomber is the PO-2 designed by N. Polikarpov. It is equal to the TU-2 in ability to cope with strenuous tasks, and because of the ease with which it may be controlled, its low cost of construction and the faculty of striking even the smallest targets, the PO-2 is admirable for action in the field.

Provided with these formidable planes by the country's aircraft engineers, the Soviet fliers were able to carry out their combined operations effectively. This was the victory of the aircraft designers.

Record Parachute Jump

By V. Reut and L. Tolkunov



Settling to the ground in a veritable snowstorm of parachutes, the men disengage themselves and follow their commander to their formations

Lieutenant Colonel Nabi Amintayev, the well-known Soviet airman and parachute jumper, made a record-breaking jump the other day when he bailed out from a height of over ten kilometers and hurtled down to within 600 meters of the ground before opening his chute.

This is how Amintayev described his fall:

"On the ground before we took off I felt hot, although the temperature was 20 above (centigrade). When I put on my warm fur-lined flying togs and strapped on my parachute, I felt quite fatigued. But as our substratosphere craft gained altitude I felt better. Senior Lieutenant Georgi Golyshev, chief of the Central Aerological Observatory, was in charge of the flight, and Lieutenant Colonel Porfiri Polosukhin, the famous aeronaut, piloted our substratosphere airship of the USSR, the VR-79, and maintained radio communications with the ground. I spent most of the time during the ascent checking up on my oxygen apparatus.

"When the airship passed the 10,000-meter mark I got ready for the jump. When I bailed out I saw the earth only through a few small gaps in the clouds. After a 40-second dead fall, I looked at the altimeter strapped to my left arm, but the movement of my arms immedi-

ately changed the position of my body from a straight head on dive and I began to spin around. I felt pain in my ears. After some effort I managed to return to my former position.

"As I hurtled earthward it seemed that the air was acquiring the consistency of a solid, and all my muscles ached with fatigue. When I looked at the altimeter again, it showed I had dropped 8,500 meters. I began a spin again but soon got out of it. There were two cloud banks. When I entered the one nearer to the ground, I gripped the rip cord of the main parachute and pulled it, and I emerged into full view of the earth. On the way up I established the lower limit of the cloud to be five to six hundred meters above ground, and this was borne out by the altimeter needle, which reached the red band in the neighborhood of 600 meters.

"The parachute opened with a noise like gunshot. I was heavily shaken and my ears rang. As I looked up, I saw that the envelope had held. Then the whistling in my ears stopped and an unusually deep silence fell over me. The automatic release, which was set in case I might lose consciousness, worked two or three seconds after I had pulled the rip cord. Now it was no longer difficult for me to right

myself in the air and come down to a landing. I felt so tired that I wanted to lie down and rest.

"I made this jump with the object of testing the effect of the rarified air of the stratosphere on the human organism and determining the conditions with which a flier descending from the upper layers of the atmosphere has to contend.

"To keep up with aircraft, parachutists must also raise their ceiling. I believe that jumps can be made from still greater heights."

Lieutenant Colonel Nabi Amintayev has been chute-jumping for nearly 13 years. The jump from the USSR-VR-79 was his 1,644th. In 1935 when he came down from 7,612 meters and from 8,126 meters, Amintayev established two records for altitude jumps without oxygen apparatus. Two years later he jumped from a height of 10,000 meters with an oxygen mask. The veteran parachutist has bailed out of planes under the most varied circumstances, both day and night, and has made many experimental jumps.

The exact height and duration of the present jump is still to be determined by the Sport Commissioners of the Central Air Club after an examination of the instruments on the airship and those attached to Amintayev's clothing.

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Strengthening Soviet-Polish Friendship

ZVESTIA wrote editorially August 18:

The signing of the Treaty on the Soviet-Polish State Frontier and of the Agreement on Compensation for Damages Caused by German Occupation, between the Governments of the USSR and Poland, constitutes an important step in the cause of a further consolidation of Soviet-Polish friendship and the strengthening of peace in Europe.

The problem of a frontier between the two neighboring states—the Soviet Union and Poland—has been solved in a spirit of concord and friendship. The prospects of political relations between the USSR and Poland defined in the recently concluded pact of alliance will not be darkened by territorial disputes or misunderstandings. While defending the interests of its own country and of general peace, Soviet diplomacy meets the aspirations of the Polish people halfway and removes one obstacle after another from the path of rapprochement, eliminates all barriers between neighboring peoples and strengthens the bonds of peace, friendship and mutual assistance.

The Treaty on the Soviet-Polish Frontier is an expression of the fundamental principles and specific features of Soviet foreign policy and constitutes a classic example of the solution of major problems in a spirit of friendship and concord in the interests of the two countries, for the purpose of the consolidation of general peace.

After the First World War, when the Allies had re-established Poland, provision was made that only territories with a population exclusively Polish should be included within the boundaries of the new state. The well-known Curzon Line, closely corresponding to the ethnographical boundaries of the Polish population, was proposed as Poland's eastern frontier. But from the very day of

Poland's birth, Polish imperialists had been spoiling for conquests. Polish magnates seized the Ukrainian, Byelorussian and Lithuanian lands. The forcible retention of the Ukrainian, Byelorussian and Lithuanian populations by imperialistic Poland caused numerous uprisings of the persecuted border peoples, suppressed by armed force and sanguinary "pacifications" characteristic of the Pilsudski clique.

Only the greedy gentry from the camp of the Polish reactionaries could ignore the fact that their borderland colonial policy of oppression undermined the Polish state from within and doomed it to collapse in the first serious test—as proved by events.

The policy of the Polish reactionaries was dangerous not only for Poland but also for other nations. Part of the Polish population was in German hands; the Ukrainian, Byelorussian and Lithuanian populations were being oppressed by the Poles. This unnatural Poland suffered herself and brought sufferings to other peoples. The problem of the Polish frontier was an acute political and economic threat to the stability of peace in Europe.

The heroic Red Army has liberated Poland from the German invaders. A radical change of Polish policy, both domestic and foreign, the establishment of democracy, the renouncement of the oppression of all other nationalities and a desire for rapprochement with the Soviet Union, have marked a historical change in the relations between the Polish and the Soviet peoples, and have brought about the conclusion of a Treaty on friendship and alliance. This insured an equitable and friendly solution of all problems arising between neighboring countries, including the frontier problem, in a spirit of agreement, and the maintenance of the interests of the two countries.

The bankrupt Polish reactionaries and owners of colonial latifundias, who inspired the borderland policy, raised a furious howl from all their emigre corners. They had also intended to use the "frontier problem" to split the Allies. But at the Crimea Conference the Allies adopted a concerted decision to establish the Soviet-Polish frontier along the Curzon Line, with a deviation from that line in some areas of from five to eight kilometers in favor of Poland. The Polish emigre clique was beaten.

The Soviet Union went even beyond the Crimea decision and generously ceded to Poland additional territory east of the Curzon Line in the Zapadny-Bug River—Solokia area, and part of the territory of the Bjalowiez Forest in the Niemirow, Jalowka sector. In these places the deviation from the Curzon Line, established by the Crimea decision at five to eight kilometers, reaches 17 to 30 kilometers in favor of Poland. But what matters is not the territorial concession alone. The important fact is that the frontier problem has been solved on the basis of the Crimea decisions in a spirit of good will and friendly agreement, fully meeting the interests of the Soviet Union and Poland. The vital interests of the people have been completely taken into account.

The idea of national unity within the boundaries of a single national state was the guiding principle in the establishment of the frontiers. Such a principle is equally appreciated both by the Soviet peoples—the Ukrainians, Byelorussians, Lithuanians—and by the Polish people, who build the might and the greater glory of the new state on the unification of the Polish people and all Polish lands.

At the Berlin Conference the leaders of the three powers also defined in principle Poland's western frontier, embracing Polish lands which had been held by

the Germans. Thus have been established the borders of a viable Polish state, the new, strong democratic Poland which the great Allies and all her genuine friends wish to see.

The Treaty on the Soviet-Polish State Frontier precisely defines the line of the Polish frontier in the east. The Treaty provides that pending the final decision on territorial problems in the peace settlement, in conformity with the Berlin Conference decision, part of the Soviet-Polish frontier adjoining the Baltic Sea "will pass from a point on the eastern shore of the Bay of Gdansk and, indicated on a map published today, eastward to north of Bransberg—Goldap, up to the point where this line meets the frontier line described in Article II of the present treaty."

Noteworthy in the signed Treaty and Agreement is the faithfulness to the decisions of the great Allies, and also the speed with which they are being implemented. The Treaty on the Frontier constitutes an implementation of the Crimea

decisions and also reflects the Berlin Conference decisions.

The Agreement between the USSR and Poland on the question of compensation for damages caused by German occupation represents also an implementation of the Berlin decisions. As is known, at the Berlin Conference the Soviet Union agreed to use its own share of reparations to compensate Poland's damages. The Agreement, signed August 16, establishes the dimensions and conditions of such compensation. And in this case what matters is not only the equitable and practical settlement of the compensations but the very principle of the solution of the problem. The Soviet and Polish Governments recognize the fact that tremendous damage was caused to both countries by the German occupation, "the elimination of the consequences of which requires the prolonged and strenuous efforts of the Soviet and Polish peoples." Realizing the difficulties of these efforts, both Governments declare once more

their desire "to render each other every assistance in carrying out the tasks connected with the elimination of the above grave consequences of the German occupation."

This is something more than a simple reparations settlement: this is the spirit of mutual assistance, the will for collaboration for the sake of the earliest rehabilitation and the peaceful prosperity of the two fraternal countries, whose cordial friendship is a guarantee of their prosperity and the basis of a stable peace in Europe.

This spirit of friendship and concord, cordiality and mutual understanding constitutes a major feature of the Soviet-Polish Acts signed August 16th. Their practical side and their principles and, no less, their cordial good will determine the importance of these Acts for the USSR and Poland, and for the common cause of all nations—the strengthening of general peace. May Soviet-Polish ties—the friendship of the Soviet and Polish peoples—be stable and inviolable.

JOBS ARE WAITING

By Anna Dobrinskaya

As I turn into Uspensky Street in the Sverdlovsk District in Moscow my attention is caught by an arrow pointing the way to a house bearing the sign "Registration of Demobilized Servicemen."

Over the entrance is a poster announcing in large letters "Welcome." Inside the building, evidently a school, are flowerers. The classrooms are now being used as offices where demobilized men can have their civilian needs attended to.

Andrei Terekhov, Chairman of the local Demobilization Commission, tells me: "The men come here with only their demobilization slips. They leave with all their documents in order. If they wish they can even get an immediate assignment for a job.

"When the soldier arrives he hands in his military documents and receives a civilian passport in exchange.

"If he wishes he can at once have a medical examination, and any necessary treatment will be ordered.

"After these first 'formalities,' the soldier goes into a neighboring room where

he is given food and clothing cards.

"Farther along the corridor is a room where he can get legal advice on any problem that may be troubling him.

"In other rooms there are stalls where food and soft drinks can be bought, also small items of clothing—even toys, in case fathers want to pick up a present for the kiddies en route."

Every effort is made to relieve worries about jobs. A representative of the District Executive Committee is on hand and is empowered to offer the soldier a job in any field for which he is fitted. All the jobs are in the Sverdlovsk District—where the soldier and his family will live.

Andrei Terekhov tells me the local offices and factories have handed in long lists of the type of workers they need—from chief engineers and department managers to office boys and night watchmen.

The soldier is given as much time as he likes to make up his mind. There are plenty of vacancies in most categories.

CONSUMERS GOODS

The enterprises of the industrial cooperatives throughout the country are starting peacetime production. Those of the Russian SFSR include over 11,000 artisans. One million workers, engineers and technicians were engaged before the war chiefly in catering to the needs of the population. These enterprises produced hundreds of consumers' goods.

During the war they manufactured military supplies amounting to 3,000 million rubles.

Now the handicraft societies have again returned to the production of meat grinders, kerosene stoves, locks, sewing machine parts, furniture, etc., and it is estimated that the output of the industrial cooperatives of the Russian SFSR this year will amount to 8,650 million rubles, only 350 million rubles less than during the last prewar year.

The industrial organizations will give the country 10½ million pairs of footwear, 4½ million pairs of felt boots, 10 million knit-goods articles, 17½ million pairs of stockings and socks, thousands of tons of soap, and furniture worth many millions of rubles.

SOVIET KIRGHIZIA

By G. Volchek

The road into the mountains winds between high, almost perpendicular walls of cliffs. Practically invisible in the morning haze endless flocks of sheep are climbing the road. . . .

Another landscape: a sun-flooded plateau covered with a verdant carpet of long, lush grass. In the far background a high mountain range seems to frame the whole. In the foreground the tall silo towers resemble bastions of an ancient fortress; between them stand the low, white farmhouses. The green is dotted with the tiny, warm gray hillocks of grazing sheep.

A shining mirror-like surface is Lake Issyk Kul, where a drove of golden-brown horses have come to the water's edge to drink. . . .

And finally: towering mountains lift their snowcapped peaks far into the sky. They seem quite near and we are startled to see a herd of horses grazing on a small alpine meadow, just below the snowline. . . .

Kirghizia lies on the southeastern border of the Soviet Union, contiguous with Sinkiang, China. Through the northern



State Emblem
Kirghiz Soviet Socialist Republic

and central regions runs the towering chain of the Tien Shan Mountains; in the south rises the range of the Pamirs, their summits crowned with eternal snow.

Some of these mountains reach an enormous height as, for example, Lenin Peak, which towers 7,127 meters above sea level.

The climate is varied, ranging from the

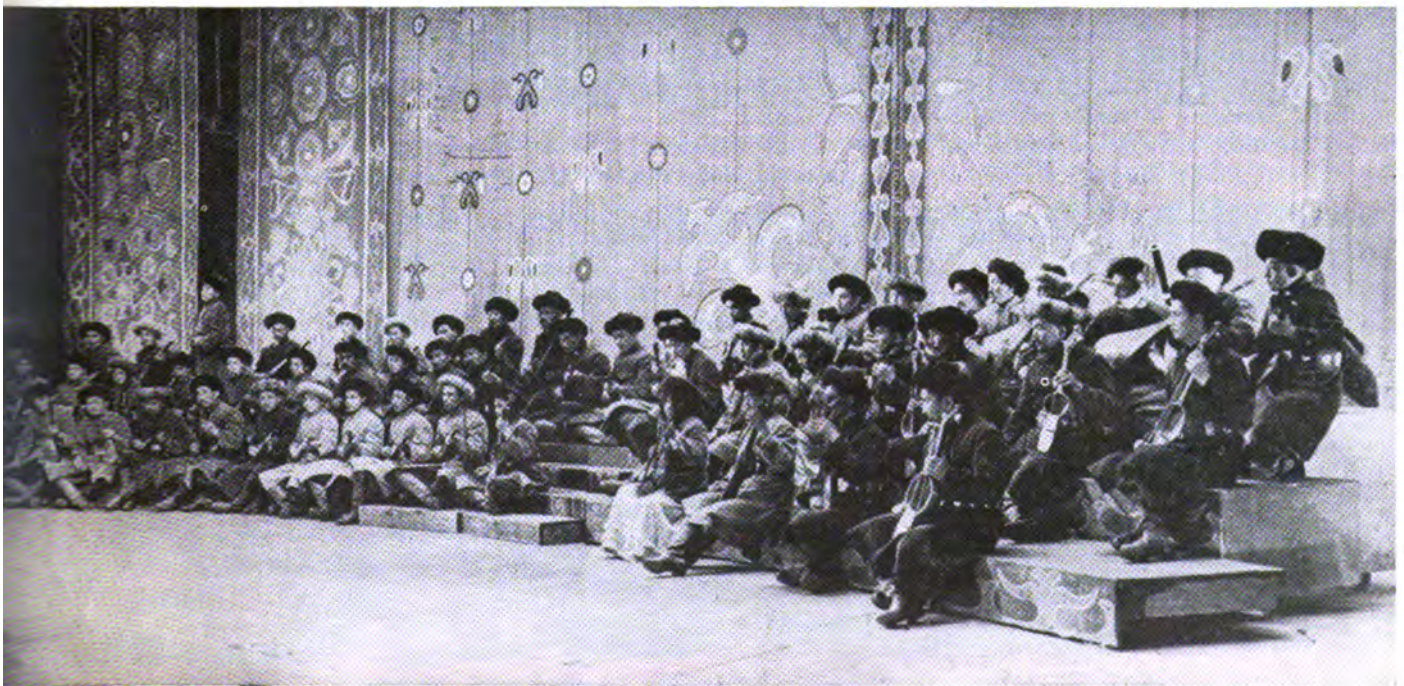
arid heat of the Central Asian deserts to severe frost in the vicinity of the mountain snows. The nature of the land is most favorable for the development of livestock breeding, with alpine pastures covering the vast area of 27 million acres. These natural grazing grounds are reinforced by large hayfields.

The most densely inhabited regions are the vast fertile valleys of the Issyk Kul, Talas and Chu Rivers. The majority of the population of Kirghizia, entirely nomad before the Revolution, have now settled on the land and become cattle raisers.

Agriculture has utilized every modern device. The sown area of the Republic, 60 per cent of which is irrigated, produces cotton, sugarbeet, hemp, tobacco and poppies.

In the years of Soviet rule, large-scale industry has developed—sugar refining, silk winding, tanning and tobacco factories and agricultural machine repair plants. Cotton ginning, coal and gold mining have been expanded.

As a result of continuous geological prospecting, many new mineral deposits



Composed of national instruments, an orchestra of the Kirghiz State Philharmonic Society rehearses at Moscow's Bolshoi Theater



At the Teachers Training College, graduate student K. Shotomirov consults with Professor D. Sheikh-Ali about botany



Reading a newspaper in his native language, a Young Pioneer has an interested audience of Kirghizian youth



A flying ambulance is examined by children of the Chatal District. These planes carry emergency medical aid



Soloist of the Philharmonic Society Marya Makhmatova with her teacher, V. Fer, Distinguished Worker in Arts

have been discovered promising full exploitation of the ore-mining industries. As an indication, by January 1, 1938, Kirghizia was known to contain 350 deposits of 35 various minerals, 60 coal fields, seven oil fields, 45 iron ore, 63 valuable metal, 45 copper and 48 gold mines. Antimony, mercury, arsenic, sulphur and tungsten are also found.

Nevertheless stockbreeding, chiefly sheep and horses, continues to hold the lead in the economy of the Republic, with more than 50 million acres of arable pasture land. Breeding is conducted on a strictly scientific line with numerous artificial insemination stations, veterinary hospitals, veterinary bacteriological laboratories, meat inspection posts and quarantine posts.

From year to year the area of grass fields has increased. Ensilage is prepared in quantity, for notwithstanding the rich natural pastures, the livestock needs additional fodder. In the past, winter and spring were often a calamitous season, when herds starved owing to the frost and the snow-covered ground. In the winter of 1907-08, over 15 per cent of the cattle perished in this way, and in 1912-13 the losses of the herds amounted to 25 per cent.

Traveling on sturdy Kirghizian horses through the valley of the Djungal River, we were suddenly startled by the appear-

ance of a desert caravan. When this procession of screaming camels and braying asses caught up with us, we noticed huge electrical insulators sticking out of the bundles tied to the swaying backs of the beasts of burden. Between the ragged humps of one of these "ships of the desert" hung a fat steel tube. Tripping and stumbling, one of the asses bore a high-voltage generator set on its back.

In charge of this caravan was a doctor who told us that they were taking equipment for an X-ray cabinet to a far distant and isolated village.

He told us that during the last five years, some 40 X-ray cabinets had been set up in Kirghizia and that many anti-malaria stations were successfully fighting the malaria plague. Today Red Cross airplanes of the Civil Medical Service reach the furthest passes of the Tien Shan range and the Pamirs, and the outlying border posts. They carry health and life to the sick and dying.

Not so very long ago the population of the Central Tien Shan mountain district had never seen a doctor. The Tamyrchi witch doctors who used to be called for the sick prescribed three cures: a starvation diet—for the patient; prayer—for Allah; a fat roasted sheep—for himself.

The tsarist government did all it could to keep the Kirghizian people in a state

of backwardness, to preserve old customs and the power of the Bai-Manaps. Prior to the October Revolution, 98 per cent of the Kirghiz population could neither read nor write. The people did not even possess their own alphabet and there were neither schools nor hospitals in Kirghizia. But the age of "slavery, sorrow and tears" has gone, never to return. The fruitless, weary wanderings are now a legend of the past.

Now the days of the Kirghiz people are full of creative activity and study. Former nomads are today becoming progressive civilized men and women—engineers, physicians, aviators, teachers, agronomists and irrigation engineers. Kirghizia takes pride in its own writers and artists. The Republic now possesses six higher educational institutes, and 34 technical and teachers' training colleges with a total of about 10,000 men and women students. The Kirghiz Medical Institute, organized just before the outbreak of hostilities, will soon celebrate its first graduation day. Several hundred Kirghiz men and women are studying in the higher educational academies of Moscow, Tashkent and Alma-Ata.

The progress of Kirghizia has grown from year to year since the establishment of the Republic in 1926. Advanced economically, politically, and culturally the Region is no longer isolated.

LIFE IN A CENTRAL ASIAN REPUBLIC



Famous horsewoman Aini Bapaeva leads a group of riders through a mountain pass. The men and women of Kirghizia learn to ride as soon as they can walk; (right) A camel caravan moving across the remote interior of the Republic. This ancient mode of transportation is still in common use



Sowing beets at the Chu machine and tractor station of the Frunze Region. Young women replace their friends, brothers and fathers, gone to war; (right) Aviation instructor Kasym Omrokov demonstrates a point to his students, members of the Frunze flying club



The Scientific Council of the Institute for Kirghiz Language and Literature prepares a tribute to the work of the great native poet, Toktogul; (right) In a yourta—summer tent—a collective farmwoman amuses this happy child

NAZI PREPARATIONS FOR A SIXTH COLUMN

By V. Minayev

Long before the final defeat of Germany, Nazi leaders began both to draw up plans for a comeback and to carry these plans into effect. The cornerstone for these plans was the training of a secret army which, scattered in numbers throughout the world, would weave the brown web anew and create further plots against democracy.

The whole system of the so-called Politico-Education Institutions of the Foreign Affairs Department of the Nazi Party (*Politische Erziehungsanstalten*) was put to work on these lines. The training of the rank and file of the future underground organization was entrusted to the *Deutschen Heimschulen*, (home school), 35 of which were set up by General Heismeier, the well-known specialist in the training of fascist agents.

Along with their special training, the *Heimschulen* began to give its pupils courses in various trades—construction, farming, etc.—accomplishments to be used later to mask the underground activity. In addition, there were courses in the several German dialects, so that a Prussian, for example, could work in Bavaria or a Bavarian in Prussia without detection.

The schools set up before the war were employed for developing the middle and senior ranks. The first school of this type was opened February 8, 1935, with its director Walter Schmidt, one of the close collaborators of Rosenberg, and well known for his subversive activities in Austria and the countries of the Baltic.

Soon after three other schools of a similar nature were opened. In the city of Vogelsang, in the Rhine district, men were trained for subversive activity against the Anglo-Saxon countries; the city of Sonthofen in Bavaria prepared men for work against the Mediterranean countries, and Falkenburg in Pomerania developed an Eastern campaign (against the USSR, Poland and the Balkan countries).

The Castle of Order

Although the methods and internal set-up in all three schools were similar, the

school in Falkenburg was the most interesting, for it was used by the Nazis as an "experimental station" for the training of agents (*Versuchsanstalt*).

The *Versuchsanstalt* near the small city of Falkenburg in Pomerania was officially designated the *Ordensburg an Kressingsee* (Castle of Order on Kressing Lake). The school occupied an area of several square kilometers. Fenced off from the outside world, it was kept under strict guard by a company of SS. At all approaches to the school were signs reading, "Trespassing Punishable by Death."

Inscribed over the massive doors at the entrance to the main building were the words, "Unquestioning Obedience."

The student body of 300 had a three-year course of study. During the war the program was cut to one year, and the number of students increased to 700. In addition, the school had "special Hitler courses" (*Sonder Hitler Kursen*). The head of the school for the "eastern direction" was a certain Hodes, member of the Nazi Party since 1926, with a rank corresponding to lieutenant general.

The greatest precaution was taken in the selection of students. Each candidate for "the postgraduate course," as studies at *Ordensburg* were officially designated, had to pass an examining commission. The answers to the questionnaire and the autobiography submitted by the candidate had to contain exhaustive data relating to himself and his relatives as far back as the third generation (his grandfather, brothers and sisters of his grandfather, all cousins twice and three times removed). The account of his life had to contain every personal and business event of the slightest importance and had to be almost a day-by-day account. All material handed in by the candidate was checked by the Gestapo, who gave the final sanction on the candidate's enrollment.

During the war the age limit for admission to the school was extended to 45 years. More and more of the candidates were members of the professions (lawyers, reporters, doctors, actors).

On acceptance the "novice" was con-

ducted to a room in the basement of the administrative building to take the oath. The ceremony, something like the accolade of knighthood, was held in a darkened room, the walls hung with such mystic trappings of the Middle Ages as brass heads of wolves and tails of horses. Here a personage clothed in a black velvet mantle pronounced the following words of the oath which were repeated by the neophyte: "He who betrays or is a traitor to the secret of *Ordensburg* must die. And not only will he himself be destroyed but his family, his wife and his children, as well."

Following this performance the initiate participated in a feast to celebrate the occasion, and from that moment on became a full-fledged member of a strictly conspiratorial organization whose aim was to sow death and destruction, to carry on espionage and provocation, throughout the world.

The All-Inclusive Background

The curriculum at *Ordensburg* had as objectives: first, to teach selected subjects in the field of espionage; second, to present a thorough study of the country in which the student was to work, including the language, manners and customs, economy, armed forces, administration of internal and foreign policy, laws, etc., particular stress being laid on conditions that the student would find in his future theater of activities and in the country as a whole; third, to make possible complete mastery of the trade under cover of which he would operate after graduation. fourth and last, to offer a complete and strenuous military, physical and sports training. Political indoctrination was inherent in the whole program.

In the espionage department particular emphasis was laid on various forms of active "intelligence" (sabotage, subversive activity, terror, bacteriological warfare, etc.).

Technical devices, screening, subversion, and particularly maintaining espionage connections had to be learned to perfection. In special "subversion studies"

and "laboratories of explosives", where they could find models and formulas for the preparation of explosives and inflammable compounds, and tables describing their properties and the methods for use, the students were given all-inclusive background in modern techniques of subversive activity and sabotage.

The laboratory of poisons contained all the means and apparatus for conducting secret bacteriological warfare, formulas and prescriptions for compounding poisons, the methods for employing them and for distinguishing their efforts.

The study halls and laboratories for espionage technique also contained equipment for secret writing, complex cryptographic codes, machines for making copies of photographs, instruments for opening and closing sealed letters, microscopes of various sizes, miniature cameras for snapshots, phonographs, portable receiving and sending radio sets, and dozens of other objects of an obviously involved nature.

The students received a thorough grounding in the speedy dismantling and setting up and repair of all kinds of apparatus. Radio-technical shops staffed by the students themselves produced radio sets designed for espionage purposes. In one of the laboratories were produced the numerous false documents essential to spies.

Finally, the student was given a course in make-up; and he was taught quick-changes into various costumes and manners. Elaborate schoolroom, cosmetic and make-up facilities, barbershops, costume shops and scores of dressing rooms gave every scope to the impersonator.

Educational Devices

The lectures for espionage subjects were, as a rule, accompanied by visual aids. Wide use was made of cinema films, which were documentaries in the full sense of the word. At the lectures on terror, for example, there was a detailed study of the assassinations of the Yugoslav King Alexander in Marseilles and of the French Premier Barthou in shots of the film taken by a cameraman on the spot, from whom the film was purchased by Himmler.

In his preparation for a specific country the student was required, first of all, to have a faultless knowledge of the language and a fluent mastery of one or two other foreign languages as well.

In the Institute of Country Study there were a number of scientific study halls in which the student investigated the structure and peculiarities of the customs and peoples of individual countries. Among the mass of visual aids were the photograph albums and notes and diaries of German "tourists."

The most scrupulous attention was given to the trade which the student was to learn as a screen in setting himself up in a foreign country. For this vocational education there were bookkeeper's offices, courses for office workers, shops for sculpturing and commercial art, laboratories for animal husbandry and agronomy, and a music room complete with every kind of musical instrument.

Given military training and kept physically fit, healthy and tough, the aspiring agent was a good athlete with a knowledge of several sports. He learned sharpshooting and was taught to fire all makes of rifles and revolvers, practiced horseback riding, fencing, parachute jumping, drove an automobile, motorcycle and airplane, and could row and sail boats. The final examinations for graduation included tests in some of these skills.

The school had an information department, outfitted with true German attention to details. Enormous special card catalogs contained classified data of the most detailed nature on all questions relating to the country against which the student was being trained to work. There was every available type of handbook, guide book, train and ship timetable, telephone book, tourist map and similar materials.

In the course of the Second World War the "experimental station" at Falkenburg trained over 1,500 agents in various specialties to work against the USSR alone. There were also large groups prepared to operate in each of the other countries of the "eastern direction."

Nazi leaders, who took a deep interest in the school, frequently visited it. Hitler

and Rosenberg once brought Mussolini with them for an inspection tour.

Thus the school at *Kressingsee* was the center of the future Nazi underground. The last two years the outskirts of Falkenburg became a kind of Nazi nursery where the cadres of the future "Sixth Column" were bred.

The victorious onslaught of the the Red Army put an end to these "espionage experiments" of Himmler. The last group of students at the *Versuchsanstalt* could not take their final examinations for graduation. The moment the gentlemen students and their trainers got wind of the fact that the hour of retribution was near, they scurried away, vanishing into some protective jungle for monsters. They were in such a hurry they had no time to destroy even the most compromising traces of their criminal activity.

No doubt even now some are still seeking hideaways where they can catch their breath. But mankind, aware of the nature of the Nazi beast, will smoke these reptiles from their holes and give them their deserts.

BACK TO SCHOOL

Enrollment has begun in the colleges and technical schools. Thousands of young men and women who discontinued their studies when they left for the front during the war are returning to school.

The 100,000 to 110,000 specialists graduated from colleges annually before the war, will be increased to 120,000 by 1947. By the end of the year the higher schools will have as many students as in 1940, and in some cases many more.

During the next few years the secondary technical schools will increase their student bodies to one million. These institutes alone will release as many as 200,000 to 250,000 specialists every year. This semester they will enroll more than 350,000 students, and the colleges, 170,000. There are 40,000 students attending the 62 technical schools in Moscow, with 12,000 enrolled for the new semester.

Many skilled workers and specialists are needed for the job of restoring the plants, factories, power stations and entire cities destroyed by the Germans.



AT THE MOSCOW HIPPODROME—10,000 Moscow spectators watch a close contest between collective-farm trotters. Right, the winner of the All-Union Derby, a Urals horse, Kavychka, covered the 1600-meter course in 2 minutes 10 seconds. On the left is jockey Alexei Roschin

Trotting Season Opens

By Alexander Lyass

Trotters of pure Russian and Russo-American stock are again training at the Moscow Hippodrome race course, which for the past three years had been deserted, except for vigilant anti-aircraft gunners on the lookout for Nazi aircraft.

Among the veteran trainers and jockeys who have returned to the Hippodrome are Esper Radzevich, the only four-time winner of the Trotting Derby, and Alexander Bondarevsky, who has won the Derby for Russian and Russo-American trotters once and the All-Union Prize for Russian trotters twice. Radzevich, a graduate of the Law School of the Moscow University, gave up a promising career to train thoroughbreds.

A difference of opinion exists as to which breed is better—the Russian or so-called Orloff type, or the Russo-American, claimed by some experts to be faster. Admirers of the Russian trotters point to their long-distance records and their use in improving breeds of farm horses.

It is of interest to note how both breeds came into existence in Russia.

Alexei Orloff, an officer of the Cavalry Guard who took part in the court revolution which brought Catherine II to the throne, in 1784 brought 12 celebrated Arab racers from Turkey. One of the horses was named Smetanka (Cream). His grandson, Bars I (Panther) became the progenitor of a new breed of trotters subsequently known as the Orloff type.

Russo-American stock appeared in Russia nearly a century later. The first studs were the famous American trotters Bob Douglas, Wilburne M., Baron Rodgers and several others brought by John Rayment and Frank Cayton and his sons, William and Samuel.

Orloff and Russo-American trotters are now being bred at more than 50 State horse-breeding farms in the central belt of the USSR, chiefly in the Tambov, Saratov and Smolensk Regions. Before the State took over these farms, there was only one Orloff trotter in Russia who covered a mile in less than 2 minutes 10 seconds. That horse was Krepys (Sturdy) who was bought for 600 rubles and later won a million for his owner. His record equalled 2 minutes 8½ seconds. At the present time there are 22 Orloff trotters who have registered 2 minutes 10 seconds or less in the mile. Among them are Ulov (Catch) and Pilot who made the same time—2 minutes 2¼ seconds—and Waltz who covered the distance in 2 minutes 5¾ seconds. Almost 250 Orloff trotters have been timed at 2 minutes 15 seconds in the mile.

At the Dubrovsky State Horse-breeding Farm shortly before the war they raised a splendid group of trotters—Star-Gazer, Skipper's Wife and Rhumba—which covered the mile in 2 minutes 7 seconds and 2 minutes 8 seconds. These first-rate trotters were sired by Jingle,

1929 Derby winner, out of the daughters of Warrior.

After the horse-breeding farms were taken over by the Government, the number of Russo-American trotters who covered the mile in 2 minutes 10 seconds or less increased from 8 to 150. The best trotter of this type in the USSR today is Podarok (Gift) whose record is 2 minutes 2½ seconds.

The State plan for the development of livestock breeding in the USSR in 1945 includes measures for the further increase of horse-breeding farms, particularly farms raising trotters.

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5

The Ratification of the United Nations Charter by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR

From IZVESTIA, August 21:

An important step has been made on the path toward the earliest implementation of a historic document—the United Nations Charter—which lays the foundation of the International Security Organization.

The adoption of the Charter—the bill for United Nations security—was the greatest achievement of the San Francisco Conference. For the first time in humanity's history a document has been drawn up which not only expresses the idea of a general desire of the peoples for peace, for prevention of aggression and curbing aggressors, but also outlines the concrete actions for putting this idea into effect. In the past, attempts had been made to make war more difficult or to eliminate it altogether from international usage. Such attempts, however, were purely declarative in nature and were not implemented by definite actions, and therefore proved powerless against any acts of aggression.

To prevent aggression or to limit its scale, not only the will to peace is needed, but also the force of an organization of peace-loving nations—insuring their ability to deal with any aggressor.

The San Francisco Conference took into account the sad experience of the League of Nations. Each of the main organs of the United Nations Organization within the sphere of its competence is called upon to serve the cause of upholding international peace and security and the development of friendly relations between nations, on the basis of respect for the principles of state independence and sovereignty, equality and self-determination of peoples, and of collaboration in solving international, economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems.



M. I. Kalinin, Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR

The United Nations Charter assigns the central part in insuring security to the Security Council, consisting of five permanent members—the Soviet Union, the United States, Great Britain, China and France—and six non-permanent members.

The Security Council, standing guard over universal peace, is called upon to act—continually and promptly. In its hands are concentrated all the required material and military means for immediate action against any aggressor.

The Security Council, acting on the authorization of all the United Nations, represents at the same time an embodiment of the concerted will to peace of the five main powers possessing an over-

whelming bulk of manpower, material and military resources, quite sufficient to safeguard the general peace in the interests of all nations, large and small.

The idea of the solidarity of the five principal powers as the most important guarantee of peace has been brilliantly embodied organizationally in the United Nations Charter.

The brilliant experience of the concerted actions of the great democratic coalition, which brought about the defeat and surrender of Hitlerite Germany in Europe and of militaristic Japan in Asia, is the best proof of the reality of the principles forming the basis of the United Nations.

The ratification of the United Nations Charter by the Soviet Union at the moment of the victorious termination of the Second World War is a very significant event.

The task of the maintenance and consolidation of peace becomes the most important task and duty of all freedom-loving humanity. The new International Security Organization is called upon to assist in accomplishing this great task.

Soviet power which steadily marches in the vanguard of freedom-loving humanity has repeatedly proved that it is always ready to make its contribution to the cause of insuring general security.

The Soviet people will welcome with great satisfaction the news of the ratification of the United Nations Charter by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

The unity of action of the United Nations, headed by the great powers who bore the brunt of the fight against the aggressors in the West and East, firmly and reliably cements the edifice of universal peace.

Kirov Plant Decorated With Five Orders

By E. Saltzman

Hero of Socialist Labor, Director of the Kirov Plant

The Kirov plant has received the Order of Kutuzov First Class—the fifth order appearing on the banner of the plant—and 600 of the foremost employees were awarded orders and medals of the USSR.

Kirovites well remember the grim autumn of 1941. The enemy then had penetrated into the Donbas. Leningrad was blockaded. Hitlerite troops were making a mad rush for the heart of our country—Moscow. In those days, on Stalin's initiative, the gigantic Kirov tank plant was set up in the Southern Urals.

Formed by the merging of the Kirov works evacuated from Leningrad, the Kharkov Diesel plant, and one of the most powerful engineering works of the Urals, the three amalgamated enterprises became the mighty arsenal of heavy tanks and Diesel engines.

During the war our plant continually expanded. Five thousand builders had worked on its preparation.

The plant in the Urals became one of the largest engineering works of the country, with the present output exceeding the prewar output of the Kirov plant in Leningrad by 350 per cent. Several trainloads of metal and parts supplied by other factories are consumed daily in the operations of the factory.

The Kirov works are so extensive that the Diesel engine shops alone, for example, in capacity and production area are equal to any large factory. The pump production department surpasses the largest plant of its kind in Europe.

During the war chief attention was given to the introduction of new machinery and to improving the methods of production. Kirovites elaborated and organized the mass production of 13 new types of heavy tanks and self-propelled guns, and six types of tank Diesel engines. Watching the development of the enemy's tank and anti-tank equipment, Soviet designers outbalanced them by providing our tankmen with more powerful machines. The superiority of Soviet heavy tanks was maintained during the whole

progress of the war—the most eloquent proof of the quality of the work.

Kotin, Hero of Socialist Labor, Dukhov, Trashutin, Balzhi, Troyanov, Vikhman, Fedorenko, Kuzmin, Anchakov and others made important contributions to tank building. It must be emphasized that the combat machines are the fruit of the collective efforts of the designers, technologists, foremen and workers.

The first challenge occurred in the fall of 1941, when the front urgently needed tanks and Diesels. And from this trial the personnel of the plant emerged with flying colors. Three weeks after the evacuated equipment was unloaded on the territory of the Urals plant, the first Diesel engines were assembled. Within a short period the production of heavy tanks increased many times.

Several times in the course of the war the plant reorganized production. In 1942 the plant received an order for 34 tanks, while continuing to turn out KV tanks. Thirty-three days later the first 34 tanks left the conveyor.

An ambitious undertaking in December 1943 was the most powerful modern heavy tank, named after Joseph Stalin and known as the JS tank. Within 51 days after the plan was conceived, preparations were completed and the production of this tank had begun.

Without reducing their output, the Kirovites carried out the complete reconstruction of various shops. Several thousand machine tools in tank shops were redistributed within a few days so as to form new continuous-production lines, equipped with highly efficient devices. For the first time the conveyor method was introduced in the assembly of heavy tanks.

By exerting themselves to the utmost, the plant steadily speeded up production. During half a year the average monthly increase in the output of the JS tanks constituted 33.7 per cent, a rate of increase unusual even for high tempos of production in other enterprises.

The JS tank played a big role in the offensive operations of the Red Army. The appearance on the front of these new powerful tanks and self-propelled guns in large numbers was entirely unexpected by the Hitlerites and helped our glorious troops to rout the fascist beast.

In the organization of the mass output of heavy tanks, special tribute is due the technologists—the great and small organizers of production. Not so prominent as designers, perhaps, the technologists were the ones who stimulated progress in the technique of production and who insured the rapid output of new types of machines. The creative work of Khait, Samorodov, Glazunov, Bozhko, Morgulis, Grigorov, and thousands of other technologists, shop superintendents, foremen and Stakhanovites brought about the wide use of the continuous-production line, the tempering of parts by high-frequency currents, and other up-to-date methods. The result of this was that during the war the net cost of producing a heavy tank was reduced by 53 per cent, effecting a saving of 2,500 million rubles.

Assisting the Kirov plant in producing tanks was the industry of the Southern Urals. It continues to supply the plant with new types of armor, high grade steel, electrical equipment and other materials. It may be said that the tanks are made up almost entirely from materials produced by the Urals industry.

The personnel of the plant is now solving important technical problems and steps are being made to improve living conditions. A new settlement with well-appointed cottages is under construction. We have established our own slag and glass factory, and manufacture the framework and a number of prefabricated parts for these houses.

The grounds of our plant and of the workers' settlement are all being beautified with parks and flowers and trees. A peacetime development is a special factory now turning out much-needed consumers' goods.

A MEMORABLE DATE—THE BATTLE OF OREL

By Colonel Ivan Krupenin

On August 5, 1943, just two years ago, the Soviet Bryansk Army, supported on the flanks by the Western and Central Armies, after bitter fighting, seized the city of Orel, thereby reducing the Germans' Orel salient, which was like a dagger aiming at the heart of Russia—at Moscow.

The Orel operation was a sequel to the Battle of Kursk in which Soviet troops by skillfully organized and relentless and active defense wore down the attacking Germans and then launched a counteroffensive.

Strategically the Orel salient was of great importance to the Germans; it might be used as a springboard for a leap on Moscow from the south and as a base for an offensive against Voronezh, as well as against Kursk, with the idea of reducing the Kursk salient.

The Germans therefore converted the Orel salient into one of the most strongly defended areas on the entire Soviet front. They had worked strenuously for 22 months to render it impregnable, erecting deeply-echeloned defense works, using for the purpose the numerous rivers which intersected the salient in all directions. They built several defense zones and intermediate positions, each consisting of a dense network of trenches and large numbers of solid strong points and centers of resistance, surrounded by formidable tank and infantry obstacles. The city of Orel itself was a fortified area girdled by defense installations. Bolkhov, Mtsensk, Khotynets, Karachev and other large inhabited places were adapted for prolonged all-round defense so as to bar any attack the Red Army might deliver toward Orel.

The salient was held by the German Second Panzer and Ninth Infantry Armies, of which seven were armored and three motorized divisions. During the battle itself another 15 divisions, at least, were transferred by the Germans to this area from other sectors. The defenses were

densest on the left flank where the Germans considered a Soviet attack most likely.

Realizing the difficulties of a breakthrough and the bitter resistance it would encounter, the Soviet command made very thorough preparations for the operation.

It was decided in view of the configuration of the Orel salient, to strike simultaneously from the north, east and south, all in the general direction of Orel, with the idea of splitting up the German group of armies and demolishing it piecemeal.

Because of the precautionary measures taken, the attack, as prisoners later testified, came as a surprise to the Germans.

On July 11 Red Army troops and staffs were ready for the attack. The long and tedious period of defense was at last over and the time had come for the soldiers to display their proficiency and the officers and generals their skill. After a shattering artillery barrage, the attack began at dawn on July 12, 1943.

General Bagramyan's troops effected a successful break-through. Then by skillfully enveloping or by-passing the strong points, they penetrated three defense zones, and by July 14 destroyed one panzer and two German infantry divisions.

When they recovered from their surprise the Germans realized what a serious threat menaced their entire Orel group if General Bagramyan managed to exploit his success. They therefore tried to cut off the Soviet spearhead by counterattacking with reinforcements brought from other sectors. These, however, were all repulsed, and on July 18 Bagramyan enveloped the German's Bolkhov group from the west and southwest.

At the same time, General Byelov, having also broken through the Germans front and overwhelmed five of their divisions, enveloped Bolkhov from the north and east. Bolkhov was carried by storm on July 22. Mtsensk had fallen two days before. The northeast road to Orel was open.

At this juncture General Popov delivered a powerful attack on the German defenses east of Orel. Here a bitter battle developed. The Germans hurled into action two armored and one motorized divisions brought from other areas.

The inhabited places which had been converted by the Germans into powerful strong points changed hands again and again. But when General Rybalko's tanks came out the Germans, fearing encirclement, abandoned their weapons and retired to a line protecting the immediate approaches to Orel from the east.

At the same time General Rokossovsky occupied Kromy, thus reaching the approaches of Orel from the south.

In a matter of a fortnight, the Red Army had penetrated the Germans' defenses along the entire perimeter of the Kursk salient to a depth of from 25 to 50 kilometers, had reached the near approaches of Orel from the north, east and south and were threatening the Germans' escape routes. The Germans concentrated their efforts on resisting General Bagramyan in order to cover the withdrawal of their troops westward, which had already begun.

The pincers around Orel were drawn tighter and tighter, and on August 3 the encirclement of the remnants of the Germans' Orel army group was complete.

Soviet troops, seeing the barbaric destruction being done to the Soviet city, were straining at the leash, and when the order for the assault was given they met it with satisfaction. On August 5, 1943, Orel was again in Soviet hands.

In the battle for the retention of the Orel salient the Germans lost over 120,000 men and large quantities of armament.

This operation, a component part of the Battle of Kursk, once more demonstrated the superiority of Stalin's strategy and tactics over the strategy and tactics of the Germans.

THE CHANGING APPEARANCE OF MOSCOW

By A. Raspevin

What Moscow means to its citizens is evident from the following incident. One day a middle-aged worker called on the Chairman of the Trade Union Committee of the Moscow gas works. Untying the strings of a little linen bag, he carefully put part of its contents on his palm and holding it up said laconically. "Flower seeds."

The Chairman looked puzzled. This was in February when the Red Army was engaged in heated fighting on German territory.

"I have a large variety," the worker continued in a matter-of-fact tone. "I saved it up from last year."

"Don't you understand?" he asked as he looked up to see the puzzled expression on the face of the trade union leader. "The war will soon be over and we have to think of the time when the victorious soldiers, our heroes, will come back to Moscow. We must make our streets, squares and parks a feast for the eyes."

Ten years ago the gigantic plan for the general reconstruction of Moscow was undertaken.

Founded 800 years ago, Moscow had grown and developed chaotically, without any plan. Narrow winding streets, endless side lanes and cul-de-sacs, and a purely ac-

cidental disposal of residential and industrial buildings, all militated against normal living.

Immediately after the Revolution reconstruction of Moscow began, recasting the municipal projects and the economy and culture. The work gained impetus in 1930 when the plan for the industrialization of the country increased the importance of the city and it became the center of the engineering industry. In 1931 the people of Moscow began building the first line of their underground railway and started work on the Moscow-Volga canal, 128 kilometers in length.

From 1930 to 1934 dwelling houses with a total floor area of over 2 million square meters were built. The length of motorbus lines was doubled and the number of taxis almost doubled. The first trolley buses were introduced. In the course of two years over 2 million square meters of Moscow's streets and squares were remetalled and asphalted. And with the passing of a few more years the streets and squares of the city underwent a complete transformation.

Further improvement of the city was carried on in accordance with the plan adopted in 1935, which provides for the extension of the city, a thorough re-zon-

ing of all the city streets, and the building of numerous dwelling houses, schools, hospitals, clubs, etc. A new epoch in the development of Moscow had begun.

Up to the outbreak of the war, work fulfilling this plan had cost about 10,000 million rubles. Ten magnificent bridges were erected across the Moskva River, and the banks of the Moskva were lined in granite. The re-channelling of the River Yauza and the region through which it flows progressed well.

Many four-story schools, bathhouses, laundries and hospitals were completed. The widened main avenues of the city were filled with fine new buildings. Winding streets were straightened, squares were planned, and new sections of the city were opened up.

While slowing down the work of reconstruction to a great extent, the war did not entirely stunt Moscow's growth. The underground railway was continued, the southwestern sewage line was installed, suburban railway lines were electrified, new tramway services were introduced and some homes were built.

This year over 500,000 Muscovites took part in laying out new parks and gardens, in planting grass plots and equipping sports grounds.



The Grand Opera and Ballet Theater damaged by a fascist bomb undergoes repairs



In the Mayakovskaya station of the Moscow subway, visitors admire the fixtures

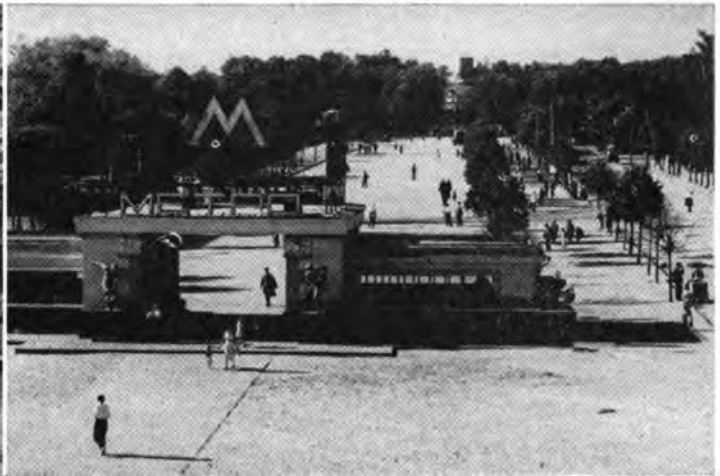


Entering the Khimky terminal, passengers await a trip along the Moscow-Volga Canal



Here the "J. Stalin" arrives at the port near Moscow, the "Canal of Two Rivers"

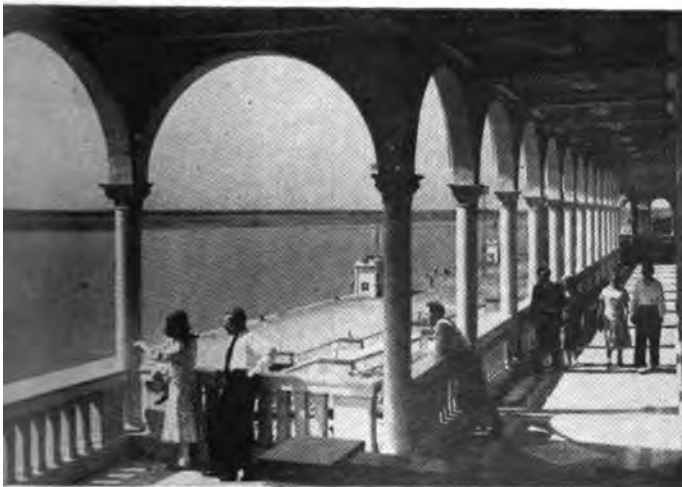
THE CAPITAL OF THE USSR



Manezhnaya Square with the building of the Council of People's Commissars (on the left) and the Moscow Hotel; (right) A view through the entrance to the Moscow Metro (subway) at Sokolniki Park



AT DYNAMO STADIUM—Crowds watching a soccer match; (right) Arriving at the field for the early-season game



KHIMKY STATION OF THE MOSCOW-VOLGA CANAL—Sightseers idle along the arched porches of the building; the splendid design of the port structure (right) has a simple beauty



IN RED SQUARE—Heroes of the Soviet Union marching at the head of the column of sportsmen of the Red Army; (right) Carrying a placard reading "Our Cause Is Just. Victory Is Won," the first contingent of athletes passes the stands

SPORTS PARADE IN MOSCOW

The sports parades held annually in Red Square in Moscow are genuine festivals of youth and strength—demonstrations of physical and moral beauty.

For four long years no colorful pageant occurred. Less than a year after the last event, most of the participants were repelling the violent attacks of the Nazi hordes. Having won their furious fight for freedom and independence, the Soviet people once more engage in a joyous exhibition of vitality.

Last Sunday the young athletes in their first postwar sports parade marched across Red Square, scene of traditional celebrations of Sovietland—dazzling in holiday attire. Emblems of the Union and all the Republics were suspended from the walls, the buildings opposite the Kremlin were decorated with garlands of flowers and rose leaves. A fountain played in the Lobnoye Mesto. From one end of the Square to the other, athletes wearing sport costumes of different colors were lined up on the massive green carpet which covered the ground. The flags and pennants of the sports clubs flapped in the breeze. Here was the pick of the country's athletes, youthful delegates of all the Union Republics, representatives of all the nationalities of the USSR.

On the granite reviewing stands along the Kremlin wall were members of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, deputies to the Supreme Soviets of the USSR and the Russian SFSR, marshals, generals and of-

ficers of the Red Army and Navy, Heroes of the Soviet Union and Heroes of Socialist Labor and prominent representatives of Soviet industry, science, art and literature. Among those present were various diplomatic corps and foreign military missions.

A most distinguished guest was General Dwight D. Eisenhower, Supreme Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Expeditionary Forces in the European Theater of Operations. Muscovites cheered him warmly.

Sports delegations from Poland and Bulgaria and youth delegations from Yugoslavia, Albania and Finland were also present.

As the Kremlin chimes struck twelve, the Square sprang to life. To thunderous acclaim, Stalin ascended the tribune on the Lenin mausoleum, accompanied by Molotov, Kalinin, Voroshilov, Kaganovich, Andreyev, Mikoyan, Zhdanov, Khrushchev, Beria, Malenkov, Shvernik, Voznesensky, Zhukov, Antonov, Merkulov, Bulganin and Shkiryatov. As the great leader of the Soviet people was applauded from the reviewing stands, the ranks of sportsmen formed on the Square. Another outburst greeted General Dwight D. Eisenhower, his son Lieutenant John S. Eisenhower and Mr. W. Averell Harriman, United States Ambassador to the USSR, as they joined the Soviet Government and Party leaders on the tribune.

The parade was opened by five hun-

dred athletes bearing the flags of the Soviet Union and those of all the Union Republics, the portraits of Stalin and Government and Party leaders and the flags and pennants of the sports societies. An enormous replica of the Order of Victory, surrounded by crimson standards, was held high.

Following the standard bearers were the sports delegation of the Russian SFSR who led the triumphant march. It was an impressive sight—the youth of the RSFSR resplendent in their sports costumes, the men in silk-embroidered shirts and the women wearing white skirts.

The Ukrainian sports delegation, also in multi-colored outfits, came next. In their ranks marched young Huzuls and representatives of the Carpathian Ukraine, who were participating in the sports parade for the first time.

The Byelorussian delegation was headed by Hero of the Soviet Union Liventsov, after which came the Trans-Caucasian Republics. Among the standard bearers were Tokashvili and Rukhadze, Georgian champions, and Serg Ambartsumyan, the well-known weight lifter from Armenia.

In national costume the athletes of the Central Asian Republics marched across Red Square. Drobyshevsky, top-ranking gymnast, carried the flag of the sportsmen of the Karelian-Finnish Republic. The Moldavian delegation took their positions, followed by the Lithuanian, Latvian and Estonian delegations who, at the

last parade in 1940, had been among the guests.

The columns of schoolchildren and pupils of the vocational schools, sun-tanned and healthy youngsters, swung past the reviewing stands in perfect formation.

The precision of the students of the Moscow and Leningrad Institute of Physical Culture, was universally admired.

Then came the trade union sports clubs headed by the *Krylya Sovetov*—Wings of the Soviet—athletic organization of the aircraft-workers' union. Next the young workers in the armaments, iron and steel, automobile and other industries.

Among the athletes of the Pishchevik Sports Society who marched in the parade last Sunday were Nikolai Korolev, a champion of the USSR who saw action in the war as a guerrilla, and Zoya Bolo-tova, women's long-distance skiing champion of the country. Leonid Mashkov who recently established a new world record in the hundred-meter breast stroke was in the first row of the Stalinetz athletes.

The Bolshevik Sports Society had a float with a real skating rink, on which T. Granatkina and S. Glyazer, the accomplished figure skaters, performed, riding slowly through the Square.

The athletes of the Dynamo were warmly applauded, not only for their outstanding skill and achievements in athletics, but also for their feats of gallantry and valor on the battlefield. The

(Continued on following page)



Radiophoto

General Dwight D. Eisenhower reviews a Guard of Honor at the airport in Moscow. Accompanying him are (from the left) Air Marshal Falaleyev, Lieutenant General Sinilov, Marshal Zhukov, and General Antonov

Eisenhower Praises Exercises

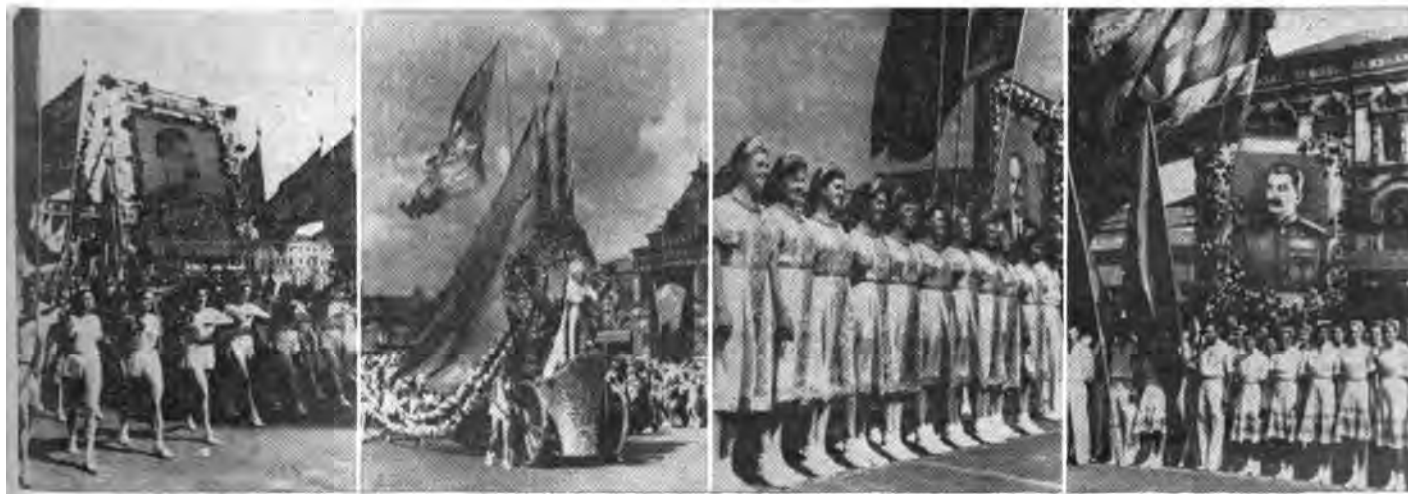
General Eisenhower of the United States Army, interviewed by an *Izvestia* correspondent after his attendance at the All-Union physical culture parade, complimented the demonstration and especially noted the joy shown in the performance. "The parade demonstrated excellent organization and fine leadership," he stated.

Highly pleased with the football game he witnessed the same day at the Dynamo Stadium, General Eisenhower, supposed to stay only for the first half, stayed until the end.

Speaking to a *Krasnaya Zvezda* correspondent General Eisenhower said, "The parade was a magnificent sight, and

I believe that the people of other countries would be surprised to learn what is being done in this country for the physical training of the youth. I was amazed by the precision of the exercises, but what impressed me especially deeply was the happy expression on the faces of the participants. I watched with great interest the groups of young people representing all the Republics of the Soviet Union.

"This is my first visit to the USSR. I have never seen anything like Saint Basil's Cathedral, and could not take my eyes off its wonderful domes. I am happy that, having come to the USSR on Generalissimo Stalin's invitation, I could attend the parade in Red Square."



Radiophotos

THE ANNUAL DAY OF SPORTS—From left to right: The Torpedo Society in formation; the "Chariot of Victory"; a delegation of sportswomen of the Russian SFSR; and the line-up of the Byelorussians ready to make their entrance

PARADE

(Continued from page 7)

Dynamo flags were carried by border guards who had participated in fighting for the independence of the Motherland. At the head of the column marched Major General Piyashev, decorated by the Soviet Government 11 times. The arrays of athletes included such top-ranking sportsmen and sportswomen as Arsen Mokolishvili, wrestling champion of the USSR, M. Isakova, Z. Kholshchevnikova and K. Kudryavtsev, ice-skating stars, V. Smirnov, the champion skier of the USSR, and all 11 members of the women's hockey team which won the USSR championships last winter.

For a few brief minutes, after the 2,500 Red Army athletes marched past the reviewing stands, the Square was empty. Then 600 cyclists pedalled furiously from the historic museum across the Square.

The triumphant march had ended.

The review of each delegation reflected its national culture, history and traditions.

The Estonians, for whom sailing and basketball are the two most popular sports, went through the motions of a sailboat race, and girls staged a drill with large cream-colored basketballs.

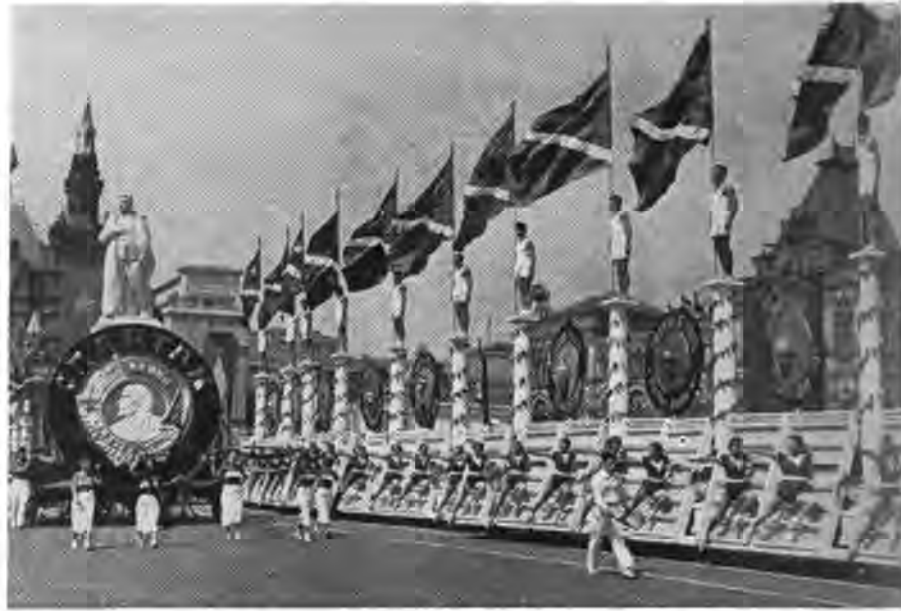
Men of Latvia displayed their skill with a canoe and canoe paddles. Varicolored scarves in the hands of the Latvian girls kept changing colors, now a rainbow, then the golden leaves of autumn and again taking the shade of the bright blue spring sky.

The Lithuanian exhibition ended with a mass Kosari haymakers' folk dance. As the athletes left the Square, they held aloft a huge sheaf of wheat, symbolizing the fertility of liberated Lithuania.

Two fast folk dances, the Bakuria and Moldavanesca, by the Moldavian athletes, farmers, vineyard workers, etc., thrilled the spectators. The Karelian-Finnish sportsmen ended their review by dancing the Sampo, their national dance.

A complicated national game called Kirghizkures revealed the strength and adroitness of the Kirghizians from Central Asia.

The Turkmenians coming on the Square were immediately recognized by



AUGUST 12—PHYSICAL CULTURE DAY—The members of the Spartak Society make a picturesque pattern as they show their athletic skills

their tall fur hats, which may be seen in Ashkhabad and Krasnovodsk, in desert Kara-Kum and in the fields of Chardzhou. The sportsmen exhibited their national games and dances and also staged wrestling and fencing bouts, concluding their program with a performance of the Nadilyar folk dance. As they left the Square the Turkmen sportsmen carried a rug in which a portrait of Stalin had been woven.

To the sound of bugles the Tajik gymnasts came onto the Square, the girls with cotton bushes in their hands and the men with Indian clubs.

The gym drills by the students of the Molotov Electrical Engineering Institute preceded the delegation from Kazakhstan. These young horsemen and women emerged from decorated tents and staged their national sport contests and dances.

Red Square looked like a cotton plantation when the Uzbek athletes started their performances of native games and dances.

The best gymnasts of Leningrad performed breath-taking stunts on chinning bars six meters high, a surprisingly simple but expressive medium for conveying their ideas. Armenia, Georgia, Azerbaijan and other national Republics gave thrilling demonstrations.

A mass gym drill performed by 1,300

athletes of the trade unions was a cross-section of all the different sports popular in the USSR, with the finale a live pyramid, on top of which floated a pennant with a portrait of Stalin.

The excellent drill by the students of the Moscow Institute of Physical Culture was the last to appear in the Square.

The classic event took nearly five hours. More than 23,000 athletes participated in this first postwar sports parade, a description of which was broadcast over the radio throughout the country.

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SEP 3 1945

The Red Army's Blows Against Japanese Aggression

By I. Mintz

Corresponding Member of the Academy of Sciences

The Red Army on August 9, 1945, launched its offensive against the Japanese aggressors.

Japan has long stretched forth a greedy hand toward the wealth of the Far East. Long before the fascists appeared in Germany, Japanese imperialists called themselves the "Prussians of Asia," and began to reveal fascist tendencies.

The "Asiatic Prussians" bore the Soviet Union particular hate. No sooner had Soviet power won a victory in Russia than Japanese imperialists, lured by its inexhaustible riches of gold, timber and ores, set out to seize the Far East.

Taking advantage of the fact that the young Soviet Republic was engaged in a struggle with enemies in the West, the Japanese began intervention in the Far East. During the nights of April 4 and 5, 1918, the Japanese landed troops in Vladivostok. On the morning of April 5 the command of the Japanese squadron issued an order containing "reasons" for the landing. The admiral declared that

an attack was made upon three Japanese in Vladivostok in full daylight and the landing was for the purpose of safeguarding and defending Japanese nationals. The admiral did not say who perpetrated the attack or whether the culprits had been found. It was clear the Japanese Viliokrislop themselves engineered the attack in order to seize the Soviet Far East. The Japanese landed some 100,000 men, occupied large railway stations, seized enterprises and began to haul away machines, food stores and raw materials. Merchants and industrialists hastened to the Far East to get their hands on the plunder. Putting their own laws into effect in Northern Sakhalin and giving full power to their officials, the Japanese instituted a reign of terror throughout the Soviet territory they had seized. Thousands of Soviet civilians were tortured to death, drowned, or burned, among them Sergei Lazo, the heroic Soviet patriot.

The whole world heard how Major

General Yamada surrounded the village of Ivanovka and opened artillery fire on it. After a two-hour bombardment the soldiers attacked the peaceful village. Having "taken" it, the Japanese piled straw against the houses and other buildings and set fire to them. All the men were gathered in the center and machine-gunned. Two hundred and fifty-seven people were killed in all, among them a number of children and women. The same fate befell many other villages.

Destroyed and burned homes, gallows, innumerable corpses marked the bloody path of the Japanese invaders. But they did not succeed in terrifying the Soviet people.

The Bolsheviks of the Far East, led by the Central Committee of the Communist Party, roused the entire Region against the invader. Detachments of Red partisans were formed in the depths of the taiga. At night they made surprise attacks against Japanese garrisons, destroyed railroads, burned bridges and



Radiophoton

IN THE STEPPES OF MANCHURIA—Soviet tank-borne troops on the march; (right) Motorized units moving forward

seized trainloads of weapons and supplies. Barefoot and usually armed only with hunting rifles, the partisans put up a successful struggle for their land, fighting against soldiers armed with machine guns and cannon and rifles.

The poorly-armed partisan detachments struck heavy and painful blows against the Japanese regular army. For example, in February, 1919, Japanese ambushed in the wooded hills near the village of Chudinovka on the Amur were discovered by partisans who, under cover of a frosty mist, penetrated the Japanese rear and suddenly attacked and wiped them out. The partisans took two guns, two machine guns and over 1,000 rifles, as well as large quantities of ammunition.

Soon afterward a Japanese train appeared at a siding near Chudinovka. The partisans sent a hail of machine-gun fire into the cars packed with Japanese soldiers. Rapidly reversing, the train pulled off with hundreds of corpses.

Time and again the partisans drew Japanese punitive detachments into ambush. February, 1919, a Japanese punitive detachment of 400 men moved up to the village of Belogorka, but fell into a partisan ambush. Completely surrounded, the Japanese detachment was wiped out after a short clash, and the partisans seized all their weapons.

The scattered parties grew into a people's army which in the famous battles of Volochyayevka and Spassk, struck crushing blows at the enemy. Soviet troops put the Japanese forces to flight.

Vladivostok was liberated on October 25, 1922.

In his congratulations on the occasion of the liberation of the Maritime Province, Lenin wrote that the new victory of the Red Army was a decisive step toward the complete liberation of the territory of Russia from foreign occupationists, and that the taking of Vladivostok reunited Russian citizens, who had been under the heavy yoke of Japanese imperialism, with their brothers.

The defeats sustained in the Far East failed to induce the Japanese imperialists to give up their plans of seizure. They did everything in their power to hinder the peaceful construction of the Soviet Union. Their agents engineered acts of diversion and kept the inhabitants of the border zones under constant tension. The Japanese awaited the moment for a new attack on the Soviet Union.

In 1929 the Japanese sent their Chinese hirelings against the Soviet Union. July 10, 1929, reactionary Chinese authorities in Manchuria raided the Chinese Eastern Railway, seized the telegraph lines and cut off communications with the Soviet Union. Along the whole line libraries, cooperatives and roads were destroyed. Police closed all trading organizations of the Soviet Union and arrested hundreds of Soviet railwaymen. On instructions from his Japanese masters, Chang Hsuehliang, dictator of Manchuria, threw several detachments across the border, who fell upon Soviet villages and burned them. Japanese and Man-

churian soldiers opened fire on Soviet ships and plundered the settlements.

The Soviet Government tried to settle the conflict peacefully, but each day brought news of fresh attacks and a continued concentration of Japanese and Manchurian forces. At length the Soviet Government took precautionary measures. On August 6, 1929, all the armed forces in the Far East were merged into a special Far Eastern Army. The Soviet troops received orders to strike enemy bands a crushing blow. Supported by the whole Soviet people, the special Far Eastern Army made short work of the Japanese and Chinese bandits.

But this second lesson was poorly assimilated by the Japanese imperialists, who decided to unite forces with the German fascists, and in 1936 Japan, Italy and Germany concluded the so-called anti-Comintern Pact, which was turned a year later into the tripartite alliance of the fascist powers.

With this alliance formed, the fascists hastened the outbreak of war. Germany seized and annexed Austria in 1938. And the Japanese imperialists were equally determined to take advantage of the moment. Conditions in Central Europe became more and more alarming. The attention of the Soviet Union was focused on her western boundaries, and the Japanese imperialists thought the Soviet Union was too pre-occupied to think of them. The spot chosen by the Japanese militarists was in the Lake Hasan district; and provocatively they announced in July, 1938, that the district belonged to them.

The evening of July 29, under cover of fog, two Japanese units crept up to Bezmyany height, which was held by only 11 border guards. Aware of the clank of weapons and the heavy breathing of men struggling up the hill, the guards made preparations for defense. As soon as the raiders had crossed the border, the commander of the Soviet detachment ordered, "Fire on the invaders!"

Machine-gun and rifle fire cut down the front rank of the attackers, but there were others coming behind them. The Japanese suffered heavy losses, but numerical superiority enabled them to capture two hills, and they advanced three



A group of Soviet soldiers in the deserted streets of Hailar, captured by the Red Army

Radiophoto

to four kilometers into Soviet territory.

The Soviet Command issued orders to wipe out the Japanese forces, and the 32nd and 40th Divisions of the First Special Red Banner Army went into battle on August 2. Notwithstanding the hurricane fire of Japanese artillery, by evening Soviet troops had hurled the Japanese back and reached the Zaozerny and Bezymyany hills. Heavy rains poured the next three days in August, and the marshes turned into lakes. Guns and tanks stuck in the mud.

For five days, from August 7 to 11, the Japanese made stubborn attempts to regain their positions. New reserves were brought up in a constant stream. Over 20 attacks were launched, but the Japanese could not prevail. The Red Army men stopped every attack with their precise fire, and then launched bayonet counterattacks and destroyed and drove back the remnants.

The blow at Hassan was swift and deadly, but the Japanese militarists still judged their general position too advantageous for them immediately to give up their attempts on the boundary of the Soviet Union. On May 11, 1939, Japanese units suddenly attacked the outposts of the Mongolian People's Army, 20 kilometers east of the Khalkhingol River.

The Soviet Command immediately came to the aid of Mongolia, with whom



Russphoto

A Japanese banner captured by Soviet troops

the Soviet Union had an alliance. Soviet troops threw the Japanese back across the border and the Japanese began to bring up reserves. Aviation brought from the various fronts in China appeared over the field of battle.

Soviet troops were determined to wipe

out the Japanese forces, and on August 20 Soviet and Mongolian forces launched a determined counteroffensive. Green rockets, the signal for assault, went up at nine o'clock sharp. Along the entire 70-kilometer front there burst out a loud *Hurrah*. Red Army men leaped to their feet and under the cover of tanks went into the attack. Their drive was so smashing that by the evening of August 21, the resistance of the Japanese had been broken, the southern grouping of our forces had breached the front and had taken the Japanese troops in the flank.

For eight days the liquidation of the encircled enemy went on. The Japanese lost a total of 60,000 men, including 25,000 killed; they had not suffered such a defeat in a whole decade.

All these lessons proved to be a closed book for the Japanese imperialists. The aggressors, whose heads were swollen with hallucinations of world hegemony, had long lost their sense of reality.

They had faith in the invincibility of Hitler Germany and rendered her full support, which they continued even when the fascist beast had been driven from the territories he had seized and was forced back into his own lair.

With these facts in mind the Soviet Government accepted the proposal of the Allies to enter the war against the Japanese and thereby to shorten the period of war and the number of victims.

EXCERPTS FROM SOVIET PRESS

Izvestia: The swiftness and resolution of the Manchurian operation carried out after four hard years of war provide once more proof of the growth of our military might, the efficiency of our entire economic and military machine, capable of solving any problem which may arise.

The Soviet people will unanimously repeat the concluding words of the Order of the Day of the Supreme Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet Union Generalissimo Stalin: "May the victorious Red Army and Navy live and flourish!"

Pravda: In the Manchurian mountains and fields, in the southern Sakhalin

and in the Kurile Islands, Soviet soldiers again set an example of supreme courage, daring and military valor. It has gallantly discharged its duty to the Allies. After defeating Hitlerite Germany in Europe, the Red Army, jointly with the Armies of our Allies, routed the Japanese aggressor, a new manifestation of the success of the United Nations.

Krasnaya Zvezda: The Red Army which played the main part in routing Hitlerite Germany has discharged with credit its duty to the United Nations in the Far, Eastern Theater. Its powerful blow at the Manchurian area of Japanese imperialism has accelerated Japan's unconditional surrender. Indeed, the very

fact of the Soviet Union's joining the war against Japan was the major political event abruptly changing the relative strength of the parties in the war in the Pacific.

Soviet troops accomplished an outstanding military exploit by breaking through the strongest Japanese fortifications in Manchuria and forcing the finest divisions of the Japanese army to ground arms.

Our gallant Trans-Baikal and Far Eastern troops and the Pacific Fleet have made an inestimable contribution to the cause of peace in the whole world by liberating Manchuria, southern Sakhalin and part of the Kurile Islands.

BUILDING UP THE CHILDREN'S HEALTH

By Maria Ilyina

The following was written by the Director of the Administration of Disease Prevention and Treatment Institutions for Children, People's Commissariat of Health of the USSR:

The speediest elimination of the effects of the war on the younger generation has for some time been the concern of the children's health institutions. The damage caused to the health of our children in the battle zones or in areas occupied by the enemy, as well as by the shifting of large sections of the population into the interior, had to be undone.

A start was made in wartime when the Government adopted emergency child welfare measures, which provided first and foremost for rations, for widespread prophylaxis and for systematic medical care for all children under four, with the result that the incidence of children's diseases was kept down.

An example of wartime prophylactic work was the practice of inoculation. In 1944, for instance, twice as many injections against measles were administered as in 1942.

To provide special attention and care for children of nursery age—from one month to four years—sanatorium groups were established in nurseries.

The paramount achievement of the Soviet health system was the prevention

of children's epidemics during the war years. We even managed to reduce the incidence of some of the common contagious diseases: for example, there were 60 per cent less scarlet fever cases in 1943 than in 1940, and 80 per cent less cases of measles.

A particularly severe setback in health was suffered by the children who lived through the German occupation. The Germans wrecked the institutions for disease prevention and treatment, and either looted or destroyed their equipment. Not a single one of the Ukraine's 1,002 children's medical consultation centers survived the occupation. Only a few infants' homes were kept open, and to these places the Germans brought the children whose mothers they had transported into slavery; the mortality rate from starvation and disease in these homes was staggering.

The story of the infants' home in Bobruisk will give an idea of the countless tragedies enacted in these institutions during the occupation. Before the war this was a model home. In spite of the tireless efforts of the staff, all 500 of the children in the home died from lack of food, clothing, medicaments, soap and other necessities.

A stark report was drawn up by the commission which investigated the

health of the children of Orel several days after that town was liberated from the Germans. In Nursery No. 2 only two out of 45 children were in satisfactory health. In Nursery No. 3, 64 of 79 were ill, the majority from hunger.

When the town of Voronezh was freed, 80 per cent of its children were dystrophic.

In these and other liberated areas steps were taken at once by the Government to combat children's diseases. On the heels of the advancing Red Army came medical workers who immediately began to rehabilitate the wrecked children's hospitals, polyclinics, nurseries, kindergartens and consultation centers. I could cite numerous examples of the heroic effort invested in the reconstruction, but one will suffice: the doctors, nurses and attendants of Nursery No. 20 in Kiev, the Ukrainian capital, put on overalls, rolled up their sleeves and restored their wrecked buildings; the residents of the district contributed beds and other furniture, dishes and linen to enable the nursery to be reopened without delay.

With this sort of vigorous work, by now the chain of children's institutions has been brought up almost to prewar level in the majority of the districts.

(Continued on page 6)



At a sanatorium in the resort of Borovoye, West Siberia, patients get their daily cup of koumiss (mare's milk) for health; (right) Reading hour at an Alma-Ata institution, Kazakh SSR

Young Soviet Citizens at Play and Rest



IN THE COUNTRY—Beginning the day with exercises on the edge of a forest. These youngsters were evacuated from Leningrad during the siege to the Kirov Region; (right) At a summer rest home near Moscow children of war invalids take a swim



UZBEKISTAN—The building for bone disease of the Children's Tuberculosis Sanatorium at Tashkent. On the right, dinner is served on one of the porches



A group of schoolboys in the park in Kutaisi, Georgia ponders a critical move in a chess game; (right) Nursery groups have play activities on the beach at Baku, Azerbaidjan SSR

CHILDREN'S HEALTH*(Continued from page 4)*

that were occupied. Today the offensive against children's diseases is being waged along a broad front.

We achieved heartening results last year, the fourth war summer when a large-scale health drive was carried out. About two and a half million children were accommodated in camps, rest homes and sanatoriums. The joint efforts of the medical workers and parents themselves have produced a considerable improve-

ment in the physical condition of the children and a decrease in the incidence of disease.

This summer more than three and a half million children are resting in sanatoriums, camps and the like. Urban kindergartens and orphanages have moved out to the country for two and a half months. For youngsters who remain in the cities there are park and garden playgrounds with staffs of teachers and doctors.

The chain of sanatoriums specializing

in children's care is being restored. We expect the network in the Ukraine where the Germans wrecked sanatoriums with 8,400 beds, to be back in operation at the end of this year. The children's heart sanatorium in the Caucasian sp. of Kislovodsk and the famous bone-tuberculosis sanatoriums in Eupatori and Simeiz in the Crimea are to function again. Institutions are being established in Estonia, Latvia and Moldavia for the first time in the history of these Republics.

Yachting Expeditions for Boys and Girls

By N. Babin

From the very first days of the existence of the Soviet Union the attitude of the State and the whole people to the younger generation has been governed by the idea that "children represent our future." Along with the growing might of the Soviet Union and improvements in the well-being of its citizens, the attention and care given to children has been steadily increasing.

Every year millions of youngsters spend the summer in camps in picturesque and healthful places. Children in need of medical treatment are sent to sanatoriums.

By the end of this summer more than 3 million juveniles will have enjoyed a good rest in the country. Some of them spent their time sailing along the rivers in the country in comfortable modern ships which have been converted into children's rest homes. Special food rations are provided, and travel is under the care of teachers.

Dozens of ships have set out along the Moscow-Volga Canal, along the Dnieper and Don, the Amur and the other rivers of the country. The Trade Union Workers River Fleet, for example, organized floating rest homes for children on ten of their steamers.

In the middle of July the Khimky port in Moscow presented a scene of lively animation. Muscovites assembled here to say goodbye to 700 youngsters

who were leaving for an excursion trip along the Moscow-Volga Canal and down the Volga to Astrakhan in three white motor vessels, the *Herzen*, *Grazhdanka* and *Rabochi*.

While enjoying a good rest the children become acquainted with the great Russian river whose name is inseparably connected with the country's history.

The boys and girls are responsible for certain tasks, like keeping their cabins and the deck clean, washing dishes etc., thus combining rest with useful activity. During the halts the passengers have a chance to go swimming, play football, volleyball and other games. Chess and checkers, dancing, amateur theatricals and singing are popular recreation on the boat. A large library with a variety of literature, including books describing events connected with the history of the Volga and the cities situated along the river, is available.

Guiding the tour are teachers of history, geography and literature, who give interesting lectures and talks devoted to the history of the Volga cities, their economic, military and cultural importance. At Kostroma the travelers inspect specimens of old architecture. At Gorky they visit the museum of the outstanding Russian writer Alexei Maximovich Gorky. At Kazan the children see the university where Lenin and Leo Tolstoy studied and where the famous mathematician

Lobachevsky delivered his lectures.

Of special interest is the stop at Stalingrad, the city of one of the greatest battles against Hitlerite Germany. The children view the fields of battle, meet the people who took part in the city's defense and observe the progress of rehabilitation in the historic city.

One and a half months later the children will return to the capital in time for the beginning of the school year, physically strengthened, spiritually enriched.

The motor vessel *Vyacheslav Molotov* which left Khimky June 27, sailed for a two months' trip along the Moscow-Volga Canal. The vessel, converted into a floating sanatorium for schoolchildren needing treatment, makes no stops at populated places. A special cutter keeps the passengers supplied with food.

At the other end of the country, in the Far East, the steamer *Kolumb* left for a trip on the Amur carrying young passengers. The *Kolumb* took the children as far as the city of Komsomolsk. On the return trip the ship will stop at some islands where the children can collect plants for their herbariums and insect specimens. There, too, they will have an opportunity to go fishing. During the summer about 500 children have traveled on the *Kolumb*.

Thousands of Soviet children will enjoy their holidays sailing on the country's numerous rivers.

PIONEER CAMPS IN UZBEKISTAN

By **Salamat Yuldasheva**

Assistant Commissar of Health of Uzbekistan

In the forests and on the meadows, throughout the country, as soon as summer vacation begins, Pioneer camps for children spring up. Coming for one month of their summer holiday, the children are under the constant supervision of a doctor and the entire regime of camp life is planned to further the child's health. But this preoccupation is not allowed to overshadow fun and diversion. There are hikes to nearby places, investigations of the local fauna and flora, and activities like collecting plants and insects.

Since the majority of these camps are maintained by the factories or trade unions, parents may pay for the child's stay either in part or in full depending upon their circumstances.

For those whose health requires special attention, we have set up special children's sanatoriums. Maintained by the Commissariat of Health, the majority of them are situated in the mountains. Some are reserved for mothers and infants. We also have cottages for school-age children and individual buildings assigned to the children who have lost their parents and who are supported at Government expense. The country places have playgrounds equipped for the chil-



A Moscow Pioneer girl

dren like those of the city parks.

The Government continued its vigilance for the health and rest of the children even during the worst days of the war. The number of children served by the summer institutions reached 100,000 in 1944 in Uzbekistan alone, 40,000 more than in 1943.

Thousands of children who came to Uzbekistan at the beginning of the war when the Germans were advancing, were in poor health from the horrors they had endured. This was especially true of the children brought through the blockade around Leningrad and sent to the East. The facilities of our Republic were of inestimable benefit in reviving strength and childish interests.

Although the Uzbek people, like all other peoples of the USSR, had to do without many necessities, children's rations were not reduced. Chimgan, a children's sanatorium 90 miles from Tashkent, kept the norms up to at least 200 grams of meat a day, 50 grams of sugar, 35 grams of fats, 600 grams of vegetables and as much bread as the children wanted. I speak of this sanatorium particularly because it is in a high place, 1,400 meters above sea level, and getting food up there by automobile along mountain roads leading up from Tashkent was no easy task.

We have almost 50 per cent more children in our camps and sanatoriums this summer than last year, the Pioneer camps alone boasting of receiving 60,000 youngsters.

Moscow Boys Learn English

The corridors of Boys' School No. 69 in the Kiev District of Moscow are unnaturally quiet. The same silence hangs over the classrooms. The reason is not far to seek. In one of the classrooms the boys of the seventh grade are taking their examinations in English.

On the table in front of the examiners are stacked light blue cards upon which questions are printed. Anton Perelazny, chairman of the examining board and director of the school, calls out three names from the list, and three pupils come forward to take their cards.

Alfred Karpovsky's answers to the questions on his card are 100 per cent correct. He reads with ease and translates

fluently. His analysis of an English sentence is excellent.

Leonid Zaslavsky and Efim Eleiner make an equally good showing. They know how to render a sentence in both the affirmative and the negative. They surmount the difficulties of English auxiliary verbs, often so frightening to the student. Pronunciation does not stump them either. When asked for examples of English homonyms—similar words with different meanings—Leonid promptly produces some.

The boys do not limit their reading to their schoolbooks. At home, they enjoy books by Jack London, O. Henry and Mark Twain, and they are all

familiar with *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. Recently one of them brought to class a copy of the *Moscow News*, which is published in English in the Soviet capital.

To these future engineers, pilots, doctors or philologists, the English language is something really alive, a means of cultural intercourse with English-speaking people. Whitman and Shakespeare, Faraday and Edison, stir their imagination and help them to hurdle the difficulties of English pronunciation and conjugation, usually so confusing to the learner.

About 6,000 school-children in the Kiev District of Moscow are now studying English, the most popular foreign language in our schools.

Notes on Soviet Life

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR has awarded orders and medals to 30 members of the Council of the Russian Orthodox Church, under the Council of the People's Commissars of the USSR, who most distinguish themselves in their work. Chairman Karpov received the Order of the Red Banner of Labor.

★

Radio service is being reinstalled throughout the Leningrad Region. The voice of Moscow is once more reaching people of the Frolov District where a new radio relay station with 5,000 extensions is already functioning.

★

Sightseeing in Moscow recently were General of the Army Dwight D. Eisenhower, accompanied by Lieutenant General Lucius D. Clay, Brigadier General Thomas D. Davis and Major General John R. Deane, head of the American Military Mission in the USSR. Among the points of interest were the Tretyakov Art Gallery, the Moscow subway and a defense plant.

On the 14th, General Eisenhower with Marshal of the Soviet Union G. K. Zhukov, toured a collective farm and a State farm in the Mytishchi District, Moscow Region. Later General Eisenhower and his party went to the Kremlin where they saw the historic Palace and its treasures.

★

A delegation of Czechoslovak railway workers arrived in Moscow, bringing Generalissimo Stalin a trainload of gifts from the Czechoslovak workers of Morava Ostrava, and were received at the Kremlin.

★

Krasny Putilovetz, the wealthy collective farm of the Krasnodar area, which celebrated its 15th anniversary this year has rich orchards, and tea and tobacco plantations, netting a farm income of 820,000 rubles in 1943, and 1,292,000 rubles last year.

Thousands of the inhabitants of Cracow gathered on one of the central squares of the city to witness the unveiling of a monument to the soldiers of the Red Army who gave their lives to liberate Cracow. On top of the edifice is a bust of a Red Army soldier.

Among those present at the ceremonies were representatives of the Red Army, and of the Ukrainian and Byelorussian Governments. In his speech the mayor of Cracow noted the great mission of the Red Army which brought freedom and independence to the Polish people.

★

After the rout of German troops at Stalingrad one of the immediate tasks was to locate all German mines in the fields and to render them harmless, the job of Osoaviakhim. In the past two years 4,000 members of this organization have demined some 36,000 square kilometers in the Stalingrad Region, destroying more than one million land mines left by the enemy.

★

In the Omsk hothouses of the Siberian Scientific Research Institute, which began to experiment with subtropical plants a year ago, the cultivation of lemons, tangerines and pomegranates has met with decided success. The Omsk residents are now raising these plants under indoor conditions, and within a year or two will have their own lemons and other southern fruits.

★

An upsurge of cultural life is occurring in the villages of the Ivanovo Region. The Novy Byt collective farm in the Komsomolsk District has a new clubhouse which cost 150,000 rubles to build, with an additional 18,000 rubles allotted for furnishings and equipment.

New centers are being erected by the Dimitrov village Soviet of the Puchazh District and the Krasny Pakhar collective farm of the Seredsky District.

A conference of ear, nose and throat specialists held recently in Moscow summarized the results in the treatment of wounded servicemen. More than 70 per cent of the Red Army officers and soldiers wounded in the ear, nose or throat were restored to the fighting ranks. Mortality resulting from deep wounds of the ear, nose or throat, which was very high in the war of 1914-1918, was reduced to a minimum in the war against Nazi Germany. Plastic methods recently elaborated by Soviet medical men proved highly effective.

★

"Every rebuilt house must be better than before the war," the universal motto in the Donetz Basin, is being literally observed. A total of 20,000,000 square feet of dwellings in 24 months has been built in the Stalino Region. In their free time hundreds of thousands of the inhabitants help in the rehabilitation work. On each house a poster is hung giving a history of the destruction and the names of restoration workers.

Correction

On page 8 of issue No. 87 of the INFORMATION BULLETIN, the picture should be dated: July 18, 1939, the All-Union Day of Sportsmen.

Information Bulletin

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 5

Important Stage in Soviet-Chinese Relations

PRAVDA wrote editorially August 27:

As a result of the negotiations held in Moscow between Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR Stalin and People's Commissar of Foreign Affairs of the USSR Molotov, on the one hand, and Chinese Prime Minister T. V. Soong and Minister of Foreign Affairs of China Wang Shih-chieh on the other, the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between the USSR and the Chinese Republic was signed on August 14. A number of other agreements on problems of Soviet-Chinese relations were signed simultaneously.

The Soviet-Chinese Treaty of Friendship and Alliance and the other agreements between the USSR and China signed on August 14 have been concluded in glorious days. Japanese imperialism has been routed and forced to surrender unconditionally. The hotbed of aggression in the Far East has been eliminated by the efforts of the great Allies, efforts to which both the USSR and China have made great contributions.

The Soviet Union and China were in the same camp during the great war of liberation waged against the bloc of aggressors in the West and in the East. After the Red Army's crushing blow to the Japanese troops, Japan's resistance to the Allies finally collapsed. In its victorious offensive the Red Army liberated Manchuria, wrested from China by the Japanese invaders and converted by them into the place d'armes for an offensive against China and the USSR. All these developments are of historic importance both for the USSR and China, as well as for the further development of Soviet-Chinese relations.

The Soviet State was the first great power in the world to place the principles of equality and respect for the sovereign

rights of the Chinese people in the foundation of its relations with China. As far back as in its declarations of 1919 and 1920 the Soviet Government proclaimed null and void all the treaties and agreements which restricted the sovereign rights or interests of China, concluded by the former tsarist government with China, as well as with third countries.

The attitude taken by the Soviet Government in regard to China was duly appraised by the Chinese people, who have always regarded the Soviet Union as their true and unselfish friend.

It is universally known what enormous importance was attached to Soviet-Chinese friendship by the great leader of the Chinese people, the founder and first President of the Chinese Republic, Sun Yat-sen, who said just before his death in a message addressed to the Central Executive Committee of the USSR: "I firmly trust in the invariable support you have hitherto lent to my country."

At present, in connection with the rout of the Japanese aggressor, there is a prophetic ring in the words of the noble Chinese patriot, Sun Yat-sen: "The day will come when the USSR will greet in powerful, free China its friend and ally, and in the great struggle for the liberation of the oppressed peoples of the world

the two allies will march hand in hand toward victory."

The Soviet people has preserved through all these years its loyalty to the Chinese people. In China's most trying days when her people suffered from the attack of the Japanese aggressor, the USSR proved its friendship in deeds.

The Soviet Union has invariably proved its respect for the sovereign rights and national dignity of other people. Now again the Soviet Union is true to this policy. The first place among the published documents belongs to the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between the USSR and China. Its main object is the strengthening of the friendly relations which have always existed between the two countries by means of an alliance and broad postwar collaboration, for the main purpose of preventing a regeneration of Japanese aggression.

The Treaty provides for the taking of every measure in their power, by both parties, to "render impossible a repetition of aggression and a violation of peace by Japan." If, however, one of the parties becomes involved in hostilities as a result of aggression on the part of Japan, the other party must render its ally military and every other support.

The Treaty precludes the possibility of

V. M. Molotov signing the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between the Soviet Union and the Chinese Republic



Radiophoto

participation of either of the parties in an alliance or coalition directed against the other party.

Postwar, good-neighborly collaboration is based on the principle that the two parties, considering the interests of security and economic development of each of them, agree to work in close and friendly collaboration after the advent of peace and to act in conformity with mutual respect for sovereignty, territorial integrity, and non-intervention in the internal affairs of the other contracting party. The Treaty provides for most extensive mutual economic assistance aimed at facilitating and speeding up the rehabilitation of both countries as well as making a contribution to the cause of world prosperity.

The obligations imposed by the Treaty by no means affect the rights or obligations of the two parties as members of the United Nations Organization. The contents of the Treaty plainly prove that, while helping to strengthen Soviet-Chinese friendship, it represents an effective instrument of the struggle for peace in the Far East—for world peace.

The Soviet-Chinese Alliance is a strong barrier against Japanese aggression. The vital force of the Treaty is enhanced by special agreements on concrete measures for increasing the security of both parties and preventing aggression. Of paramount importance in this respect is the agreement on Port Arthur, which was lost as the result of the defeat suffered by the tsarist government in the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-05, and now becomes the most important Soviet naval base in the Pacific. By this agreement Port Arthur will be converted into a naval base open for use by the warships and merchant ships of China and the USSR alone. The joint use of Port Arthur as a naval base is founded on the following main provisions: defense of the base is entrusted by the Government of China to the Government of the USSR, which erects the necessary structures, bearing all ensuing expenses; the Government of the USSR has the right to maintain in the area of Port Arthur military, naval and air forces, and to decide on their dispositions; the civil administration belongs to China; a military commission is to be formed to deal with problems of joint use, composed of two Chinese and three Soviet

representatives, with a Soviet chairman and a Chinese vice chairman.

The agreement on Port Arthur is directly associated with the agreement on Port Dalny (Dairen), which is proclaimed a free port open to trade and shipping of all countries. The agreement on Port Dalny provides for the leasing to the Soviet Union of part of the piers and warehouses on the basis of a separate agreement, and regulates the interests of both parties, laying down that in peacetime the port is not included in the sphere of operation of the regulations on the naval base contained in the agreement on Port Arthur, but falls under the military regime established in this zone in the event of war with Japan.

Breaking through and smashing the Japanese permanent defenses the victorious Red Army liberated Manchuria, forcing the Kwantung army to surrender. As a result of hostilities, Soviet troops had entered the territory of Manchuria, the "Three Eastern Provinces" which were recognized by the Soviet Government as part of China. This necessitated the conclusion of an agreement on relations between the Soviet Supreme Command and the Chinese administration.

An important addition to the Treaty in the field of economic collaboration is the agreement on the Chinese Changchun Railway, which provides for the joint operation of the Chinese Eastern and South Manchurian Railways. After the expulsion of the Japanese from the Three Eastern Provinces, the lines will be merged into one, the Chinese Changchun Railway, which will be the common property of the USSR and the Chinese Republic, the right of ownership belonging to both parties and not to be transferred either fully or in part. The railway is regarded as a purely commercial enterprise.

When signing the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance and the agreements supplementing it, People's Commissar of Foreign Affairs of the USSR Molotov and Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Chinese Republic Wang Shih-chieh exchanged important notes. A special note points out that the Soviet Government agrees to render to China moral support and assistance with military equipment and other material resources, this support and assistance to be given fully to the Na-

tional Government as the central Government of China.

It is emphasized that the Soviet Government again confirms China's sovereignty over the Three Eastern Provinces (i.e., Manchuria) and, in connection with the developments in Sinkiang, states that it has no intention of interfering in the internal affairs of China.

A creditable manifestation of the respect for the principle of self-determination of nations is the note of Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs Wang Shih-chieh on the Mongolian People's Republic, tried ally of the USSR in the course of many years, which has made a valuable contribution to the defeat of the Japanese aggressor. The Chinese Government declares that in view of the desire for independence repeatedly expressed by the people of Mongolia, it recognizes the independence of the Mongolian People's Republic in her existing frontiers, provided the popular plebiscite confirms this desire.

The Government of the USSR received the note of the Chinese Government with satisfaction, and declared in its turn that it would respect the independence and territorial integrity of the Mongolian People's Republic.

All these Soviet-Chinese agreements conform to the decisions of the Crimea Conference of the leaders of the three Allied powers in February of this year. The Soviet people will note with profound approval the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance with China, and the Soviet-Chinese agreements of August 14. Utmost sympathy and understanding have always been extended the Chinese people in their struggle for independence and freedom. The Soviet people will wholeheartedly support all the undertakings of their Government directed toward the consolidation of Soviet-Chinese friendship, for the benefit of both peoples, for the benefit of general peace.

The USSR and China are bound not only by a common geographical frontier. They are bound by a community of fundamental vital interests; the defense of which is insured by the Soviet-Chinese agreements signed on August 14, which signify an important stage in the development and consolidation of the friendship of the great peoples of the Soviet Union and the Chinese Republic.



American Red Cross Gift to Smolensk

The ceremony of the presentation of a 500-bed hospital equipped by the American Red Cross was held in Smolensk on August 17th.

Among those present were: Mr. W. Averell Harriman, the United States Ambassador to the USSR, his daughter Kathleen, Mr. Elliott Shirk, head of the American Red Cross Mission in the USSR, and

S. A. Kolesnikov, chairman of the Executive Committee of the Red Cross and Red Crescent societies of the USSR.

After inspecting the hospital Mr. Harriman and the members of his party joined the staff of workers of the Smolensk hospital at a luncheon given by the Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Smolensk Regional Soviet of Working People's Deputies.



Above: Ambassador Harriman greets Dr. Paulina Sidorenko, chief physician of the Smolensk Hospital; (right) Mr. Elliott Shirk speaks of the growing friendship of the American and Soviet peoples

Center, standing with Kathleen Harriman, daughter of the Ambassador, is Anna Kuropatkova, chairman of the Smolensk Red Cross Society

Below: Miss Harriman concludes a speech at the presentation ceremony; (right) Kidinov, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Smolensk Regional Soviet of Working People's Deputies, offers a toast to the United States Ambassador at the luncheon given in honor of Mr. Harriman and members of his party

Radiophotos



A DAY IN A MOSCOW TRADE SCHOOL

By Mikhail Alexandrov

In accordance with the decree of 1940, trade and railway schools were set up throughout the country to supply industry and transport with young skilled workers. Over one million young men and women of various trades graduate from the 2,500 trade and railway schools each year.

During the war, the shops of these vocational training centers produced 7,500 million rubles worth of goods. An army of young graduates took up the tools of production in factories, mills and mines, and worked in transport and on construction sites, replacing their fathers and elder brothers who joined the fighting forces. Many special detachments composed of trade school trainees are now taking an active part in the restoration of Stalingrad, Leningrad, the Donbas and on the Dnieper. Thousands of these youngsters have been decorated with orders and medals of the Soviet Union for their selfless work.

I recently visited Trade School No. 12 in Moscow, which was awarded the Order of the Badge of Honor for outstanding achievements in training workers for the aviation industry, and for the successful fulfillment of large war orders. In this school, which prepares turning-lathe and milling machine operators and fitters, 2,000,000 rubles worth of goods is produced annually for the needs of the aviation industry.

One one of the walls inside Trade School No. 12 hangs a portrait of a young Red Army man, Hero of the Soviet Union Yuri Smirnov, who was a former trade school pupil from the provincial town of Makariyevsk.

At the beginning of the war, the young electric welder enlisted in the army as a volunteer and fought beside his elder comrades-in-arms. During one furious engagement with the enemy, Yuri Smirnov was seriously wounded and taken prisoner by the Germans. They dragged him to a dugout and tried to get information from him. But Smirnov did not reply. The Germans then used torture. When Smirnov still refused to answer, the infuriated Nazi savages crucified the

wounded Soviet soldier, nailing him to a crude cross set up against one of the walls of the dugout. The Germans plunged their knives into Smirnov's body, but the brave Red Army warrior died on the cross without uttering a single word.

His name became a symbol of loyalty to the country for the younger generation of the Sovietland. In Makariyevsk the trainees of the local trade school cast a bust of their comrade, who was posthumously awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

* * *

I arrived at Trade School No. 12 at seven o'clock in the morning when the boys and girls had finished making up their beds and were lined up in the yard for setting-up exercises. Most of the 700 students were children from collective farms of the Moscow, Ryazan and Vologda Regions. In a few minutes everyone took his place in the big courtyard. The dark, severe uniforms contrasted sharply with rosy cheeks and white teeth.

One after another, the monitors of the groups reported to a young officer, a demobilized veteran, now in charge of military and physical education here.

Soon afterward lessons started inside the building, where there are numerous classrooms and auditoriums, with school equipment made by the pupils themselves. In another part of the building are the training shops, as clean and bright as research laboratories.

Lessons continue for eight hours with a recess for dinner. In the study halls the trainees solve algebraic problems, study languages, perform physical and chemical experiments and acquire a knowledge of the qualities of metals. This school trains skilled and educated workers.

On the tables set up along the walls are exhibits of articles produced by the youngsters—parts of machines, miniature lathes, etc.

The senior foreman in charge of the workrooms spoke very highly of his pupils. "Most of them come from the village, but compared to the kids of my time

they are far more developed, both mentally and physically," he said. "My pupils are zealous, show an analytical turn of mind and have a warranted self-confidence. They know that all roads are wide open to them, and no matter which road they choose, they will receive every aid and encouragement."

The boy or girl being trained for factory employment is not deprived of opportunity in working and gaining knowledge in other fields. Many former trainees of trade schools have become engineers, fliers and even young scientists.

* * *

When the last lesson is over, there is a dash for the showers and then—off to the stadium, club or theater.

This fall sport fans in Moscow followed with keen interest the football games and track and field meets between the trade schools of Moscow and other cities. The finals of the football tournament for these teams took place in the Soviet capital. Sergei Akimov, a turning-lathe operator of Trade School No. 12, defended the goal of the Moscow team in the final match against the Tbilisi eleven. Anton Tsirkulev of Trade School No. 12 took first place in the running high jump in the track and field meet.

Amateur art shows were recently staged in the Moscow Affiliated Bolshoi Theater by the talent from the vocational trade schools of the country. Boys and girls of the 16 Soviet Republics demonstrated their skill in dancing, singing and reciting. Goldoni's play "Serving Two Masters", performed by the dramatics circle of Trade School 12, was favorably reviewed by the professional theatrical critics.

* * *

I left the trade school late in the evening. The pupils were already asleep.

Our war orphans and children who endured fascist horrors, who saw the Germans burn their houses and murder their families, are building peaceful lives. The Red Army has driven the enemy from Soviet soil, and our young people may carry on with their studies.

Education For Work

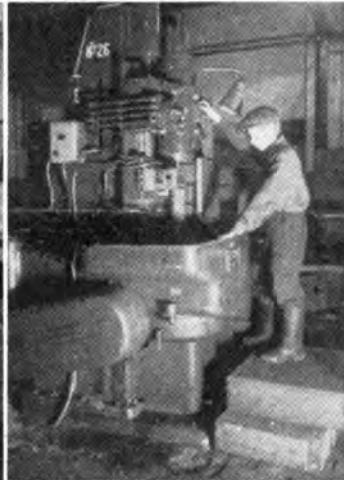


Future workers being prepared for labor and defense march through the streets of Moscow. Right, a class in session in a schoolroom equipped with furnishings made by the pupils themselves



Guards Sergeant Maria Lagutina, a former trade school member

General instruction in the qualities of metals for workers in this field



A trainee receives practical experience in a factory department

A laboratory experiment by a young student in the chemical department



In the training shop trainees use the facilities for checkups on the quality of their work. Trade School No. 12 has a reputation for seldom spoiling a part. Right, after lessons in the study halls, there is a practice period in the shops

THE COLLAPSE OF THE JAPANESE ADVENTURE IN CHINA

By P. Krainov

From IZVESTIA, August 20:

Japan's effort to enslave China and turn that huge country into a colony goes back to feudal times, when Toyotomi Hideyoshi, leader of the samurai, launched a campaign for the conquest of China. "I will cross the sea and bring back China wrapped up in a mat," he said before he began the campaign—which ended in failure.

Since the end of the 19th century when Japan entered the path of imperialist conquest, and the loot and enslavement of her neighbors, her eyes have been turned toward the rich raw material resources of the huge land of China.

In 1894 Japanese militarists attacked China without a declaration of war. The first Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895) gave Japan important positions in South Manchuria and Korea; she annexed Formosa and the Pescadores and compelled China to pay huge cash indemnities.

Having gotten a foothold on the Asiatic mainland, Japan gradually strengthened her position in China. Her economic and political penetration of China was frequently accompanied by military expeditions. The rulers of Japan have always selected the most favorable international situation for these acts of aggression. One such golden opportunity for the Japanese occurred during the First World War, when the great powers had their attention turned from the Far East by events in Europe. Japan entered this war on the side of the Entente with the excuse of driving the Germans out of China. Occupying the Chinese province of Shantung, in January 1915 Japan announced to the Chinese Government the notorious "21 Demands," compliance with which would have meant making China completely dependent on Japan. The 21 Demands included the satisfaction of Japan's far from modest territorial aspirations and the granting to Japan of special political and economic privileges. Japan managed to force the reactionary government of Yuan Shih-kai to accede to most of these impositions.

Throughout the country a mighty wave of protest rose against Japanese insolence,

and the Chinese people declared the day on which the ultimatum was accepted by Yuan Shih-kai's government a "day of national disgrace."

In 1917 the Lansing-Ishii Agreement obtained for the Japanese United States' recognition of Japan's "special rights" in China. The Japanese penetration of China was also assisted by the Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Alliance in existence since 1902. The Washington Nine-Power Conference of 1921-1922 put an end to the Anglo-Japanese Treaty, canceled Japan's "special rights" in China and forced Japanese troops to evacuate Chinese territory.

Japanese imperialism, however, had not abandoned its plans. Ten years after the Washington Conference Japanese militarists again began their aggression on the Asiatic mainland. Using tried and tested methods of provocation, Japan fabricated the Mukden incident in 1931. On the excuse of protecting Japanese nationals the Kwantung army occupied the whole of Manchuria and the northern provinces of China. The territory seized was soon declared an "independent state" and given the name of Manchukuo.

This was followed by another "incident." July 7, 1937, Japanese troops invaded China and occupied such important centers as Peiping, Tientsin, Shanghai, Hankow, Canton and the Chinese capital of Nanking. The most industrially developed and the most densely populated districts of the eastern maritime parts of China and the lower Yangtze-Kiang basin fell into Japanese hands.

After the Japanese plans for the conquest of China in a lightning war collapsed, as was obvious by the end of 1938, Japan under conditions for a prolonged war began to carry out her policy for China by other methods than those previously used. The use of brute force and an open colonial regime no longer served their purpose in the new situation that had arisen. The Chinese people's struggle for national liberation and the movement in the freedom-loving countries for solidarity with China compelled Japanese imperialists to seek other procedures for their policy in China.

In December, 1938, Prince Konoye, the Japanese Prime Minister, issued a declaration on the new policy in China. He announced that Japan was establishing a "new order" in East Asia, which would include Japan, China and Manchukuo under the aegis of Japanese imperialism. The meaning of the "new order" in China was made clear by Japanese Foreign Minister Arita at a conference of foreign newsmen December 19, 1938, when he said: "All restrictions in China preventing the consolidation of the Japan-China-Manchukuo bloc will be removed."

This was only the foreign political side of the solution of the "Chinese question."

In the sphere of home politics was the creation by the Japanese of a regime of puppets who were obedient tools of the Japanese in bringing China under their undivided rule. At the end of 1938 the Japanese set up a "government" in occupied Nanking headed by the Chinese traitor Wang Ching-wei.

A further development of the Japanese "new policy" in China was the signing of a treaty on November 30, 1940, between Japan and the "government" of Wang Ching-wei for "economic, political and cultural collaboration in the struggle against destructive activities of a Communist nature." This step was taken by the Japanese with a view to attracting to collaboration with Japan prominent leaders of the Chungking government, breaking the national unity of China and stirring up civil strife in the country. All kinds of alluring prospects and promises were held out to the Chinese people: they would only cease resisting Japan.

The change in method of the Japanese policy was due to the fact that Japan was preparing for war against the United States and Great Britain in the Pacific Ocean. Japan would have to transfer part of her forces from China for this new war venture.

On the other hand, Japan was endeavoring to consolidate under her empire the ideological political bloc of East Asian countries, for whose leadership she had been for a long time. Japanese propaganda appealed to China to "return to the bosom

of East Asia" and preached a "holy war or liberation" of the East Asian countries. In actual fact, the Japanese militarists were trying to lay their hands on China and other East Asian countries and convert them into "living space."

The pro-Japanese activities of certain individuals apparently led the Japanese to hope that China would capitulate. Attempts to draw China away from her Allies were continued even after the Pacific war began. This policy was intensified when the Japanese political and military situation became shaky on account of the Anglo-American counteroffensive in the Pacific and the defeat inflicted by the Red Army on Japan's ally, Hitler Germany.

The next Japanese trick was the declaration of the sovereignty of the Chinese Republic. On January 9, 1943, the Japanese government renounced its extra-territorial rights in China and returned the foreign concessions to the puppet government. This act was followed by the conclusion of a treaty of alliance on October 30, 1943, between Japan and the Nanking government, which advertised Wang Ching-wei's China as an "equal and sovereign state."

The value of these Japanese declarations may be judged from the fact that Wang Ching-wei's government did not have the right to issue any instructions or adopt any measures without the consent of the Japanese occupation authorities. As far as the concessions are concerned, both the Japanese and those that formerly belonged to other powers were in the hands of the Japanese. The Japanese Ambassador to the Nanking Government, Tani, spoke at a press conference in Nanking on May 1, 1944, and explained the new policy of the Japanese in the following way: "Some people believed that the new China policy meant that all Chinese affairs would be placed in the hands of the Chinese. It later became apparent to representatives of the government, to military circles and the civilian population that the aim of the new policy in China is the carrying out of all measures in a spirit of mutual trust and collaboration between China and Japan in the interest of the war of great East Asia."

In short, Japan allotted Wang Ching-

wei's China and the other "sovereign states" in the "sphere of co-prosperity" the same role as that which Hitler Germany allotted the oppressed countries of Europe.

Japan's "old" and "new" policies have

exploded. The military defeat of Japan, her unconditional surrender to the Allied Powers—the USSR, the United States, Great Britain and China—means the final collapse of the Japanese adventure in China.

A Job Well Done

By V. Kozin

"Daring," said Prozorov, chairman of the collective farm, in reply to his own question, "is the ability to make drastic changes at the right moment, to subordinate everything to one's new goal and to achieve it!"

The Krasny Oktyabr collective farm in the Kirov Region is located on meager soil—it requires a great deal of fertilizer, the gardens must be irrigated, and it is with much toil and difficulty that the people wrest grain and fruit from the earth. The winter in Vyatka is severe and stormy, and lasts four months. The trees and cattle here are stunted in growth. Small, too, though famous for their endurance, are the Vyatka horses.

Prozorov, who was one of the organizers of the Krasny Oktyabr collective farm 21 years ago, was born in these parts. In his youth he was a poor peasant, then a waiter aboard a Volga steamer, a cobbler in Kazan and finally a soldier in a Volga regiment during the Civil War. In the Red Army he received an elementary education and later took a pedagogical course. After leaving the Army he returned to his native village of Chekoty, where he was elected a member of the Volost Executive Committee. He organized an agricultural group which developed into an artel, or cooperative, and which in 1930 became the Krasny Oktyabr collective farm.

Before the war Prozorov, chairman, and many members of the collective farm were awarded gold and silver medals at the All-Union Agricultural Exhibition.

When war broke out, the model farm was faced with many difficulties. All its young men were called to the colors; the Army needed the best horses and tractors; deliveries to the State in grain and farm produce were increased. The work had to be reorganized and improved.

The farm was run chiefly by women.

They headed the brigades that cultivated the fields and tended the vegetable gardens and livestock. They plowed, sowed and gathered the harvest, looked after the horses and bulls, and did the work of mechanics, electricians, laboratory workers, bookkeepers and even accordion players. The women learned all sorts of new trades and professions, and developed their abilities as leaders, organizers and executives.

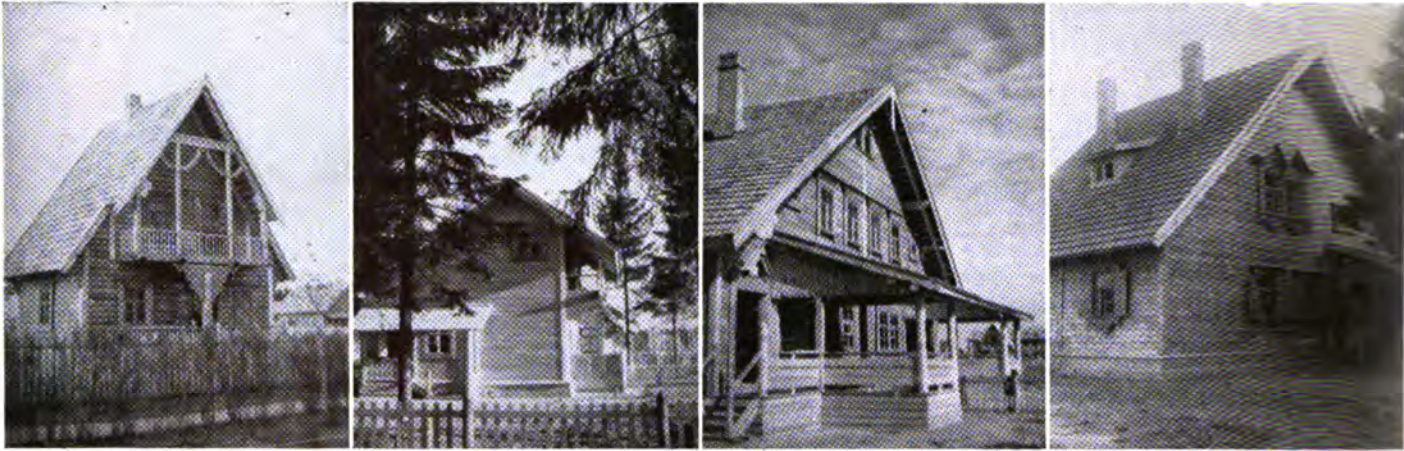
"Shortly after the war broke out," said Prozorov, "I addressed a meeting of 500 collective farmers, telling them that the war demanded new economic ideas and new undertakings, and suggesting that we build a branch farm in Chekoty that would be a fitting reply to the warmongers. After considering my proposal and estimating the forces at our disposal, the collective farmers agreed it could be done. And they set about it with a will!"

With the collective farm chairman, I visited the new branch at Chekoty. The farm is truly a product of the Patriotic War. Developed mainly by women during the early years of war, it covers about 600 hectares of land, with truck gardens, nurseries, hothouses, apiaries, an orchard, a poultry yard, a prosperous dairy section, pedigreed hogs and sheep, three cattle yards, stables, granaries, a windmill, a water tower, a power station, a flour mill, a creamery, a school and comfortable dwellings. Surrounding the farm are huge ricks of hay and clover, excellent fodder for its livestock. I visited the fine rest home, located in a pine forest. Elderly collective farmers, middle-aged women, and people in ill health have first call on its hospitality. The guests are given every care and attention.

In 1944 the Krasny Oktyabr collective farm had an income of three million rubles. "As you see," said Prozorov, "the situation called for daring. We had to utilize every potentiality."

Housing Construction in Kostino

By N. Shestopal



Dwellings in the Kostino settlement. From the left: single unit; two-family; double cottage; and four-family bungalow

The war did not halt home-building in the Soviet Union. The Government found it possible to set aside considerable sums of money for the improvement of living conditions for the working people.

Now that the entire territory of the Soviet Union has been liberated from the German invaders, the tasks of the construction workers are immeasurably greater. A tremendous number of towns and villages which suffered at the hands of the Nazi occupationists have to be restored as speedily as possible.

Eminent Soviet architects are now busy

with the planning of new settlements and communities and developing new types of dwellings. Some of the best designs submitted at the competitions arranged by the Government Committee on Architecture and the Union of Architects are being carried out.

There is particular emphasis on small dwellings of cottage type with all modern improvements and an adequate plot of land for each home. Such a community designed by architect Boris Barkhin built in 1944 in Kostino in the suburbs of Moscow, is inhabited by Soviet officers and their families. These wooden bungalows

have typical Russian carvings and decorations.

Overlooking a river and spreading over an area of some 50 acres, Kostino is reached by electric railroad from Moscow. The new community has 88 one and two-family cottages, each unit of which has three rooms—living-room, kitchen, hall and cold storage closets. There are electric lights, running water and other conveniences. Around each cottage is a yard of 1,000 square meters.

The community of two stores, a fire station and a hotel, has paved and tree-lined streets with electric lamp posts.

Workers' Summer Colony

At Zagoryanka in a lovely pine forest 28 kilometers from Moscow is the summer colony of the workers of the First State ballbearing plant. This is one of the many country places for Moscow workers and their families.

This colony of 250 cottages was formed in 1934 by the members of the plant who joined the cooperative, paying 1,200 rubles over a period of several months. Additional appropriations were made by the State industrial bank, and the Moscow Regional Soviet provided land free of cost.

One of the first settlers was Scherbina, a turner. Every day after work he joins his family in the country. On the glass-encased veranda, his eight-year-old son

Slava and two-year-old daughter Alla are playing with a toy railroad. Beyond are the large, light living-room and bedroom next to it. His wife prepares dinner in a cheerful, clean kitchen. Strawberries and raspberries ripen in the garden.

Next door, Fedor Lapin, a foundryman, lives with his family. They are spending their vacation in the country.

Every benefit of country life is enjoyed by the workers, who leave modern apartments in Moscow to spend the summer in their cottages. The population of the colony is about 4,000. Many new members have joined the cooperative this year, and a new program of construction is underway.

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5

The Berlin Conference and the War Criminals

By Professor N. Polyansky

From KRASNAYA ZVEZDA, August 25.

In the report on the Tripartite Conference in Berlin, war criminals are mentioned in two places—in the sections on Germany and on war criminals.

1. Should all war criminals be tried whose crimes are not confined to one definite geographical locality?

In the Moscow Declaration of the three powers, published November 2, 1943, there was not yet complete clarity on this question. True, it made provision for Italian fascist leaders to be arrested and handed over for trial. Concerning the major war criminals among the German fascists, it said that they would be punished in accordance with a joint decision of the Allied Governments. This formula left the question open as to whether the criminals mentioned would be handed over to the court by government decision or whether their fate would be decided by some political act.

The report on the Berlin Conference speaks specifically of bringing those

criminals whose crimes have no particular geographical localization to swift and sure justice. The Soviet Union was always of the opinion that an international court should be set up for the purpose. As early as October 14, 1942, the Soviet Government announced that it deemed it essential that any of the leaders of fascist Germany should immediately be handed over to a special international tribunal and punished with all the severity of the criminal code.

The Berlin Conference linked up the organization of the court to try major criminals with an agreement to be reached in London between representatives of the Soviet Union, Great Britain, the United States and France. Only the authority of an international court will give a sentence such weight that it will have the significance of a stern warning to all who in the future may attempt to disturb world peace and security—anyone who may again attempt to prevent peoples, as the Charter of the United Nations says,

from living together in peace with one another as good neighbors. A court and not a political act is necessary, not in order to punish war criminals, but to expose all springs of fascist conspiracy against the world so as to offer a full picture of the atrocities committed by the treacherous warmongers, to trace all tentacles of Hitlerism and assist in withdrawing them from the body of those states to which they have attached themselves. It will be remembered that the international court which existed until recently under the name of the Permanent Court of International Justice, was not a criminal court, and, despite the proposal made by the chairman of the commission of lawyers at the time when its statutes were being worked out, did not include a criminal section.

The question of establishing an international criminal court, therefore, is one that must now be raised anew. This is a problem that involves a large number of juridical and political questions that



AT BERLIN—The heads of the Allied Governments of Great Britain, the USSR and the United States in conference. Joining the discussions are the members of their delegations

have now been solved by the agreement reached in London between the representatives of the USSR, the United States, Great Britain and France.

According to this agreement, the international military tribunal will consist of members of the court and their deputies appointed by each of the above-mentioned governments, with one member and one deputy member for each. The question of chairmanship was solved in the same way as it was solved at the San Francisco Conference: the representatives of each of the countries, as a rule, act as chairman of the court in turn. On the basis of representation from the same states, a committee will be set up to investigate cases and issue indictments against the major war criminals.

It is not possible here to outline the procedure to be adopted by the future international tribunal. Suffice it to say that those who made the agreement not only set themselves the aim of insuring punishment of the criminals, but also, under such procedure, guaranteed that there would be no room for doubt as to the justice of the verdict. Needless to say, the representatives of the four powers did not permit any deviations from the principle that the verdict of guilty can be pronounced only against a person whose guilt shall be established by trustworthy evidence, beyond a shadow of a doubt.

2. The Berlin Conference report also gives an answer to the question as to whether individuals not in military service will be tried as war criminals.

The report regards as war criminals all "those who have assisted in the planning or carrying out of Nazi enterprises involving or resulting in atrocities or war crimes." This decision must be regarded as correct and just. Those who worked out the plans of aggressive warfare and the methods of its prosecution, those who provided the means of executing these plans and putting these methods into operation, those who organized propaganda with the purpose of carrying out Nazi enterprises, all of them are no less guilty than those who actually committed the crimes. These are the real warmongers, these are the people who sacrificed millions of human

lives to satisfy their avarice or base ambition. They have mountains of corpses and armies of invalids on their consciences.

Among those who are to be tried by the international military tribunal as major war criminals must be included members of the Nazi government, leaders of the fascist party, all the General Staff, workers who prepared the offensive plans, the commanders-in-chief of the armies, those who headed the Gestapo and the armies of the SS detachments and, lastly, the industrial and financial magnates.

3. The report on the Berlin Conference says that the three governments participating consider that these major criminals (that is, those whose crimes cannot be geographically localized) should be brought to swift and sure justice. There is no doubt that this decision satisfies the desire of all progressive mankind. The freedom-loving peoples believe that retribution should be swift.

Some foreign newspapers express the opinion that the war criminals should be tried only when passions have cooled down. Under no circumstances can we agree with this opinion. Obviously, only those who want to save the fascist leaders from a just punishment wish to postpone the trial. Public opinion all over the world has expressed profound satisfaction with the decision of the Berlin Conference to accelerate the investigation of fascist crimes.

The report on the Berlin Conference said that the initial list of the accused would be published before the first of September.

4. There are two questions which, like the question of an international

court, must certainly be settled by representatives of the great powers. These are, first, the question of the trial of the war criminals who committed crimes on the territories of several states, such as the USSR, France and Belgium; and second, the trial of those who committed war crimes on the territory of Germany itself, against prisoners of war, against individuals driven into slavery or retained in Germany since the outbreak of the war.

For the trial of those who committed crimes on the territories of several states the Versailles Treaty provided for a mixed court whose members were drawn from military courts of the countries in which the crimes had been committed. Today there are people who are in favor of this idea. Another possibility (in our opinion, the more correct one) is that the prisoners be tried in each case by the court of the country in which the crime was committed and that the last court to try him should sentence him in accordance with all the crimes of which he has been found guilty.

As far as those criminals are concerned whose crimes were committed in Germany, some of them come under the category of major war criminals who must be tried by the international military tribunal; the remainder, in contradistinction to the principle of trying the criminal on the scene of the crime, should be tried by the courts of those states against whose citizens the crimes were committed. Such a solution to the problem does not give rise to any doubt, but a special agreement may be required to insure that the criminals, irrespective of what occupation zone they were found in, are handed over to the state against whose citizens the crimes were committed.

Reference Storehouse

The All-Union Central Publications Archives, which receives copies of everything printed in the Soviet Union, is observing its 25th anniversary.

Bibliographical data of 750,000 books published in 11 languages, as well as 350,000 copies of periodicals and 10 million issues of newspapers have been compiled at the Archives in the past quarter of a century.

Fire caused by German bombs in 1941 completely destroyed the thematic catalog, which contained more than a million cards. But the timely measure of the staff saved the general alphabetical catalog.

The staff of the All-Union Central Publications Archives is now compiling bibliographical data on the literature published during the war.

The Soviet Air Force in the War Against Japan

By Air Lieutenant General N. Zhuravlev

The chief difference between Soviet air operations against Japan and those against the Hitlerite armies is that in the Far East our Air Forces were called upon to smash through permanent enemy fortifications from the very beginning of hostilities, whereas this type of action became the order of the day only during the concluding stage of the war with Germany.

This fortification-cracking job in the Far Eastern Theater was prodigious indeed, for throughout the long years of their occupation of Manchuria the Japanese built numerous permanent fortifications in all operational areas. An especially dense network of strong points was laid out in the Maritime area where the enemy had set up several consecutive lines of permanent fortifications all the way from the Amur to Pos'eta Bay.

Our dive bombers did some very precise pinpoint bombing of Japanese forts. Experience has already shown that Japanese reinforced concrete is no better and no worse than the German; as a matter of fact, it seems to have been made by the same formula. These Japanese strong points crumpled under hammering from the air just as the German fortifications had in East Prussia around Koenigsberg and on the Oder.

During the first days of the Red Army



Radiophoto
Chief Air Marshal A. A. Novikov (right) with People's Commissar of Aircraft Industry A. I. Shakhurin

drive, Japanese planes made their appearance over the battlefield and even tried to penetrate behind our forward formations. This curiosity cost them a heavy price in initial encounters with the Yakovlev and Lavochkin fighters.

In the Maritime Region Japanese aircraft tried both to conduct reconnaissance and to strike at the advancing Soviet infantry. This attempt was also nipped in the bud by Soviet fighters, which prevented Japanese planes from reaching areas where our troops were, and shot down up to 25 per cent of the enemy craft participating in the operation.

The situation in the air in the Man-

churian theater was more favorable to our Air Forces than during the war in Europe. Numerically weaker and inferior in quality, the Japanese air force tried to sit it out at the airdromes deep inland in Manchuria with a view to escaping the quick and inevitable end they knew was in store for them. Very likely the Japanese thought conditions would be more favorable for calling on their air strength in central and southern Manchuria where Soviet aircraft would find themselves far from home bases and compelled to operate in a mountainous country with few airdromes to fall back on.

This scheme too turned out to have been poorly grounded. Unable to maintain the stability of their front the Japanese soon found their air bases threatened by Soviet armored thrusts. Under pressure from both land and sky, the enemy air force proved unable to display any telling activity.

From the very first day of fighting Soviet aircraft had been hammering enemy objectives both on the field of battle and behind Japanese lines. For one thing, air raids had been made on the biggest railway hubs in Manchuria. Time and again our aircraft bombed the railway junctions of Harbin and Changchun. Kirin was another target.

The object of these raids is clear: by wrecking the railway junction Soviet airmen prevented the enemy from maneuvering with his reserves. Moreover, the bombing of these targets hampered the withdrawal of enemy troops from the danger zone.

The Soviet air blows at the Manchurian railway hubs has shown among other things that the Japanese anti-aircraft defenses, especially their night fighter force, were less effective than the German.

While smashing at the enemy's land communications, the Soviet Air Force did not neglect Japanese naval transports. It systematically attacked Japanese vessels in the Korean ports and pursued them at sea. Many Japanese transport ships were sunk by our fliers.

(Continued on following page)



Radio-photo
DURING THE RAIDS ON EASTERN PRUSSIA—Fliers of a bomber formation under the command of Nestertsev resting after a night's action

HEROES OF SOCIALIST LABOR



AIRCRAFT INNOVATOR—A. Mikulin, is congratulated on his award by M. I. Kalinin

The best of the Soviet airplane engines were designed by Academician Alexander Mikulin who succeeded in designing an engine which greatly increased airscrew efficiency, and made it possible to put a rear gunner on a plane to protect its tail, making it nearly invulnerable to enemy fighter attacks. Continually perfecting his designs, Mikulin created an engine with a comparatively low rate of fuel consumption. With these improvements the Ilyushin-2 Stormovik struck the enemy with terror.

The life and work of Mikulin are inseparably connected with the development of Soviet aviation. Valeri Chkalov made his historical non-stop flights in planes powered by Mikulin engines. The plane in which Hero of the Soviet Union Mikhail Gromov made his Moscow-North America flight was also equipped with a Mikulin engine.

As far back as 1916, on assignment from his uncle, Professor Zhukovsky—the "father of Russian aviation"—Mikulin, with the designer, Stachkin, built his first aero engine.

Numerous followers of Mikulin head the designing bureaus at the largest Soviet aircraft works, where the teacher's inventions are given practical shape and are developed into new engine designs.

On three occasions the Government has expressed its appreciation of Mikulin's achievements by awarding him a Stalin Prize.

AIR FORCE

(Continued from page 3)

The ports of Yuki, Rashin and Seishin were taken by landing forces of the Marines, but the role of the Air Force in the capture of these ports is extremely important; in these battles it provided the cover of fire usually given by battleships and cruisers.

In the land operations, too, the Air Force was a great factor, as it was during the operations on the Soviet-German front. Bombers and Stormoviks as usual covered tank and infantry attacks, while the fighters, besides protecting their troops and aircraft on the battlefield, hunted down the enemy on land and in the air.

* * *

For ten years the Designing Bureau directed by Boris Shpitalny has developed and put into effect new ideas in aviation armament. Shpitalny's super-speed guns and machine guns are installed in all types of Soviet combat aircraft.

While Shpitalny has gained especial fame by his designs of aviation guns, this was not his first invention. Originally he made a quick-firing aviation machine gun, having evolved his own theory of firing speed. Later on Shpitalny's new automatic guns were installed in Soviet airplanes. The war has proved the superiority of these guns to the ones with which German aircraft were equipped.

The super-speed aviation guns in the Ilyushin-2 Stormoviks proved a powerful weapon in fighting German tanks.

The distinguished inventor possesses extensive and varied practical experience and knowledge. He is the author of a highly important study on gas turbines; he has elaborated the theory of the sub-water wing which enhances the speed and stability of the ship.

Hero of Socialist Labor Boris Shpitalny, who was twice awarded Stalin Prizes, is now at work on a further improvement of his aviation guns, classed among the world's quickest and most powerful firing weapons.



CREATOR OF WEAPONS—B. Shpitalny seated at his drawing table

The final fighting in Manchuria offered striking evidence of the superiority of the Soviet Air Force over the Japanese. This superiority is one of the factors that compels the Japanese militarists to carry out faithfully the terms of unconditional surrender set forth in the Potsdam Declaration.

MANCHURIA AS THE JAPANESE BASE OF ATTACK ON THE SOVIET UNION

By Avarin

From NEW TIMES, No. 6:

A glance at the map is sufficient to show that Manchuria occupies a peculiar geographical position with regard to the Soviet Union. It is like an immense wedge driven into our territory. The Soviet-Manchurian border is about 3,500 kilometers long. The most fertile and densely populated regions of the Soviet Far East lie in close contiguity with it. Blagoveshchensk, Khabarovsk and other large Soviet cities are situated practically on the border itself.

Manchuria is centrally placed in the midst of surrounding Soviet territory. Owing to this the armed forces of an aggressor who holds sway over Manchuria are able, if they possess suitable communications, to strike along short lines of operation at any point in adjacent Soviet territories.

Use of Border Position As Base of Attacks

The Amur and Ussuri Railways run within close range of the Soviet-Manchurian border for practically their whole length. Important waterways form a part of the border itself. An aggressor operating from Manchuria may, therefore, by a successful surprise attack, sever vital communications in a number of places, and, if he can exploit his success, cut off the Soviet Maritime Province and Amur region from the rest of the Soviet Union.

In the event of aggression against the Soviet Union, the armed forces that control Manchuria also possess the advantage of being able to maneuver along internal lines of operation.

By virtue of these physical conditions, any aggressive nation that controls this country enjoys great facilities for an attack on the Soviet Union. This circumstance was taken advantage of in the early years of the Soviet Government by White Guard chieftains operating on orders of the Japanese. Semenov, Khorvat, Kalmy-

kov and other Japanese hirelings, using Manchuria as a base, invaded Soviet territory, harried and pillaged it and retired to their lair whenever danger threatened.

Because of its geographical situation, Manchuria has always attracted the deep interest of the Japanese in their schemes of armed aggression against neighboring countries. The Japanese imperialists persistently strove to seize possession of Manchuria. Having occupied this country in 1931-32, and set up the Manchukuo puppet state, their first concern was to turn it into a military base for an eventual attack on the Soviet Union. They worked at feverish speed, drawing widely upon the human and material resources of the captured country. The results were evident within a few years. The new strategic communications brought by the Japanese to the Soviet frontier, the numerous hastily built airdromes, the network of telephone lines, the solid fortifications and military settlements, the war industry created in the interior regions and the large Japanese army concentrated in Manchuria, all spoke eloquently of the aspirations of the Japanese imperialists. In fact, they made no secret of their intentions. On the contrary, they made their appetites loudly known in the press and even in official statements.

Documents Reveal Japanese Aims

The role which they assigned to Manchuria in their plans for an attack on the Soviet Union was very clearly revealed in Japanese secret documents which in one way or another became publicly known. In particular, General Tanaka, one of the moving spirits of Japanese intervention in the Soviet Far East, outlined in a secret memorandum to the Emperor in 1927 a detailed plan for the seizure of all Manchuria's railways, and the building of new ones for the purpose of creating "a basis of attack on Siberia." He wrote, "When these railroads are completed, we shall

pour our forces into North Manchuria as far as we can. . . . That is our opportunity for an open conflict."

This former Japanese premier and leader of the Seiyukai Party repeatedly reiterated in his notes, "Sooner or later we shall have to fight Soviet Russia."

He cynically declared, "In our wars with Russia and the United States, we shall have to compel Manchuria and Mongolia to experience all the horrors of war."

In this same memorandum Tanaka outlined a program for further Japanese aggression.

"The way to gain actual rights in Manchuria and Mongolia is to use this region as a base and, under the pretense of trade and commerce, penetrate the rest of China. . . . Having China's entire resources at our disposal we shall proceed to conquer India, the archipelago of Asia Minor, Central Asia and even Europe."

Documents originating in high Japanese military circles in the period subsequent to the occupation of Manchuria, clearly confirmed Japan's military designs on the Soviet Union. In one of them (published in *Izvestia*, March 4, 1942) the Japanese militarist declared, "I consider it necessary that the Imperial Government pursue a policy which will make it possible to start a war on the USSR as early as possible."

As the Japanese general did not intend this document for the public eye, he did not deem it necessary to mask his plan of war on the Soviet Union by talk about the "Bolshevik peril" and the like. The aim of the war, in his opinion, was not to protect Japan from Communism, but to seize possession of the Soviet Far East and Eastern Siberia. His minimum program was "penetration as far as Lake Baikal." As regards the Far Eastern territory, he wanted to "completely embody it in the Japanese empire."

Even in their public utterances the Japanese leaders spoke in very clear terms.



Radiophoto

ENEMY FORTIFICATIONS IN MANCHURIA—A strong point on a road in the steppes. In preparation for their aggression the Japanese erected an extensive system of defenses; (right) A fort smashed by Soviet artillery

Matsuoka, a prominent politician and diplomat and a special Japanese delegate to the League of Nations Conference in Geneva in 1932, explained that Manchuria had been occupied by Japan in order to make it a "Japanese bulwark against the Soviet Union." Not only the Japanese press, but even leading military men and officials like General Araki, in their speeches and articles openly called for seizure of Siberia.

USSR Rebuffs

It was absolutely clear that the Soviet Union must take appropriate measures against the threat of a Japanese attack from the Manchurian base. Such measures were taken. And when the Japanese aggressors began to probe the Soviet frontiers they invariably found themselves up against strong barriers and met with vigorous rebuff. Their provocative attacks made on a large scale at Lake Hassan in 1938 and on the River Khalkingol in 1939 ended deplorably for them.

Particularly serious was the attempt at Khalkingol to cross from Manchuria into the Mongolian People's Republic, with which the Soviet Union is bound by a treaty of mutual assistance. Hostilities begun by the Japanese in the middle of May lasted until the middle of September, 1939. Tanks and aircraft were engaged on both sides. Under extremely unfavorable conditions (the remoteness of bases and railways, the difficulties of supply, etc.), Soviet troops as well as troops of

the Mongolian People's Republic displayed splendid valor and high military proficiency. Operations also revealed that Soviet tanks and aircraft were definitely superior to the Japanese. In four months of hostilities the Japanese lost 660 aircraft, 150 guns and many tanks and motor vehicles. Tens of thousands of Japanese were killed and the aggressor was hurled back from the borders of the Mongolian People's Republic. This armed conflict which they had themselves provoked was a severe lesson to the command of the Kwantung army and to Japanese militarists in general.

But it did not bring them to their senses, and Japan's preparations for war on the Soviet Union did not cease. She continued to perfect her armed base in Manchuria and to accumulate resources for an attack on the Soviet Union. At the same time the Japanese had converted Manchuria into an industrial and food base for a war against China, the United States and Great Britain.

Ramified Fortifications

By widescale construction of communication facilities the Japanese army created a number of well-equipped operational sectors for action against the Soviet Union, stretching from the center of Manchuria to the Soviet frontier. These were equipped with railways and motor roads, with a network of air bases and airfields, with telephone and telegraph lines, army stores, repair shops and for-

tified areas and strong points to serve as initial positions for attack. In a number of places the Japanese even erected special strong points in the shape of agricultural settlements of militarily trained Japanese colonists, or of large estates manned by militarily trained Japanese youths.

Before the Japanese occupation there was only one railway in Manchuria that touched the Soviet border in two places. This was the Chinese Eastern Railway which traverses North Manchuria. It was under joint Soviet and Chinese administration at the time and could therefore not be utilized for an attack on the Soviet Union.

When the Chinese Eastern Railway passed into the hands of the Japanese, they changed its gauge to make it uniform with that of other Japanese railways in Manchuria. They then laid a second track, thereby increasing its carrying capacity to 56 pairs of trains per day. The Japanese completely adapted this railway for an attack on the Soviet Union. In addition, they laid a number of new strategical railways and roads leading to the Soviet frontier. They also built lateral railways and roads, especially along the southern border of the Ussuri region.

Let us enumerate the principal operational sectors the Japanese intended to use for the invasion of the Soviet Union: first, Changchun (and Mukden), Taonan, Hailun, Acheng, Handagai (border of the Mongolian People's Republic), second, Harbin, Tsitsihar, Hailar—Man-

churia station (and old Zuruchutai); third, Tsitsihar, Saghalien (and Harbin Saghalien); fourth, Harbin, Tungkiang, Fuhai; fifth, Harbin, Pogradichnaya station; sixth, Kirin (and Seishin), Pos'eta and Amur Bays; seventh, Changchun (or Harbin as well as Seishin), Mudankiang, Mulin. In addition, a number of auxiliary sectors also abutting on the Soviet border at various points were created.

Road construction was of particular importance in Manchuria as, owing to the rough and impassable nature of the territory in extensive parts of the country, large troop formations could move only in certain sectors. As a result of the strategical construction undertaken during the 13 years of Japanese occupation, the total length of railways in Manchuria increased from 6,500 to 13,000 kilometers. In this period, too, 50,000 kilometers of arterial and local roads were built, most of them of military value. The laying of a motor road from Dairen to Harbin was begun, seaports were enlarged, and the capacity of the main sea lines connecting Manchuria and Japan increased. The construction of new ports was undertaken and the number of steamship lines between the Asiatic continent and the Japanese archipelago enlarged. The airways were considerably developed; at least ten of them terminate at the Soviet border, while others run along the border itself.

"Colonists"

Japanese agricultural settlements and big estates are chiefly located in North Manchuria, most of them in the vicinity of the Soviet frontier. The number of Japanese colonists, including employees on estates, reached 200,000 while the number of Japanese in Manchuria and Kwantung Province totaled about one and a half million. Only one-sixth of this number, 260,000 persons in all, lived in Manchuria before the occupation.

The Japanese also endeavored to utilize the Koreans as a weapon and support in Manchuria, and took systematic measures to resettle them at definite points. As a result, the number of Koreans in Manchuria rose from 900,000 before the occupation to one and a half million in 1945.

While building their broadly ramified system of strong points for an operation against the Soviet Union in the more important strategical sectors, the Japanese generals erected very solid fortifications of a permanent type. A network of such fortifications was built, for instance, in the vicinity of the Pogradichnaya station at Lake Hanka in the lower reaches of the Sungari, around Saghalien opposite Blagoveshchensk and in the Manchuria station area.

Japanese imperialists took energetic measures to utilize the natural and human resources of their Manchurian base for the furtherance of their military aims. Power resources were greatly developed, coal mining expanded and exploitation of the forests undertaken. Heavy industry sprang up—iron and steel, non-ferrous and light metals, chemicals, including the extraction of liquid fuel from shale and coal. Aircraft and automobile factories were erected, and metal-working plants, arsenals, small arms factories, etc., were enlarged or reequipped.

The output of coal in Manchuria is estimated at 25 million tons per annum, compared with 10 million tons before the occupation. The iron output, to judge by available data, is as high as 3 million tons, a sevenfold increase compared with the pre-occupation years. Until 1935, steel was not smelted in Manchuria at all, but in recent years the output has been not less than one and a half million tons per annum.

The Japanese converted the Mukden arsenal which existed before the occupation into a vast agglomeration of armament works, employing over 50,000 work-

ers. It produces guns, mortars, machine guns, explosives, etc. There are gunpowder factories in Antung, Liaoyang and Fushun. In 1940 a great expansion in the manufacture of explosives was undertaken.

Manchuria's light industries were adapted for supply of the Japanese army, and new factories were built. They provided Japanese troops with uniforms, food, accouterments and footwear.

Presumably, one-third of Japan's total industrial output in recent years was derived from Manchuria.

It need scarcely be said that the Japanese military inaugurated stringent control over the country's industry and its economy generally. The strict supervision extends to every factory, to every artisan workshop and to every farm. The Japanese military authorities have the disposal of the whole output, order what is to be produced and in what quantity, fix prices, determine wages, etc.

When a Manchurian farmer gathers his harvest, he has to surrender not only his grain, but even his vegetables. The Japanese keep a strict account of every sheep and hen, of every head of cabbage growing in the vegetable patches. While living on a starvation ration and dying of inanition and disease, the Chinese peasant in Manchuria has had for years to reconcile himself to the fact that the fruits of his labor have been enjoyed by the Japanese robbers. In this way the Japanese not only fed their large army in Manchuria, but also shipped to Japan millions of tons of agricultural produce annually.

The laws and decrees issued by the

Japanese soldiers in the Far Eastern Theater marching to prisoner camps after being captured by Soviet forces



Radiophoto

Japanese command directly or through the Manchukuo "government" invested the authorities with the power of compulsorily recruiting workers for industry, agriculture or for strategical construction. The subjects of the puppet emperor, Pu Yi, could not change their place of residence or leave their place of employment of their own accord. The entire working population of Manchuria was turned into slaves of the Japanese imperialists, into feudal serfs, subject to the most brutal and exacting forms of exploitation. Like the German fascists in European countries they seized, Japanese fascists in Manchuria introduced slave labor in factories and feudal conditions in the villages. "The German fascists are feudal reactionaries," Stalin said of the Hitlerites. The Japanese invaders are similar feudal reactionaries who have reduced to slavery tens of millions of workers and peasants in Manchuria and other subjugated countries.

Not content with this, the Japanese imperialists with the intention of broadly utilizing the human resources of the country in furtherance of their aims of conquest, introduced conscription in Manchuria. They were unable, however, to complete the necessary measures for building a large army recruited from their Manchurian slaves. The country has a population of over 45 million, but at the beginning of this year the army of the Manchurian puppet government did not exceed 250,000 men. Naturally it was trained in a spirit of hatred of the Soviet Union, as well as of Britain and the United States. This army, as well as the local police numbering over 100,000, was regarded by the Japanese as an auxiliary force of aggression against the Soviet Union and of action against the liberated partisan regions of China. But as the chief weapon of their war policy, the Japanese imperialists concentrated in Manchuria large numbers of their own army and air forces.

Concentration of Forces On Soviet Borders

Before the occupation the effectives of the Kwantung army, which was then stationed on the Kwantung Peninsula and in the South Manchurian Railway belt, amounted to 10,500 men. At the begin-

ning of 1933 the strength of the Kwantung army, according to official Japanese data, was 65,000, but by the end of that year nearly 130,000 Japanese troops were already stationed in Manchuria. After that the Japanese continued steadily to enlarge their Manchurian army. In the early half of 1941 it numbered over 400,000. In the latter half of that year, at the time when Hitler's hordes were advancing into the heart of the Soviet Union, Japan transferred large contingents of armed forces to Manchuria. By the end of 1941 nearly one million men, about 1,000 tanks and 1,500 aircraft were concentrated there. As much as one-half of all Japan's artillery, nearly two-thirds of her tanks and three-quarters of her cavalry were stationed on, or in the vicinity of, the borders of the Soviet Union.

Only in the second half of 1943 and in 1944, when it became perfectly evident to Japanese militarists that the plans of the Nazi command had failed, did the Japanese General Staff begin somewhat to reduce the number of troops concentrated for an attack on the Soviet Union. After the collapse of Hitler Germany the Japanese adopted a policy of concentrating forces in their so-called "inner zone," which includes Japan proper, South Sakhalin, Korea, Manchuria, North China and part of Central China. Accordingly, the Japanese aggressors began once again to increase their forces in Manchuria, Korea, and North China, thus creating a new threat to the Soviet Union as well.

The USSR came to the aid of its Allies for the purpose of speeding the establishment of peace and security and shortening the sufferings of war-exhausted nations. Our chief purpose was to eliminate the threat of an attack which has hung for so many years over the peoples of the Soviet Union as a result of the conversion of Manchuria into a Japanese military base.

An end must be put once and for all to the Japanese plans of aggression against our country, which form an integral part of the imperialist schemes of Japanese world dominion. An end must be put once and for all to the situation in which Manchuria may serve as the base and center of machinations against the vitally important regions of our country.

MOSCOW MOVIES

In the USSR the movies are cultural centers. The managers, who compete to give the best service, arrange concerts and lectures and invite scientists and war heroes for short introductory talks. People take the trouble to go to the other end of the town to see the very film that is showing in their own street, simply because the manager of the other theater has a reputation for arranging an interesting "supporting program."

The largest cinema in Moscow, the Udarnik, is visited by some 350,000 people every month. The Rodina, built just before the war, serves 6,000 movie-goers a day; performances run in two halls simultaneously.

Manager Vasili Ivanov of the Metro-pole, considered the best in the city, has for ten years held the Challenge Red Banner. This movie house makes a regular feature of inviting producers and stars of current films to address the audiences.

All Soviet cinemas reserve the best seats for war invalids. The Metro-pole has its own box offices at all the Moscow factories.

During the war Moscow children acquired three new houses all to themselves—the Pobeda, the Young Spectator and the October. These cinemas have libraries, game rooms, and studios where young patrons can learn singing, dancing and reciting. Before the show circus artists, puppets or young amateurs perform in the lobby.

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5

Radio Address of Generalissimo Stalin On the Surrender of Japan to the Allies

Comrades, compatriots, men and women! Today, September 2, representatives of the state and the armed forces of Japan signed the act of unconditional surrender. Utterly defeated on the seas and on land, and surrounded on all sides by the armed forces of the United Nations, Japan acknowledged her defeat and laid down arms.

Two hotbeds of world fascism and world aggression formed on the eve of this world war: Germany in the West and Japan in the East. It was they who unleashed the Second World War. It was they who placed humanity and its civilization on the verge of destruction.

The hotbed of world aggression in the West was eliminated four months ago, and as a result Germany was compelled to surrender. Four months later the hotbed of world aggression in the East was eliminated and as a result Japan, Germany's chief ally, has also been forced to sign the act of surrender. This means that the Second World War has come to an end.

Now we can say that the conditions necessary for the peace of the world have already been won. It should be noted that the Japanese invaders inflicted damage not only on our Allies—China, the United States, Great Britain—they also inflicted most serious damage on our country. Therefore we have a special account of



Generalissimo J. V. Stalin

our own to settle with Japan.

Japan began her aggression against our country as far back as 1904, during the Russo-Japanese War. As is well known, in February, 1904, while negotiations between Japan and Russia were still in progress, Japan took advantage of the weakness of the tsarist government and unexpectedly and treacherously, without declaring war, attacked our country and assaulted a Russian squadron in the Port

Arthur area in order to disable several Russian warships and thus to place her own navy in a position of advantage. And, indeed, she did disable Russia's three first class warships.

Characteristically, 37 years later, Japan repeated exactly the same treacherous device against the United States of America when, in 1941, she attacked the United States naval base at Pearl Harbor and disabled a number of American battleships.

As is well known, at that time Russia suffered defeat in the war with Japan, and Japan took advantage of tsarist Russia's defeat to wrest southern Sakhalin from Russia, to strengthen her hold over the Kurile Islands, thus locking all outlets for our country to the ocean in the east and consequently also all outlets to the ports of Soviet Kamchatka and Soviet Chukotka. It was plain that Japan had set herself the aim of wresting from Russia her entire Far East.

Japan's predatory actions against our country, however, were not confined to that. In 1918, after the establishment of the Soviet system in our country, Japan, taking advantage of the then hostile attitude of Great Britain, France and the United States toward the Soviet country and leaning on them for support, again attacked our country, occupied the Far East and for four years ravaged our people and plundered the Soviet Far East. But even that is not all.

In 1938 Japan again attacked our country in the Lake Khasan area near Vladivostok, aiming to encircle Vladivostok, and the next year Japan repeated her attack, this time in a different place, near Khalkhin-gol in the area of the Mongolian People's Republic, aiming to break into Soviet territory, cut our Siberian trunk railway line and cut off the Far East from Russia. True, Japan's attacks in the Khasan and Khalkhin-gol areas were suppressed by Soviet troops with great disgrace for the Japanese. Similarly, the Japanese military intervention of 1918-1922 was successfully suppressed and the Japanese invaders were thrown out of the areas of our Far East.

But the defeat of the Russian troops in 1904, in the period of the Russo-Japanese war, left grave memories in the minds of our people. It fell as a dark stain on our country. Our people trusted and awaited

the day when Japan would be routed and the stain wiped out.

For 40 years we, the men of the older generation, have waited for this day. And now this day has come.

Today Japan has acknowledged her defeat and signed the act of unconditional surrender. This means that southern Sakhalin and the Kurile Islands will pass to the Soviet Union and from now on will not serve as a means for isolating the Soviet Union from the ocean and as a base for a Japanese attack on our Far East, but as a means of direct communication of the Soviet Union with the ocean and as a base for the defense of our country against Japanese aggression.

Our Soviet people did not spare its strength or labor for the sake of victory. We have lived through hard years. But now every one of us can say: We have won.

From now on we can consider our

country saved from the threat of German invasion in the West and of Japanese invasion in the East. The long-awaited peace for the nations of the whole world has come.

I congratulate you, my dear compatriots, men and women, on the great victory, on the successful termination of the war, on the advent of world peace!

Glory to the armed forces of the Soviet Union, the United States of America, China and Great Britain, which have won victory over Japan!

Glory to our Far Eastern troops and the Pacific Fleet which upheld the honor and dignity of our Motherland!

Glory to our great people, victor people!

Eternal glory to the heroes who fell in battles for the honor and victory of our Motherland!

May our Motherland thrive and prosper!

Public Response to the Message

Admiral Zubov, a professor of engineering, writes in IZVESTIA:

Forty years ago on the *Blestyashchii* destroyer I participated in the Tsushima battle. Despite the heroism of the crew, Rozhdstvinsky's squadron was defeated. Since then, for four decades, I have carried a Japanese shell splinter in my leg.

Another wound never stopped bleeding in my heart—the bitterness of the defeat suffered by Russia in the sad year of 1904. And now in the decline of my days it is my lot to experience untold happiness. My dearly beloved country, led by Generalissimo Stalin, has won a great victory. The Far Eastern aggressor, like his western accomplice in international brigandage, has been forced to surrender unconditionally. The joy of just retribution fills my heart! Now that the hotbeds of world aggression have been crushed once and forever, one sees a vision of unlimited opportunities opening before progressive humanity.

The President of the All Slav Committee, Lieutenant General Gundorov, made the following statement to a TASS correspondent:

The Soviet people are celebrating vic-

tory over Japan—the day of the termination of the Second World War. The armed forces of fascism which plunged the world into the most terrible of wars have been smashed not only in the West, but also in the East. The champions of justice, democracy and progress have won over the adherents of violence and barbarity. The bases of these victories were the united efforts of freedom-loving peoples, their faithfulness to democratic ideals, the mustering of democratic forces of all Allied countries in the fight against fascism. The further strengthening and development of these bases are the best guarantee against the restoration of fascism and of the future peace and prosperity of humanity.

The Slav peoples, who made countless sacrifices in this war and to whom peace is especially essential for the restoration of their democratic countries, met the news of victory with a feeling of great joy. Together with their liberator—the fraternal Soviet people—they celebrate the advent of peace.

Hero of Socialist Labor Engineer Captain Ivan Yatskov:

We railwaymen helped the Red Army

in every way we could in its fight against the German and Japanese fascists which imposed a Second World War upon the nations of the whole world. Now our sworn enemies have been brought to their knees by the Red Army and the Armies of our Allies. Both hotbeds of world aggression have been crushed forever. After Germany came the turn of Japan. The Soviet people did not spare their strength or labor to rout the hateful enemy. Now in peaceful construction we shall work with no less persistence than during the war for the further prosperity of our country.

Outstanding Soviet aircraft designer, Hero of Socialist Labor Semen Lavochkin:

We aircraft designers listened with the greatest attention on September 2 to the address of Generalissimo Stalin to the people. The Supreme Commander-in-Chief directed our efforts during the war, outlining our work. In various periods of the war he put different tasks before us. Under his direction there appeared new aircraft with powerful armament, of unparalleled speed, with gigantic non-stop range. The long-awaited peace for the nations of the whole world has come.

'Glory to Our Far Eastern Troops'

This is the outcome of the tense struggle of the Soviet people for the happiness of the entire freedom-loving humanity.

Stalin Prize Winner Academician Mikhail Kirpichev stated:

We have learned the great and happy news: the World War has been brought to a victorious end by the democratic nations. All Soviet citizens without exception—soldiers, workers, collective farmers and scientists—everyone at his battle station gave all his strength to the noble cause of the defense of his country. Now that peace has been restored in all the world, we face a great task—to raise the national economy and culture of our country to unprecedented height. We Soviet scientists will give all our knowledge, all the experiences of our science to this happy, constructive labor.

Academician Boris Keller:

The great historic victory of the Allied powers in the West and East over the bitterest foes of the freedom of the peoples, of their culture and democracy, opens before all of humanity boundless prospects for peaceful development, happy labor and a full life.

It is absolutely essential that all the decisions of the Berlin Conference of the leaders of the Three Allied Powers be implemented with firmness and consistency. We realize perfectly what incomparably greater horrors a new world war would bring to humanity, and we shall make every effort to prevent it. The people of the globe have seen striking proof of the selfless fight of our people for peace in all the world and the invaluable results brought by this struggle.

The experience of the last war years has shown that even veiled attempts to vindicate fascism and its vile methods have encountered the firm rebuff and resistance of world science and the intelligentsia. The great military victory must be made permanent by the complete eradication of all the roots and vestiges of fascism, wherever they may be.

IN PORT ARTHUR: Soviet sailors meet tankmen who had landed there 24 hours earlier. This was part of the sequence of events in the rout of the Japanese militarists



IN HARBIN: Hoisting the Flag of Victory over the Harbin railway station. The city was liberated by Soviet troops on August 19—to be remembered as one of the happiest days in the lives of the people so long oppressed by the Japanese



A Japanese transport column surrenders to a soldier of the USSR. The large garrison was forced by the Red Army to surrender their arms



Marching up in platoons the dejected Japanese captives lay down arms at the feet of a Soviet officer



Radiophotos

Brilliant Maneuvers of the Mongolian Cavalry

By Major V. Petrov

The operations of Marshal Choibalsan's Mongolian Army in the Far East deserve special attention as some of the most extensive operative maneuvers carried out by large cavalry and mechanized units during the war. These operations are all the more interesting since they show the superior quality of the Mongolian Army, which includes cavalry units.

While one body of Soviet troops struck from the direction of Great Khingan, stormed the enemy's mountain strongholds and then descended to the central Manchurian valley, another body consisting of Mongolian cavalry and mechanized units dealt a sudden blow from the south in the general direction of Kalgan with the aim of emerging on Lyaodun Bay. The purpose of this blow is clear. Japanese communications linking Manchuria with the northern province of China were being severed.

The enemy had not anticipated a serious blow from the direction of the barren Chahar steppes. The Mongolian cavalry, however, struck precisely from here, from the north, after having surmounted the endless sands, salt marshes and roadless terrain of Inner Mongolia. This maneuver over the steppes and the blows which then descended upon the enemy's strongholds, mainly on the Dolon Nor, upset the plans of the Japanese command, preventing them from establishing stable

defenses. Their attempts to check the advance of the cavalry by counterattacks north of Kalgan availed them nothing.

In this phase of the operations the Mongolian cavalry displayed great skill of maneuver under difficult meteorological conditions, and on terrain decidedly unfavorable for the movement of large bodies of troops. The wastelands traveled by the Mongolian cavalry are nearly devoid of inhabited places. Orientation, too, is extremely difficult here. Since the maneuver encompassed large territories, units advanced in separate directions. Great skill, orientation and the guidance of troops as a whole were required to maintain correct directions and emerge accurately at respective destinations. This skill was fully displayed by the Mongolian troops.

One must emphasize that the cavalry of Marshal Choibalsan showed remarkable ability to adjust themselves to the widely varied battle conditions. Unfolding operations, they entered the hilly terrain where much depended on the flexible tactics of small units, the struggle for various roads, maneuvers for by-passing the enemy's strongholds, etc. The cavalry squadrons of the Mongolian Army, together with light tanks and armored cars, coped very well with their tasks on new terrain. They intercepted the enemy's retreat, and moving swiftly

through the hinterland, seized important junctions and command posts. Such were the developments at the approaches to the large town of Jhehe. Having stormed this city, Marshal Choibalsan's units pressed on toward Lyaodun Bay without checking their stride.

The Mongolians are natural riders and are in their element in the vast steppes. This adaptability unquestionably facilitated the success of the large-scale cavalry maneuvers. The fondness for horses has passed from generation to generation of Mongolians. Accustomed to the saddle from early childhood, they are invariably excellent cavalymen, and their endurance on the march is beyond compare.

The necessary qualities for the prolonged and forced marches are acquired by the Mongolian youths before they join the Army. The following is characteristic: a *tsirik* (a soldier of the Mongolian Army) was ordered to deliver a parcel from Kobdo to Ulan Bator quickly, and he made the trip both ways in nine days. In that period he traveled 2,600 kilometers. A ride of 600 to 700 kilometers in a single week is nothing extraordinary for the Mongolian cavalryman. Changing horses en route, he is nearly always mounted on a relatively fresh animal. As a rule each *tsirik* possesses two horses; he rides on one and the other follows. He is thus able to change horses at will.



The cavalry of the Mongolian Army is excellently trained to fight under all conditions; (right) Artillery of the Mongolian People's Republic

Examinations in Suvorov Schools



Radiophoto
 Marshal T. Choibalsan, Prime Minister and Minister of War of the Mongolian People's Republic, on a recent trip to Moscow. He was one of the first Mongolian revolutionary leaders in Urga (now Ulan Bator) in 1919

The excellent horsemanship and the number of splendid animals unquestionably played an important role in the Mongolian cavalry's raid of over a distance of 1,000 kilometers, much of it in combat with the enemy. These horsemen averaged more than 50 kilometers a day.

Availing itself of the experience of the Red Army, the Mongolian cavalry augmented its skill and has proved able to deal with the most complex problems of modern warfare. Extraordinary skill, for example, was shown in coordinated actions with mechanized units and aircraft.

All this, added to the devotion to country displayed by the youth, renders the Mongolian Army one of the best fighting forces. The Japanese have more than once learned this lesson to their sorrow. They were soundly thrashed in 1936 when they attempted to strike at the Mongolian center of Adykdolon. In the battles of Hazkin Gol, Mongolian units fought side by side with the Red Army. The outcome of that engagement is common knowledge.

In its historic thrust toward Lyaodun Bay, the Mongolian Army once again has displayed its splendid fighting qualities. Its role in the victories won in the Far East has been highly praised in Orders of the Supreme Commander-in-Chief, Generalissimo Stalin.

The great General Suvorov is the model determining the life, studies and behavior of the selected members of the military training academy named for the Russian hero.

The Suvorov precept, "Difficult in training, easy in combat," is faithfully adhered to by the pupils of the school.

Despite their youth many of them before entering the school had gone to war. Volodya Savchenko was a ten-year-old youngster when he went into combat. This is how it happened. When Red Army troops marched through the streets of his native Volga city, Volodya joined them. Adopted by an Army unit, he became their pupil; with these fighting men he followed the roads of war, with them he went on reconnaissance.

At Odessa, Volodya, taken prisoner by the Germans, was sentenced to death by shooting. But the lad escaped. He lived to fight for the liberation of Tiraspol and Ismail from the German-fascist aggressors. Before storming Ismail the Commander assembled his soldiers and told them about the historical battle which once had taken place at the walls of Ismail fortress and the great victory won by General Suvorov and his Russian soldiers.

It was the first time young Volodya had heard Suvorov's name. Here with his fellow-soldiers, he vowed not to disgrace the memory of the great general. It was during the storming of Ismail that the boy was wounded. After his recovery the young soldier who had traversed the difficult but heroic road to the Danube was enrolled in the Suvorov Military Training School in Saratov.

Twelve-year-old Vasya Goncharov is another pupil. Before the war his father worked at the Stalingrad Krasny Oktyabr plant. When the German-fascist hordes approached the Volga and threatened the city of Stalingrad, among the workers who rose to defend the stronghold was Vasya's father. Four hundred Hitlerites were targets for the fire of sniper Goncharov before the brave soldier was killed. For his distinguished services the Soviet Government conferred on him the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

The father's heroic deed is a living example to his son.

"I carry my dad's picture with me," says Vasya Goncharov. "I want to be like him in every way."

* * *

Young Suvorovites are being taught the glorious battle traditions of their heroic forefathers.

Lieutenant General Voznyuk of Tirnev sent a letter to his son at the training school: "Be brave and decisive, courageous and daring, as befits a Suvorovite. Most of all, treasure your honest name, your honor, your dignity, the most precious possessions that a man, and especially an officer, has."

The training program demands seriousness and discipline of the students.

In composition, Vitya Sobolevsky writes: "I am studying to become a cultured and educated officer of the Red Army." Vitya has completed with honor his first year of study at the training school, and received the commendation of the Command for outstanding progress. Other Suvorovites, too, display the same diligence in studying Russian, mathematics, physics, geometry, geography, zoology, history, literature, foreign languages, military subjects and dancing, music and singing.



Cadets of a Suvorov military school

WAR CRIMINALS IN PRISONERS' DOCK



IN THE WAKE OF THE GERMANS—
The inhabitants of an occupied village forced to witness a public whipping

PRAVDA writes editorially August 29:

The first list of war criminals subject to be tried by the international military tribunal has been published in accordance with the Berlin Conference Decisions.

Millions of people in all the world will learn this news with a feeling of deep satisfaction. The culprits responsible for disasters, for such sufferings of humanity as human language fails to describe, have been handed over to justice to answer for their crimes.

The three mainstays of Hitlerite Germany are represented on the first list of war criminals: the Nazi party, the generals, the plutocracy. This is the clique which bears direct responsibility for the war. In cold blood, together with those who shared their outlook, they planned, prepared and for several years waged a bandit war aimed at winning world domination for predatory German imperialism. In the name of establishing this supremacy they enslaved states and exterminated peoples. Openly and brazenly they trampled upon all the norms of international law, all the elementary rules and customs of war, observed even by savages.

The Hitlerite ringleaders are directly responsible for countless and heinous atrocities which have no precedent in the history of mankind. They deliberately or-

ganized, reared and trained gangs of executioners who murdered nearly 25 million people in horrible Gestapo torture chambers, in death camps, in bloody "extermination camps." Using the most diverse methods, from shooting to torture, from gallows to gas chambers and burning their victims alive, these executioners massacred women, children and old people, war invalids and prisoners.

They developed a technique of mass murder the thought of which makes one's blood curdle in one's veins. They invented man-hating theories to justify mass murder. They made a principle of brutality and a valor of barbarity. The posts of the Maidanek extermination camp were be-

decked with the line from the German state anthem, the commandment of brutal nationalism: "*Deutschland Uber Alles.*"

What happened afterward to Germany was a triumph of justice. The edifice of an empire built on the posts of Maidanek crumbled. Now we must see to it that German imperialism and its horrid progeny—fascism—perish under these ruins. And to this end the criminals must be punished, the Hitlerite beasts must be destroyed. Both reason and justice demand this.

The problem of the responsibility of war criminals arose almost at the very moment the first Hitlerite bombs burst over the towns and villages of peaceful countries. The lawful feeling of justice demanded that those whose criminal will unleashed the sanguinary war be punished. The desire to punish the enemies of freedom and peace was inseparable from the very desire to win victory over these enemies.

Already in its notes of November 25, 1941, of January 6, 1942, and of April 27, of the same year, the Soviet Government placed the "entire responsibility for the inhuman and criminal actions of the German troops on the criminal Hitlerite government of Germany." These documents expressed the indignation of the Soviet people, justly demanding retribution.

On October 14, 1942, in reply to a joint note of the governments of the

The photograph of the hanging of these five Soviet citizens was taken from a German officer captured by the Red Army



European countries overrun by the Germans, the Soviet Government again warned of the responsibility of the Hitlerite invaders and their accomplices for their crimes. The Soviet Government also announced that it "approves and shares the lawful desire expressed in the collective note it received to insure the turning over into the hands of justice and bringing to responsibility the culprits of the above crimes, and the execution of their sentences."

Even then the Soviet Government deemed it necessary immediately to put on trial by the special international tribunal and to punish with all severity of the criminal law any one of the apprehended leaders of fascist Germany. It believed that it is "bound to regard the stern punishment of these already exposed leaders of the criminal Hitlerite gang as an urgent duty to the countless widows and orphans, near and dear ones of those innocent people brutally tortured to death and murdered on the instructions of the above criminals."

As far back as October, 1943, the Moscow Declaration set forth the order of trial of the war criminals, in accordance with the place where their crimes were committed. The chief war culprits, whose crimes are not associated with any one particular geographic locality, are to be tried by the international military tribunal.

The Hangmen of Europe

Twenty-four Hitlerite cannibals figure on the first list of the war criminals. Their leader—Hitler—is not among them. For a time he has concealed his hide in some hole, fearing popular wrath. Goebbels is also absent, but the other leaders, companions-in-arms and accomplices of the chief bandit are here. Goering, Hess, Ribbentrop, Ley, Rosenberg, Frank, Neurath, Seyss-Inquart—hangmen of Europe, fascist "ideologists" and "theoreticians," authors of delirious racial theories and plans for extermination of peoples, organizers of the plunder of Europe, of her ruin, designers of her present poverty, half-witted fakers and maniacs, enslavers and cold-blooded murderers of absolutely guiltless people.

This list includes fascist generals and

admirals, representatives of the Prussian military caste, carriers of the brutal traditions of German bandit imperialism. Among them are the "Fuehrer's successor" Gross Admiral Doenitz, Field Marshal Keitel, Gross Admiral Roder, Colonel General Jodl. Closely tied to this group of military bandits are German war industry magnates, first accomplices in the military brigandage. This is Krupp in the first place, representing in this list of German plutocrats the munitions barons for whose interests—selfish interests—Germany unleashed wars for world domination. Then comes Schacht.

All these degenerates disavow any connections with politics, posing as "businessmen," "economists," etc. Vain efforts! These gentlemen are too closely connected, in too "businesslike" a manner, with the professional murderers and bandits of the so-called "government" of Hitlerite Germany, are too deeply embedded in the dirt and baseness of the monstrous crimes of the Hitlerite hangmen to be able to escape severe retribution.

Perhaps from the legal viewpoint it is possible to differentiate the degree of responsibility of the individual criminals. But in the conscience of our people and of all freedom-loving peoples the crimes of every one of these Hitlerite leaders are so heinous and crying that there cannot be any different degrees of punishment for these beasts. Humanity's conscience is too deeply shocked by the monstrous villainies of the German-fascist murderers, by their sanguinary, unparalleled brutality and refined inhumanity.

The conscience of the peoples who crushed the adder of fascist barbarity, who destroyed the fascist beast and smashed his den, demands that the sword of human justice strike mercilessly at the heads of humanity's hateful enemies—the leaders, organizers, inspirers, blood-stained murderers of the peoples, nailed to the pillory of the international military tribunal. And not only because the blood of countless victims of the Hitlerite assassins cries for vengeance.

Punishment of the leaders of the Hitlerite gang, punishment of the war criminals is not only retribution. It is justice. The peoples await justice, and demand that it be done expeditiously and rigidly.



Justice as meted out by the fascists. This guillotine was found in the Poznan prison where Poles, Russians and Jews were brutally tortured



Row after row of bodies in Danzig. These victims of the Hitlerites were found in the vicinity of the shipyards

Kamchatka Volcano Station

By Docent Semyon Rudnikh



ERUPTING HILLS OF KAMCHATKA—Avachinsky Volcano, in the Far Northeast; (right) The smoke indicates these hills are still active

The Academy of Sciences volcano station in the Far Eastern region of the USSR among the hills of Kamchatka, lies near a picturesque forest east of the village of Kliuchi.

In Kamchatka there are 129 volcanoes of which 20 are active in the solfataric stage—68 groups of hot springs and 17 large geysers. The highest and most active volcano is Kliuchi, which has had about 50 eruptions during the 240 years that it has been known to us. It is about 15,000 feet above sea level.

The buildings of the volcano station were erected on the northern slopes of Kliuchi Mountain on September 1, 1935. Higher up, at a height of about 8,000 feet, there is a hut where parties visiting the crater may rest, and which serves as a base for observations of short duration.

The station is engaged in the study of the volcanoes themselves and of tectonics. One of the most important subjects is the tectonics of the Aleutian and Kamchatka arcs, which form the junction between the world's two greatest land masses.

During the ten years that the station has been in existence, it has compiled geological maps showing the past history of the volcanoes, has studied the products of the volcanoes and has made constant observations of their present activities.

Several volcanic eruptions have occurred in Kamchatka in this period, the

most interesting being that observed by the scientists at their own Kliuchi Volcano.

V. F. Popkov, a geologist, and I. Z. Ivanov, a chemist, undertook to drift with the lava stream in order to measure the temperature of the liquid lava and to collect the gases formed. These two enthusiasts walked across the hardening lava while the crust under their feet was at a temperature between 270 degrees and 300 degrees centigrade. The crust itself was so soft that it was possible to push an iron rod through it. At a depth of 40 centimeters the temperature of the lava was 870 degrees centigrade. Frequent bubbles formed on the crust of the lava which burst and exuded gas. The scientists tried to catch the escaping gases, but every time they covered the aperture the bubble burst at the sides and the gases escaped without entering their receptacles. They obtained samples of gases from the depths of the lava stream and found that they consisted mainly of water vapor, about 50 per cent being HCl and other gaseous acids. The temperature of the lava at the point where the gases were taken at a depth of 45 centimeters was 800 degrees centigrade. The lowest temperature at which the lava remained plastic was 690 degrees.

Popkov and Ivanov stayed on the moving lava stream for about an hour and drifted some two kilometers with it; they

measured the temperature at several points, took samples of gases, and returned safely to lava from a previous eruption that was already solid.

During an eruption of the Biliukh Volcano, Popkov and a local worker Romanov, remained on the brink of the crater and watched the eruption. Popkov was able to write a description of the state of a volcano crater during an eruption as a result of these observations. Called up for service in the Red Army, Popkov held the rank of lieutenant. He was killed in action in November 1941.

The volcano station publishes a bulletin of its investigations.

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Information Bulletin

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Vol. V, No. 92

Washington, D. C., September 8, 1945

SEP 15 1945

Heavy Industry in the War Years

By Professor S. Turetsky

Soviet heavy industry built up before the war was able during hostilities to increase its output fiftyfold, as compared with 1913. Every modern type of machine, machine tool and industrial equipment was produced.

On the eve of the First World War the machine-building and metal-working industries of Russia accounted for only 10.5 per cent of the country's total industrial output. Having primitive machine-building plants and lacking certain important branches of the industry—such as the making of machine tools—tsarist Russia was not in a position to produce complex machines and the more important types of armaments. Three-quarters of all machine tools, as well as important categories of industrial and agri-

cultural raw material and a large proportion of coal, were imported from abroad, notwithstanding the country's own vast natural resources. This technical and industrial backwardness of tsarist Russia materially affected the supply of armament and equipment to the Russian army in the First World War.

A radical change in the country's economy took place in the period of Soviet rule. In 1938, the beginning of the third Five-Year Plan, more coal was mined and iron smelted in the eastern regions of the Soviet Union than in the whole territory of tsarist Russia in 1913. At the outbreak of the Second World War the Soviet Union possessed adequate resources of all major strategical material to wage war on a modern scale.

In the decade preceding, the output of aluminum, molybdenum, wolfram, sulphur, nickel, copper and other strategical raw materials had increased enormously.

In 1914, on the eve of the First World War, aluminum, nickel, antimony, molybdenum, wolfram and bismuth were not produced at all in tsarist Russia. Nor were sulphur or barium salts. At that time large deposits of only 14 out of the 86 known elements were mined in Russia; all the rest were obtained from abroad as manufactured products.

Thanks to the Five-Year Plans, the Soviet Union not only ceased to be a backward industrial country but its production facilities were distributed evenly all over the country. At the outset of the First World War nearly one-half of Russia's industrial output came from the central and northwestern provinces, chiefly from Moscow and St. Petersburg. The vast industrial potentialities of the Urals, the Volga region and Siberia were undeveloped.

The creation in the years of peace of new industrial centers in the eastern areas, the industrialization of the Union Republics and the complete development of industry created the possibilities for the organization of an efficient munitions industry in the first period of the recent war. Actually, however, the building of a war industry was handicapped by severe difficulties encountered by no other country. Owing to the German occupation of important industrial regions in the west and south of the European part of the USSR, the metallurgical, fuel, power and food resources of the country were drastically diminished. Some of the largest metal-working plants were located in



MAGNITOGORSK IRON AND STEEL WORKS—"The Komsomol" blast furnace shown was built by youth brigades at the plant

German-occupied regions and in the immediate vicinity of the front.

In 1941, in the course of a few months, hundreds of big plants had to be evacuated from the war areas. They were all re-erected and started up again deep in the country's hinterland early in 1942. Hundreds of thousands of workers were employed at these transplanted factories. The cost of the machinery evacuated and later reassembled exceeded the value of all the production facilities used for the armed forces of tsarist Russia in 1914-1916.

Not only was the machinery of the removed plants one of the chief sources of the mass production of munitions during the war, it is now playing a large part in the rehabilitation of regions devastated by the German occupation. The increase in the output of heavy industry in the eastern areas in the second year of the war was several times greater than the total output of similar branches of industry all over Russia in 1915-1916, the second year of the First World War. In 1943 the output of the Chelyabinsk Region alone increased 3.5 times compared with the prewar year of 1940.

The conversion of factories from civilian goods manufacture to munitions and the transfer of large quantities of machine-building equipment to the eastern regions made possible a considerable expansion of the production capacity of the munitions industry very early in the war.

A number of complex organizational and economic problems had to be solved in order that the increased industrial facilities of the eastern region could be effectively exploited.

Materials and labor power had to be assigned in accordance with a strict plan; iron and steel, fuel and power had to be expanded in the eastern regions and facilities and labor had to be employed far more economically.

Roughly, within a year after the outbreak of war, the economic and manpower resources had been redistributed. The output of war industries had been increased several times over, while at the same time the expenditure of raw materials and fuel per unit of output had been considerably decreased. This will give some idea of the scale and efficiency

of the planned allocation of resources and their improved utilization.

The production of immense quantities of armament, ammunition, machinery and other equipment for the Red Army could not have been maintained if the old norms of the expenditure of labor, metal, fuel, raw materials and power per unit of output had been adhered to.

New and perfected production methods, technical inventions in the manufacture of aircraft, tanks, armament and ammunition, and a plentiful use of substitutes resulted in an economy during the war of millions of tons of metal and billions of hours of labor.

The progress made in the technical and production efficiency in the major branches of Soviet industry during the war would have required 10 or 15 years in ordinary times.

Up-to-date methods of casting were widely introduced in the manufacture of shells, mines, tank bodies and motors. Stamping was greatly perfected in making tanks and artillery as well as in other branches of war industry. At the beginning of 1945 over 95 per cent of all the casting in the tank-building factories was done in coquilles and with machine molds, whereas before the war three-

quarters of the castings of tanks were done with handmade molds in sand. In the last months of hostilities 90 per cent of all hot forgings in the tank-building factories were handled by power hammers and all parts made of thin sheet metal were stamped on presses.

In the period of 1941-1944, the expenditure of metal in the production of the major types of armament had decreased 30 to 35 per cent, while the combat and tactical properties of weapons were considerably improved.

If the expenditure of metal per unit of output had remained at the prewar level, several million tons of additional coal and ore would have had to be mined annually and this would have involved extra labor, large capital investments and many more hundreds of thousands of carloads in railroad freight.

Preliminary estimates show that in the three years 1942-1944 the economy obtained from the reduced expenditure of metal in the metal working industry compared with 1942, made it possible to produce additional war goods greatly exceeding in value the total munitions output of prewar Russia.

The utilization of labor on some of the more important types of munitions decreased during the war to one-third or one-fourth the prewar standard.

These systematic advances of the first year of war were extended to other manufacturing branches of heavy industry in 1943 and to the extracting branches in 1944.

By 1944 the new efficiency had become general. From every ton of fuel consumed at the power stations in that year, 15 per cent more electricity was produced than in 1940. For every ton of coke consumed in the blast furnaces of the big steel plants in 1944, 10 per cent more pigiron was smelted than before the war. The blast furnaces themselves were exploited much more effectively than in 1940. In 1944 the Kuznetsk iron and steel works averaged one ton of pigiron per day from every 0.8 cubic meters of useful space of the blast furnace, as compared with the usual 1.1 to 1.2 cubic meters, a very noteworthy achievement.

In 1943 the steel works and power stations of the Urals saved over 200,000



Rolling steel pigs through the cylinders of a blooming mill at the Stalin metallurgical works in Magnitogorsk

USSR Honors Russian War Relief

tons of coal. In 1943-1944 the power stations of the most important industrial areas of the country showed an economy of 800,000 tons of coal. In the Urals the reduction in 1944 made it possible to generate an additional 220 million kilowatt hours of electricity.

The metallurgical, oil refining, coke and chemical and other important branches of heavy industry changed the character of their products to meet the needs of war. The value of output per unit of raw material employed increased. By the increased use of high-grade steels, the value of output in the iron and steel industry per ton of pigiron increased in 1944 compared with 1940 by over 30 per cent. In the oil industry, owing to the increased portion of the more valuable light fractions obtained (aviation spirit, etc.) the value of the product per ton of crude oil increased from 15 to 20 per cent.

Some idea of the economies effected in the Soviet munitions industry may be obtained by the following figures. One of the factories in the first three years and four months of war produced medium-sized shells to an amount equal to one-half the number of such shells turned out by all tsarist Russia in the First World War, and at the same time reduced costs, compared with the prewar equivalent, by 1,100,000,000 rubles. The ordnance plant, during the war, economized 2,800,000,000 rubles.

In the period 1942 to 1944 the cost of production of the main types of munitions was reduced 45 to 60 per cent. Large cuts were also achieved in the cost of army clothing and equipment. The total economy effected in Soviet industry during the war is estimated at 50 billion rubles. As the cost of production diminished, the Government lowered the prices of war goods as much as 50 per cent and more in many categories of armament and ammunitions. The saving was equivalent to the cost of waging the war against Germany for 150 or 160 days. This ameliorated the financial burden of the war and helped to balance budgets and to preserve the stability of the currency.

In connection with the Soviet Union's war expenditures, it should be borne in

M. I. Kallinin chatting with representatives of Russian War Relief after their decoration by the Soviet Government. From left: Edward Carter, M. I. Kallinin, David Weingard, Leo Gruliov and V. Kemenov, Chairman of the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries (VOKS)

Radiophoto



For outstanding public activity in the United States in rendering aid to the population of the Soviet Union in the war against the common enemy, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR has awarded orders and medals to officials of Russian War Relief. President Edward Carter and Executive Director Fred Myers received the Order of the Red Banner of Labor. Purchasing Director David Weingard and the Moscow representative, Leo Gruliov, were decorated with the For Distinction in Labor Medal.

mind that part of its raw materials and foodstuffs was received from its Allies.

In his message to the President of the United States, June 12, 1945, Joseph Stalin said: "The agreement by which the United States all through the war in Europe supplied the Soviet Union on a lend-lease basis with armament, strategical materials and food, played an important role and greatly contributed to the successful consummation of the war against the common enemy, Hitler Germany."

The Soviet Union's very large war expenditures were chiefly covered by the country's national income.

The ever increasing scale of offensive operations of the Red Army, bearing the main burden of the war in Europe, consumed a considerable part of the national income and an even greater proportion of the national revenue. But nonetheless the Soviet Union was able to make great economic and cultural gains. In 1944 alone the Government appropriated 95 billion rubles, or 38 per cent of total expenditures, for the purpose of economic and social and cultural development. In the past two years the Soviet Union spent

tens of billions of rubles on economic rehabilitation in the former German-occupied regions.

On May 1, 1945, on the eve of the defeat of Germany, Stalin said: "Despite the fact that the Soviet Union for four years has been waging a war on an unparalleled scale demanding colossal expenditures, our socialist economic system is gaining strength and developing, while the economy of the liberated regions, plundered and ruined by the German invaders, is successfully and swiftly reviving."

Now that Hitler Germany has been vanquished, new and much greater potentialities exist in the Soviet Union for rapid progress in all branches of industry and culture. There is no fear in the Soviet Union that the production facilities will not be fully utilized, just as there is no threat of crises or unemployment.

The vast resources which the USSR had to divert to the war with Germany now have been released and can be employed for increasing the national wealth, for developing heavy industry, for raising the output of consumers' goods and improving the standard of living of the people.

VIEW OF MODERN ARMENIA

By G. Volchek

To reach Erevan, the capital of Armenia, from Tbilisi, the capital of Georgia, one may go by rail or in a modern plane. But it is much more interesting to take one of the less-traveled routes, turning off at Evlakh between Baku and Tbilisi, and moving along the highway that winds past the Azerbaijan cities of Agdam and Shushy, up into the mountain of Azerbaijan. Too soon one is beyond the little city of Lachin, the center of the Kurd settlements, and the neighboring village of Dykh, and one sees before him Zangezur, the oldest district in Armenia. Here one may still find monuments of architecture and sculpture that date back centuries before Christ.

On the boundary between the USSR, Turkey and Iran, Armenia has an area of 30,000 square kilometers. The majority of the population live in the valleys between the mountains, which rise 3,000 to 4,000 meters above sea level. The mountainsides are covered with leafy forest which flourish in the dry continental climate.

Armenia is a rich country with large deposits of copper, lead, chromites and building materials, including tufa marble



State Emblem
Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic

and pumice. Eternal snows and glaciers feed the broad, swift mountain streams. High up is beautiful Sevan Lake.

Since the Revolution numerous power plants have been set up which supply the country with electricity, among them the great Dzoragas plant. The building of a number of power plants, called the Sevan Cascades, was begun before the war along the Zanga River which has its source in Lake Sevan.

Construction was continued in Armenia

even during the most difficult period of the war. Among the new industrial units was a large copper smelting plant and synthetic rubber mills. Cotton ginning, silk and textile mills, and canning factories and cognac distilleries were launched.

Agriculture in Armenia requires considerable preparatory work on the land which must be cleared of stones, protected from landslides, and irrigated. But the Republic can boast of great achievements in growing grains and grapes, cotton and silk. The splendid high mountain pastures lend themselves well to sheepherding—the main occupation of the inhabitants.

There are several important cities in the Republic—Erevan, the capital, Leninakan, the center of the textile industry, Kirovakan, the site of chemical manufactures, and the ancient city of Echmiadzin.

The modern city of Erevan, lying between two-headed Mt. Ararat and the four-headed Aragats, has been completely transformed in the past seven years. Its level streets are paved with asphalt and there are green parks everywhere. The crooked little alleys of the old city have been replaced with broad boulevards lined with large buildings of Armenian architectural design.

Since the Revolution education has shown great progress in the Armenian SSR. There are an Academy of Sciences, numerous institutions of higher learning, nine museums, dozens of technical secondary schools and scientific research centers. Literature, art and the theater have flourished.

During the war the Republic was able to make a considerable contribution to the war effort by turning out armaments and food and clothing for the Army. Many of Armenia's sons served in the ranks and there are those who have returned home heroes, among them General Bagramyan.

Today, a wealthy and cultured country Armenia has every prospect for continued prosperity.



Women field workers of the Maxim Gorky collective farm gather the cotton, a profitable crop for the Republic

Colorful Southern Republic



A *Tshaban* (herdsman) pipes for his flock. Leon Akopyan, a member of the Molotov collective farm in Armenia, was an exhibitor at the All-Union Agricultural Exhibition in Moscow in 1939-41; (right) Cotton quality is examined by the proud producers



In a tranquil valley of the mountains lies the town of Dilizhan; (right) The newer architecture of Leninakan is used for the building of the City Soviet



Students of the All-Union Animal Husbandry Institute at work. The college at Erevan trains veterinaries and animal-breeding experts for Armenia and other Republics; (right) A native dance by Young Pioneers at their camp in the Stepanavan District

EREVAN TRANSFORMED

By Marietta Shaginian

Against a background of mountains as spectacular as the Ararat and the peaks of the Aragats, it might seem that Erevan, the capital of Armenia, would be overshadowed—that what has been built by men's hands would shrink into insignificance. Yet the lofty summits on the horizon, the transparent mountain air and strong light give special meaning to the architectural style of the city, the design of which seems almost perfectly integrated.

On this site 25 years ago stood a dusty provincial town of the Russian empire. Buildings were few and of the accepted official type erected by the tsarist government in every part of Russia without regard to the history, geography or general character of the locality. Behind the principal thoroughfare stretched a labyrinth of narrow lanes with flat-roofed houses of crumbling unbaked brick. The unswept streets were dirty, crowded and neglected. The wind from the sandy slopes of the Kanakirs arose with dreary regularity at four in the afternoon, bringing with it clouds of stinging, gritty dust, whipping the rubbish and filth and paper of the streets into a column that filled eyes, ears and mouths.

Though wind and dust enjoyed unhampered freedom, the old town itself was closed as in a maze. A main highway led into it from Ararat; another led out of



The capital of Armenia with Mt. Ararat in the background (the mountain is in Turkey)

it in the direction of Lake Sevan. These were the only thoroughfares.

The water, of which Erevan was very proud, was excellent, second in quality among the waters of Europe. But it was not utilized. The gutters that ran the length of the streets were merely dirty ditches. The public hydrants were in a bad

state, the puddles around them never dried. Women crowded around with buckets and kettles.

This was Erevan 30 years ago.

Viewing it now, when the brilliant sunlight of early morning gives the city's outlines the sharpness of a fine colored engraving, the observer is struck with the fact that the mountain slopes in the background are no longer bare and sandy—they are clothed with trees. Year by year the labor of planting went on, and saplings suitable for transplantation were brought here. They thrive, put their roots into the soil and strengthened it, clung to it so that dust is no longer swept to the city by the wind from the Kanakirs.

The clean city streets, smooth asphalt polished by the constant passage of automobiles, are broad and well kept, and branch in all directions—ascending into the winding gorges, descending to the gardens in the plains. The communities they pass through are new and prosperous, with factories, clubs and schools.

The builders of Erevan have done away with its worst features—dust and bad roads. The dust storm has been deprived of its terrors.

A bird's-eye view of the city is a revelation. It recalls stories from the *Arabian Nights*, and the genie that, released from the battle bearing Solomon's seal, built at the hero's command a magic city over-



THE BEAUTY OF THE CITY—Surrounding a park, Shaumyan Square is a pattern of glistening white and green; (right) The theater on the left follows a new trend in Armenian structures, combining traditional forms with new designs



A road across the Dvask pass through one of the Little Caucasus Mountain ranges



Sorting silk cocoons at the Ordzhonikidze collective farm of the Kotajsk District



A marble-worker of the Erevan tufa plant cuts slabs with a diamond saw

Soviet plans for new blocks can be seen; these are the houses for the Academy of Sciences, one-storied villas for artists and writers, palatial buildings for the embassy quarter.

Well-tended public gardens and boulevards planted in Erevan some years ago are thriving. The impressive monument to Lenin, by the sculptor Merkurov, is thrown into strong relief by a background of foliage. There is a green setting for the Opera House and Government House.

There are numerous drinking fountains, in the form of graceful stone vases. The beautiful River Zanga flows into the heart of the city, or rather the heart of the city has been

night. This city built without magic is finer than the conception of a wizard. Built of Armenian tufa, the noble material that determined to some extent the architectural design of the city, its natural tone allows an interesting play of color. The style reproduces Armenian classic architecture; public buildings and dwelling houses harmonize. Though there is no monotonous repetition, there is no disorder. The general principle followed is a foundation of large blocks of stone; arches and pilasters are introduced in the facades, here is variety in the towers or turrets, the graceful lines of the balconies, the fine vistas from the courtyards of the city or of Mt. Ararat.

The State Publishing House of Armenia is a long white building with monumental columns. Polished rose marble forms the grand staircase in the State library. The State Observatory, circular in form, is reminiscent of the designs of Ramante.

Two splendid buildings dominate the city and are in a sense a key to its general style and character. These are the Government House, which is of rose tufa, and the Theater of Opera and Ballet. Both were designed by the late A. Tamanian. His gifted architect came to Erevan directly after the establishment of Soviet power, when his work as an architect was

mature, and he devoted himself to the replanning and rebuilding of the capital. He was the first to advocate the observance of the forms of Armenia's ancient architecture as a means of continuing her own classic tradition.

Gone is the crowded old city. In this new large Erevan there is plenty of space, the thoroughfares and squares are as imposing as in the best of the central cities of the world, and at the same time there is room and opportunity for further growth.

In the architectural offices of the city,

brought to the Zanga. In former days it was a seven-kilometer tramp to the basalt gorge through which this river flowed; now it can be reached in 15 or 20 minutes by a tunnel built in the style of the Moscow Subway.

Visitors to the Armenian capital—many conferences and scientific congresses are held here—are impressed with this city built by the people, a native creation in its setting of lofty mountains, and they leave it with regret.

Djambul Djambayev

The famous Soviet poet and bard of Kazakhstan is dead.

Born in 1846, Djambul died a few months before his centenary. His songs and poems, translated into all the languages of the USSR, form a remarkable contribution to Soviet poetry, in particular such works as "Song of Stalin," "Poem on the Motherland," "Song of the Spring of the Peoples," and "I Heard Stalin."

The news of the Nazi invasion in 1941 greatly shocked the 95-year-old folk-singer. When the enemy approached the gates of Leningrad and threatened Moscow, Djambul addressed the citizens of the two cities with the inspired appeals, "Leningrad People, my Children" and "To Moscow." His "Poem of Love and Wrath," addressed to Red Army men, is also widely known.

The Government awarded him the Order of Lenin, the Order of the Red Banner of Labor and the Badge of Honor. Several years ago Djambul won the Stalin Prize for poetry.



Notes on Soviet Life

The fourth Five-Year Plan of 1946-50 has been inaugurated. The Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union and the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR have set the following tasks for the first postwar Five-Year Plan: complete rehabilitation of districts which had been occupied by the Germans; postwar reconstruction of the national economy; and further development of all districts of the USSR. As a result of the fulfillment of this plan, the prewar level of development of the national economy of the Soviet Union will be substantially exceeded.

★

Cultural activities are being rapidly revived in the villages of the Rovno Region of the Byelorussian Soviet Republic. Seventy rural clubs and 280 cottage reading rooms already have been opened.

★

During Soviet rule, the Institute of Orientalology, celebrating its 130th anniversary this autumn, has produced thousands of specialists. Today interest in Oriental languages has mounted considerably. There are 15 applicants to each vacancy, many of them ex-soldiers eager to study Japanese, Chinese and other eastern tongues.

★

The State anthem of the Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic was recently approved and adopted by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of Armenia. The words were written by the poet, Sarmen, and the music by Aram Khachaturyan, Honored Worker in Art.

★

An exhibition of manufactured goods produced by Latvian factories and plants opened in Riga. Among the displays are thousands of agricultural implements and machines, textile materials, footwear and food products.

The first performance of the Ninth Symphony by Shostakovich was heard last week at the Moscow Philharmonic, with the composer conducting. The music is written in a tone of joyous optimism.

The first public rendition will be given at the end of October by the State Symphony Orchestra, conducted by Evgeni Mravinski. Copies of the score are being sent to the United States and Great Britain.

★

A participant of the Patriotic War, Stephan Zharnykh had recently returned to the Far East and started work in Bikin.

When Soviet troops started fighting operations against the Japanese militarists, Zharnykh went to the bank and transferred 50,000 rubles of his savings to the Red Army Fund.

"I would like a tank purchased with this money, to be manned by my brother now fighting against the Japanese invaders," said the Soviet patriot.

★

Vitali Ushakov, the fastest swimmer in the Soviet Union, has set a new USSR record in the 400-meter free style event, covering the distance in 4:44.9.

★

One of the main attractions of the All-Union Agricultural Exhibition of 1939 and 1941 was the section devoted to pedigreed horses bred by the collective farms of the Rostov Region.

Before the war the Budenny collective farm in the Proletary District had 1,600 horses of the famous Don breed. As soon as the war broke out a thousand of these animals were sent to the cavalry.

Almost completely destroyed during the German occupation, today the collective farm is striving to regain its former glory. Grazing on the vast steppes this year are droves of horses, among them 56 golden-maned colts born this year.

Special expeditions of the Moscow Institute for the study of eternal frost will soon depart for Chukotka, in the remote northeastern region of Siberia. During the past 25 years, valuable deposits of metal and coal were discovered by Soviet explorers in Chukotka Peninsula. In 1935 a special station of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR was built in Anadyr to study eternal frost, and the work has been continuous since, not even interrupted during the war.

★

Mikhail Petrov, the oldest diver of the Soviet Northern Fleet has a record of 2,500 hours below the surface repairing hulls damaged by shell fire, tightening the ships' screws and doing other essential jobs. He has trained more than 200 young divers.

★

Collective farmwoman of Ust Aldan Yakutsh District has had her 118th birthday. Ekaterina Degtyareva, who still looks spry, has two sons, 90 and 70 respectively. Nine of her grandchildren and great-grandchildren fought in the war.

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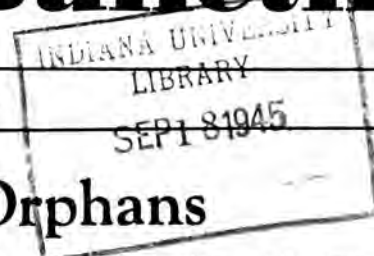
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Guardianship of War Orphans

Adoption as a method of caring for parentless children is regarded very favorably in the Soviet Union, where the benefits of family life and its positive influence on the developing character are fully recognized.

But if the child is to reap these benefits, it is essential that he should be firmly rooted in his new family environment. For this reason, Soviet law permits adoption only when there is reliable information of the death of the parents and the child has no immediate relatives. This is fairest to the foster parents, as well as to the child, for they naturally want the child to regard them as real parents, and the new family as his own family, and they accept the same responsibilities as would fall on a father and mother.

Soviet legislation on the subject is based solely on the child's interests. Only minors may be adopted. Citizens over 18 years of age have the right to adopt a child; the only exceptions are persons deprived of parental rights, those whose interests run counter to the adoptee's, or who have hostile relations with the adoptee. The fact that the would-be foster parents already have children of their own, or that the foster child is of different nationality, is no hindrance.

If the child has either parent, guardian or trustee, his consent is needed for the adoption.

Any person or institution may file a demand that the adoption be annulled, should the interests of the child dictate this course. If the person wishing to adopt the child is married, the consent of the other party to the marriage is required. The adopted child enjoys all the rights of the child of a marriage (the right to inheritance, to alimony, etc.). The foster parents, in turn, have the right to receive maintenance from their adopted child.



Varvara Chebotar, a resident of Kishinev in the Moldavian SSR, receives her adopted child from a nurse of the Infants' Home for war orphans

In the assessment of State grants for mothers of large families, adopted children are counted together with the mother's own children.

During the war the number of adoptions increased sharply in the USSR. The Germans disinherited and orphaned thousands of Soviet children, and a multitude of Soviet citizens are eager to be fathers and mothers to them.

The public health authorities which care for children up to the age of four, and the public education bodies, to which the children are handed over from four onward, handle all cases of adoption with extreme care.

As a precaution, these wartime adoptions are considered a compromise; parents thought dead may perhaps be alive—the foster parents must be prepared

for this and other contingencies. If there is no information about the fate of the child's parents and relatives, the child is entrusted to a family on the basis of a temporary agreement, by which the foster parents assume responsibility for his upbringing, to the cost of which the Soviet Government contributes. If, later, the parents are found, or relatives desire to take the child, the agreement is canceled.

But the law cannot foresee every contingency, and there are many cases that can only be decided by the courts. About two years ago a Moscow widow, whose husband had been killed at the front, decided to adopt a four-year-old boy. Several months ago the mother appeared and claimed her son, whom she had lost during the evacuation from the war zone in the summer of 1941. She traveled all the way from the Urals to Moscow, and took her son with her.

But the child, now seven years old, did not want to live with her. Later the child welfare authorities discovered that he was living in less satisfactory conditions than his foster mother had provided. The foster mother, who was very devoted to the boy, begged the mother to allow her to have him, and when the mother agreed, traveled the thousand miles to the Urals to bring the child back to Moscow. In this case court interference was not necessary, as the case was settled by mutual agreement.

Here, however, is a complicated case which has not yet been decided. Engineer G. and his wife, having no children of their own, took into their home the ten-month-old motherless baby of a Red Army man who had been killed at the front. The engineer knew that the Red Army man had relatives somewhere near Vinnitsa in the Ukraine. But the Ukraine was occupied by the Germans at the

BOARDING SCHOOL FOR HOMELESS CHILDREN



An important Government undertaking during and following the war has been the provision for war orphans. In every town there are well-equipped centers. Adolescents are sent to vocational schools, with full board at the expense of the State. The Novosibirsk trade school (shown here) accepts only war orphans. The curriculum for boys and girls includes trades — fitters, turners, etc.—and sports and the arts —singing, dancing and drawing

Top: A group of pupils with their teacher. On the wall is a portrait of the Soviet ace, Alexander Pokryshkin, who studied in this school before he became a pilot. Center: Youthful milling-machine operators at work. Bottom: One of the dormitories for boys

time, and it was impossible to get any exact information. It was, however, discovered that the child's relatives were no longer living where they had resided before the war, and the engineer decided to adopt the boy.

Several years passed. Recently an old woman visited the Moscow education department. She declared she was the grandmother of the engineer's adopted

baby, and wished to have it. She had remained in hiding from the enemy all through the German occupation, and was now living with her son, a war invalid.

She stated her attitude very clearly: "The child is of our blood. We want him to grow up among his own people. We have the means. Why should my grandchild be brought up in a strange family?"

Later it was learned that the child had other relatives who were able and willing to look after him.

But the engineer and his family are now very much attached to the boy. When they took him he was thin and sickly. Their care has made him well and sturdy. His present home conditions are ideal. What is to be done?

Such complex situations are arising more and more often as people who were caught up and whirled away in the tide of war begin to reappear. But not all the problems are wartime ones. Here is one which confronted the Moscow education authorities only a few days ago.

A woman related the following story: Her brother and his wife had gone to the Far North on a geological expedition just before the war, and had been killed there in an accident, leaving an infant daughter born to them while on the expedition. The little girl had been adopted by a local person who knew there were relatives living in Moscow, but did not think he was under any obligation to inform them of the child's fate. The aunt did not learn the facts until two years later.

Now she and her husband want to adopt their niece. The education authorities are in sympathy with their claim. But the people who adopted the child in infancy now refuse to give her up, and the case will have to be decided in court.

Where a parentless child is not adopted, it may be cared for by "guardians" or "patrons." The local Soviets are responsible for the guardianship program. The Civil Registry offices, when they register deaths and learn there is no one to care for the surviving orphans, at once notify the Soviet. House superintendents and others who hear of such cases are also bound to advise the authorities immediately of any children in need of care and protection.

The local Soviet appoints a guardian, usually a relative or other person close to the child, or someone nominated by a public organization (such as a trade union, or the trustees of the mutual benefit fund of a collective farm).

This guardian is responsible for seeing that the child is well brought up.



Collective farm chairman Sultan-Akhmed Combarov in Namangan (Uzbekistan) takes his charges for a walk. These children were evacuated from Kiev during the German occupation; (right) Meeting the orphans they have promised to adopt are women of the Krasny Bogatyr plant. The parents were victims of the fascists

properly educated, and trained for socially useful work. He has to make regular reports on his charge's health, behavior and progress at school. Where he has been nominated by a public organization, the latter helps and supervises. He is unpaid, but should the child under his care own property which yields an income, he is entitled to a share in that income, not exceeding 10 per cent. Guardians who abuse their powers or

neglect the children are liable to prosecution and imprisonment.

"Patronage" is based on an agreement between the State body in charge of the orphan and the person who has undertaken to bring him up. The patron undertakes to provide him with food and clothing, just as if he were his own child, to send him to school and take a fatherly interest in him, and to see that he is trained for a job. Until the child is

four years old, the patron must present him for regular medical examination. From the State, the patron receives a monthly allowance and certain privileges, such as tax remissions and rent reductions.

Children believed to be orphans are daily being reunited with their families through the Central Children's Address Bureau, which has a record of all children who have been adopted.

MOSCOW YOUTH HAVE LEISURE ACTIVITIES

By L. Vepritskaya

There are children's clubs in all Soviet cities and particularly in Moscow. Every district has its House of Pioneers or House of Culture located in some of the finest buildings and tastefully and conveniently furnished. They offer the young people not only relaxation and entertainment but also a variety of classes under the guidance of experienced teachers and specialists. An interest in technology, history, biology, art or literature can be pursued.

Adults as well as children admired the exhibition of handiwork of the Children's House of Culture in the Bauman-sky District of Moscow. Various articles were displayed, including desk lamps, voltmeters, miniature models of guns and numerous visual aids for classes in physics. The carpentry shop showed cupboards and miniature furniture, the ar-

ticles so carefully finished that it is difficult to believe they have been done by schoolchildren only recently unable to handle the simplest tool.

The theory and practice of automobile mechanics is a popular course. A neighboring factory presented the young fans with an airplane motor and various instruments. And the members of this club demonstrated 100 miniature airplane models capable of staying in the air an unusually long time.

The children at the House of Pioneers in the Kirov District collected materials to construct a visual aid for the school. After completing this project, the children took up electrical designing, and are at present tackling some difficult problems. These exhibits testify to the development of real creative thought among the young technicians.

The House of Pioneers in the Sverdlovsk District in Moscow has a club which studies the history of Moscow under the guidance of Tatyana Samoilov. The teacher gives her group every opportunity to develop their ability by simply guiding their interests and helping them to obtain supplies; otherwise the children work independently.

After excursions, inspecting the monuments of the country, studying the history of their city, and visiting the museums, the children write compositions of their impressions.

All the children's clubs have nature-study groups which make their experiments on the school grounds.

These clubs in Moscow have been of valuable assistance to the school and the family in extending interests and utilizing leisure for productive pursuits.

Construction Genius of the Urals

By L. Irin

It may well be said that Nikolai Dygai is one of the chief construction contractors in the world. He directs an organization which built, during the war alone, 1,300,000 square meters of production floor space and about 600,000 square meters of dwelling space in the Urals—dozens of factories and mines large and small, and thousands of apartments.

People who have worked with him for years say that he is tireless. His persistence and ability to integrate the work of great numbers of people would arouse the envy of many an industrial executive.

Dygai, chief of the Central Construction Administration for the Urals, is of medium stature, rather stout, dark-haired, with large features and a powerful voice. Few builders can compete with the 36-year-old engineer for the number of construction jobs completed. Nor does he manage his huge undertakings from his Moscow office. He makes it a rule to be on the spot to see that things move properly.

A Mighty Arsenal

The Urals Construction Administration has built a copper smelter, nickel and chemical works and several iron and steel works, one of which has a capacity greater than all of the Urals iron and steel industry in tsarist Russia. The dozens of other plants put up by Dygai's organization include Diesel works, tank and ordnance plants. Together with the area's old plants they have made the Urals the mighty arsenal it is now.

On a small table in his office Dygai has a model of a tank plant in unbreakable glass. This is one of the hundreds of factories evacuated to the Urals from the war zone in the early period of hostilities.

This particular plant was put up in December 1941 on an unbroken site. One of its main blocks, a building 10,000 square meters in area, was built in 12 days. That was a day less than called for in the instructions given personally by Joseph Stalin. The builders, led by Dygai, who in those days spent all his time on the construction sites, at first lost two days on organizational preparations



Nikolai Dygai

and then plunged energetically into the work. A remarkable fact was that many of the people engaged on this record job were not professional building trades workers, but housewives, teachers, students, office workers, etc., impelled to offer their patriotic services.

The physical strain and the difficulties of work in 40-degree frosts were exceedingly great, but not a single worker complained.

"The day we reported to Stalin that the factory block had been built ahead of schedule was the greatest day of all my career as a construction engineer," Dygai says.

The Rise of the Engineer

Nikolai Dygai's life story is one typical of the new Soviet intelligentsia. Born in the South of a peasant family, he got a job at a factory as a boilermaker's helper when he was 13. At the plant he attended a workers' preparatory school in the evenings, where he received a secondary education. Later he enrolled at the construction department of the Moscow Higher Technical School.

His ability was first revealed during his student years when he was sent to con-

struction locations to gain practical experience in the summer months. When energetic people were needed for a new construction job, the 24-year-old student was sent along as a section superintendent with thousands of workers under him. This was the beginning of his career.

Subsequently he resumed his studies. This time he entered the Military Engineering Academy of the Red Army, and graduated in 1934.

Dygai's future was in the Urals. At an All-Union Congress of Soviets in Moscow, Dygai heard the well-known Soviet builder Mikhail Tsarevsky give an eloquent description of the Nizhny Tagil iron and steel works project, the biggest job of its kind at the time. The young engineer was so impressed that he immediately sought out Tsarevsky and asked to be sent to the Nizhny Tagil job. There he earned a reputation as the builder of a plant that stands to this day as an example of the best of modern construction engineering.

Seven years ago he was appointed manager of the Urals Heavy Industry Construction Trust. A year later he was head of the Urals Construction Administration with several building and assembly trusts under it. Since 1941 he has also been a member of the Advisory Board of the People's Commissariat of the Building Industry.

Discussing his program for this year, Dygai told me that it reaches an all-time high in industrial construction in the Urals. He added that considerable attention will be devoted to building apartment houses with modern conveniences for the workers and engineers of Urals plants.

"The period when temporary barracks had to be set up, owing to wartime conditions, is over. Now we will build houses designed to stand for many years."

On his office wall Dygai has a large painting depicting an old blacksmith forging a sword, entitled "The Hoary Urals Forge Victory." This symbolic picture is very much in place in its present surroundings, where the young engineer devotes himself so wholeheartedly to his work.

DISCOVERIES IN SUPER-FLUIDITY

By Oleg Pissarzhevsky

Peter Kapitza, the well-known Soviet physicist, likes to recall an episode from the biography of Humphry Davy, the founder of modern electro-chemistry. When he first succeeded in reducing alkaline lye to its elements, he ran up and down his laboratory shouting in his excitement.

Spattering ink and breaking quills he dashed down in the laboratory record book the stirring events of the day. He left the laboratory, stopped in his tracks, returned and wrote on the margin of the page just penned, "A magnificent experiment!"

The foundations of all science are facts, and if the facts contradict theory then it's all the worse for theory. When Davy discovered a contradiction between fact and theory, he knew that that meant a revision of the theory, its correction and improvement.

"The incomprehensible should brook inquiry," is Kapitza's steadfast rule. We must keep this in view if we want to understand the ideas behind many of his experiments.

In an Unknown Land

The weak spot in a theory is rarely very obvious—its contradictory factors are skillfully hidden. Before trying to bring them to a head and arrive at the synthesis—that is, carry out the experiment—the contradiction must be found. Discoveries of this sort do not come by chance.

Kapitza once compared the research worker to a traveler in an unknown land. If our traveler is a geologist he may find valuable minerals and ores, he may also return empty-handed. In any case he will not prospect just anywhere on the globe, will not trust entirely to luck. He is guided by the known laws governing the distribution of essential minerals in the earth's crust just as the physicist is guided in his research by the fundamental laws which have become the pillars of our knowledge.

There was nothing fortuitous in Kapitza's interest in low temperatures. When the thermal motion of atoms and mole-



Academician Peter Kapitza

cules slows down, the very finest shades, the most intimate properties of a substance are brought out unhindered. Kapitza spent much effort in making the sphere of low temperatures accessible to experiment. To do it he had to design new refrigerating machines capable of liquefying in sufficient quantities the gas most difficult of all to liquefy—helium—and thereby approach absolute zero.

In ordinary life, temperature is generally measured as being above or below the freezing point of water—the zero of the centigrade thermometer. In physics, temperature is measured not from any arbitrarily chosen point but from the lowest temperature that there can possibly be, from "absolute" cold. That temperature is called "absolute zero," and temperatures measured from it are "absolute temperatures." By this system, the freezing point of water is about 273 degrees.

"Super-low" temperatures a fraction of a degree above absolute zero are hundreds, indeed thousands of times colder than normal room temperature. At these temperatures a number of remarkable phenomena are to be observed which differ greatly from what takes place at usual temperatures. That is why the study of

extremely low temperatures is so important for physics.

In this field Kapitza has made a discovery. Investigating the properties of liquid helium he found that when the temperature was lowered to approximately two absolute degrees, helium went into a state never before observed.

As everyone knows, all liquids are viscous. Honey, for example, is very viscous, water much less so. You can empty a vessel of water through a narrow tube much quicker than one of honey. At about two degrees absolute helium suddenly loses all its viscosity. If you take a tube a thousandth part of a millimeter in diameter and fill it with water, the water will take some hours to flow out—helium will vanish from it instantaneously.

Kapitza called this property "super-fluidity." It is one of the most remarkable and mysterious properties of matter. Kapitza's discovery of "super-fluidity" earned him the First Class Stalin Prize.

At present we can only say Kapitza's work has broadened our knowledge of matter, and permits us to probe more deeply into the secrets of nature. Research of this kind on the border of the known gives rise to new methods in which schools of resourceful and enterprising experimenters are being trained. It is still difficult to foresee, of course, when the discoveries made in the sphere of super-low temperatures can be put to practical use.

But when, fifty years ago, physicists attained low temperatures much higher than those now achieved, it was difficult to foresee any practical application of the discovery. Long before liquid helium was first obtained, the air we breathe could be turned into liquid at 184 degrees below zero centigrade.

Nobody at the time could foretell the important consequences of the discovery. Experiments with liquid air showed that its component parts, nitrogen and oxygen, could be separated by means of evaporation. Liquid nitrogen evaporates at a lower temperature than liquid oxygen and so nitrogen could be distilled

from oxygen as spirit is distilled from water. The idea was put to practical use and has gradually formed a branch of industry: the production of oxygen from the air.

Air is first liquefied in refrigerating machines and then the nitrogen driven off by distilling. So far the oxygen obtained in this manner has been used chiefly for welding and cutting metals, for manufacturing explosives, for the breathing apparatus of airmen at high altitude and finally to assist the respiration of the sick.

"Not Castles in the Air"

All these uses for oxygen are based on the fact that it is the vital agent of life. It is also the basic factor in combustion. In the ocean of air around us oxygen constitutes one-fifth; the other four-fifths are inert nitrogen (the admixture of carbon dioxide and a few rare gases is negligible).

The question naturally arose as to whether it was possible to accelerate all the main technological processes based on combustion by raising the oxygen content of the air used. Experiments showed that significant changes in technological processes could indeed be made.

Academician Ivan Bardin, the well-known Soviet metallurgist, has calculated on the basis of experiments carried out in the Soviet Union before the war, that oxygen used in blast and open-hearth furnaces could substantially reduce the labor required, the price of the metal and the capital outlay. Oxygen could greatly accelerate the extraction of gold from ores. The problem of running industry and municipal services on gas instead of solid fuels and so abolishing the smoke scourge and relieving transport of fuel haulage, can only be solved by utilizing oxygen.

Ending one of his papers on the prospect of employing oxygen in metallurgy, Academician Bardin said: "These are not castles in the air but fortress strongholds of nature's treasures, and we know that there are no fortresses which technology, armed by progressive science, cannot take."

To reduce those fortresses, release the treasures of nature and send technology a leap ahead, it is only oxygen that is

required, but it is needed in huge quantities. A hundred thousand cubic meters of oxygen in gas form would be required to supply one big blast furnace for a day.

The means so far employed to obtain oxygen from the air are unsuitable for production on such a large scale. Piston compressors are the main part of the equipment and all piston machines without exception are bulky. Where possible turbine machines are substituted as they are much more compact and efficient.

Kapitza applied his research methods to solving the technical problems of refrigerator turbine improvement. He was the first to employ for refrigerating machines a new turbine combining many of the advantages of both steam and water turbines. This turbine (called a turbine-detander) has functioned excellently.

The application of the turbine principle to the extraction of oxygen from air, and a number of other improvements suggested by Kapitza, have improved the process to a considerable extent. Kapitza's work has made it possible to build powerful turbine oxygen machines capable of satisfying the unprecedented demands for gas made by various industries.

The usual method of utilizing an invention like the new turbine oxygen machine is to introduce it first into one industry and then gradually spread its application to allied branches. The Soviet system of economy adopts a simpler and more direct way.

Methods suggested by science naturally become a matter of State interest as soon as their practicability is proved. The State orders their introduction and the order is equally binding on all branches of industry, as they have the same interests—those of the national economy.

In the present case, to make the preliminary measures, insure the correctness of instructions issued and later supervise their execution, a State Technical Council for the Utilization of Oxygen has been set up. It is headed by the inventor of the new turbine method of oxygen production—Peter Kapitza.

"The intensification of production processes is one of the main problems of modern technology and in that lies its progress," says Kapitza. "The logical development of technology in the overwhelming majority of its branches," he goes on to say, "calls for the intensification of the main technological processes by raising the concentration of oxygen employed in them."

The idea of intensifying production processes by oxygen covers most branches of industry. In the USSR its application is not hindered by any clashes of interests linked with competition and anarchy in production and distribution.

The organic tie-up of Kapitza's work with the country's creative aims insure that it will be applied rapidly and with success.

NOTED VISITOR FROM CHINESE REPUBLIC

The prominent Chinese writer Kuomo-jo, now in the Soviet Union, met with Soviet archeologists and Sinologists at the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries.

His report on the new historical works of Chinese scientists aroused great interest among Soviet historians.

Kuomo-jo has a keen understanding of all aspects of life in the Soviet Union, and showed particular interest in provisions for child-care.

For several days he made tours of the preschool educational system in Moscow and was greatly impressed by his visit to the nursery of the Moscow Tramway Park,

where he spent the whole day. He saw children's physical culture exercises, vegetable gardens and flower beds planted by the youngsters, the puppet show in the nursery on that day and was part of the audience at a performance by the school charges.

Before returning home Kuomo-jo is visiting Yasnaya Polyana, the estate of the great Russian writer Leo Tolstoy which has been converted into a museum. Yasnaya Polyana, whose director is Tolstoy's granddaughter, Kuomo-jo will visit the places where the writer lived and worked and acquaint himself with the literary archives.

MANCHUK GOES TO WAR

By O. Chechotkina

When the Kazakh people describe one of their heroes of olden days, they say nothing like this: *His breast was like a cliff. His eye was piercing as the eagle's. In battle he was as the mountain torrents. A soldier's honor was as pure as the snowy crest of Ala-Tau.*

We must find other words to describe Manchuk Mаметова, daughter of Kazakh and Hero of the Soviet Union. She is small, slender and young. Her eyes are soft and affectionate—the gazelle's and the eagle's.

She was born in a remote steppe hamlet. Her home was a *yurta*, or tent made of skins. She learned to ride a horse almost before she could walk.

The first memory of her childhood was the spring sunshine warming the steppe. Perched on a pile of soft skins on a camel's back, and swaying and clinging tightly to the ropes, she gazed at the broad steppe and the high mountains.

On winter nights the wind raged over the steppe. The dogs huddled shivering at the tent walls. Sitting in a haze of red smoke from a fire of dried dung, the old grandmother told stories, and the little girl's eyes would burn as she heard of the magic horse that covered a six months' journey in six leaps.

Mančia was her real name. Manchuk is the pet name her mother gave her. And Manchuk she is to the Soviet people. When Manchuk was five years old a visitor from the city came to stay in the *yurta*—her aunt Amina Mаметова. She came very fond of her niece, and it was decided that Manchuk should go to live with her in Alma-Ata, capital of Kazakhstan. The parents died not long afterward, and Manchuk transferred all her affections to her adopted mother.

When she went to school she joined the pioneers (the Soviet children's organization) going with them on holiday trips to the mountains. Lying on the grass by the camp fire, they would always beg Manchuk to "sing us something." She had a wonderful repertoire of old Kazakh songs learned from her grandmother.

Later she went to study at a medical school, at the same time working in the



A Kazakh girl in her national costume

office of the Council of People's Commissars of the Republic. Her studies, her activities in the Young Communist League, and gay excursions into the mountains with her friends filled her life to overflowing.

* * *

Spring, 1941, was particularly beautiful in Alma-Ata. The night skies were like black velvet studded with diamonds. And Manchuk's cup of happiness was full. She had been chosen to go to Moscow to take part in the physical culture parade.

The parade did not take place. Hitler invaded the USSR. Manchuk watched trainloads of evacuees arriving at Alma-Ata. That same evening she said to her adopted mother: "I am going to the front, my dear. I am grown up. I know my mind."

The older woman protested: "But you aren't a man, Manchuk. You can help the Red Army here. You know how dear you are to me. Why do you want to cause me grief?"

The girl smiled, and said: "Grief is

like the sea—you yourself taught me that. If you sink in it, you drown. But risk is the boat that will carry you over."

Finally she got to the front. But despite her insistent applications to be put in an infantry unit, she was kept as a clerk at headquarters. She obeyed, but was determined to have her way in the end. She could have been a nurse, a telephone or wireless operator. But that was not what she wanted. She intended to be a machine-gunner.

She applied herself, in her spare time, to learning how to handle a machine gun, and eventually she won out. She was transferred to an infantry battalion on the Kalinin front, and soon became a senior sergeant.

She was a general favorite, just as she had been at school. She laughed a great deal, and was kind. It happens in wartime that people well used to the thought of death, as mountaineers are used to the air of great heights, suddenly realize its presence. When such awareness clouded the spirits of her comrades, Manchuk would tell old tales to cheer them up, stories of the time of the Golden Horde.

* * *

One of the stories she told was this:

Long, long ago there lived a man by the name of Korkyt. And Korkyt could not reconcile himself to the swift passage of a man's life. So he decided to fight death.

For this purpose he resolved to go away, to leave all human beings. But wherever he went he saw death. In the forest the tree, rotting and falling, spoke to him of death. On the steppes the feather-grass, burning in the sun, told the same tale. Even the mighty mountains predicted their coming dissolution.

Then from a tree Korkyt carved a wooden *kobyz* (a Kazakh musical instrument), strung it and began to play. Ever since, his music has roamed through the world, and thus he conquered death.

"So you see," Manchuk ended the story, "as long as Korkyt thought only of death and kept apart from people, there was nothing but grief and melancholy all around him. But when he took the wood from the tree—the same tree that can

rot—and made music from it, then he returned to the people and became immortal, for life always conquers death.”

* * *

By her actions as well as her words she affirmed the all-conquering right of life.

By the time the battle for Nevel opened, Manchuk had become an experienced soldier.

It was a cold morning. A thick, milky fog hung over the lake. The Germans were clinging to every position. Manchuk, long plaits streaming, raced ahead and set up her machine gun on a hill. The Germans opened mortar fire on her position and the girl fell, badly wounded.

As she lay, it seemed to her that her childhood had returned, that she was lying on the crisp green grass of the steppe, with bees and insects humming around her, and somewhere a mountain torrent roaring.

Only—why did the green grass suddenly move, begin to crawl! Could grass crawl? Manchuk raised herself a little. The green grass crawling toward her was a mass of Germans, and it was not a stream she heard roaring in her native mountains, but Germans shouting.

Manchuk felt very calm, her head was clear, and suddenly the pain had left her. Her machine gun had been overturned by the mortar explosion. She set it up again and waited until the enemy was very near.

Then she opened fire. The soldiers fell back as Manchuk's gun spat viciously, clearing a road for her comrades.

. . . Even in death, her fingers were on the trigger of the machine-gun.

* * *

If ever you should be in Nevel, you will see a street named after the Kazakh machine-gunner Manchuk Mаметова, Hero of the Soviet Union.

And if ever you are in Alma-Ata, be sure to go to Proletarskaya Street. It is smothered in green poplars and apricot trees. There is a perpetual cool sound of water splashing.

In that street is a small white house with a green roof—number nineteen. There Manchuk lived and from there she went to war.

Evening Classes Resumed

The new term is starting soon in the evening schools set up two years ago for young men and women who had interrupted their education to take jobs at war plants.

A year ahead of the rest of the country in organizing these schools, Moscow had 24 schools in 1942, with 3,500 pupils. Today there are 120 night schools with a student body of 35,000.

According to Yevgenia Rosentul of the Moscow City Board of Education, during the past three years 7,000 pupils acquired junior secondary education (seven grades) and 3,000 completed the full ten-year secondary curriculum in evening courses. This year the figures are 3,000 and 1,225, respectively.

“How do the young people manage to work and study at the same time?”

“In the first place, all students were exempted from overtime work, even in the hardest war years,” was the reply. “And, besides, they were granted leave with pay during examinations—17 days for those taking the seven-year course and 23 days for the ten-year students.”

Rosentul intimated that there had been difficulty in getting some factory managements to encourage the youth to study at first, but owing to Government measures and newspaper campaigns, this incorrect attitude had been overcome.

Asked how the general standard of education compares with the day schools, Rosentul said that it was quite high. This was the opinion publicly expressed by Academician V. Potemkin, People's Commissar of Education of the Russian SFSR, and the satisfactory examinations support his statement. The pupils did particularly well in literature and composition.

In some schools representatives of the City Board of Education who were present at the examinations were amazed at the knowledge of foreign languages displayed by the young workers. Results in

other subjects were equally encouraging.

The method of pedagogy is based chiefly on independent work, according to Rosentul. Much more homework is assigned than in the day system. Consultations with teachers on difficult subjects are held after school hours. The progress of the students is tested periodically. The program of laboratory work in subjects like physics and chemistry is the same as in the secondary day schools. With the exceptions of languages and mathematics, which are carried throughout the term, no more than three subjects may be taken at a time.

The schedule had provided for classes three times a week for four hours at a time. This year the hours have been increased to five.

“Do many graduates of the ten-year course go on from your schools to college?”

“Now that the war is over nearly all of them will,” Rosentul said. “The heads of Moscow's higher educational institutions have a high estimation of our pupils. Evidently the system of independent study is good preparation for the university. Another important factor of the course is that our young people already have a mature outlook on life and a serious desire to acquire knowledge.”

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The Stakhanov Movement

By A. Litvak

The Donets miner who inaugurated the campaign for higher productivity of labor and rational utilization of machinery is now world famous.

Several years ago Alexei Stakhanov showed newspapermen two letters he had received from abroad. The first was from Lincoln University in the United States asking him to send his autographed portrait to the University's collection of portraits, autographs and letters of famous people; the other was from the Historical and Biographical Archives in Vienna and consisted of a detailed questionnaire. The request from America was easy to comply with, but the questionnaire was quite another matter.

What could the son of a poor landless peasant say about connections with famous people and families, in which the Viennese Archives were interested? His family history, too, was limited to the fact that from year to year his relatives had to leave the villages for the coal mining towns in search of a livelihood. Alexei's father, Grigory Stakhanov, who had no farm of his own, eked out a miserable existence by working for rich peasants.

At the age of nine Alexei became a shepherd's helper, and his childhood dreams dared not go beyond the wish to own a gray horse. Then he worked as a common laborer in his native village of Lugovaya, Orel Region, until 1927 when, as a young man of 22, he decided to leave for the mines. He feared the mines—and his grandfather had warned him of the perils of being a collier.

In the coal mines of pre-Revolutionary times a miner crawled on all fours through small passageways and hauled coal tubs by a rope tied around his waist.

But the Donbas to which Stakhanov



Miners listen with interest to Stakhanov (right) as he discusses production levels obtainable in the pit

went from the village was no longer what Grandpa had known. The pits were different, and so was life. Electricity illuminated the underground and machines made the work easier. Rows of new houses were being built in the settlements, which had asphalt roads and shade trees and gardens. Each year there were more coal-cutters, pneumatic picks, conveyors, transporters, air compressors and electric traction motors.

Eventually, Stakhanov, who had begun as a brakeman and had later driven horses, became a miner at the face. Studying while working, he learned more and more about the machinery employed in coal mining. He finished his training course with honors and passed his State technical examination, at the same time helping fellow workers to master the

modern extraction of coal. He introduced a new method of working at the face; confining himself to coal-cutting, he left the timbering to others.

Ten years ago on the night of August 30, 1935, Stakhanov went down into the mine as usual, with the intention of setting a new record. But he scarcely thought that his accomplishment would inspire a nation-wide movement.

A few days before, his co-workers had asked him how more coal could be gotten out of the mines with the same technical equipment. Good miners turned out 10 to 14 tons a shift; was it possible to turn out more? Stakhanov's opinion was that if the work were better organized, with the breaks in the supply of compressed air eliminated and the timbermen properly used, 100 tons could easily

be hewn. The required standard of output was then 7.3 tons.

Early in the morning of August 31 the day shift hurried to the pithead long before the whistle was due to blow, for by now the news had got around that Alexei Stakhanov had hewn 102 tons of coal in five hours and 45 minutes. This was a world record for pneumatic-pick coal-cutting. It was hard to believe one man could do it.

"The Stakhanov movement," Stalin said at the first All-Union Conference of Stakhanovites which convened in the Kremlin in Moscow two and a half months later, "cannot be regarded as an ordinary movement of workingmen and women. The Stakhanov movement is a movement of workingmen and women which will go down in the history of our Socialist construction as one of its most glorious pages."

The first to speak at this meeting was Alexei Stakhanov. Then came railwaymen Krivonos and Zakorko, automobile worker Busygin, the two Vinogradovas—textile workers, shoe worker Smetanin, metallurgists Pushkin, Boblyov and Sorokov, and dozens of others, each of whom in his own field had shown that not only in coal mines but in all other branches of industry it was possible to exceed the prevailing technical standards, pass the limits that had been considered immutable and produce more than called for by the plan.

Stakhanov was the first of all these trail blazers. But in the short period of time between his first achievement and Stalin's tribute—"The most vital and irresistible movement of the present day"—a wave of breaking previous production highs arose in the machine-building and iron and steel industries, in the textile mills and on the railways. This movement, born among the masses of the people, spread throughout the country.

"Only a movement that is absolutely ripe and is awaiting just a jolt in order to burst free, only such a movement can spread with such rapidity and grow like a rolling snowball," Stalin said.

Stalin called the drive a new higher stage of Socialist competition associated with a new technique. Fully mastering the technique of their fields, the workers broke down old views and old standards

Stakhanovites



From top down: Planing-machine operator S. Shalaev overfulfills norms working on three machines. * Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR Fatima Dasalovna Shutukova is vice director of a spinning factory in the Cherkess Region. * Mamlyakat from Central Asia who was praised by Stalin for her organization of cotton-picking, tells friends of the memorable occasion. * The brothers Safrajter employed a paired method in assembling 30 tires a day (the standard is 21.5)

of projected capacities and production plans. Alert, equal to the task, able to display high precision and accuracy in their work and valuing every second of time, they were able to squeeze out of the machine everything it could give.

Stakhanov labor enriched science as well. At a reception given to workers of the higher schools in the Kremlin on May 17, 1938, Stalin proposed a toast to Stakhanov and the Stakhanovites. He said that new trails are blazed in science and engineering, not only by people belonging to the scientific world but by innovators, practical workers, simple people unknown and lacking scientific degrees. "Who does not know," he asked, "that Stakhanov and the Stakhanovites in their practical work in the field of industry upset existing standards which had been set by well-known people in science and technique and introduced new standards corresponding to the demands of genuine science and technique?" Since then steel man and academician, milling-machine operator and designing engineer, have appeared side by side on the lists of Stalin Prize awards.

The term Stakhanovite has become the equivalent of a title of honor in the Soviet Union. Anyone who is a Stakhanovite is a patriot, a man of initiative, the personification of courage. He is one who loves his country and does his utmost to increase its might by selfless labor. Such have the Stakhanovites been during the past decade, and the Soviet people have elected them to the Supreme Soviets of the USSR, of the Union and Autonomous Republics, and to local government bodies. The past ten years have seen them rise to public eminence and win popular trust.

Throughout the ten years since the August morning the miners of the Central Irmino mine congratulated Alexei Stakhanov on his first achievement and the girls from the town brought him bouquets of flowers, the Soviet people have been participants in the great movement that bears his name. Of these years, four were spent in defense of the honor, freedom and independence of our country.

Even before the war the Stakhanov movement armed the country for the great ordeal as millions of men and women worked tirelessly to increase its military might. In all industries, as the people forged ahead increasing efficiency, splendid organizers and bold innovators appeared and led the workers forward.

When war engulfed our land the

Stakhanov movement proved a powerful mainstay for the heroic Army. The efforts of millions of people were concentrated on victory. Patriots doubled and trebled their output in an effort to replace those who had gone to the battlefields. The Stakhanovites built concrete fortifications and launched the production of new types of weapons. The mines and the iron and steel works of the Kuznetsk Basin had to cover the temporary loss of the Donbas, occupied by the Germans. They produced the machinery for the plants and factories built during the war. They clothed and shod the Red Army and the people. They drove locomotives up to the front lines at unprecedented

The Urals ordnance workers and the Baku oil men, the Stalingrad tractor builders and the Kuznetsk iron and steel producers, Muscovites and Leningraders, Georgians and Kazakhs, girls and boys, men and women—all those who constructed the materials for war—did their part to make victory possible. They belong to history as do the ones who hoisted the flag of victory over Berlin and those who routed the Japanese aggressor.

Maxim Gorky wrote, "We must all regard ourselves as the Red Army. I refer to your great day-to-day battle with formless metal out of which you fashion efficient machines, your struggle with the earth which you compel to yield rich harvests, your battle made underground where you mine coal, your battle in transport, fighting the snowstorms on dark winter nights—everywhere you are fighting with word and deed."

The Soviet people have always devoted their creative and inspired labor to their country. And when danger threatened, metal and machinery, coal and harvests were moved like warrior hosts into battle. The title of wartime Stakhanovite carried as much honor as that of serviceman.

During the first months after the Hitlerite hordes had invaded our country, the Germans in Yelnya found a veteran worker named Joseph Akatenkov.

"Stakhanovite?" the German officer asked.

"Yes," replied the worker.

He was taken to German headquarters and tortured to death. For the enemy knew that the Russian word means fighter—fighter to the death. He knew that a Stakhanovite in the rear was strengthening the might of the Red Army, forging weapons of destruction for the fascist invaders.

The For Valorous Labor During the Patriotic War of 1941-1945 Medal will be awarded to millions of Stakhanovites in token of their country's appreciation of their heroic efforts on the labor front.

"I really don't see why they should call it the Stakhanov movement," said the embarrassed leader at the first All-Union Conference of Stakhanovites. "It is comrade Stalin who inspired our victories. It is to the great Stalin that we are indebted for our happy life, for the joys



Leader of the drive in his pit, C. Petrov became manager of the mine

and glory of our native land. For him, for his Bolshevik Party, for our beloved country, we are ready to give our lives."

Alexei Stakhanov said that ten years ago, in the first year of the Stakhanov movement. Every day, every hour that has passed since then has shown that the Donets miner truly voiced the sentiments of the people.



E. Gorbunova, a Stakhanovite of a preserving plant in Stalingrad

speeds. They repaired the fighting equipment at a pace that once would have seemed fantastic. They built new enterprises by accelerated methods. They assembled machines and made the workshops for them simultaneously. They mastered new technological processes on the job. They operated several machines at once. Every day they submitted new proposals aimed at the more rational use of raw material and fuel. The time factor became decisive, for the minutes gained meant the difference between success and failure at the front.



Knitter A. Gushtshina masters the technique of working on new machines



Ivan Vladimirovich Kovalyov, People's Commissar of Railways of the USSR; Hero of Socialist Labor P. Krivonos, the initiator of the Stakhanov movement on the railroads; Hero of Socialist Labor Elena Chukhniuk, locomotive engineer, drove trains on front-lines delivering armaments and munitions; Hero of Socialist Labor N. Lunin, famous engineer whose methods have been adopted throughout the country

Honoring the Railway Workers

All-Union Railwaymen's Day was celebrated August 5 to honor those workers of the Soviet Union who contributed so much to victory.

During the war 127 railwaymen were awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labor, 17,000 were given orders and medals of the Soviet Union, and about 54,000 received the medals For the Defense of Leningrad, Moscow, Stalingrad, Sevastopol, Odessa, the Caucasus and the Soviet Arctic. The Government has recently decorated 9,000 additional transport workers.

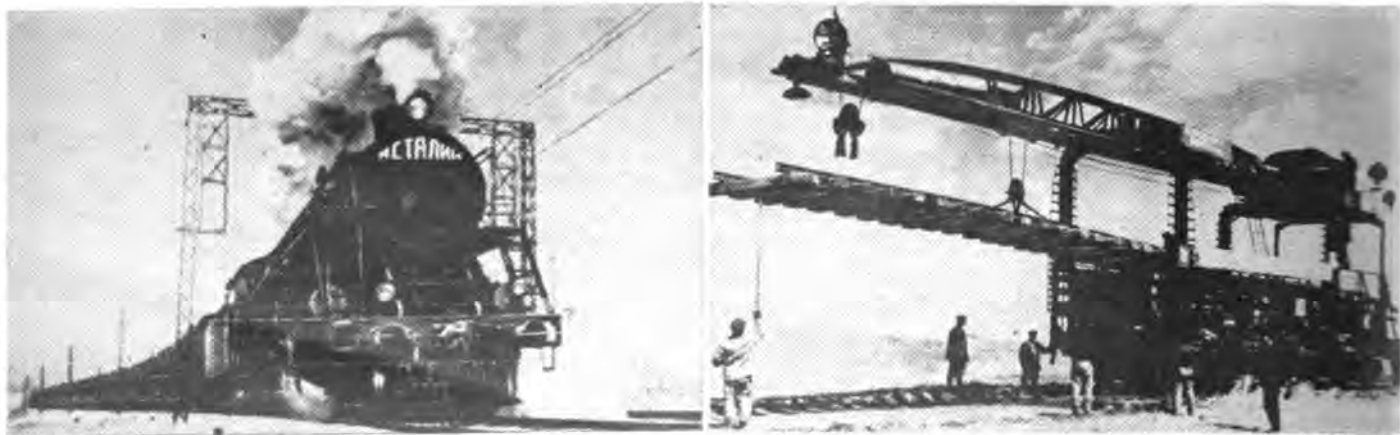
The People's Commissar of Railways of the USSR pointed out: "War did not prevent us from building new railways."

The rapid growth of industrial production in the Urals, Siberia, Central Asia and the Volga valley caused a corresponding increase in railway traffic, a challenge successfully met by the workers. Freight turnover of the Urals and Siberian roads increased by ten million tons during the war. Coal shipments on the Sverdlovsk line trebled, and metal hauls rose by 60 per cent.

The railways in the occupied territories

were subjected to unprecedented wreckage. The scores of thousands of kilometers of tracks and over 2,300 large and medium bridges destroyed by the Germans had to be repaired or replaced. Twenty-five hundred stations were totally demolished or badly damaged.

Fulfilling Stalin's instructions to restore communications as quickly as possible, the transportation troops put back 50,000 kilometers of road on Soviet territory and about 29,000 on foreign soil. Either entirely new construction or rebuilding was done on 2,393 bridges.



The Joseph Stalin locomotive gathers speed. It is the most powerful passenger train operating on Soviet lines; (right) Rail-laying equipment quickly drops new track sections into position. This is used in the restoration of Nazi-wrecked roads

Radiophoto

SOVIET COURTS OF JUSTICE

By Nikolai Silberstein

Lenin looked upon the courts of justice as a means of instilling discipline and self-discipline into the working people. The only courts which could function in this way, he believed, were courts in which the entire people participated, and which were active in all spheres of workaday life.

If the desire for discipline and self-discipline were not to remain only a desire, he contended, the courts must be organized on democratic lines compatible with the principles of Soviet power.

The prestige of the Soviet courts of justice is derived from the fact that they are organized in accordance with those principles.

Elected by the People

The basis upon which the Soviet judicial apparatus is established is laid down in a special chapter of the Soviet Constitution devoted to the law courts. These courts do not recognize differences of race, nationality or property status. Their judges are elected freely and independently from the people and by the people.

Most cases are examined by the people's courts. These deal with nearly all civil court cases, disputes arising out of labor relations, crimes and misdemeanors.

There are people's courts in all city districts and suburban localities. The judges elected by the citizens of each district by universal, direct, equal and secret ballot serve for a period of three years.

A higher court exists to examine appeals from the decisions of the people's courts.

The Right of Appeal

Each Republic has its Supreme Court which controls the work of all the courts of the Republic. The Soviet judicial system is headed by the Supreme Court of the USSR. Any complaint by an interested party in a court case, any appeal from an accused person or protest from a procurator is examined by the Chairman of the Supreme Court, no matter how insignificant the matter may be. If he finds that the law has been broken and that an incorrect decision has been reached, he refers the case to the Supreme Court for trial.

The deciding factor in the control of the courts is the independence of the judges and their subordination to the law alone. Article 112 of the Soviet Constitution reads: "Judges are independent and subject only to the law."

This principle is clearly explained in the manual "Soviet Constitutional Law" issued by the Law Institute of the Soviet Academy of Sciences.

"Soviet judges are independent," states the manual, "because the Soviet court, subject only to the law which expresses the will of the people, is independent of any influences in deciding concrete cases; in passing sentence or making decisions the judges are subject only to the demands of the law, and are governed by their own inner convictions, formed as a result of their examination of all the circumstances of the case. In this sense the Soviet court, the court of the people, is a truly independent court."

Accessible to All

The Constitution of the USSR makes it exceptionally clear that the courts must be accessible to the whole population. Article No. 110 says: "Judicial proceedings are conducted in the language of the Union Republic, Autonomous Republic or Autonomous Region, persons not knowing this language being guaranteed every opportunity of fully acquainting themselves with the material of the case through an interpreter and likewise the

right to use their own language in court."

The public conduct of court cases, guaranteed by the Constitution of the USSR, is of great political importance. Exceptions are made where the proceedings touch upon the intimate life of a citizen, or where the need to protect State, military or diplomatic secrets is involved. In such instances those present at the hearings are required to leave the courtroom. Article No. 111 of the Constitution reads: "In all courts of the USSR, cases are heard in public unless otherwise provided for by law, and the accused is guaranteed the right to be defended by counsel."

Judges Can Be Recalled

Should the citizens find that the work of the judge they have elected is unsatisfactory, they have the right to recall him and elect another in his place. The *Law on the Structure of the Courts of the USSR, Union and Autonomous Republics* remarks in this connection:

"All the activities of the court are directed toward inculcating the citizens of the USSR with the spirit of loyalty to the country and to the cause of Socialism, the spirit of accurate and unswerving obedience to Soviet laws and a careful attitude toward Socialist property, the spirit of discipline in the field of labor, an honest attitude toward his duties to the State and the people, and respect for the rules of life in Socialist society."

Motor Production for 1946

By A. Kostitsin

The construction of a new giant automobile plant will soon start in Dniepropetrovsk. The first auto plant in the Ukraine will have up-to-date equipment including 7,000 machine tools and will occupy an area of 400,000 square meters. A settlement to be built by the plant will cover an area of 550 acres.

Construction plans call for the completion by the end of this year of a chassis and assembling department and wood-working, foundry and forge shops, as well

as a number of auxiliary departments.

Rubber, compositions, varnish and other materials required by the Dniepropetrovsk auto factory will be manufactured in the chemical plants in that area. The first lot of 3.5 ton trucks with engines of 90 horsepower will roll off the conveyors in the first quarter of next year. Nearly 4,000 trucks are expected to be manufactured in 1946. Working at full capacity, the plant will turn out tens of thousands of trucks annually.

SONGS OF THE PEOPLE

By B. Lubimov



An accordion orchestra rehearses. Workers and students of the Kuznetsk metallurgical combine formed this group at their Palace of Culture

Amateur art is highly developed in the Soviet Union. Hundreds of thousands of dramatic circles, orchestras, choral and choreographic ensembles function in every part of the country, from the White to the Black Sea, from the Baltic to the Pacific.

Singing, especially popular, is heard in all the languages of the numerous nationalities. Song is a constant companion—in joy and sorrow, love and hate, labor and battle.

Despite their preoccupation with the war effort, workers maintained their ensembles. After a hard day's work they went to clubs to learn the folk songs of their own and foreign lands.

Last December a review of amateur choral groups and solo singers was arranged by the All-Union Central Committee of Trade Unions jointly with the Government Committee on Arts. Preceded by elimination contests, the program lasted seven months and drew many thousands of people into the amateur societies and clubs. As a result, 5,000 new song ensembles were formed with 100,000 singers. More than 10,000 ensembles consisting of 200,000 performers and 9,800 soloists took part in the concerts of the review.

The famous artists Valeria Barsova, Nikolai Golovanov, Vassili Zakharov, Elena Katulskaya and Yuri Shaporin were members of the organization committee in charge of the review.

The club of a large ordnance factory in the Urals, which throughout the war supplied the Red Army with the most up-to-date equipment, had a mixed chorus of 350 singers. They were dressed in costumes especially made in the factory's shops on the order of its director, Hero of Socialist Labor Abraham Bykhovsky. The women wore black skirts and white silk blouses and the men black suits. A large, enthusiastic audience applauded the singers and the conductor, Leonid Ludmilin.

American soldiers would be pleased to hear the splendid rendition of their popular songs by the metal workers of Elektrostal, Moscow Region.

A female ensemble from a munitions factory, directed by Major General David Bidinsky, sang Strauss waltzes with skill and inspiration.

Unique and effective was the collective farm suite performed by the students of the Lysva trade school of the Molotov Region. Dressed in Russian national costumes, 120 young boys and girls gave the

warm and lyrical reproduction of the atmosphere of a village during a festival.

The repertoires of the ensembles and soloists who took part in the review varied from Russian and other national folk songs to romantic and classical arias. Some featured works by factory poets and composers. The ensemble of the Urals machine-building plants, for example, included a song about Uralmash (short for Ural Machine-Building Plant). The workers of the Kartalinskaya station of the Southern Urals Railway rendered a march, *Our Own Railway*, composed by Adramov, an executive of the railway. Ivanovo women weavers featured their own songs. The songs of the partisan fighters resounded from the stages of Byelorussia.

Seventy-two ensembles and more than 100 soloists won the right to participate in this year's review in Moscow, to begin the end of August in the best auditoriums of the capital—the Hall of Columns of the House of Trade Unions, the large hall of the Moscow Conservatory, and the Bolshoi Opera Theater. Leningrad will be represented by the choir of the Vyborg House of Culture, the Urals by the song and dance ensemble of the Serov metal workers. An interesting group of Archangel woodworkers will reproduce the ancient wedding ceremony of the northern peoples. Volga folk songs will be sung by one of the oldest ensembles of the river region—the chorus of the workers of the Saratov soft drinks factory.

The Ukrainians will be represented by the remarkable ensemble of the Parkhomov sugar refinery of the Kharkov Region, whose composition about the great Patriotic War was recorded on film by the Kiev Academy of Sciences of the Ukrainian SSR. The ensembles of the Donbas miners and the mixed Guzal chorus from the Lvov Region are expected. An interesting program is announced by the choir of Armenian teachers—consisting of 120 singers—Estonian railwaymen's ensemble, and the chorus of the Byelorussian guerrillas.

The Ignatov Family

By Alexander Sinelnikov

Brother Heroes, a book for schoolchildren of higher grades, has just been issued by the Moscow State Publishers of Children's Literature. This book, written by the father of the two partisans who died together, is a moving account of an average Soviet family and their heroic self-sacrifice in the great Patriotic War.

In a park in the city of Krasnodar stands a monument made of polished granite. On the base is inscribed the Order of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR of March 7, 1943: "The title of Hero of the Soviet Union is conferred upon Genya and Evgeni Ignatov with the Order of Lenin and the Gold Star Medal, for valor and heroism displayed in the partisan struggle against the German-fascist aggressors."

A man of modest appearance, wearing the Order of Lenin over his heart, frequently stops in front of the monument. He is Peter Ignatov, father of the brother-heroes, and a former partisan commander. Known as *Batya* (Father) to the people, he is popular with the soldiers and schoolchildren in the park, who urge him to tell about his famous sons. So Peter Ignatov seats himself on one of the steps leading to the monument and tells stories of Genya and Evgeni. Several of these are included in his book.

Before the war Peter Ignatov was the director of the Krasnodar Chemical Engineering Institute. His eldest son, Evgeni, was a designing engineer, the second son Valentine, a technician, and the youngest, Genya, a 9th grade pupil.

In the war, Peter Ignatov commanded a partisan unit of which his son Evgeni was Chief of Staff. The unit was made up largely of Peter Ignatov's friends in institutions of higher learning, Evgeni Ignatov's comrades in the Glavmargarine, one of the Kuban's largest industrial enterprises where he managed the technical designing department, and school friends of Genya. It seemed that Partisan Yakov Bibikov, peacetime director of the margarine factory, knew all about shoemaking, engineer Nikolai Prichina's hobby was making radios, engineer Pavel Nediga was a wizard at shoeing horses, Boris

Verebei, director of a soap plant, was an expert horseman. There were more than enough builders and mechanics among the new partisans. Peter Ignatov's wife, Elena Ignatova, joined the unit as a nurse, and her friend, Evfrosinya Konivichenko, was company cook.

Little by little, without haste, Peter and his son Evgeni drew the unit together. There were sixty people in all, among them seven women.

The guiding spirit was the Chief of Staff, Evgeni. His father describes him in the book as earnest beyond his years, taciturn, persevering, unswerving of purpose. At the same time he was an extremely affectionate son and was deeply fond of children. His friendships were strong but exacting. Prepared to die for a comrade, he would brook no weakness even in one he loved.

Evgeni Ignatov completed secondary school with honors in 1931 and was admitted to the second course of the mechanics faculty of the Chemical Engineering Institute. Only sixteen years of age, he was the youngest student in his course. Barely 21 when he graduated, Evgeni was offered the choice of an administrative post in a large plant in Novosibirsk or remaining in Krasnodar to work in Glavmargarine. He chose the second, as being nearer to his wish to invent, create, design.

In the autumn of 1941 the unit went into the mountains. They made their way across ice-covered cliffs, crept noiselessly past the German blockhouses, and finally set up camp on Strepét Mountain, a place absolutely inaccessible to the Germans. From there the partisans made their daring raids on the German garrisons, taking possession of their arms, their cattle and fuel. They established contact with the peasants in the occupied villages and organized an excellent reconnaissance service. Within a short time the members already had their own cache with a substantial supply of products and various repair workshops. They fitted up their own experimental ground where they learned how to blow up bridges and rail-

way beds. But what they regarded as their greatest achievement was a workshop in which they made their mines, designed chiefly by Evgeni. These worked with 100 per cent efficiency and were distinguished by their explosive force. Everything essential to make the mines was available except wire. To meet this deficiency they spotted a German plane, brought it down with rifle fire, and their supply of wire was delivered.

The German Command threw a company of tommygunners against the partisans with the purpose of encircling them and starving them out, but the people's avengers always slipped out. Then the Germans tried heavy tanks, as helpless against the steadfastness of Soviet people as were the alpine-Jaeger units. Operating in the foothills of the Caucasus the partisans had made a thorough study of the mountain tracks, and they had the unstinting help of local hunters and old inhabitants. The guerrillas were expert in laying traps for members of punitive expeditions, who were forced to give up the chase.

Ignatov's unit operated for half a year before joining the advancing units of the Red Army. In that half year the partisan outfit derailed 155 freight cars, 30 of which were loaded with shells, 89 with troops, 36 with materiel. The record of destruction included: 8 highways and railway bridges, 10 tanks, 13 tankettes, 36 heavy guns, more than 100 small guns and mortars, 8 armored cars, 30 five and seven-ton trucks and 4 staff cars.

The enemy had 1,894 officers and men killed and 2,525 wounded.

The partisan losses were: two seriously wounded, two captured and tortured to death by the Germans and three, including Evgeni and Genya Ignatov, killed.

Peter Ignatov has devoted a chapter of the book to the death of his sons. He describes how the partisans made their first test of a powerful railroad mine, an invention of Evgeni's. This was a combination of gunpowder and anti-tank grenades which blew up on impact, something quite new in mine construction.

Here is Peter Ignatov's description of

the first blasting operation:

"With a gun slung over his shoulder, Genya runs past me toward the railroad bed where Evgeni and partisan Kirichenko are already at work. The preparations are almost complete. Only the safety catch must be released, but that will be done by one of the sappers when everyone has withdrawn. My sons and Kirichenko will then hurry to get away too.

"The night is warm and still. Overhead the stars are shining. . . . Suddenly a barely audible noise breaks the silence. Perhaps it is a plane out on a night raid? But with every second the noise becomes clearer, shriller. Suddenly from around the bend, a heavily-laden train comes roaring downhill at full speed. Alongside on the highway race armored cars. What are we to do? Go back to the mountains? But the safety catch hasn't yet been released. The locomotive is already rushing toward us. My children dash to the train. Will they be able to find the tiny safety catch in the dark?

"But that is not what they are going to do. They are holding anti-tank grenades in their hands and they fling them, hoping to blow up the charge with the blast. I run after my children but I am too late. The charge explodes with a deafening roar. The locomotive boiler bursts, the cars climb crazily over each other and crumble into splinters burying the Germans underneath. Explosions follow, one after another—these are the armored cars blowing up on the mines we planted on the highway.

"The glow of the burning train lights up the figures of the partisans in front of me. As I come up they fall back, and on the ground under the wreckage of the blown-up train, my Evgeni is lying dead. The partisans pick him up urging me to hurry. But I cannot leave without locating Genya. I find him in the bushes, lying face downward, the blood pouring from him. Gently I raise his lifeless body. I carry my dead child; only somehow I can't believe he is dead. He is simply sleeping, my little boy. . . ."

The title of Hero of the Soviet Union was posthumously conferred upon the Ignatov brothers; their father, Peter Ignatov, was awarded the Order of Lenin, and their mother, Elena Ignatova, earned the Partisan Medal First Class.

In the Realm of Sports

By Stander



Radiophoto

Singles champion N. Ozerov returns a backhand drive

Tennis fans of Moscow had their money's worth watching the finals for the country's crown. I can hardly recall a contest where the last bout was so hard fought. The weather was not the best, but in a way that only added to the excitement.

First to appear on the courts were the contenders for the women's title. Last year's champion Galina Korovina met her old opponent Nadezhda Belonenko of Moscow. Belonenko is a competent player with plenty of staying power, but her game lacks aggressiveness, a quality indispensable to tennis. The first set was a surprise, Belonenko winning it 6-2. But Korovina managed to get the second set reversing the score. The third set started off badly for Belonenko, and before long the score was 5-1 in favor of her opponent. At this point the Muscovite achieved the impossible. With amazing tenacity she held out against all onslaughts and slowly but surely brought the score up. When it reached 5-5 the grandstands were in an uproar. Korovina was definitely overwhelmed and Belonenko seemed to have the crown within her grasp. But at this point a sudden shower brought the contest to a halt.

Two hours later, when play was resumed, Korovina had had a chance to regain her usual composure and she swiftly won two games to retain the title.

Nikolai Ozerov, last year's champion, also held on to his championship in a

hard-fought contest. Ozerov's strongest competition was Evgeni Korbut, who had already given him some unpleasant moments during the Moscow tournament. But Ozerov downed him easily in their semi-finals.

In the finals Ozerov facing Belis Geiman of Moscow was a hair's breadth from defeat. Belis treated us to some

superb tennis. Ozerov won the first set 6-4, but Belis came up to win the next two.

Ozerov lost the first two games of the fourth set. With victory so close, Belis lost his poise. I am unable to say just when it happened, but at a certain point it became clear that Ozerov was master of the situation. I have seldom seen Ozerov play as magnificently as he did in this last set. Despite real opposition he came through with 6-3 to retain the title.

And here is a little sideline. The winner of the girls' title is Anastasia Gorina. Two other Gorinas took part, Anastasia's mother, who got as far as the semi-finals, and her sister, who also made a creditable showing.

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5

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Large Enrollment in Higher Schools

By Professor I. Kuzminykh

Assistant Chairman of Committee for Higher Schools

The Soviet Union is confronted with gigantic tasks in effacing the scars of war, restoring everything that the German vandals destroyed. The country needs many thousands of engineers, technicians, doctors, agronomists and teachers. To gain these people 200 higher schools and 300 advanced technical schools have been restored and set up. In Moscow there are now 85 higher schools with a student body of over 100,000, and the country as a whole is to have 729 higher schools this year.

Enrollment in the higher schools will reach 1,777,000 this year. Moscow University will have 1,715 newcomers, the Moscow Power Institute, 1,200. The students will include not only boys and girls from secondary schools but thousands of people as well who were unable to go on with their education during the war. Large numbers of wartime workers are going back to school.

Refresher courses—lectures and consultations—are offered in the colleges. Ex-

servicemen with a secondary education who cannot go on with their studies will be registered in special preparatory courses and provided with Government stipends.

Working people have a right to a special leave of absence if they wish to take entrance examinations for the higher schools. Two to three times as many applications were received as could be handled. Secondary school graduates who have won a Gold or Silver Medal as well as former students who have returned from the front have already been registered, since they have the right to enter without taking examinations. Among the latter are such men as Cavalier of the Orders of the Patriotic War and the Red Star Sinyavsky, who was an honor graduate from a secondary school in 1941 and is matriculating in the Moscow Aviation Institute, and Hero of the Soviet Union Captain Klimov, who will study at the Moscow Oil Institute.

Entrance Examinations In Moscow University



Radiophotos

Left, newly enrolled students leave a building of the University. Right, Professor V. Frost (seated) questions Alexander Maximov, a finished secondary school in 1941, a few days before war broke out. He was in command of a group of signalmen serving in the Black Sea Fleet. Above, Angara Remeiko, graduate of a secondary school in Norilsk, beyond the Arctic Circle, considers a problem in geometry. She is applying for admission to the physics department.

MOSCOW UNIVERSITY

By Professor V. Spitsin
Assistant Rector

Lomonosov Moscow State University was founded in 1755 as the "center of Russian culture and education," in accordance with the project submitted by the great Russian scientist, Mikhail Lomonosov, whose name the University bears.

Almost all the cultural life of the city revolves around the University. The largest museums of Moscow, among them the Historical, the Polytechnical, the Ethnographical and the Museum of Fine Art, had their inception within these academic walls.

The University has 12 departments—mechanics and mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, geography, geology and soil science, history, philology, philosophy, jurisprudence, economics, and international relations. There are 135 chairs, 157 laboratories and reference rooms, 10 scientific research institutes, 4 museums, a botanical garden, and the Gorky Scientific Library with one million 800 thousand books. The staff includes 940 professors and instructors.

Budget appropriations for the University in 1941 were 28 million rubles. The fund set aside by the Government in 1944 was 45 million and another 12 million for the restoration of the buildings. So that the budget in the last three years, in spite of wartime conditions, has been doubled.

Among the men working at the University are some of the foremost scientists of the country, men whose names are known all over the world. The Moscow school of mathematics has grown during the years of Soviet power into an important center. Among its members are Academician Andrei Kolmogorov, who is working in the field of the theory of probability, Corresponding Member of the Academy Lev Pontryagin, working in combinative topology. On the University's staff is the greatest authority on the theory of numbers, Academician Ivan Vinogradov, who solved the famous theorem of Golbach, a stumbling block to mathematicians for the past two centuries.

Academician Kapitza's work in the field of magnetism and low temperatures won him the recognition of the Philadelphia Institute and the Franklin Medal.

Nikolai Zelinsky, a leader in Russian chemistry, has done much fruitful work in the chemistry of oil and of albumen. During the First World War, Zelinsky designed the first Russian gas mask.

Academician Mikhail Zavadovsky's work in artificial insemination of cattle is of great significance to the nation's economy. The agrochemist Academician Dmitri Pryanishnikov has done much to advance Socialist agriculture.

Academician Nikolai Derzhavin, the famous Slav authority and Chairman of the Soviet Scientists' Anti-fascist Committee, and the great expert on Kiev Rus Academician Boris Grekov, are both on the staff of the University.

When Hitler started his treacherous attack on the Soviet Union, the University placed its scientific work at the service of the front, and in the years of the war greatly strengthened the military might of the country.

The conference held at the University in 1944 to sum up its activity revealed the great contribution made by Russian scientists to the treasury of world science.

Despite the difficulties of the war and postwar reconstruction, scientific research work is going forward on a large scale in the University's laboratories. Professor Kudryashov's remarkable investigations on haemostatic agents have been completed; Professors Ilyushin and Rakhmarulin have completed their work on the calculation of armaments, the chemistry and physics departments are producing war materials, the laboratory of colloid chemistry has worked out a new method of combating the corrosion of metals, and a number of expeditions to various regions of the country have made it possible to expand the sources of raw materials.



Students of the Moscow State University who have matriculated for the new semester



Informal discussion with Academician N. Akulov in a lobby of the restored building



The monument to Herten, a point of interest on the campus



Undergraduates outside Lomonosov University, near the American consulate

New Vistas Open for Lithuanian Farmers

By B. Krinitsky

Gaspar Misyunas proudly produced a stiff sheet of paper neatly folded in four and handed it to me. It was a land deed issued May 26, 1945, stating that under Article IX of the Constitution of the Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic and the Act of the Supreme Soviet Republic of August 30, 1944, he was entitled to 15.5 hectares of land free of charge and without a limitation of time.

Seventy-five thousand Lithuanian peasants who formerly had insufficient land to make a living, or none at all, have been given an allotment by the Soviet Government.

Gaspar lives in a village 25 kilometers from the town of Siauliai. At the age of 63 his bearing is erect and his movements brisk, perhaps the result of military training, for he spent 11 years as a cavalryman in the old Russian army.

When I reached his farm he was busy sharpening a scythe, and although he proved quite eager to talk, he did not drop his job before it was finished. Finally when the blade was in perfect condition and some broken harness straps had been repaired, I was invited to join the family at lunch, consisting of cabbage soup, homemade goat's cheese, cucumbers straight from the garden and bread. Only after lunch, when he took me to see his fields—of rye, wheat, oats, barley, potatoes and sugar beet—did I get him to tell his story in detail.

He began earning his living by working as a farmhand with his father. After his father's death he rented some land from a rich farmer, who took half the crop as payment. Half of what was left went to the landowner for the use of farm implements which the penniless sharecropper could not acquire himself. The quarter that remained did not suffice for food until the next harvest, not to speak of seed for spring. "That is when I realized that like my father I would never be able to make a living on the land."

Misyunas then worked as a coachman in Riga and as a common laborer in Kaunas, all the while longing for the life

Receiving the deed entitling him to a free and permanent landholding is Latvian farmer J. Karklin



Radiophoto

of a farmer. Back in the villages he dug wells, made clay tiles and plowed other people's fields, dreaming of the day when he could lead a plow through the rich loam of his own land.

Still far from his goal, he enlisted in the tsarist army, and the outlook seemed worse when he returned from two year's internment in a German prison camp, in the First World War. But by backbreaking work and rigid self-denial he managed to save enough money to buy a horse, plow and harrow, and started out again, renting a few acres of land in 1936.

This was far from security, however, and the eternal fear of being driven off the land pursued him.

Just three months before the Hitlerites invaded Lithuania, which had become a Soviet Republic, he was given 11 hectares of land for his own. And it was all taken by the Germans. Gaspar fled with his family and meager belongings to another section of the district.

The turn of events in Lithuania is now history. The agony of oppression has ended.

Today, with the 15.5 hectares of land he received under the land reform, Gaspar has also been given a cottage.

Now he looks forward to plenty of grain and produce from his land. "I should get from 15-16 tons of grain," he says. For the first time in his life he does not have to share his crop with anyone. Besides, as a new settler, he is exempt from the agricultural tax (a small assess-

ment) well-established Lithuanian farmers pay to the State. Now he has no doubts as to how he will manage until the next harvest comes in.

With the money from the sale of part of his crops he will expand his farm. Instead of one horse he will have two. When his three cows calve he will be well started on the way to a dairy herd, and as for hogs and sheep, Gaspar says he would be a pretty poor farmer if he did not have eight hogs next year instead of four, and at least five sheep instead of two.

Misyunas also got his share of the 20 million rubles credit extended by the State to the Lithuanian peasants. He has already bought a cultivator, a new plow, a second harrow and a second wagon. In addition he expects his portion of building lumber from the Government.

The whole family assembled at supper-time. There were two boys of about six and seven, three girls, the oldest about 16, and a grown-up son who is a school-teacher. Later the eldest daughter, who works at the Siauliai railway station, came home; she had gotten a vacation in order to help bring in the harvest. One son who served in the Red Army was reported missing during the fighting for Smolensk. Old Gaspar's wife died soon after the expulsion of the Germans. The hard life, Gaspar told me with frank emotion, broke her health long before the Misyunas family found their place under the sun of the new Lithuania.

ORIGINS OF THE RUSSIAN PEOPLE

By A. Udaltsov

Corresponding Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR

The Russian people are part of the family of Slavonic peoples which includes the Poles, Czechs, Slovaks, Bulgarians, Serbs, Croats, Slovenians, Macedonians and other peoples, all having common origins and bound by ancient cultural ties.

Archeologists have shown that the ancestors of the Slavs have lived since time immemorial in the European territories now inhabited by their descendants. Once even the greater area which reached to the Labe River (the German Elbe) was inhabited by Slavs, but the latter were dispossessed by the Germans, their ancient foes. The Russian people have dwelt on their present land for centuries, independently building up their State and culture and defending their independence from any encroachment.

The ancestors of all Slavs, and hence the Russians as well, can be traced on territories they now occupy as far back as 5,000 or 6,000 years before our era, when like the ancestors of other Indo-European peoples (British, French, Germans, Italians, Greeks, Iranians, Hindus, etc.), they began to emerge from the general mass of the population in Europe and Asia Minor who lived by hunting and fishing, and took to primitive cultivation of the soil and stockraising. In the center of Europe, between the middle Dnieper and the Carpathians, these tribes to whom the Slavonic peoples of today owe their origin built up a culture that was higher than that of neighboring regions and is now known as the Tripolye culture.

The predecessors of the ancient Slavonic tribes were the pre-Slavonic Scoloti, who inhabited the central reaches of the Dnieper, in what was then Scythia, in the middle first thousand years before our era, and the Venedi or Wends who dwelt north of the Pripyat River, along the upper Dnieper and, it is believed, as far as the upper limits of the Volga and Oka. It was the merging of the material and spiritual culture of these two kindred peoples that led to the appearance of the ancient Slavs and later, the Russians. The Scoloti and the Venedi tilled the soil and

raised cattle. Of the two, the Scoloti, who had been associated with the Hellenic South a long time and who occur in ancient history under the name of Slovenes or Sloveni (according to Ptolemy, second century A.D.), had a higher culture.

The Venedi are believed to be the progenitors not only of the Slavs but also of the ancient Lithuanian or Baltic tribes (Lithuanians, Letts and ancient Prussians—the original population of Prussia was wiped out by the Germans). All these kindred peoples gradually separated from their common ancestors, the Venedi, whose southeastern tribes later merged with the Scoloti (Sloveni) to form a single Slavonic people.

The ancient Slavs also spread southward and with kindred Illyrian and Thracian tribes, the original population of the Danube Basin, formed the south Slavs of the fifth to the seventh centuries.

The Russians, oldest of the Slavonic peoples, constitute the next stage in the development of the basic kernel of the eastern Slavs.

The rich and well-developed Black Sea area had long attracted alien peoples from the North, and by the end of the second century A.D., the Gothic tribes who had inhabited the lower Vistula and were being ousted by the Venedi moved in that direction. They took part in the many sea and land campaigns undertaken in the third century by the Black Sea tribes.

Incidentally, the Goths who migrated to the Black Sea area split up into several independent tribes and did not form any single state in these parts. They embraced the higher and older culture of the Black Sea area but retained their lingual characteristics. These facts upset the theory propounded by German nationalistic historians and subsequently upheld by the fascists, to the effect that the Goths brought with them a higher culture and dominated over the Slavs.

It was not until the seventies of the fourth century that the Goths united under the hegemony of the East Goths led by Ermanaric and launched a war. This aggression, however, was at once counter-

acted by two tribal alliances: the Antae alliance of Slavonic and kindred tribes in the northwestern part of the Black Sea region, and the Alanian alliance in the East. These alliances undermined the strength of the Goths to such an extent that when a new enemy from Asia—the Huns—attacked, they were forced to retreat from the lands they conquered and only a small number of Goths remained in the southern section of the Crimean Peninsula, becoming more and more assimilated with the local population.

The early Rus did not get their name from the Germanic Swedes in the north as has been claimed. It emerged from the struggle with the Germanic Goths.

The culture of the early Rus, otherwise known as the Antae culture (fourth to seventh centuries), developed independently, continuing the local traditions of the Hellenic, Scythian and Sarmatae-Alanic cultures, and producing the culture of the Kiev Rus, which subsequently embraced and independently developed the cultural traditions of Byzantium, partly through Bulgaria.

In the seventh and eighth centuries Slavonic tribes began to pass from the primitive community and tribal alliances to a class society and the foundation of the first Slavonic states. In the case of the western Slavs (in Bohemia) the Slavonic principality, headed by Prince Samo, came into being and retained its independence in the struggle with the Avars and the Franks; the southern Slavs on the lower Danube became united in the Bulgarian state. About the same time, eastern Slavonic tribes, headed by the Volhynians, united in the Carpathian area. This group had to defend its independence against the Avars and the Khazars who invaded the plains of the Black Sea area in this period and began their assault on the Slav lands. This struggle saw a further unification of the Russian tribes and a gradual formation of the Russian nation, although different parts of it still retained diverse local traits and characteristics.

Arabian writers tell us of the existence

of three political centers in the eighth and ninth centuries that first united the original tribes of the Russian Slavs: The first was on the middle Dnieper, around the city of Kiev; the second in the Ilmen area, which in all probability included Staraya Russa, and later on Novgorod, and the third in the Carpathian area headed by the Volhynians referred to by the Arabs as the Artsani. Uniting to fight the Khazars, these three original unions merged to give rise to the Kiev state, which gradually united all the ancient Rus.

According to the "Norse theory" of the origin of the Russian state and even the name of Rus, which was accepted by most old Russian historians and is still held abroad, the northern regions inhabited by the eastern Slavs were colonized on a large scale by the Varangians from Scandinavia, who were supposed later to have penetrated in small groups southward to Kiev and the Azov area, setting up their political centers and dominating over the

local eastern Slavs and the Finns in the North.

Archeological research has refuted this attempt to falsify Russian history, showing that an extremely insignificant percentage of the local population consisted of the Scandinavians who came, in all probability, as individuals or small groups of raiders and merged with the armed groupings that came into being among the local population in the process of the formation of an independent eastern Slav state. The Varangians brought neither statehood nor the name of Rus with them from Scandinavia, nor did they bring a higher culture. On the contrary, they themselves absorbed the higher culture of the Rus and fused with the Russian Slavs.

Thus the Russian people and their ancestors were the original inhabitants of the territory they now live on. In their cultural development they did not lag behind the tribes and peoples of central and northern Europe. In the course of history they built up their political and cul-

tural independence and defended it from encroachment, from attacks of southern nomad tribes of Teutonic knights, from Swedes and Poles who time and again invaded the old Russian lands in the past.

The Tatar conquest put an end to the political and cultural unity of the old Russians. Their western and southwestern lands fell under the sway of the Lithuanian and Polish states, and those lands gave rise to Byelorussia and the Ukraine, while the northeastern Rus rallied around Moscow and gradually formed its own national state.

In this manner the Russian people of the Kiev state period branched out into three kindred nations: the great Russians, Ukrainians and Byelorussians.

Each of these nations today is an independent state forming part of the great Soviet Union, and each is building up its own national culture in close fraternal collaboration with one another and with the other nationalities inhabiting the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Tolstoy Treasures Returned to Moscow

By Nina Ryasentseva

The valued possessions of the Leo Tolstoy Museum were recently brought back from distant Siberia, where for nearly four years they had been kept in Tomsk University under the careful observation of literary and art experts.

The remarkable heritage left by the great writer consists of almost a million items. There are 150,000 pages of Tolstoy's original manuscripts, 50,000 letters from every country of the world, numerous documents, a wealth of illustrated material and personal mementos of the author.

All these objects were guarded with rare devotion, and despite the transportation difficulties of wartime and the inadequate storage space in Tomsk, nothing was damaged.

Vladimir Zhdanov, head of the Manuscript Department of the Museum, supervised the work on Tolstoy's manuscripts while in evacuation.

At last the hour arrived to return the prized collection to its home. Every care and caution was necessary to deliver

the fireproof safe containing the great writer's precious manuscripts, sculpture, paintings, books and relics.

On the very day the capital was celebrating the victory over the Nazi hangers-on, members of the museum, excited and happy, met the train bearing the art works.

Then things began to hum in the museum. The halls were prepared for the displays, valuables unpacked very carefully and new exhibits planned. Everything was made ready in time for the 220th Anniversary of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

The Tolstoy Museum with its branches—Tolstoy House in Khamovniki and the mansion in Yasnaya Polyana—were included by the Academy of Sciences as tours for the scientists attending the Anniversary sessions.

The guests saw the original manuscripts of the famous works of Leo Tolstoy, his correspondence with other writers, scientists, public figures in Rus-

sia and abroad, and also documents, including the diploma presented to the author by the Academy of Sciences in 1873.

Displayed again at the museum now are paintings and drawings by the celebrated Russian artist, Ilya Repin; portraits of the writer and members of his family, and illustrations from his works. Some of Repin's work is exhibited for the first time.

The author's writing table at which he created his masterworks, his furniture, his books, the blotting-paper still bearing ink impressions, portraits of Tolstoy's forefathers, renowned canvases by Kramskoi, Repin and others—all these will be restored to their former places.

Everything is intact, everything is saved from the hands of the vandals and is on view for Soviet and foreign visitors.

With the tireless work of the museum personnel, the home of the beloved Russian writer again has its cherished possessions, and will once more be a mecca for visitors.

TWO MONTHS IN THE USSR

By Edwin S. Smith

Vice Chairman and Director of the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship

I spent two months in the Soviet Union, the days and weeks of which were very rich in a variety of experiences. I am leaving the Soviet Union with the firm conviction that the cultural life of this country is full of all sorts of important achievements with which it is of the greatest importance for Americans to be acquainted. In my country we simply have no idea of the amount of high type cultural material which is being produced in the Soviet Union.

We in America have heard of the splendid productions of the opera, ballet and the theater in Moscow. Having been privileged to see these offerings, I am glad to report that their high reputation is fully deserved. But I would like to say something about the splendid cultural work which is being done in the Republics other than the Russian SFSR where I have been.

Most Americans are unaware of the great quantity and very high quality of artistic work being carried on—in the Ukraine, Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaijan where I have been, as well as in numerous other Republics which time did not permit my visiting.

Let me mention Armenia as an example. Here is a Republic of some million and a half people which most Americans are accustomed to think of as an impoverished country for whose people the Americans have long felt sympathy but about whom, frankly, we know almost nothing. Erevan is a modern city with fine public buildings and modern dwelling houses. Armenian culture is flourishing. In addition to 38 State theaters, there are symphony orchestras, a string quartet which plays in eight cities, and ensembles which perform popular music and native dances. Since the establishment of the Soviet Union some 30 operas by Armenian composers have been performed. This is in striking contrast to America, where with a population of more than a hundred million, not more than three or four operas by Americans have been performed in the same period of time.

The extent to which culture is brought to the people even in the most remote

districts is a tribute to the civilizing influence of the Soviet way of life. Imagine, for example, workers on a collective farm having the opportunity to see leading actors perform in their own village the plays of Shakespeare and Goldoni. This is not a dream but actually happens in the Soviet Republics.

Soviet audiences are the most enthusiastic I have ever seen. A country in which the young people after a performance of *Othello* rush to the front of the theater to applaud the actors again and again, is surely far advanced.

Nor will Americans fail to be impressed by the fact that the Soviet system of education encourages every talented person in cultural fields to receive full training for a professional career and insures him adequate economic compensation once he has become an artist.

It is important for Americans to learn these facts because it will increase American respect for the Soviet Union and assist in the development of those political and economic ties which are so necessary for the peace and economic development of both countries and the whole world.

The National Council of American-Soviet Friendship has committees in all important cultural fields under the chairmanship of distinguished Americans—for example, Serge Koussevitsky for music, Margaret Webster for the theater, Paul Manship for art. These committees are

determined to increase the exchange of cultural information with the Soviet Union and are looking forward eagerly to the time when Soviet musicians, ballets and plays will come to America, and distinguished American artists of all sorts and American productions of the theater and dance will go to the Soviet Union.

In addition to its cultural committees, the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship is working in every way for American-Soviet understanding. Our public meetings have been addressed by Cabinet members, by Senators and by prominent Americans in many fields. Both the late President Roosevelt and President Truman sent messages of encouragement to our organization for its work.

As a final word, I should like to mention an interesting experience which I had in war-devastated Stalingrad. Here I attended an excellent circus, heard the people gasp at the daring of the acrobats and laugh with delighted appreciation at the antics of the clowns. If the Stalingrad people can relax and laugh at a circus after all they have suffered, surely this is an infallible sign of the spirit of the Soviet people—their ability to face the future with confidence and hope and to conquer the problems of the postwar world as definitely and completely as the USSR defeated the power of the Nazi beasts who sought to destroy its civilization.

Rare Desert Animal

The island of Barsa Kelmes in the Aral Sea of Soviet Central Asia contains the only reservation of saigas (steppe antelopes). The island is a typical corner of the Kazakhstan desert. Sandy, undulating steppe, with an occasional *raksaul* or wild olive tree—such is the monotonous landscape.

Scientists abroad displayed keen interest in the reservation which was set up in this wilderness just before the outbreak of the war. The saiga is a rare animal which in the Middle Ages was found in Europe and Asia. Oriental medicine

made extensive use of the lyre-shaped horns, and the hunters of those times nearly exterminated the steppe antelopes. Completely extinct in Western Europe and America, in the Soviet Union they live only in the Kazakhstan steppes and deserts.

In 1929 a special expedition of the New York Museum of Natural History arrived in Kazakhstan to obtain saigas. In the area of the Syr-Darya River the expedition succeeded in rounding up several antelopes, which they took to America.

International Chess Event



M. Botvinnik



V. Smyslov



I. Boleslavsky



V. Ragozin



O. Bronstein

Radiophotos

Articles on the USSR-United States radio match appearing prominently in Soviet newspapers report the brilliant victory of the Soviet chess players over their splendid American opponents. Analyzing the outcome, Grand Master Botvinnik says: "Appraising objectively the strength of both teams, it should be granted that the Americans were entitled to count on the success of Reshevsky and Fine. These outstanding Grand Masters were opposed by the younger Smyslov and Boleslavsky, who

lack experience in international meets. As to the rest, we anticipated victory, especially on the eighth, ninth and tenth boards where it was difficult for the Americans to find worthy opponents for our Masters Ruzozin, Makogonov and Bronstein. The United States champion Arnold Denker is a gifted and resourceful chess player. In the first game he boldly went in for major complications. But I succeeded in seizing the initiative and forcing a victory. Evidently this deprived

Denker of the necessary poise, and he did not put his full strength into the second game.

"The radio match," Botvinnik concluded, "strengthens the friendly ties between the chess players of the USSR and the United States. The exchange of messages between the participants created a cordial atmosphere. World peace has come and we may look forward to new international chess meets."



I. Bondarevsky



A. Kotov



S. Flohr



A. Lilienthal



V. Makogonov

Radiophotos

The Game Millions Play

By G. Kolmanov

The USSR-United States radio chess match is undoubtedly the most important postwar international sports event. Of course all of us were rooting for the home team. When Borvinnik radioed the American participants, "May the strongest team win," we hoped ours would be the strongest, and I have no doubt fans in the United States felt exactly the same.

Prognosticators here quite confidently predicted victory. Igor Bondarevsky, who played on the sixth board, said the score would be 11.5 to 8.5 in favor of the USSR team. Even the most outspoken optimists, however, would not add a single point to that estimate.

The results exceeded all expectations. Discussing the outcome Vladimir Makogonov, the oldest participant in the match, said, "This is a victory for the Soviet system of organizing chess."

The statement is worth elucidating. In the Soviet Union the game is promoted by the USSR Committee on Sports and Physical Culture; 16 committees function in Union Republics and thousands, in the cities and rural centers.

Many small towns that do not have a boxing or tennis department, are sure to have a fine chess section. In the past 20 years chess has become a game for the millions. Close to a million and a half players took part in various official and unofficial tournaments. The last prewar chess tournaments conducted by the trade unions drew 700,000 participants. A vast number of people who do not compete in the official meets are uncounted.

I recall Emanuel Lasker's joking remark, when I met him here a number of years ago, that the only person who does not know how to play chess in Moscow is his own wife. Capablanca, who happened to be around, added that the Soviet Union seems to have a system of universal chess education.

Chess clubs have sprung up by the thousands in collective farms, and several years before the war the first All-Union championship meet of collective farm players was held in Moscow. All Arctic stations have rabid fans, and the radio

matches are one of their favorite pastimes.

Of utmost importance, in the opinion of all experts, is the fact that the game has won great popularity among school children. Before the war it was claimed that every second schoolboy was taking up chess. Schools not only sponsor scholastic meets, but also give the youthful enthusiasts their initial theoretical grounding.

It is not by chance that of the ten Soviet contestants in the radio match seven had received their chess education at school.

The "chess biographies" of the radio participants also shed some interesting light on the Soviet chess movement. The oldest participant was Makogonov, aged 41, the only one who started playing the game before Soviet times. Most of the others are under 30.

Mikhail Borvinnik first had public notice 20 years ago when, at the age of 14, he won a game from Capablanca during a match of simultaneous play by the latter. At the age of 16 he won the title of Master. Now, at the age of 34, Borvinnik is the strongest contender for the world crown.

Vasili Smyslov, champion of Moscow, also started playing the game while at school, and at the age of 17 won the title of Master. Now at the age of 24 he is a Grand Master and a strong contender for the country's chess title.

Igor Bondarevsky had his initial battles with schoolchums. Isaac Boleslavsky, who scored one and a half points in his encounter by radio with Fine, had been champion of his school. Bronstein, the youngest participant in the radio match, is 22 years old, and graduated from secondary school just a few years ago.

The "ladder to chess fame" is one of the most important features of the Soviet chess movement. This ladder has several rungs—five categories and the title Master and Grand Master. The lowest is the fifth category; to gain it one has to score no less than 50 per cent of possible points

in a competition of chess players with no rating. The next category is gained by winning in competition with fifth category players, and so on. The climb upward becomes harder with each successive rung. Only by scoring a major victory in a competition of Masters can a first category player get a Master's title.

Before the war there were more than 800,000 rated chess players in the Soviet Union who had won their titles in official competitions. Of this number 1,000 were first category players, and several dozen had the rank of Master and Grand Master. Mikhail Borvinnik, who is usually very reserved in his prognostications, claims that the USSR could produce a team of 25 to 30 players to meet the picked team of the best players in the world, and could hold its own.

Soviet chess players refute the idea that serious preoccupation with chess is incompatible with a regular job or study. Facing the American team were four engineers, three students, one teacher of mathematics and one journalist; only one of the Soviet players considers chess his regular job. Engineer Borvinnik even finds time to work on his thesis for a degree in science, and engineer Kotov has been decorated with the Order of Lenin for designing a new type of trench mortar.

Information Bulletin

EMBASSY OF THE
UNION OF SOVIET
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Soviet People's Bill to Germany

PRAVDA wrote editorially, September 13:

Pravda today published the Statement of the Extraordinary State Committee for the ascertaining and investigation of crimes committed by the German-fascist invaders and their associates, and the damages caused by them to citizens, collective farms, public organizations, State enterprises and institutions of the USSR.

The Hitlerite fiends inflicted severe and deep wounds on the Soviet land. The Statement of the State Committee reminds us in the expressive language of figures how rich and prosperous were the regions overrun by the Germans. Before the war 88 million people, or almost half of our country's population, lived in that territory. The gross output of the industrial enterprises of those regions amounted to 46,000 million rubles per annum. The agriculture of the overrun regions had at its disposal 71 million hectares of cultivated land and 109 million head of livestock. The length of railway tracks in the territory of these regions was 122,000 kilometers. In other words, those were economically the most developed and most densely populated regions of the Soviet Union, with a highly-developed industry and productive agriculture.

The Hitlerites, who treacherously attacked our country brought death and devastation to our towns and villages, wrecked factories, mills, centers of culture, monuments of art created by the labor and genius of the people, trampled our fields, and murdered, tormented and deported as slaves to Germany millions of our citizens.

Appalling figures are cited by the State Committee. The German-fascist invaders demolished 1,710 towns and more than 70,000 villages and robbed about 25 million people of their homes. They wrecked about 32,000 industrial establish-

ments, 84,000 schools and other educational institutions and destroyed or looted 98,000 collective farms. The worst havoc was wrought in cities which are dear to the heart of every Soviet person: Stalin-grad, Sevastopol, Leningrad, Kiev, Minsk, Odessa, Smolensk.

The total damage inflicted by the German-fascist invaders on the national economy and population of the Soviet Union amounts to 679,000 million rubles, according to State prices of 1941. That is only the damage which can be directly accounted for. A great deal cannot be translated into the language of figures. The actual ruin inflicted by the Hitlerite occupation on our country and its citizens is immeasurably greater than the figures cited in the official Statement of the State Committee.

It has been established, on the basis of explicit and irrefutable proof that long before the war, the criminal Hitlerite government and the German General Staff elaborated in all details not only the plan for the perfidious attack upon the Soviet Union, but also the plan for the ruin and spoliation of our country.

There is, for one thing, the evidence of the directives signed by Goering and the highest representatives of the German army command. In the wake of the hordes of murderers and robbers dressed in the gray-green uniforms of German soldiers, the representatives of the biggest German concerns—Krupp, Goering, Siemens-Schuckert, I. G. Farbenindustrie and others—invaded our country like a swarm of locusts. They tried to seize our factories, collieries, mines and electric stations, to grab all the productive and raw material resources of our country. Retreating under the blows of the Red Army, the bestial bands of German-fascist invaders destroyed everything in their way.

They wrecked the collieries of the Donets Basin and the Moscow coal fields, the oil wells of the northern Caucasus, the iron and steel, engineering and chemical plants, the mines, electric power stations, shipyards and railway junctions and the sea and river ports.

With particular ferocity the Hitlerite robbers pursued the policy of destroying the collective farms, State farms and machine and tractor stations. One of the ringleaders of the criminal Hitlerite clique, Minister of Agriculture Darre, cynically declared that "in the entire eastern area, only Germans have the right to own large estates," and that "a country inhabited by an alien race must become a country of slaves, farmhands and industrial workers."

A country of slaves! That is the fate which the Hitlerites had in store for us. And not only had in store—they created in the territory which they managed to hold for some time a system of slave and serf labor. The land which the Soviet State had converted into the Socialist property of the whole people and into collective farms for their perpetual use free of charge, the Hitlerites wrested from them and handed over to the German generals, officers, landlords and rich farmers. Russian, Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Lithuanian, Latvian, Estonian and Moldavian peasants were turned into serfs working for the German landlords. The knout of the fascist slave owner lashed the backs of the free Soviet people. For concealing from the German invaders her last cow, her only remaining source of subsistence, the Russian farmwoman Perlova had her eyes gouged out, her nose slashed and her hands cut off by the Hitlerites. That is how they dealt with those who resisted their pillage and violence.

Methodically, with the malice of wild swine gone mad, the Hitlerites destroyed

the monuments and treasures of our culture. They wrecked the Pushkin memorial in the village of Mikhailovskoye, where the great poet lived and created his deathless works. They defiled and wrecked Tolstoy's Yasnaya Polyana, where every stone and every tree is associated with the great writer who is esteemed, not only by every Russian, but also by every man of culture throughout the world. In Klin they destroyed the house where Tchaikovsky, the genius of Russian music, worked. The dirty boot of the vile Hitlerite soldier trampled incomparable statues in the suburbs of Leningrad, defiled the antiquities of Kiev, Pskov, Smolensk and Novgorod, insulting the memory of the great men of our people. They reduced to ruin and ashes the schools, clubhouses, libraries and other centers of culture which the Soviet Government had built for the people.

In the regions where the German invaders held sway a Soviet citizen was no longer master of his life or of his possessions. The Hitlerite bandits pillaged everything that had been accumulated in decades of honest labor by the Soviet

people—they pillaged at the direct instructions of their criminal government and their robber command. Wholesale robbery was a component part of the barbarous plan of the Hitlerite government, which deliberately unleashed the lowest and most bestial instinct of their troops in order to make them fight for the interests of the German plutocrats, bankers and landlords. The cultivation of a sense of personal material interest in every officer and soldier was the policy of the German government and high command.

One of the numerous examples of what this meant in practice is provided by the spoliation of the Latvian farmers. Like Lithuania and Estonia, Latvia was made a German province, "Ostland." The 600,000 hectares of land which the Latvian peasantry received from the Soviet Government was taken away from them by the German landlords.

During the occupation the Germans stole from the Latvian peasants 320,000 various farm machines and implements, 2 million head of livestock, 9 million

tons of agricultural produce, as well as other property.

The Statement of the State Committee once again shows with the utmost clarity what a terrible fate would have overcome our people if the Red Army, led by the great Stalin, had not smashed Hitlerite Germany. The Germans sought to enslave our entire people physically—to exterminate the most active and vital section and to put the rest into eternal bondage.

To the courage and high military skill of our valiant Red Army, to the unparalleled feats of labor of our people, to the unconquerable vital force of the Soviet system, to the tireless organizing activity of the Bolshevik Party, to the brilliant military and political leadership of Comrade Stalin, we owe the victory over the fiercest and most terrible enemy which history has ever known.

Today, when Hitlerite Germany is lying in the dust, our people present their reckoning. The Hitlerite criminals must bear the full responsibility for their monstrous crimes, and Germany must make good the damage inflicted on our country.

LOANS FOR PRIVATE HOMES

Government funds available for granting loans to working people for home construction are increasing from year to year. A worker in any part of the Soviet Union may receive long-term loans for up to seven years, to build a home for himself and his family. The amount may be as high as 10,000 rubles, with interest at two per cent.

Large numbers of working people are taking advantage of this opportunity. In many cities of the Donbas and Urals and in the districts liberated from the Germans, whole settlements of small comfortable cottages—constructed with the aid of long-term loans—have grown up around, or in the vicinity of, large enterprises.

The latest Government appropriations are even greater than before to enable the people to replace their homes. In 1942 loans totalled 7 million; in 1943, 35 million and in 1944 they reached 260 million. This year the Government has allocated 325 million rubles, 40 million for employees of the iron and steel

industry, 35 million for transport workers, 23 million for the workers in building trades, etc.

Special consideration is given to the working people in the areas liberated from the German invaders. Local banks in such districts received 80 million rubles to be distributed to individuals. By July 15 over 12,000 homes for workers financed by the Government had been completed.

Every demobilized soldier has the right to borrow 10,000 rubles to build a house, with the repayment limit extended to ten years. Ex-servicemen have other privileges as well. They may make arrangements for their loans directly at their places of work and are given first choice in selecting land, supplies of timber, bricks and other building materials.

Numerous civic bodies have joined the Government in offering aid to home builders. Trade union committees have appointed the groups whose function it is to take care of the banking formalities and to see to it that members receive

plots of ground and materials. Masons and bricklayers have been assigned by various enterprises to work on individual contracts. Lithuania's banks have opened technical consultation points for future cottagers.

Architectural groups have been extremely helpful; in a number of cities they have had competitions for home planning, setting up exhibitions and arranging for architectural consultations. Standard blueprints have been drawn up by the Academy of Architecture providing for the use of local materials in building, and the owner needs no help from a specialist if he chooses one of these plans. They are for one, two and three-room cottages, the one-room houses allowing for future extensions.

Many working people actively assist in the building operations. Teachers in Voronezh, for example, spend their free time on their own construction jobs in order not to call in carpenters and masons. They consult with technical experts to guard against errors in the work.

THE RUSSIAN SOVIET FEDERATIVE SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

By M. Pomus

The Russian SFSR, the largest of the 16 Republics of the Soviet Union, occupying a territory of 16.7 million square kilometers, is a country of vast distances, varying scenery and enormous natural and economic resources. It lies chiefly in the temperate zone, its climate made mild and humid in the west by winds from the Atlantic Ocean. The RSFSR is washed by the waters of the Arctic and the Pacific Oceans, and the Baltic, Black and Caspian Seas, and has a number of excellent harbors on the coasts and in the mouths of the rivers, most of which are navigable to sea-going ships. The Black Sea ports are open practically the year round. The country has lakes and long river systems valuable for transport, irrigation, power and industry. Hydroelectric power resources of 207 million kilowatts are being made available by the construction of such power plants as the Volkhov, Svir and Rybinsk. There are, moreover, numerous canals connecting the various river systems, the largest of them having been built since the establishment of Soviet power.

The seas of the RSFSR, as well as the lakes and rivers, yield an annual catch of fish of 1,200,000 tons, consisting of sturgeon, herring, salmon, carp and other varieties; and the Republic's seamen bring in walrus and whale, seal and sea otters.

Immense Resources

The Arctic ice and tundra with its large herds of deer give way in the south to boundless forests of pine and other trees (called the "taiga" in Siberia), the forest resources totaling almost 1,500 million acres. Among the animals that roam these woods are the ermine and sable, black and silver fox, and noble deer.

The RSFSR with its 350 million acres of fertile black earth famous the world over and its varying climates offers ideal conditions for agriculture. Except for rare tropical varieties, almost every known form of plant grows in this Republic.

Vast mineral resources have made it



State Emblem of the Russian SFSR

possible to develop great mining, chemical, iron and steel, fuel, power and building materials industries. This area holds first place in the world in deposits of peat, iron, potassium salts and apatites; and second place in coal and nickel. There are also extensive deposits of platinum, gold, bauxite, chromites, tin, wolfram, molybdenum and other rare metals, as well as magnesium salts, asbestos, graphite, mica and precious stones. The RSFSR possesses one and a half thousand trillion tons of coal deposits, comprising 19 per cent of the world's resources; 2.2 thousand billion tons of oil—over 30 per cent of the world supply; and 9 thousand billion tons of high-grade ore. Together with the iron-bearing quartzites, most of which are concentrated in the Kursk Region, the center of the Russian plain, the country has almost half the iron deposits of the world, 4 thousand billion tons of phosphorous-bearing minerals, and over 18 thousand billion tons of potassium salts—more than 80 per cent of the world's resources. The greater part of these mineral riches have been discovered and developed since the establishment of Soviet power.

The Russian Soviet Federation of Socialist Republics came into being on November 7, 1917, as a result of the victory of the October Revolution. According to the present constitution adopted in 1937, the RSFSR is a Socialist State of workers and farmers. Power be-

longs to the toilers of city and country, and is exercised through the Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

The Socialist system of economy and the Socialist ownership of the means and instruments of production constitute the economic foundation of the RSFSR. The law permits the small private economy of individual farmers and handicraftsmen, based on their personal labor and precluding the exploitation of the labor of others. The right of citizens to personal ownership of incomes from work and savings, of dwelling houses and subsidiary farms, of household furniture and utensils and articles of personal use and convenience, as well as the right of inheritance of personal property of citizens, is protected by law.

Citizens of the RSFSR have the right to work, that is, are guaranteed the right to employment and payment for their work in accordance with its quantity and quality. They have the right to rest and leisure, the right to maintenance in old age and also during sickness and loss of capacity to work, and the right to education. Women in the RSFSR are accorded equal status with men in all spheres of economic, State, cultural, social and political life. Equality of the rights of citizens of the RSFSR, irrespective of their nationality or race, is the law in the RSFSR. Guaranteed by law are freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of assembly and meetings, street processions and demonstrations, and the right to unite in public organizations. Inviolability of person and of home, and privacy of correspondence are protected.

The highest organ of State authority in the RSFSR is the Supreme Soviet of the Republic. The present one, elected in June 1937, comprises 727 Deputies, among them 339 workers, 195 farmers, 193 office employees and intellectuals. Since December 30, 1922, the RSFSR has been one of the voluntary and equal associations of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Largest Republic both in territory (75 per cent of the total) and population

(almost 60 per cent), the RSFSR has the highest political, economic and cultural development of the whole Union.

The population in 1939 was 109 million, one and one half times that of prewar Germany. Only three countries—China, India and the United States of America—have a greater population. Between 1926 and 1939 the number grew 17 per cent, the natural increase being 30 per cent higher than in pre-Revolutionary times. Particularly rapid growth is taking place in formerly backward national districts, particularly among the peoples of the North, which were threatened with total extinction in tsarist times.

According to the 1939 census, 34 per cent of the people of the RSFSR live in cities and workers' settlements, the other two-thirds in rural districts. In the 12 years preceding 1939, the urban population of the Republic increased 2.2 times over, and rose from 18 per cent to 34 per cent of the total.

This multi-national state, in which all peoples and nationalities have the same opportunities for economic and national-cultural developments, is inhabited by no less than 150 nations, nationalities, national groups and tribes; the majority are Russians, whose name has been adopted. They played an outstanding role in the struggle of all the peoples against the tsarist autocracy and in attaining the new Socialist society. In the war against Hitler Germany, the brunt of the fight for the honor, freedom and inde-

pendence of the Soviet Union fell to the Russian people.

Administrative Groupings

The voluntary federative association of peoples formed on the basis of the autonomy of national territorial units is subdivided as follows: The peoples which are the greatest in number are united in Republics, autonomous in the administration of their internal economic and cultural affairs; the other peoples live in autonomous regions and territories. Many have cultures that are centuries old and have made a deep imprint on the history of mankind. Others who had no written language of their own before the October Revolution and were almost completely illiterate had reached only a very low stage of economic development. But all, without exception, were oppressed by the tsarist regime, and with the coming of Soviet power received the first opportunity to develop their national cultures. Experiencing a rapid growth in industry, agriculture and culture, the industrial expansion in the autonomous Republics exceeds that of the RSFSR as a whole from two to eight times. Each of the national Republics has its own higher schools and its own newspapers and periodicals published in the languages of the localities.

The Republic as a whole is enjoying a period of rapid cultural progress. In pre-Revolutionary Russia, four-fifths of the children did not attend school, and among the peoples of the North, literacy never exceeded 2 to 3 per cent. At the beginning of 1939, literacy in the RSFSR had been extended to include 82 per cent of the population. There were over 20 million children in the schools, an increase of 2.5 times over figures for the preceding decade. Before the war, there were 600 thousand students in secondary voca-

tional schools, 22 times the number before the Revolution. There were 71 institutions of higher learning in tsarist Russia, concentrated mainly in Moscow and St. Petersburg. By 1939 the number of higher schools had risen to 448. In addition, there are numerous scientific and research institutes, museums and theaters, and scientific academies, headed by the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

Public health has made great advances during the years of Soviet power. The number of tuberculosis cases has been reduced to between one-tenth and one-twentieth of what it was formerly, and the death rate has been cut in half.

Index of Production Rises

The RSFSR had come to occupy one of the leading places of the prewar world in industrial output. Three years before the outbreak of the war, it had reached first place in the world in the output of chromites, apatite, platinum, precious stones, lumber and furs; and had attained a high place in production of iron and steel, electrical power, tractors, trucks, gold, nickel, potassium salts, phosphorites and fish. As compared with 1913 figures, industrial indices showed an increase of ten times. Branches of machine-building had been set up which did not exist at all in tsarist Russia, among them automobiles, planes, tractors, combines, heavy rolling mills, generators, precise instruments and bearings. Almost completely new were the chemical and several branches of the non-ferrous metals industry. Food production had undergone a complete transformation. Compared with 1913 indices, machine-building had increased 25 times, output of coal almost 9 times, pig iron 4.4 times, steel 4.8 times and food products 5.5 times.

A great coal and iron base was set up in the East, combining the coal of the Kuznetsk Basin and the iron ores of the Urals. Before the war hundreds of iron and non-ferrous metals industries, power-plants, and enterprises for agricultural products had been set up in the Volga and Urals Districts and Siberia, as well as machine-building, chemical, coal and oil industries. Simultaneously, industry and agriculture were expanding in the central regions of European RSFSR, in the North and the Caucasus.



A Chairman and a member of the Yakut collective farm inspecting the crop

In addition to the factories evacuated to the East at the outbreak of the war, new machine-building and chemical plants, blast and open-hearth furnaces, aluminum and magnesium concentration plants were built and launched. Many coal mines and oil and gas wells were sunk in the district between the Volga and the Urals, which came to be called the "second Baku." As compared with 1940 figures, smelting of iron increased 47 per cent, steel output 43 per cent and rolled metal 45 per cent.

Mechanized collective farms continued to develop in spite of the difficulties created by wartime conditions. The farmers, united in collective farming, succeeded in expanding the sown area about 250 million acres before the outbreak of the war—an increase of 38.7 per cent over the figures for 1913.

The industrial map of the country underwent basic changes in the years of peaceful construction and during the war. An iron and steel industry has been set up in the region of the lower Don and in the Crimea. The Urals have been turned into an enormous iron, steel and rolled steel district, the network of metallurgy plants extending from the Far North to the southern limits of the Urals. New iron and steel and non-ferrous metals plants have sprung up in Siberia and in the Far East. The production of aluminum is now part of the industry of Leningrad, the Urals and Western Siberia, as well as the Ukraine. The Urals have become the main source of metallic magnesium. Nickel is produced in the Far North and the Urals, zinc and copper in the Urals and in new plants in western Siberia and the Kola Peninsula. Rare metals are mined in the mountain belt stretching from the Caucasus to the Far East, as well as in the Urals and north-western Yakutia. Gold in quantity comes from the mountains of eastern Siberia and the Far East, and the Urals produce the country's platinum.

Machine-building, formerly concentrated in the central district and poorly developed, has now appeared in every economic district of the RSFSR, from the Finnish Gulf to the Pacific Ocean, and from the White Sea to Altai and Sayan. These plants supply the Army and the varied branches of economy and culture.

A complete transformation has taken place in the coal industry of the Kuzbas, Moscow, the Urals, eastern Siberia and the Far East, and in the far North of the eastern part of European RSFSR. Large quantities of oil are produced in the northern Caucasus between the Volga and the Urals, and in Sakhalin. A new synthetic fuel industry has developed since the outbreak of the war, and has reached considerable proportions; and natural gases have been tapped, mainly in the Volga Region.

The central districts of the RSFSR in Europe manufacture cotton cloth, silk and linen, and factories are now spreading to the Volga Region, the Urals and western Siberia. Cotton is raised in the northern Caucasus and the lower reaches of the Volga and flax on the southern limits of the forest belt.

Sugar beets were formerly grown in a few districts of the black earth belt of European RSFSR bordering on the Ukraine. But in the last 15 years new sugar-beet districts have appeared, with their own sugar refineries, in the Volga Region, western Siberia, and the south of the Far East. Many regions have also developed industrial crops and vegetable oil-yielding plants, particularly sunflower. The expansion of fruit orchards and vineyards has gone on continuously, and reaches far to the north today.

The chief grain-growing belt is the steppes, the wheat country stretching to the foothills of the Caucasus and the Altai in the South, and to the great forests in the north. The harvests of wheat have doubled since the establishment of Soviet power and increased 9.5 times in the black earth region. The central and northern regions, which until recently were not grain producers, have become large farming districts. Agricultural footholds have been attained even



A leghorn hen is exhibited by poultry farm worker V. Smirnova of the Gorka State farm number two

beyond the Arctic Circle and on the upper slopes of mountain chains. Rice is now an agricultural product of the RSFSR, the main districts being the Far East and the northern Caucasus.

A vast cattle country exists in the Caucasus, the Volga Region and eastern Siberia, and dairy farming has developed to the greatest extent in western Siberia, the western and taiga border districts of the European part of the country.

Transport, railroads in particular, is naturally of very great importance in a country the size of the RSFSR. The network of railroads was formerly concentrated in the center of European Russia. Thousands of kilometers of main arteries have been laid, connecting the sources of raw materials with all parts of the country, and thereby laying the basis for the expansion of industry. These roads were built along the Volga, in western Siberia, the Far East and the Far North. Work has been completed during the war on the great Pechora road (1,800 kilometers in length), penetrating through swamps, taiga and tundra. The road will make accessible the rich deposits of coking coal and the oil of the Pechora River basin, and bring them to the industrial centers of the North and to Leningrad. The roads in the Volga Region connect the mouth of the Volga with the Caucasus.

Together with its 15 sister Republics, the RSFSR is a significant force for social good in the world of freedom-loving peoples.

BATTLE OF BORODINO—SEPTEMBER 7, 1812

By Lieutenant Colonel S. Kapov

The two battles fought before Moscow, one in September 1812 and the other in December 1941, will long remain in the memory of mankind. In both, decisive defeat was inflicted on the aggressors—in 1812 on Napoleon, in 1941 on Hitler. The two were out to conquer the world, and Moscow was the turning-point in the fate of each.

Invading Russia at the head of an army of 600,000, Napoleon led into the decisive battle a force of 130,000, supplied with 587 cannon. Those were well trained and seasoned troops led by a man who had never known defeat.

The Russian army command, which had been assumed on August 19, 1812, by General Mikhail Kutuzov, the celebrated disciple of Suvorov, numbered 100,000 men and 640 cannon; 10,000 additional recruits were poorly armed and practically untrained.

Kutuzov decided to give battle at the village of Borodino, 120 kilometers west of Moscow. This is a hilly terrain crisscrossed with gullies and ravines. Through it flows the River Kolocha, which joins the Moskva in the northeast. From west to east ran the new Smolensk road leading to Moscow. On the northern and central sectors Kutuzov made use of the Kolocha River as a natural barrier. Here he set up the right flank and center of his forces under the command of General Barclay de Tolly. The left flank under General Bagratyon was situated on flat land without any natural barriers. To make up for this deficiency, fortifications were erected south of the village of Semyonovskaya; these were artillery emplacements covered by the infantry from the front. They came to be known as Bagratyon's bastions.

In the center of the Russian forces on Kurganna Height was built the artillery position which came to be known as Rayevsky's battery—after General Rayevsky, hero of the Battle of Borodino and the Patriotic War of 1812. The first line of the Russian Army was made up of infantry corps with the cavalry behind them. They were followed by the infantry and the cavalry reserves. On the extreme



Field Marshal Mikhail Kutuzov

From a painting by George Dow

left flank, Kutuzov, in order to prevent the French from turning it, placed General Tuchkov's infantry corps and Karpov's Cossacks, as well as a reserve made up of 8,000 members of the popular levy.

Kutuzov's plan was to fight a battle of active defense and then to take the offensive. He distributed his troops accordingly. Napoleon intended to destroy the manpower of the Russian army by a crushing blow in a decisive direction. He massed infantry and artillery against the Russian left flank, which he regarded as the weakest sector. A break-through on the left flank would have enabled Napoleon to reach the new Smolensk road, hem the Russian army in against the Moskva River and compel it to fight with a reversed front.

The Battle of Borodino began at 5:00 A.M. with a demonstration attack upon the village by Beauharnais' corps. After a fierce engagement, Borodino was captured by the French. The aim of that attack, however, was to divert Kutuzov's attention from the direction of the main blow which was being dealt at Bagratyon's bastions, that is, at the center left flank.

Here Napoleon massed 43,000 men reinforced with 203 cannon, against 8,000 Russians with 40 to 50 cannon. At 6:00 A.M. Marshal Davout's troops tried to attack the bastions, but were repelled. The engagements here were becoming increasingly fierce. At 11:30 the French had attacked seven times. Several times they managed to break into that position, but each time were beaten back by the Russians in counterattacks led personally by Bagratyon. The space in front of the ditches, trenches and the fortifications themselves were covered with heaps of dead bodies. Only after the eighth attack, in which Bagratyon was badly wounded, did the French manage to seize the bastions.

Thus by noon the French had achieved a definite success. Marshals Davout and Ney demanded that Napoleon rush reserves to exploit the advantage. Only Guards troops—old and young—remained in reserve, and Napoleon could not make up his mind to throw them into action. The success had not been decisive and all sorts of tricks could be expected of Kutuzov, that expert at maneuvers, the "Old Fox of the North" as Napoleon called him. It was essential for Kutuzov at precisely that moment, before Napoleon's reserves had joined the battle, to gain time in order to rush his own reserves to the area of Bagratyon's bastions and reinforce the tottering sector. Kutuzov ordered the cavalry of Platov and Uvarov to raid the enemy's left flank.

What happened was exactly what Napoleon had feared. When, yielding to his marshals, he ordered his troops into battle, Russian horsemen appeared on his left flank and among the supply trains in his rear. Alarmed by the turn of events, Napoleon ordered the Young Guards back and the discontinuance of attacks on Rayevsky's battery. But upon his arrival at the threatened sector Napoleon realized that the raid of the Russian cavalry had been but a demonstration. He sent the Young Guards back again and returned to his command post at the village of Shevardino. All this took two hours' time which Kutuzov gained from Napoleon

The Frenchman's confusion enabled Kutuzov to strengthen the Russian position.

Shortly after 2:00 P.M., the French attacked Rayevsky's battery for the third time. The blood-drenched position of Rayevsky's battery changed hands many times, and in the end was held by the French. But Napoleon did not succeed in breaching the center of the Russian positions. This was due to the deep formation of Russian forces and the heroism and fortitude of the Russian soldiers. Napoleon figured that if he captured the village of Gorky, the center of the Russian position would be breached. But he no longer had the forces for this. To the requests of his marshals to throw in the Old Guards, he answered sullenly, "I cannot risk my last reserves at a distance

eight hundred leagues from Paris."

By 6:00 P.M. the Russian Army had occupied positions extending from the village of Gorky to the old Smolensk road, and quickly re-formed. Dusk was gathering, and Napoleon, fearing the Russian attacks, withdrew his main forces beyond the river Kolocha, abandoning Bagratyon's bastions and Rayevsky's battery, which had been captured at such a heavy cost.

Napoleon failed to achieve any of his objectives. The battlefield remained in the hands of the Russians. French casualties amounted to 57,600, including 47 generals, the greatest losses in the cavalry. Borodino became known as the grave of the French cavalry.

The Battle of Borodino shook the morale of the French army. Although the

Russian Army had also sustained heavy casualties—42,500 men—its spirit remained strong. Still eager for a fight, the Russian troops hailed Kutuzov's order the next day for resumption of the battle.

Napoleon subsequently wrote of the historic episode: "Of all my battles, the most terrible was the one I fought before Moscow. In that battle the French showed that they deserved victory, and the Russians gained the right to be invincible."

The Battle of Borodino was a strategic and moral victory for the Russian Army. As Kutuzov had predicted, Moscow marked the beginning of Napoleon's downfall.

In subsequent engagements the Russian Army, led by Kutuzov, annihilated Napoleon's forces and put an end to his dominion.

PROKOFIEV'S NEW OPERA

By Boris Yagolim

The first performance of Sergei Prokofiev's new opera "War and Peace" drew record crowds to the Moscow Conservatory.

Soviet music-lovers had been waiting with eager curiosity to learn how Prokofiev had solved his extraordinarily difficult task.

The opera is in five acts and eleven scenes, the libretto written by the composer himself, in collaboration with M. Mendelssohn. It deals only with the events of 1812 and the years immediately preceding, and minor characters are omitted.

The result is a series of pictures, illustrating the great war of liberation waged by the Russian people against their enemies. The characters of Napoleon and his generals, of Mikhail Kutuzov, Vassily Denisov, Tikhon Shcherbaty and Vasilissa are powerfully realized.

One of the cornerstones of the opera is a scene before the Battle of Borodino. Peasant soldiers are building fortifications. They pause to listen to the recital, by citizens of Smolensk, of the havoc wrought by the French in their city. There follows a dramatic prediction, by Kutuzov, that on this field the beast will receive his death wounds. Later scenes are enacted in the flame-clad streets of

Moscow and on the Smolensk road deep in snow.

The opera is not merely a war epic, however. The joys and sorrows, dreams, efforts and disillusionments of Natasha Rostova, Prince Andrei Bolkonsky, Anatole Kuragin and Pierre Bezukhov are conveyed. The noise of battle crashes against the lyrical cadences of life on country estates and in the aristocratic salons of Moscow and St. Petersburg.

The music is original, mature and rich. Of many passages of remarkable beauty, I remember best those associated with the moonlit May night at the Rostov's country estate, the Borodino section, and the monumental choral scene at the close.

The composer has avoided the rounded aria. In this opera the predominant musical idiom is the melodious recitative, in which Prokofiev attains a height of dramatic expressiveness worthy of the fine traditions of Russian classical music.

My criticism is that the opera lacks the integral scenic design which would weld the whole thing together. The mosaic effect detracts from the impressiveness of the piece.

The State Symphony Orchestra and some of Moscow's best singers, among

them Alexander Pirogov, Alexander Baturin, Nikolai Panchekhin and Alexei Ivanov, took part in the performance. The composer received a tremendous ovation.



Honored Art Worker and Stalin Prize winner Sergei Prokofiev shown relaxing

Notes on Soviet Life

Three hundred and fifty men and women guerrillas of the Lithuanian Soviet Republic have been decorated by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for gallantry and valor in battles against the German-fascist invaders.

The title of Hero of the Soviet Union has been conferred upon Stanislaw Apivalo and Bronislavas Urbenovicus for exemplary execution of assignments of command in battles in the enemy's rear and for gallantry and heroism displayed.

★

Since the Germans were driven from the Kursk Region the people have rebuilt 65,000 houses, 3,560 stables, 3,615 cowsheds, 1,696 pigsties, 800 sheep pens and hundreds of enterprises. Before the end of the year the Region will acquire 11,730 additional houses, 175 collective farm clubs, 110 cottage libraries and 3,000 additional livestock farm buildings.

★

Engineering plants are launching work on an important Government assignment; the designing and construction within two to three years of seven powerful blooming mills with rollers from 950 to 1,150 millimeters in diameter. Intensive work by the ten blast furnaces and 150 open-hearth furnaces will be required to supply the five blooming mills to be built in 1946 and 1947. These huge machines will in turn feed up to 25 rolling mills. Each of the Soviet mills will have 65 motors with 11,000 horsepower, the main motor to have 7,000 horsepower.

★

Tax exemptions and other privileges for servicemen and their families will remain in force, according to a decision of the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR. Demobilized men will enjoy the same exemptions allowed while in the service.

The bronze statue of the great Russian strategist Suvorov was brought from Odessa to be erected at Ismail. It has designs of all the orders held by the General cast on the ironplates of the base. The monument shows Suvorov on horseback with cap in hand greeting the soldiers who captured Ismail. The unveiling took place on August 26, anniversary of the liberation of Ismail from the German invaders.

★

For three thunderstorm seasons the scientific staff of the Energetics Institute of Azerbaïdzhan have been studying the nature of lightning and anti-lightning measures. Field laboratories operated on the slopes of the Little Caucasus Mountains and at the foot of the main Caucasian range.

The studies of the laws of lightning have special importance for the construction of the Mingechaury power station, whose high tension transmission lines will run for a large distance across the area of frequent thunderstorms.

★

There was a rousing welcome for Hero of the Soviet Union Senior Sergeant A. Koshev when he returned to the Molotov collective farm. He found the home which the community is building for him almost completed.

★

Honored on his 75th birthday, Hero of Socialist Labor A. A. Baikov, Member of the Academy of Sciences, was awarded the Order of Lenin in recognition of his outstanding services in the sphere of chemistry and metallurgy.

★

An expedition has left for the Pacific to gather material on operations of the Pacific fleet and the Amur flotilla. Their findings will be incorporated in an exhibit to be added to the section of the Central Navy Museum devoted to the Russo-Japanese War of 1904.

New village and country stores are being stocked with clothing, footwear and knit goods. Eight hundred shops planned for the second half of the current year will carry building materials and household utensils. By the beginning of 1947 there will be 70,000 new stores for Soviet farmers.

★

Preliminary findings of recent eclipse observations were discussed at a conference of the famous Pulkovo Observatory, the first session of this kind to be held after the war. Scientists studied the total eclipse in Saratov for 52 seconds. Photographs taken will contribute much to the study of the outer atmosphere of the sun, the corona and coronal lines. Preliminary findings indicate that the Pulkovo astronomers were able to discern phenomena unrecorded for decades.

★

The famous Urals stonecutting factories are being expanded and are resuming production. In the "Factory of Russian Gems" art objects are being designed from malachite. A school for mass stonecutters has opened in Sverdlovsk.

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Collective Farms of Liberated Regions

By I. Benediktov

Deputy People's Commissar of Agriculture of the USSR

Fascist Germany attacked the Soviet Union in a year when the farmers planted a greater area of land than ever before and when a bumper harvest was expected. During the early period of the war the enemy succeeded in occupying a number of very important farming regions. Territory under temporary German occupation constituted 40 per cent of the whole cultivated area of the country.

These farms, including 38 per cent of all grain crops and 83 per cent of sugar beets, owned 39 per cent of the tractors, 42 per cent of the draft horses, 37 per cent of the cattle, 29 per cent of the sheep and 57 per cent of the pigs of the whole country.

These figures give a clear picture of the colossal scale of farming in the regions seized by the enemy. They also tell of the tremendous loss which agriculture suffered at German hands. Even to imagine such devastation is difficult. Hardest to replace is the property of the machine tractor stations, collective farms, State farms and other organizations—all plundered or destroyed by the Nazis. In addition, collective farmers suffered personal losses of private property and their homes.

Standing crops and farm products in great quantity were destroyed. The work of farms and machine and tractor stations was so disrupted that during the years of occupation their output was far below standard.

The following is an indication of damages: In one Region of the Ukraine—Poltava—the Hitlerites removed 392,000 head of cattle, 101,900 horses and 240,000 sheep; of the 1945 harvest alone the invaders plundered or destroyed many million poods of grain standing, stacked and

shocked. In the Odessa Region, according to the estimate made by the Extraordinary State Committee, the occupying troops stole, killed or demolished 45,200 horses, 87,600 cattle, tens of thousands of sheep and pigs, 1,700 tractors and 4,800 farm machines, 1,300 combine harvesters and locomobiles and millions of centners of grain and other farm produce.

These figures cover only two regions of the 24 which make up the Ukraine; a number of these were under German rule for almost three years.

Similar losses prevailed in the Kuban, Don, Byelorussia, Smolensk and other Regions.

Altogether the German invaders burned down over two million farm homes and hundreds of thousands of buildings. In order to restore agriculture the peasants of our country are making truly heroic efforts.

The Soviet Government is rendering substantial help to the liberated districts. Assistance is offered as well by other col-

lective farms in the interior of the country, which send tractors, farm machinery, draft and breeding cattle, and, along with these supplies, trained specialists to give scientific advice on speeding recovery.

The State loaned the farmers of the liberated regions large amounts of seeds, and established credits for rebuilding purposes. These areas already have received 26,000 tractors, 40,000 items of agricultural machinery and 3 million domestic animals, including 1,200,000 head of dairy cattle and 200,000 horses. The specialists include 6,000 agronomists, zootechnicians, mechanics, engineers and others.

More than 3,000 machine and tractor stations have been rebuilt and re-equipped to help the farmers with their work. The credits granted by the State and the free supply of timber have facilitated the building of as many as a million new houses during the past year.

With the help of the whole country excellent results have been obtained in the rehabilitation of the farms. In 1944

WINE FROM UZBEKISTAN—Grape pickers at work in the fields of the Uzbekvino trust near Samarkand. Vineyards and orchards flourish in this land of foothills where there are more irrigated farms than in all the other republics of Central Asia combined



and 1945, tens of thousands of liberated collective farms and hundreds of machine and tractor stations overfulfilled the plans set for planting. Many districts of the Ukraine, Don, Kuban, Moscow and Kalinin Regions have already reached their prewar level in the area under cultivation. In all, throughout the liberated regions the sown acreage is now 76 per cent of the prewar total. The area sown to grain is 77 per cent of the prewar figure.

Last year and this year the collective farmers of the liberated regions have had abundant crops. Dnepropetrovsk Region gathered 5.8 hundredweight of grain to

the acre, Krasnodar, Stalino and Moscow about 4.8 hundredweight to the acre and Poltava about five hundredweight.

This year the harvest of all farm products will not be less than last year's, while sugar beets, potatoes and other vegetables will exceed last year's output.

Good work has been done in building up the supply of livestock. In the past year the farmers of these areas increased the number of horses by 59 per cent, dairy cattle by 94 per cent, sheep and goats by 38 per cent and pigs by 120 per cent.

Many regions, such as Moscow and

Kalinin, have increased their herds beyond the prewar level. This year there has been a further growth of herds.

Although much already has been done there are still many difficult tasks to be undertaken, some of them urgent. There is, for example, still a shortage of draft animals and machines.

The inhabitants of the liberated regions learned from their own experience that only the collective farm system is capable of releasing farmers from a life of poverty, rebuilding their farms and developing a life of prosperity and culture. Without the system it would have been impossible to struggle effectively against the destruction caused by the Germans. The small farms would have required many years to heal the wounds of occupation. The rapid rehabilitation of agriculture in the liberated regions is further proof of the power and inexhaustible opportunities of the collective farm system.

Despite the colossal ruin caused by the fascists, there is no doubt that during the next two or three years the cultivated area and harvest yields in the liberated regions will reach their prewar level. Many districts will attain this level in the 1945-46 farm year.



LAND OF MOUNTAINS—Khaibulla Vagabov, head of a field brigade of the Stalin collective farm of the village of Stalin-aul, inspects the work of a tractor driver

For centuries Dagestan peasants used ancient wooden plows. Now more than 1,000 tractors and 200 harvester-combines, modern plows, threshers and seed drills are employed

VEGETABLES IN THE ARCTIC

By Ivan Bryzgalov

Soviet gold prospectors of the Far East dwell in the heart of the taiga and tundra wastes, a thousand kilometers from the nearest settlements. To get to the largest gold fields of Kolyma-Taskan or Susuman from Khabarovsk, for example, they must travel by train, steamer and truck. Even more difficult to reach are the remote districts of Chukotka and the mouth of the Indigirka River.

Some years ago, when it was discovered that there was a vitamin deficiency in the diet of gold prospectors, the Government set up special farms to raise vegetables. Many difficulties confronted the pioneers. It was generally believed that no produce could be raised in the Arctic since the soil thawed only in June

and the severe frosts began in August. The Kolyma folk at first grew vegetables in hothouses. But agronomists later solved the problem of growing potatoes and other vegetables in the open, where the soil is eternally frozen.

In Kolyma Region today there are numerous truck farms. The large Elgen State Farm, whose hothouses and cucumber frames cover more than 20 square kilometers, has crops of 2.8 to 3.2 tons of potatoes and 12 to 14 tons of cabbage per acre.

Well within the Arctic circle, near Verkhojansk, lies the small settlement of Ege-Khaya. Until recently, all agricultural produce had been brought from the South by reindeer, dog sleds and planes.

Not so long ago Anna Smirnova, a housewife, planted several potatoes outside her cottage. To her surprise they did well and eventually yielded a small harvest. In the following year many miners planted potato seed brought to Ege-Khaya by plane. But no sooner did the first sprouts appear than the bitter winds of the North descended upon them.

Windbreaks of brushwood piled up against poles were erected. When these proved insufficient, the farmer solved their problem by starting a series of bonfires along the northern fringe of their gardens. Later the Arctic sun, shining for several months, completed the growth of potatoes, cabbage and turnips.

RECONVERSION TO PEACETIME PRODUCTION

By N. Alexandrov

The mobilization of industrial resources for the war against Germany was perhaps nowhere so all-embracing as in the Soviet Union which converted almost all plants to military production. The production of consumers' goods was cut to a minimum.

But reconversion began the moment the war ended and extended even to branches specializing in the production of arms and ammunition for the Red Army.

To repair the vast damage done to all parts of the national economy in districts occupied by the enemy and to replace the quantities of equipment lost, a program of unprecedented production is necessary. Accordingly, all heavy machine-building and other plants have swung over to the manufacture of machines, tractors and various types of power-plant equipment. War-industry plants are in a position to reconvert readily, and Soviet workers carry information to the effect that many gun and tank plants are turning out supplies for iron and steel mills, mines and other branches of industry in process of restoration.

Packing cookies at the rebuilt Laima confectionary factory in Riga. The food industry is making tremendous gains in the postwar period



The building industry took a decided upswing at the termination of the war. There had been considerable activity in the erection of factories and dwellings during the war, and toward the end, construction was launched in liberated districts on a large scale. But what is going on now overshadows previous efforts, particularly in home construction. New enterprises supplying materials have been set up to take care of the increased demand, and the output of prefabricated houses is greatly enlarged.

The production of consumers' goods has increased considerably in accordance with Government instructions, including textiles, clothing, shoes and various household utensils. To fulfill Government orders plants were given special assistance, for example, the Russian SFSR clothing industry received fifteen hundred Universal sewing machines and equipment for thirty-eight mechanical conveyors.

Other branches of industry have gone in for consumers' goods: munitions plants are turning out typewriters, and mine factories are producing watches and clocks. All heavy machine-building aviation and war-industries plants have shops manufacturing necessities and luxuries for the people. The Stalin auto plant in Moscow is turning out thirty kinds of merchandise, and plans expansion in some lines. The Urals tank plant will turn out twenty-four million rubles' worth of consumers'

goods, it is expected, this year.

Varieties of articles are wide—ranging from rubber-soled shoes to chrome-plated spoons and kitchen utensils, and furniture and radios. One Moscow aviation plant is at work on forty to fifty thousand aluminum pots and pans, and is starting the production of shoes and furniture. Another has a monthly output of one thousand beds and two thousand children's bicycles.

The planned system of Soviet economy which made it possible at the outset of the war to convert industry to war production with the least possible loss of time, today is accomplishing equally swift reconversion to peacetime production. The orderly transition permits the labor problem to be handled simply and painlessly. Since the total volume of production, in spite of cuts in war orders, has not fallen, there is no danger of unemployment, nor can there be. On the contrary, as enterprises return to their normal working day, there is a shortage of labor which is being met by drawing the demobilized soldiers back to work.

The manufacture of new and improved items for the people involves the retraining of workers, and, in many cases, higher standards of living. The task is being accomplished in the factories by special courses arranged even before the termination of hostilities in Europe.



Geraskina is one of the best metalworkers in a Moscow bicycle plant

Attainments in Armor Manufacture

By A. Zavyalov

Doctor of Technical Sciences



Blast furnace No. 1 at the Novyi-Tagil iron and steel works in the Urals

The makers of Soviet armor steel may always recall with satisfaction the fact that during the war with Germany the armor protection of Soviet tanks was far superior to that of the much-vaunted German Tigers and Panzers.

When Hitler attacked the Soviet Union, armor output had to be extended quickly and on a sweeping scale. Production had to be inaugurated even in plants engaged in other manufactures. Scientists temporarily left research laboratories and experimental workshops to go to factories where, together with the workers, they called upon their prewar scientific and production experience to find a speedy solution to the problems of emergency operation of industry. In an exceedingly brief time Soviet iron and steel works were turning out first-class armor steel on a tremendous scale.

In the meantime the staff of the Tank Industry Institute continued work to improve armor steels. The laboratories of this institution searched ceaselessly for a

better chemical composition as well as a method of using heat to develop the best possible physical and mechanical properties. The engineers worked closely with the iron and steel personnel and the technologists at industrial enterprises; the majority of the experiments were conducted in the production departments of the tank plants and iron and steel works.

This method was undoubtedly a guaranty of quick success, for these industries afforded a favorable field for wide-scale research. At the same time, departments where this scientific work was conducted were able to prepare in advance for the large-scale output of new armor steels.

It did not take long for the Wehrmacht to find out that the anti-tank weapons it possessed in the early period of the war were inadequate against the Soviet medium and heavy tanks. This compelled the Germans to rearm their anti-tank, artillery and armored forces, and in turn to cut sharply the production of tanks and artillery at the German plants. While at the beginning of the war against the USSR the basic tank and anti-tank weapon in the German army was the 37-millimeter gun, by the end of the war the principal types in this category of artillery which the Nazis used were the 75 and 88-millimeter guns with a muzzle velocity of a thousand meters a second. The result was a considerable increase in the weight of German artillery and armor-piercing shells.

To these measures our industry replied by creating still more powerful tanks and self-propelled guns with superior armor protection. It was sufficient slightly to increase the thickness of the armor plating employed to make it invulnerable to the enemy's new guns. But this solution of the problem was not satisfactory, for any addition in weight inevitably cuts speed and maneuverability. Hence, to insure the superiority of our tanks and self-propelled guns, it was essential to improve

the quality of armor steels, and in collaboration with the designing engineers fighting machines were built that, while being equally well protected, were 30 to 40 per cent lighter than their German counterparts.

The Soviet industry solved another major problem in this field when it produced armor steel excelling in both tensile strength and durability. This was a substantial achievement indeed, for the two properties had formerly been difficult to impart to one metal in sufficiently high degree. As a matter of fact, there had been cases in the history of steel making when armor steels had been produced that could withstand the impact of single shells of tremendous destructive power but cracked under repeated hammering.

The staff of the Tank Industry Institute and the personnel of the tank industry as a whole maintained contact with the Army in the field. The Institute's workers regularly made trips to the front to make a thorough study of the performance of armor steel under actual battle conditions.



A Leningrad plant which produces electrical equipment

the conditions. War experience showed that a vital factor in good armor steel is making the most effective use of it. As a result of first-hand observation and study, the Institute worked out the most rational methods of protecting tanks and self-propelled guns from enemy shells. In this field there had been creative collaboration among the scientists and designers, the fruit of which had been highly gratifying—greater protection for fighting machines with no increase in weight of armor.

Our aim was, while introducing improvements in tanks, to continue to expand production. With this in view the Institute worked to make armor steel as

easy to manufacture as possible, suitable for welding and offering the least difficulties in heat and mechanical treatment, etc. At the Institute's direction cast armor steel was first used in tank manufacture. The casting of the turret and other parts which involved the greatest expenditure of labor increased efficiency, cutting the labor ordinarily required by half and saving as much as 40 per cent of the steel formerly needed.

Soviet industry was the first in the world to make large steel castings in metal molds. This method increased the output of certain tank sub-assemblies by two and one half to three times, meanwhile cutting the expenditure of metal

by more than 20 per cent and mold materials by 70 per cent.

Scientists and technologists also introduced highly effective innovations increasing productivity in smelting and rolling armor steel. Improved methods of heating have speeded up the process threefold while improving the quality of the metal. Beside the steel, large quantities of ferroalloys, oxygen, acetylene etc., have been saved.

Particularly valuable has been the method for regenerating sub-standard armor steel, which formerly could not be used in tank manufacture, by a special heat process, imparting to it the lacking properties.

Urals Craftsmen Uphold Traditions

By Suzanne Ross

In the Urals—land of mines, metallurgical plants, foundries and quarries—one finds numerous cooperatives of stone cutters, bone carvers, inlay designers, and gem and metal workers. These craftsmen are for the most part self-taught, the secrets of their skills handed down from father to son.

Surrounded by blue, transparent lakes, and reflecting the craggy, verdant shores, lies the little Urals town of Kasli. In Kasli stands one of the oldest forges, the foundation of which was laid in the middle 18th century, during the reign of Elizabeth of Russia. This forge, now an imposing metal works, is the home of the famous Kasli metal craftsmen, whose wares have won recognition at international expositions in Paris, Vienna, Philadelphia, Stockholm and Copenhagen. In Paris, Kasli craftsmen were honored with the Grand Prix.

Whereas formerly Kasli craftsmen, unable to find a market for their wares, were often in desperate straits, today the demand is so great that they can hardly fill the orders. Indeed, the veteran craftsmen strain every effort to recruit more youth to the craft and are organizing apprentice classes.

Today a wide variety of articles is pro-

duced by Kasli artists. They range from toys and candleholders to expensive fretted caskets and exquisitely wrought statuettes.

Important orders, such as the metal-wrought railings for new stations of the Moscow Subway, or for river embankments of large cities, are met by teams of craftsmen.

Kasli craftsmen have made valuable contributions to Russian sculpture. These include a monument of Peter I, a bust of General Suvorov, such metal figures as Hercules and Venus, and portraits of Russia's great men.

There are actually three generations of highly qualified metalworkers in Kasli. The most respected is the old generation, to which belong such masters as 75-year-old Ilya Kochergin, who has been at the craft from the age of 12, 55-year-old Peter Kozlov, 77-year-old Nikolai Vikhlayev, whose son and grandson are also expert craftsmen, and 70-year-old Mikhail Glukhov. So devoted are these veterans to their craft that nothing can induce them to retire. And being of sturdy Urals stock, they do not find their age an impediment. Long years of painstaking labor and the constant search for perfection in

their art have made them the repository of the secrets of intricate metalwork. Gladly they impart their experience and knowledge to the younger men.

An example of an aged craftsman who never tires of perfecting his art is Mikhail Glukhov. Some time before the war he learned to work with stainless steel. And it was he who reproduced so skillfully the two famous pictures, Shishkin's "Morning in a Pine Wood," and A. Gerasimov's "Stalin and Voroshilov" for the World's Fair at Paris.

During the war Kasli craftsmen considerably reduced their creative output as many of the younger men went to fight the Germans. Those now returned from the battle lines have resumed their craft and are producing original sculptures with many themes drawn from their front-line experiences. "Tank Landing Party," "Cossack Warrior" and a small statue of Stalin in his Marshal's uniform are three recent productions that have enormous sales.

The demand for the metal sculptures is growing rapidly. So that their wares may adorn as many Soviet homes as possible, Kasli craftsmen are at present inventing new ways of reducing production cost and thus lowering prices.

Duties of Procurators

By Nikolai Silberstein

The functions and powers of the procurator of the USSR are defined in the Soviet Constitution, Chapter IX, in the following terms:

Supreme supervisory power over the strict execution of the laws by all People's Commissariats and institutions subordinated to them, as well as by public servants and citizens of the USSR, is vested in the procurator of the USSR.

Each Union Republic, territory and region has its procurator, appointed for a term of five years by the procurator of the USSR, who in his turn is appointed by the Supreme Soviet or legislative body of the USSR for a term of seven years.

Each city and administrative district also has its procurator, appointed by the procurator of the Union Republic of which it forms a part, subject to the approval of the procurator of the USSR.

The procurator's office, therefore, constitutes a single, uniform body for the whole Soviet Union. Its function is to see that the law is everywhere uniformly interpreted and properly observed by all Government bodies, juridical entities and citizens, and enforced by the courts.

Protecting the Socialist Citizen

It is the duty of the procurators to maintain the Socialist system of law, to prevent violations of the law and to see that offenders against it are punished. At the same time, it is their duty to protect the rights and interests of Soviet citizens.

The powers are wide, and the principle of strict impartiality governs every action. This principle extends to the preliminary investigators, whose activities the procurators control. The code of criminal procedure of the Russian SFSR, for example, establishes that "it is incumbent on the preliminary investigator to ascertain and investigate all the circumstances, both those tending to incriminate and those tending to exculpate the accused, besides all those which either enhance or palliate the degree of his guilt."

The report of the preliminary investigator, together with the evidence he has gathered *pro* and *con* and the indictment he has drawn up, is sent to the local procurator for review. If it is found that

the evidence is sufficient to justify a prosecution, the procurator sanctions the indictment. If it is insufficient, he orders proceedings to be dropped.

In important cases the procurator himself appears in court as prosecutor on behalf of the State. But even then the principle of strict impartiality governs his actions. It is not his duty to try to secure a conviction at all costs.

If during the trial it becomes apparent that the evidence gathered at the preliminary investigation cannot be sustained, he himself will withdraw the indictment and ask for dismissal of the case.

Article 306 of the code of criminal procedure lays down that "the prosecuting party has the right to withdraw his charges if he arrives at the conviction that the facts revealed at the trial do not uphold the indictment."

Accordingly, even in cases where he does not appear in court as prosecutor, the local procurator, on reviewing the findings of the court, whether the verdict condemns or acquits, will protest to a higher court if he considers the verdict incorrect.

These functions of the procurators—supervising the legality of preliminary investigations, rendering indictments and court verdicts, and appearing in court—cover both criminal and civil proceedings. Article 2 of the code of criminal procedure states that "the procurator is en-

titled to initiate proceedings or to intervene at any stage of the case, if he considers that the interests of the State or its citizens demand it."

It is also the function of the procurator's office to see that the laws are strictly observed by the People's Commissariats (Government departments) and all bodies under the control of the latter.

Lenin's Principle

The structure of the procurator's office is designed to insure that Soviet law is uniformly interpreted and enforced all over the Soviet Union. This is achieved by centralization of the system, by the subordination of all procurators in every corner of the country to the procurator of the USSR, who issues their instructions and supervises their activities.

This principle of the uniformity of law throughout the Soviet land was established by Lenin. It was he who entrusted to the procurator and his office the duty of insuring the observance of that principle. In a letter to Stalin he wrote: "The procurator has only one right and duty, to see that interpretations of the law are truly uniform all over the Republic, irrespective of local differences and notwithstanding local influences."

This idea found its embodiment in the Constitution, which provided for a single and integral system of procurators independent of local authorities and centralized under the procurator of the USSR.

Faces of the Dead

An unusual exhibition in Moscow, arranged by the Ethnographic Museum of the Soviet Academy of Sciences, shows the works of Gerassimov, a sculptor-anthropologist and specialist in the anatomical reconstruction of the faces and bodies of persons long dead.

Particular interest was aroused by the figure of a nine-year-old Neanderthal boy who lived 150,000 years ago in what is now Central Asia. His body was reconstructed with the help of the cranium, a thigh, shin and rib.

Once the sculptor proposed to reconstruct the face of a dead child found in

a wood near Leningrad, according to the skull. The face, modelled by Gerassimov, was photographed and the picture put into a batch with other children's photographs. The parents of the lost child immediately recognized their son from the photograph.

Among works completed by Gerassimov during the war are busts of Timur, the famous Mongol invader of the Middle Ages, his son Shakhruh, and his grandson Olugbek, the famous astronomer.

At present Gerassimov is working on a reconstruction of the face of the Russian Tsar Ivaq the Terrible.

HIGHWAY TO PRAGUE

By Lieutenant Colonel L. Vysokoostrovsky

From KRASNAYA ZVEZDA:

We left Germany in the morning. Two hours later we beheld a narrow white streak across the shiny asphalt of the highway. It was the barrier at the border and our car stopped. From a wooden cottage with glistening and inviting windows, emerged an officer of the Czechoslovak Army.

"Hello, comrades," he said in not very distinct Russian, but so warmly and cordially that you felt at once, "This is not Germany." The man was a Slovak; his rank, junior officer.

The border guard assumed a business-like manner as he examined our documents, then ordered the barrier open, wished us a happy journey, and we continued on our way southward.

The uniform towns and villages with their red roofs became rarer. The countryside was more picturesque. Cottages roofed with gray velvety slate flashed by. The concrete and asphalt with which the sidewalks and pavements are covered throughout Germany now gave way to attractive flagstones. On the hills in the distance could be seen gardens and green courtyards. And what was most important, we met affably-smiling people everywhere.

The Czechoslovaks welcome every Soviet citizen with unfeigned pleasure. The Red Army soldier is the dearest of guests. You need only stop your car at a roadside for five minutes to have a crowd of peasant girls, old men, women and youths from nearby fields gather around you. The children offer apples and pears, asking only in return to be allowed to honk the horn of your car. You will be showered with questions and exclamations: "Do you need any help? Where is our mechanic? Come have a bite with us. Where are you going and will you stay the night?" And you won't leave so soon. First you will have to answer all the questions and find a really good reason to convince people that you must proceed at once, without any further delay.

On the roads near inhabited places, you come across posters, slogans or wooden tablets with inscriptions, mostly in Russian. Near the border the poster reads: "Long Live the Red Army—Our Liberator." A few kilometers away in the village of Perovice a sheet of paper nailed to the door of a white cottage bears the following: "Stalin is like a father to me and my children. He saved us from the Germans." and above a grass plot nearby a German signbox has been painted over with white paint and the inscription on it reads: "Welcome, dear Russians."

The highway winding among the hills is intersected by other roads. Two to three hundred meters before crossings and at the intersections stand iron posts with road signs, put up by the Germans. They bear the most unexpected inscriptions. We have been told that when Marshal Konev's troops were making their famous dash toward Prague, the Czechoslovaks tried to help them in every way they could, often at the risk of their lives, for the Germans were still around. They blotted out German emblems and wrote in Czech and Russian: "Victory ahead. 114 kilometers to Prague;" or "Prague is waiting for you, comrades. 99 kilometers;" or just "Prague" or "Thanks from Prague."

In Teplice-Sanov a railwayman by the name of Prohaska told us: "Many were afraid to write plainly. But we knew where the Russians were heading and knew that they would understand what we meant."

That was more than four and a half months ago. Now you hardly ever meet a Soviet officer or man. But the Red Army is remembered with gratitude. "Liberators"—that is how the Soviet people are known. Almost every Czech or Slovak cherishes some souvenir left by a Russian. In most cases it is a five-pointed star with a hammer and sickle, or a photo with a note saying, "From a Soviet friend." Sometimes it is a plain brass button with the Soviet emblem on it, a booklet out of

a Red Army man's library about the heroes of the war, a cap with a bullet hole in it, a helmet or pencil with a Soviet factory mark on it. We have been shown a balalaika autographed Tankman I. P. Dedkov, and even an accordion that has seen war duty.

The most noteworthy memorials left behind by our troops are the smashed German armaments. To this day they lie in heaps in the ditches, gullies and groves. There are large quantities of them near the sharp turns of the asphalted motor roads.

In Prague we had a talk with an elderly officer of the Czechoslovak Army, Boris Bruml. During the German occupation of his country he had been a member of a partisan detachment that operated in the mountains near the Austrian border. He told us:

"I am an old-timer in the army and I know the history of wars. But there is nothing to compare with your thrust from the north at Prague. We partisans were happy when we heard over the radio that the Russians were fighting in Berlin, then that they had taken Berlin. At the same time we thought, 'Berlin is pretty far, the Red Army's helping hand will come from the south.' And suddenly your tanks that had fought in Berlin appeared in Prague. That was a maneuver of stunning skill."

Southeast of Dresden numerous hills rise over Czechoslovak territory. In their folds, as in a museum of trophies, lie thousands of exhibits of fascist armaments, ammunition and vehicles. It is now all partly covered with sand overgrown with grass. But it still provides sufficient evidence of the force of our thrust, of its suddenness and speed.

In one place we came across about two dozen formerly comfortable German motor cars, half of them standing lined up as if in a garage. The rest were scattered all about. Apparently some German headquarters had been overwhelmed here. Everything—cars, tables, telephones, reels of cable, camouflage netting—had been abandoned. All the roads were littered—

trucks were lying with wheels upward, guns attached to tractors were everywhere, and large and small tanks, armored cars and troop carriers completed the confusion. The sinister swastika has not yet been obliterated from many of these iron monsters. But they have been rendered harmless and hold no more terror for anyone.

After we had seen our fill of the wreckage of Hitler's armament in the hills, we reached the open country and proceeded at a faster speed. Here we beheld an interesting scene. A Heinkel lay spread out in the meadow, the landing gear concealed from view. One wing was broken and lay in the grass. The other protruded at a slight angle and its shadow protected a small plot in the field from the rays of the hot midday sun. In the shadow of the airplane wing peacefully grazed eight lambs. It was pleasant to see at least one German bomber performing a useful function.

The distance from Dresden to Prague is 178 kilometers. Not a long way, but it passes through two worlds. At last we saw the silvery Vltava watering the heart of a free Czechoslovakia. The streets of Prague welcomed us with posters and slogans and portraits of President Benes, General Svoboda, and of Lenin and Stalin.

Hauling by Cable

A Tbilisi engineer, V. Dzhavrisvili, has designed an automatic cable line for the transfer of freight over short distances. The potential energy of the weights themselves serve as the basis of this invention. Moving in one direction the weights expend sufficient energy to move lighter freight in the opposite direction. Mobile containers are loaded and unloaded automatically.

Having approved of the invention, the People's Commissariat of the Coal Industry of the USSR decided to build an experimental cable line of this type at one of the mines, to be operated under the supervision of the inventor. The new cable line may be put to a variety of uses: construction jobs, loading and unloading in transport and the mining industry, transferring freight across rivers, etc.

News of Moscow Screen

Moscow is offering a number of new films to the public—a public always large and now considerably augmented as the demobilized men stream back to the capital.

Among the documentaries, first place must definitely be accorded to *Berlin*, a film produced by Yuli Raizman from material shot by 38 front-line cameramen. This film is a fitting culmination—in quality as well as in time—to the fine newsreel work of Soviet photographers during the last four years.

Raizman has made extensive use of rushes from earlier newsreel material. Shots of the final battle for the German capital are interspersed with flashbacks to Hitler's march to power, his paranoid dreams of a German "world empire" which was to include both Britain and the United States, and his attempts to enslave the Soviet Union.

Another outstanding documentary is *Alexander Pokryshkin*, devoted to the career of the famous Soviet air ace. The director, Albert Gendelstein, has succeeded in the really difficult job of recording the pilot's own particular methods of air combat. Pokryshkin believed in going after enemy pilots as well as enemy machines, and he adopted the tactics of a short rush attack from below, opening fire when at the shortest possible distance from the enemy.

Pokryshkin's methods, which he passed on to other crews, were certainly successful, for he disposed of 59 enemy planes, and 30 pilots of his own formation earned the title Hero of the Soviet Union—an honor which Pokryshkin himself won three times.

Alexander Dovzhenko—famed Ukrainian producer of *Earth*, *Ivan*, *Arsenal*, *Shchors* and other films, some of which have been shown in Great Britain—has made war documentaries, assisted by his wife, the director and actress Julia Solntseva. Two of his best have been *Battle for Soviet Ukraine* and *Victory on the Dnieper's Right Bank*. In these films, Dovzhenko has illustrated not merely the military campaigns involved but also the great mass effort of the ordinary Ukrainian people.

Several Moscow cinemas are featuring *San Francisco*, made by Maria Slavinskaya from material shot by Soviet cameramen at the United Nations Conference in California. The producer has done a fine job in high-lighting the atmosphere of friendship and cooperation between the three foreign secretaries, Molotov, Eden and Stettinius.

An interesting new film—not a documentary, although a reconstruction of an actual incident—is *Ivan Nikulin, Russian Sailor*, directed by Igor Savchenko.

Savchenko is known as the author of the historical film *Bogdan Kholmynskiy*. For some time he has been experimenting in three-color film, employing a method developed by Russian inventors. He used it for the first time in *Ivan Nikulin*.

The results are extremely interesting, the color effects being highly realistic. This new method of employing color—together with recent Soviet experiments in three-dimensional pictures—opens up wide prospects for Russian filmcraft in the near future.

Koshchei, the Immortal is the title of a recent release, now showing in Moscow. This is a fairy tale film for children directed by Alexander Rou, who has specialized in screen versions of folk tales and fairy tales for the State Children's Film Studios.

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5

New Goals in Auto Production

By I. Loskutov

By 1950 our country will not only have healed the wounds of war but also by far exceeded the prewar production level in all spheres of industry.

Let us glance into the future of the Gorky automobile works, one of the largest enterprises of its kind. Imagine it twice as powerful as at present, with shops and departments employing 90,000, and producing automobiles or trucks every minute of the day.

This is not an idle dream, but the definite goal of our plant's Five-Year Plan recently approved by the Government. As may be seen, therefore, the Gorky plant is soon to take giant strides.

When the construction of our automobile factory was begun on the banks of the Oka River on May 2, 1930, the following statement was published:

"This plant will be one of the most important fortresses of Socialist industry and a mighty factor in the defense of the country."

These words were completely fulfilled in the Patriotic War. In these four years the plant regularly exceeded its production programs and supplied the Red Army with trucks, tanks, self-propelled guns and ammunition.

Equipment worth 5,249 million rubles was produced here for the front. This includes 432 million rubles for machinery over and above the plan—all achieved with a greatly reduced staff. Average labor productivity during the war increased by 61 per cent.

Now that the fighting is over, our plant has entered upon an era of peaceful development. New and captivating problems confront us in this fourth Five-Year Plan. But our program is merely a fragment

of the great Five-Year Plan for the development of the country at large.

The part assigned to our plant reflects the importance attributed to the development of the automobile industry by our Government. The tempo of expansion of industry and agriculture will depend largely on the output of automobiles.

Joseph Stalin has frequently emphasized that revolutionary developments in motors extend to all spheres of industry directly or indirectly connected with automobile building.

Our industry will rise to unprecedented heights in this postwar period. Long before the end of hostilities the construction of new enterprises was begun; in some—Miass, Ulyanovsk, Shadrinsk—assembly lines are moving. During the fourth Five-Year Plan the USSR will acquire many new automobile works and old enterprises will be greatly enlarged, as may be seen from our production plans of the near future.

A gigantic and inspiring task is ahead—turning out 300,000 trucks and automobiles annually by the end of the new Five-Year Plan, to create an industry, the largest of its kind in Europe.

The fourth Five-Year Plan will introduce an era of new techniques. The increase in output will be based upon the production of new economical and durable models. Shops will be extended to provide up-to-date tooling methods, maximum mechanization and a further development of continuous-stream (conveyor-belt) production.

Manufacture will be completely transformed. We are preparing to turn out improved models of trucks and automobiles. While still working on war orders,

chief designer Liggart was busy with the postwar project, and Victory Day found us ready to start work on the new "Gaz" models.

Two types of trucks, the GAZ-51 and the GAZ-63, are to replace the well-known GAZ-AA and GAZ-AAA models (six-wheel drive one and one-half ton trucks). The latest passenger car will be the Victory, or M-20, and will replace the M-1.

Approval for mass production of the new designs was given by Joseph Stalin and other leading members of the Soviet Government after a special inspection arranged on June 19.

Both the GAZ-51, a two and one-half ton truck, and the GAZ-63, a four-wheel drive, have undergone strenuous and prolonged tests. With their larger carrying capacities these bodies require more powerful motors.

The new models will soon be the chief transport to be seen on Soviet roads. These dependable simple and convenient machines are capable of giving excellent service under all possible conditions.

The Victory passenger car is more reliable, comfortable and economical than its predecessor, the M-1, and more handsome. With fenders no longer protruding but merging with the chassis, the vehicle provides more space for passengers. On good roads it will travel at a rate of 110 kilometers an hour. The Victory has a four-cylinder motor of a new type.

Equipment for the shops includes better machine tools, presses and other devices, the total of which will have increased by two and one-half times by the end of the latest Five-Year Plan.

The effort to fulfill the new Plan will

be accompanied by greater advances in labor productivity, which is expected to rise 345 per cent for each worker in automobile plants, compared with prewar records, with proportionate pay increases.

The conversion to cars is to be completed rapidly. The Plan provides for accelerated tempos. We are to make no less than 45,000 Victory models in 1947. By the end of the forthcoming Five-Year Plan the level of prewar 1940 production will be exceeded four and one-half times.

The first consignment of new trucks will move out in December 1945; Victory cars are to leave the conveyors in the first half of next year.

The time assigned for conversion to mass production of new models is much shorter than former M-1 schedules. While nearly all the dies for the M-1 were purchased in the United States, such equipment now will be made by our own industry.

The transition to production of the new model will not affect the general output. The one and one-half ton trucks will be replaced gradually by the two and one-half ton machines. This, of course, will render the transition period unusually complex.

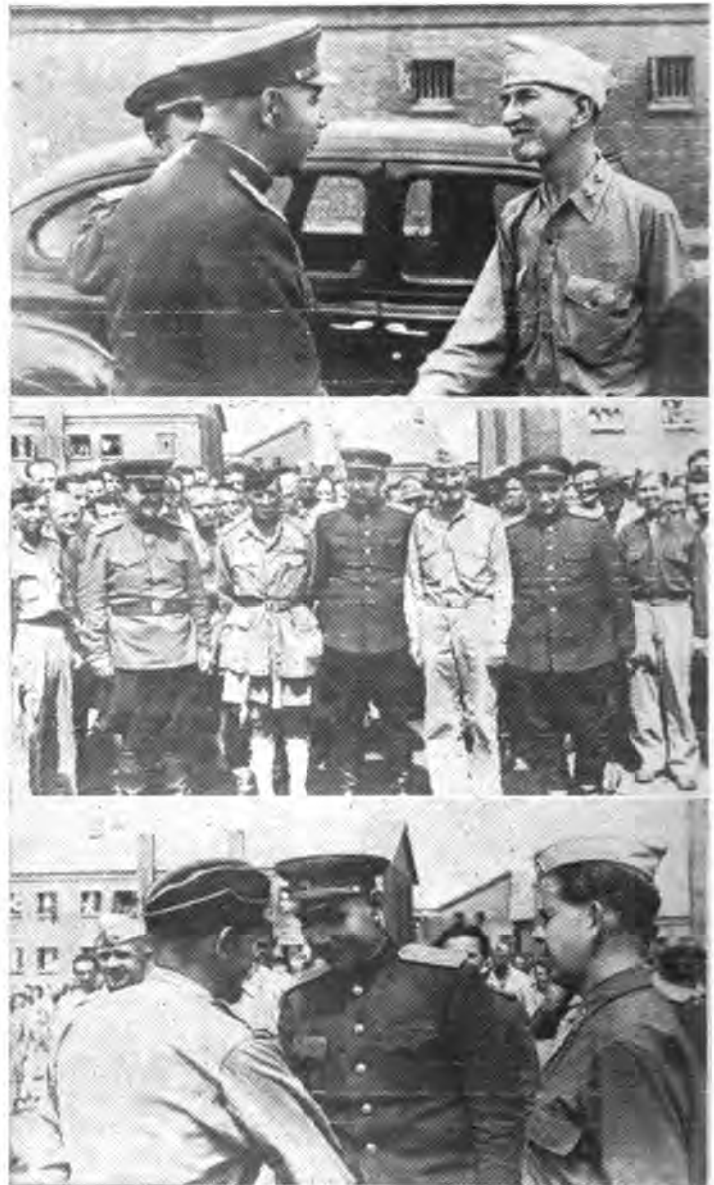
The program for our automobile plant will entail extensive capital construction, for which 420 million rubles will be assigned.

The changes are not merely material: in the next five years there will be great improvement in our employees' standard of living. The community surrounding our plant, where 130,000 workers live, will encompass an additional 100,000 square meters for an increase in housing of more than one-third.

Living conditions are steadily improving in our city. Among the latest municipal projects there are two cinemas, a theater seating 1,300, and cultural institutions. Streets and highways will be repaired and beautified with greenery.

Our Five-Year Plan chiefly proposes to improve the lot of the individual, to enable the Soviet people to live better and happier lives.

Japanese Camp for American War Prisoners



Top: Lieutenant General Tevchenkov, member of the War Council of the Transbaikalian Front, greets General Parker of the United States Army, who was liberated from imprisonment. **Center:** A group of Americans free again after years in a concentration camp stand with General Tumanyan of the Red Army (far right) and General Tevchenkov (center), who were among the first to welcome the former captives. **Bottom:** Upon his arrival at the camp, Lieutenant General Tevchenkov is received by a committee of Americans

REFUGE FOR POLISH CHILDREN

By A. Reznik

On my recent visit to the School Department of the People's Commissariat of Public Relations of the Kazakh Soviet Republic I found it looking like a parcel post department. At all the tables, stacked high with books and parcels, workers were busy writing addresses. I picked up some packages at random. On one the address read: "School for Polish Children, Jamboul." Others were being sent to Guryev, Chimkent and dozens of other cities and towns in Kazakhstan.

Each parcel contained a set of freshly printed books—Polish classics, pamphlets about Tadeusz Kosciuszko and Polish textbooks.

Boleslaw Kirschenzweig, the Polish school inspector in charge, was a teacher in his native land. Until recently Kazakhstan had been known to him only through books. But when the Germans invaded Poland, he migrated, along with thousands of his countrymen, to distant Kazakhstan in Middle Asia.

"To me Kazakhstan is no longer just a place on the map," he said. "I know the well-ordered cities, the theaters, museums,

colleges and other cultural institutions. I have seen schools in even the most out-of-the-way mountain villages.

"When the Red Army with General Berling's division has cleared Poland of the fascists and our people have returned home, we will always remember the hospitality of Kazakhstan. We will not forget what the Government has done for the Polish citizens who came here to escape from the Germans. And we are particularly grateful for what has been done for our children. For one thing, the People's Commissariat of Public Education has created the office of Polish school inspector to which I had the honor of being appointed."

Kirschenzweig went on to relate about the schools, playgrounds and nurseries that were opened for Polish children. The finest buildings were used for these institutions, a fact most appreciated by our Polish visitors, who are aware of the present over-population of Kazakhstan with its influx of millions of evacuees.

The children receive instruction in their native language. Despite the obvious hard-

ships of wartime, the local government provided special rations for the Polish children, which with the substantial help from England and America is more than adequate to meet the food requirements. Orphans and youngsters whose fathers are fighting at the front are taken care of in special boarding schools.

I have seen these things myself in a Polish school in a small district center not far from Alma-Ata, where I was invited by the school principal, Regina Flank, to attend a memorial evening in honor of Kosciuszko. I observed that the school has a well-stocked library and the necessary facilities for education.

It is a small school with only four grades—first, second, fifth and sixth, accommodating all the Polish children of school age in that town. The children look healthy and cheerful and are confident that before long they will return to their homeland.

The evening started with the singing of the Soviet and Polish National Anthems. After a talk on Tadeusz Kosciuszko, an amateur concert was held.

VISIT TO MOSCOW

Youthful Polish citizens on their way home from the Soviet Union stopped in the capital where they enjoyed a sightseeing tour. Left above: Walking through Red Square to view Lenin's Tomb and the monuments of the historic past; below: Standing in front of the Khimky station of the Moscow-Volga Canal. Right above: Guards Colonel V. Mochalov, Secretary of the All-Slav Committee with his young guests; below: The group is gathered at the Byelorussian Station in Moscow



STAFF AND COMMAND SCHOOL



A demonstration of tank movements in miniature is scrutinized by officer students of the Frunze Military Academy; (right) A study hall of the famous institution

The Frunze Military Academy, named after the noted Soviet general of the Civil War, is housed in a huge modern building erected a few years ago. A decree signed by Lenin authorized the establishment of this institution following the finest traditions of the oldest military schools in Russia.

When the Academy recently celebrated its 25th anniversary, it was awarded another order to add to its collection and received a message from Stalin summing up accomplishments and indicating the future course.

This is the school for the regimental commander, the divisional corps and army staff officers. Scrupulously picked from among the commanders on active service officers receive a well-designed theoretical and practical course. After the usual examinations they go to the front, armed with the newest achievements of military science.

"I cannot furnish you with exact data, but I will tell you this—the number of officers graduated since the war runs into the thousands," declared chief of the Academy Lieutenant General N. Verevkin-Rokhalsky.

Students are kept busy all day long. Military science alternates with general and political subjects. Independent study in the different laboratories and reading rooms is combined with training in the field under battle conditions. Sport and

exercises with sidearms are important items on the program.

The chief summoned one of his assistants, a colonel, and in his company I made a tour of the classes and laboratories.

I saw many officers from varied branches of the Army. Nearly all wore decorations and medals for the defense of Leningrad or Sevastopol.

The spacious reading room was full. Every man had a table to himself, so that no one was disturbed. Noiselessly between the tables passed the librarians.

I heard an elderly gray-whiskered general deliver a lecture on tactics. After this I was shown into a larger hall called the tankodrome, where we saw a miniature battlefield in relief, representing a valley bordered by hills, with a river, railway, highway, village and woods, and anti-tank obstructions and gun batteries. Three tanks about 40 centimeters in size and operated by electrical devices moved about this field. The movements of the little tanks were regulated at control boards, before which the officers occupied a driver's seat. They pressed the switch, changed gears for starting, running fast on the level or going up hill. The tanks reacted to every impulse. They turned to right or left, moved backward, made circuits, forced water barriers, or got stuck after a faulty operation. Guns fired and

the performance of the tanks became more complicated.

In another hall I saw a miniature artillery firing ground, to illuminate the art of directing fire.

I visited laboratories of communications, of topography and geography—everywhere eager students were bent over their books.

Then I was taken to the Historical Hall to see original documents with the signatures of Lenin and Stalin, and portraits of former chiefs of the Academy and of students who won fame on the battlefields. There I saw the picture of Vasil Chapayev, the fabulous hero of the Civil War, once a student of the Academy. Marshals of the Soviet Union Voroshilov and Budenny and many of the leading generals of the present war are also former students of the Academy. Noted Red Army leaders—Marshal Konev, the late Army General Vatutin, Marshal Voronov, commanding officer of the famed 62nd Army defending Stalingrad, Colonel General Vasili Chuikov and others—are graduates of the Academy.

"At present," the chief related, "we have a special class for Heroes of the Soviet Union. Like all students of the Academy, they study foreign languages, the most popular of which is English. Despite the fact that our students are so young, they make good progress in the study of languages, better than expected."

Discipline in Red Army

By Lieutenant Colonel Mikhail Yuryev

When Lenin created the Red Army he said that unless iron discipline was enforced the country was in danger of being trampled under the German boot. Those who violated discipline, he said, were no better than traitors.

Discipline was a decisive factor in the historic battles against the German invaders in the war. A high sense of duty and military discipline made the 28 heroic soldiers of General Panfilov's division oppose 50 German tanks during the Battle of Moscow with only hand grenades. Every one of those glorious soldiers died, but the German tanks did not pass.

Red Army discipline has certain features of its own. In the first place it is based on homogeneous class property and national interests, on the selfless devotion of each soldier to the nation, on every soldier's sense of responsibility for the defense of his country.

Soviet officers and men are not separated by walls of caste or social inequality. Irrespective of rank, they are united by a spirit of friendship and comradeship. But in action and in the line of duty, however, a Soviet officer is ex-

acting in his attitude to subordinates.

One night during an engagement, a rifle company which had advanced to the outskirts of a settlement found further progress checked by the fire of two German machine guns. The company commander ordered Sergeant Baklanov with several men to make his way to the enemy machine guns and silence them. Both the commander and Sergeant Baklanov were well aware of the difficulty of the mission.

The soldiers set out, crawling along the road ditch. German bullets flew close to the ground; enemy flares illuminated the terrain and a haystack catching fire made the road as light as day. The least careless movement would expose the group.

Suddenly it happened. The Germans caught sight of them and mortar bombs began to drop nearby. One of the men was wounded. Opening fire at the window of the cottage from which the Germans were shooting, Baklanov got one enemy machine gun. Then another Soviet soldier and Baklanov himself were hit by bomb fragments; and there still remained one German machine gun to



A heavy gun used during the fighting on the Second Byelorussian Front

be silenced. Concerned only with his duty as a soldier Baklanov, overcoming his pain, crawled up to the machine gun nest and covered the aperture with his own body. He died, but the commander's order was carried out. The way for the company was open.

Red Army man Koprov served in a company commanded by Senior Lieutenant Strigunov. Before the war, working in the same factory, they had held equal posts and had been friends. But at the front when Koprov committed a punishable offense, Strigunov did not let friendship interfere with duty, and exacted the penalty prescribed. Koprov, realizing that his commander was right, did not allow the incident to mar their relationship.

Less obvious but equally significant is the general behavior of officers and men. Exceptional correctness and observance of military dignity are practiced at all times and particularly in relations with the people of liberated countries and in occupied German cities.

Military discipline, an inviolable rule of Soviet officers and men, is one of the sources of the Red Army's strength, its triumphs and its victories.



During a rest period Red Navy men hold a discussion with Captain I. Kulagin

TENANTS AND HOME OWNERS

By S. Yerikhonov

Most of the dwellings in the Soviet Union belong to the State, to cooperatives, or to public organizations. But many individuals own their houses.

Vacant living accommodations in buildings belonging to the local Soviets are allocated on instructions issued by the housing departments of the Soviets. Homes owned by individuals are entirely at their disposal.

The right of the citizen to occupy certain premises is laid down in the lease or contract drawn up between the lessee as tenant and the lessor. The tenant has the option of renewing the lease when it expires.

Eviction takes place only as a result of a court action brought by the interested person or organization. Legal grounds for the eviction of a tenant without the provision of alternative accommodation may be: the lessee's departure to another permanent place of residence without returning to the lessor the premises formerly occupied, persistent, wanton damage caused to the premises by the lessee

or his family and non-payment of rent over a period of some months. In all other cases where the law permits eviction, the tenant must be provided with suitable alternative accommodation.

Special arrangements are made to insure that men called up for military service, or mobilized during wartime, do not lose their homes. In the case of a man living alone, the premises he occupied before being called up are retained in his name, as lessee, throughout the whole period of his military service and for six months after his discharge, if for any reason he does not return at once to his old home. In the case of a man living with his family before his call-up, the premises remain at the disposal of the family during his absence, and are returned to him on his discharge.

Tenants have the right to exchange premises with other lessees of living quarters, all rights and obligations being transferred to the new tenant.

The provision by organs of the State of housing accommodation for those liv-

ing in towns and factory settlements makes it possible to guarantee these rights.

Rents in the USSR are extremely low, charged not for profit but to recover the cost of building and maintaining the house. They are calculated according to the type of housing, the lessee's salary and the number of his dependents.

The maximum rent payable by factory and office workers is one ruble 32 kopeks per square meter per month. This maximum rent is paid only by people earning a minimum of 420 rubles per month. But an increase in salary over this amount does not lead to an increase in rent.

In calculating rent only actual living space is counted. Kitchens, corridors, bathrooms, cupboards and storerooms are not counted.

Soldiers in service are charged a special reduced rent of 80 kopeks per square meter.

In a checkup of the budgets of eighty families living in a block of flats in Moscow it was found that the rent charged amounted to no more than two to five per cent of the tenants' total income.

Rent is paid monthly in arrears.

The occupation of premises and the uses to which they are put are governed by special legislation in each of the constituent Republics of the Soviet Union. This applies particularly to the minimum amount of floor space to be provided per person. The local authorities have the right to raise this standard, but not to reduce it.

Certain categories of tenants have the right to favored treatment in this respect. Special standards have been introduced for artists, scientists and writers so as to insure living conditions that will enable them to work productively. Tenants who have to work at home—industrial and economic leaders, doctors, lawyers, etc.—also enjoy the higher standard.

Some tenants receive housing as a reward for special services rendered (Heroes of the Soviet Union, Heroes of



In Kostino, a suburb of Moscow, a community of private homes has been developed



The artist Mizin sketches a picture depicting the Battle of Stalingrad, where the bloodiest fighting in history occurred. The gutted buildings are among the few left on the scene of the great stand of the Red Army

socialist labor, state pensioners, etc.). Invalids have special rights, too.

The Soviet Government spends sub-

stantial sums on residences. In the Russian SFSR alone, 1,700,000,000 rubles were allocated for the 1945 housing program.

Atrocities Recorded by German Officer

By Mikhail Dolgoplov

One sullen day in October, 1941, a German officer visited Samuel Demenchevich Sladkoyedov, a Russian photographer living in Riga, and ordered him to develop pictures he had taken. The officer said that he would call for them the next morning. Naturally there was no question of remuneration for this work, but the photographer was bold enough to ask the officer's name.

"Harder," the German snapped, and pushed out.

Sladkoyedov started to develop the pictures.

"When I took them out of the pan and examined them in the light, my hands began to shake. I thought I was having hallucinations," Sladkoyedov told me. "The pictures revealed gallows with hanging corpses, naked bodies of dead people and other horrifying scenes. With trembling hands I washed the pictures and hung them up to dry. When I en-

larged them later, I was shocked by the gruesome details which stared back at me.

"I realized my duty as a loyal citizen of my country was to preserve these pictures as incriminating evidence against the German executioners. Working feverishly for several hours, I made copies and hid them away. The next morning I gave the pictures and negatives back to the German officer. He tossed several marks on the table and warned me not to tell anybody about this affair.

"About a month later the same officer returned bringing more pictures.

"This is how we punished the guerrillas in Grisinkaln," he said.

"The pictures showed the hanging of a Russian girl guerrilla. I saved all these terrible photos and as soon as Riga was liberated by the Red Army I turned them over to the newspapers for publication. Let all honest people know about the bloody crimes committed by

In addition, every effort is made to encourage private building.

A person who wishes to build is granted the right to do so by contract with the local Soviet. This includes the right not only to obtain a vacant lot in or near a city, but also to occupy a lot containing unfinished or damaged buildings. Leases of land are granted for 65 years in the case of brick buildings, and for 50 years in the case of wooden buildings.

In the Soviet Union private builders are granted credits by the State bank and are guaranteed the necessary materials. Persons who obtain loans are under an obligation to invest not less than 30 per cent of the total cost in the building. This sum, incidentally, may be contributed partly by a man's own labor in building the house. Loans are given for five years at an interest of two per cent. Building rights are transferable.

All Soviet housing laws aim at protecting the rights of the working people and at insuring the provision of good and cheap living accommodations.

the Hitlerite hangmen and recorded by one of their officers."



Picture taken by a German officer shows a soldier removing the boots from a victim of the Nazis



In the Realm of Sports

By Stander

Leonid Meshkov last week sliced three seconds off the time of the Swede Arne Borg, for the 200-meter crawl, to set a new European record of 2:08.9 and become the world's number six swimmer. Meshkov is unique in that he is equally versatile in the breast stroke and the crawl. Pitted against him on the one hand is Semyon Boichenko, who holds the world's title for the 100 and 200-meter breast stroke, and on the other, Vitali Ushakov, who ranks with Europe's best in the crawl.

In this contest of one against two, Meshkov came through with flying colors. At first he shared honors in the breast stroke with Boichenko, who was first in the 100 and 200-meter events, Meshkov taking the 400 and 500-meter. Two years ago Boichenko began to waver, yielding the 200-meter to Meshkov and then the 100-meter.

In competition with Ushakov, Meshkov failed to surpass the record for the 100-meter distance (0:57.5), but in the rest—200, 300, 400—Meshkov set three new Soviet records in the course of one week.

Several months ago Meshkov began training seriously in the breast stroke and soon swam the 100-meter distance in 1:06.3—one second better than the official time made by an American.

That very day Vitali Ushakov dropped in to say that he had become Europe's number one swimmer for the 400-meter. While Meshkov had been attacking Boichenko's records in the breast stroke, Ushakov had sneaked up and made a new record in the crawl.

Meshkov went over to the crawl the next day. Training to take back the record for 400 meters, he began with the 200 and set a brilliant new high. But Meshkov did not drop the breast stroke to break the record for 200 meters alone. He is out for bigger game.

Meanwhile Boichenko can rest in



Semyon Boichenko, holder of several world records for breast stroke, takes a diving start

peace. Meshkov's artillery is trained on Ushakov.

Another sportsman has added a new marathon swim to his total of more than 10,000 kilometers—100 kilometers in the Danube in 17 hours 54 minutes 47 seconds. He is Iskander Faizulin, a Tatar by nationality, a doctor by profession and a Muscovite by prewar habitation. Now he is a Captain in the Red Army Medical Service and is stationed in Hungary with his regiment.

Faizulin was always noted for his extraordinary endurance and capacity for work. He has combined study for State exams at medical school with coaching duties at a sports society and training for the All-Union aquatic meets in the Black Sea.

Fifteen years ago at the age of 20

he made his debut as a long-distance swimmer in the 15-kilometer event in the Moscow River. Now he has realized his ambition to better the Soviet long-distance record of 69 kilometers in 13 hours 11 minutes.

Some of the details of this latest swim, in the Danube at Budapest, were told by an observer just returned from the Hungarian capital. Starting at dawn 100 kilometers from Budapest and accompanied by a rowboat bearing the judges, Faizulin covered the first 40 kilometers without any special difficulties and rallied to overcome fatigue at the halfway mark.

Only 25 kilometers from the goal at dusk Faizulin began to have a hard time of it. But the twinkling lights of Budapest ahead gave the swimmer added strength.

On the bank, at the Parliament Building, Faizulin was met by a cheering throng, notwithstanding the late hour. Congratulations and gifts were showered on him by representatives of the Soviet Command, the Hungarian Ministry of War and Hungarian sports organizations.

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RURAL PLANNING

By L. Irin

With the war over the thoughts of millions are now turned to peace and replacing the homes, farms and public buildings the enemy razed. Although even during the war the liberated areas applied themselves vigorously to rehabilitation, a great burden of work is still to be done.

No natural calamity could compare with the wreckage done by the Nazi armies when early in the war they seared their way deep into the USSR. In Byelorussia alone the invaders razed over 200,000 homes, farms, hospitals and schools. In the Ukraine they burned a million cottages and farm buildings. Equally appalling figures may be cited for every area of the Russian SFSR occupied by the Germans. In numerous cases entire villages were obliterated.

Now the process has reversed. A building campaign is in full swing. It is planned systematic drive to construct new farmhouses and rural settlements providing the maximum of comfort and convenience. Architects have joined hands with farmers and builders to find the best solution for each problem.

In the architectural offices of the USSR People's Commissariat of Agriculture there is a blueprint for a model farmstead. It is a one-story house surrounded by a vegetable garden and orchard and with a well, root house, shed, barn, pigsty and poultry-run on the grounds. There are five rooms, totaling 42 square meters of floor space, a porch, large pantries and a bath. Designed for the average collective farm family, the plan is to be used in wooded areas of the RSFSR and Byelorussia.

This is one of the ten model projects presented in the All-Union Contest of Architects, in which some of the most noted representatives of the profession took part,

among them Members of the Academy of Architecture Alexander Vesnin and Nicholas Colley, Corresponding Member Ivan Sobolev, and Eugene Mordvishov and Vladimir Munts. The projects offer variety in layout and materials.

The approved plans and the working drawings to go with them have already been distributed to the devastated areas where they are being put to use. As a rule, the builders make only slight adjustments, mainly to conform with national and local peculiarities and customs, or to adapt designs to the building materials available.

It is a unique undertaking—a mass production of farm homes. At the same time there is a promise of great beauty for the countryside.

The sweeping program of construction requires tremendous organization. During the past few months the Governments of the RSFSR, the Ukraine and Byelorussia have created the necessary departments as well as rural planning institutes and a chain of warehouses to supply materials to the collective farmers and to the regional and district construction offices. The personnel of the district administration is to include an architect, engineer and surveyor. Tens of thousands of experts will be engaged in the vast country-wide enterprise.

In order to solve the labor problem which a program as ambitious as this presents, the Union Republic governments have recommended that building crews be formed by the members of each collective farm. The Ukrainians, for example, believe that a collective farm of 100 households is itself capable of building as many as ten or fifteen cottages a year.

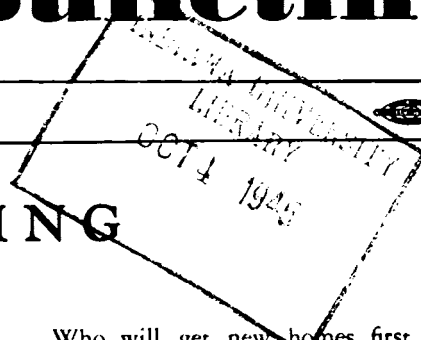
Who will get new homes first is a decision for the farm membership. The present practice is to give preference to men who served in the war and widows and orphans of men killed at the front. Each person is, of course, entitled to choose his own blueprint. The farmers may pay for their cottages in annual installments divided over a period of years.

These rural settlements introduce village planning in the USSR. Instead of building without regard for the community as a whole—as has been the rule for centuries—a general design is to be followed for each village.

The first steps in this direction have already been taken. A team of architects and engineers was sent to Byelorussia last year where it worked out the ground plans for several villages in the Rudinskoye District of the Minsk Region. This was one of the centers of the Byelorussian guerrilla movement and suffered most heavily.

A ground plan drawn up for the village of Uzlyany serves as a model to be adapted to local conditions in the construction of other rural settlements. The Uzlyany plan calls for one broad street branching out into two at its western extremity, where the social center, school and hospital will be located. The library, dispensary, secondary school, children's nursery and kindergarten will be grouped together in a central location. Adjacent to these public buildings is a park, and the collective farm barns, stables, granaries, warehouses and workshops will have a similar arrangement to make them readily accessible.

The villagers themselves made fundamental suggestions which were accepted by the authors of the scheme. Recently another group of Moscow architects ar-



rived in Byelorussia to plan two other districts.

In the Ukraine where the idea of launching this vast rural construction program first arose and where there are many local architects, planning is being done by local forces, and in the near future the Republic will have projects ready for

thousands of villages. The construction of a village in Kiev Region inaugurated this year is regarded as a sort of "university" of rural construction for that Republic.

Building materials present no problem for either the Ukraine or Byelorussia, and many areas of the RSFSR have sufficient local supplies. To make use of

native raw materials one or two small brick, tile or lime kilns, and additional factories are to be set up in each district. Byelorussia will have 350 brick and tile kilns this year, each with an annual capacity of 1,500,000 bricks and 300,000 tiles. Two additional plants are planned for each district next year.

Queen of the Battlefield

By Colonel Sergei Gurov

The Second World War left no doubt as to the importance of the infantry, still a major force in the armies of today and the queen of the battlefield.

But in modern warfare the infantry, unless it is supported by tanks and aircraft, is seriously hampered in battle. An army inadequately supplied with tanks and aircraft, left to fight with only its infantry weapons today has a formidable task. But if it is well equipped and well trained for action against tanks and aircraft it still has a chance to hold the front and even, if conditions are favorable, to gain local success. If on the other hand the infantry is poorly armed and is untrained for combating the enemy's war technique, it will yield to the power of motors, and the front is bound to collapse.

An army well-armed with tanks, aircraft and artillery stands the best chance to win. But no matter how well-equipped, if the infantry is poorly prepared for modern battle, which demands ability and initiative as well as courage and tenacity,

this army will still be defeated ultimately.

The Germans' advance into Poland in 1939 and into France in 1940 was carried out in good tempo—an average of 40 to 45 kilometers a day.

German motorized and mechanized forces drove wedges into enemy positions and split them, and without consolidating positions or securing flanks continued the forward movement. In the rear of the mobile units came the infantry and the artillery which completed the rout and cleared the captured territory.

The Germans aimed at disorganizing the enemy; creating the impression of an encirclement of part of the units and groups, their object was to sow panic in the rear and thus force a retreat.

But in the fighting in Poland and in the West, the weak points of the enemy's tactics already became manifest. Moving in fast tempo the German mechanized forces lost contact with the rear, and the corridor through which this force passed remained unfilled. Should the wedge have

been forced from either side of the passage, mobile groups would have found themselves completely cut off from the rear, isolated from the main force, and they could have been surrounded and wiped out.

But to combat this mobile force a staunch, well-trained and well-armed infantry was needed. This infantry did not have to fear encirclement; it did not have to run from tanks but boldly to face them.

But neither the Polish nor the French armies were prepared for modern battle for the struggle against mechanical equipment. Nor did either have sufficient tanks or aircraft. The result was that infantry units withdrew as soon as the German tanks or motorcyclists cut a passage in their positions or penetrated to the rear and the front collapsed.

In the first months of the war the Red Army was also short of tanks and aircraft, and the infantry with the artillery had to bear the brunt of the assault of German tanks until Soviet industries were able to supply the Army with sufficient quantities of tanks and aircraft.

It is evident that the Red Army infantry and artillery did not fail in the task confronting them.

As is remembered, the Germans reached the Poles in a month and defeated the Allied Army in the West in approximately the same time. Hitler hoped to finish the war in Russia in six weeks or two months.

But here he miscalculated. It took the Germans five and one-half months to reach Moscow, and then they were hurled back 400 kilometers.



Tank-supported troops moving up onto enemy positions



Infantry units participating in the First of May parade in Moscow

How is it that the Germans failed to achieve a decisive victory on the Soviet-German Front in the first months of the war when the Red Army was so thoroughly outmatched in tanks?

The reason is that the infantry was well prepared for the struggle against tanks, and its morale was excellent. Red Army officers and soldiers followed the Suvorov principle—the enveloping enemy is himself enveloped—and therefore when German tanks broke through to the rear of Soviet infantrymen and tried encirclement, the threatened group did not run and run, but took countermeasures to surround and exterminate the enemy. Soviet infantrymen employed their own means to combat enemy tanks. These were: anti-tank guns and rifles, bundles of hand grenades and incendiary bottles. Russian soldiers fought gallantly and when the necessity arose sacrificed themselves to hold up the tanks.

Soviet people know about the unflinching heroism of the 28 Panfilovites who, in the autumn of 1941, stopped 50 tanks—in the first echelon and 30 in the second. They beat back the first attack with incendiary bottles and hand grenades: one of the tanks was destroyed, the remainder withdrew. But then came another

30, and Commander Klochkov addressed the survivors with these words: "Friends, the Soviet Union is a large country, but retreat is impossible; behind us is Moscow. We shall have to die, but the enemy tanks shall not get through." And the gallant few did die, but the tanks were stopped.

Never will Soviet people forget the brave feat of three seamen near Sevastopol in the spring of 1942 who, when they had expended all their ammunition in the struggle against the German tanks, tucked the remaining hand grenades in their belts, walked out to meet the German tanks and, when they approached, hurled themselves under the tracks. They died, but they also blew up the tanks.

That was how the Red Army combated tanks when it had few of its own and was short of anti-tank self-propelled guns. It was then that the German infantry proved incapable of dealing with the situation. The infantry of the German army was ready to advance preceded by tanks, but not otherwise. Without tanks it could not stand up to the Soviet troops.

Then came the time when Soviet industries supplied the troops with sufficient numbers of tanks, aircraft and guns, and the Red Army passing over to the offensive drove the Germans west.

In this phase of the war the Red Army showed it was a force well prepared for modern warfare. It was mobile, staunch and able to overcome all obstacles, defense zones, water barriers and mountain chains. In street fighting Red Army men were unbeaten masters.

Given lorries, the Soviet infantry never lagged behind the mobile units; it left no break between itself and the forward echelon's tanks as did the German infantry in the first stage of the war. That is why the Germans could never break away from the numerous "wessels," that is why the wessels were so tightly closed that neither from the inside nor outside could the Germans break the ring.

The Red Army fought bitter defensive battles in the early days of the war; then in the offensive it showed its true strength. After overcoming endless "walls" and other barriers, the infantry and other branches of the Red Army finished off the Nazi beast in his own lair and hoisted the Victory flag over Berlin.

History of English Literature

By Professor Mikhail Morozov

In 1939 a group of Soviet specialists under the auspices of the Institute of World Literature of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR began a history of English literature. The chief danger in writing a history of this kind is of losing the thread of consecutive narrative and turning the whole thing into a mere reference book or literary encyclopedia.

On the other hand, a generous allowance of factual material must be included to satisfy the needs of teachers who will use the work as a handbook.

The first part of Volume I of our history, which appeared in 1943, takes us to Marlowe's time. To this our first venture M. Alexeyev made distinguished contributions on Anglo-Saxon folklore, the monastic literature of the early Middle Ages, allegorical literature of the 14th century, and 15th century drama. Studies of Chaucer and Marlowe were provided by A. Dzhivelegov. I myself wrote a short chapter on Francis Bacon.

Our "collective" of authors was sadly depleted during the war. M. Zabludovsky, a student of Swift, volunteered for the front, and was reported missing. B. Kuzmin, distinguished for his researches into 18th century English literature, died of wounds. M. Guther, a great lover of English poetry—in particular, of Keats—died at Leningrad.

The second part of our first volume appeared in time for the 220th Anniversary celebrations of the Academy of Sciences. The principal chapters deal with Shakespeare, Ben Jonson, Renaissance drama after Shakespeare, Milton, Restoration drama, English 18th century drama, 18th century sentimental poetry, pre-romanticism and the Gothic novel. Before his death, our colleague Kuzmin completed a chapter on Goldsmith. We have been able to include an essay on William Blake by the late M. Guther.

Our survey of Dickens, Thackeray and their contemporaries is now ready. The last volume will deal with contemporary English literature.

Family Life in Gorky

By C. Meyerovich



The whole Koshelev family visits the theater on Sunday evening. Young and old enjoy the performance of the touring Moscow Art Theater



The group at breakfast: Lev Koshelev is seated at the head of the table. To his right are his granddaughter Galina, daughter Vera, son Yevgeni and his wife Vera and daughter-in-law Pauline. To the left are his wife Anastasya, son Mikhail and wife Antonina, and Grandson Oleg



The opera the Koshelevs are attending is *La Traviata*. Music and drama are popular recreation for this typical household of an industrial city

Where the Oka River meets the Volga spreads Gorky, the sixth largest city in the USSR. Here, in one of the largest industrial and cultural centers of the Soviet Union, live more than half a million people.

Lev Koshelev, a Russian forge-shop worker who was born 65 years ago in Gorky, then Nizhni-Novgorod, has spent his whole life in the ancient Russian city.

He has five sons and a daughter, all of whom have received a higher or secondary technical education.

The oldest son, Yevgeni, graduated from the Leningrad State University and is now employed as a designing engineer in the same factory where his father works. After Alexei completed his education at the Gorky Industrial Institute he worked for a while as an assistant shop superintendent. Today he holds a responsible Government position in Kaluga.

Mikhail, who studied in a machine-building school, is now working as a foreman in the same forge shop with his father. The daughter Vera, who was also trained at the machine school, has a job in the designing department of a factory.

Two of the Koshelev men were at the front. Thirty-three-year-old Sergei, a colonel of Soviet artillery, received three decorations.

Captain Peter Koshelev, a navigator also distinguished himself in action and was awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union. He has won several citations.

According to Soviet law Lev Koshelev is not obliged to work but is entitled to an old-age pension and to maintenance from his children for the rest of his life. But an ardent patriot, he gave his labor in the war and now gives his support to the tasks of peace.

He remembers everything that has been done by the country for the welfare of his family—the education and opportunities they have enjoyed.

Fighting and working, the Koshelev family contribute their energy and skill to the struggle of progressive mankind.



A letter from the front for the Koshelevs from son Peter



Play with the grandchildren—a morning ritual before work



Father and son are in the same department of a forge shop



Lev Koshlev has lunch in the factory dining room



Daughter-in-law Vera reads the newspaper to a group of wounded servicemen in a war hospital



The children of Colonel Sergei Koshlev listen to a fairy tale read by their mother



Designing engineer Yevgeni, the oldest son, created weapons for the Great Patriotic War



Modern machinery in use at the forge shop where Lev Koshlev and son Mikhail are employed

FOUNDER OF RUSSIAN MICROBIOLOGY

By N. Ryasentseva

At the celebrations of the 220th Anniversary of the founding of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, special honors were paid to Honorary Member Professor Nikolai Gamaleya, who is now in his 86th year and whose scientific career has extended over a period of 65 years.

Professor Gamaleya, the sole surviving disciple of Pasteur, is regarded as the father of Russian microbiology.

After graduation from the University of Odessa, in the city of his birth, he at once entered upon his scientific activities. His education was continued at the Army Medical Academy in St. Petersburg, with summer vacation periods being spent in research work in Strassburg.

In 1884 the Odessa Society of Physicians sent him to Paris to study Pasteur's method of inoculation against rabies. On his return he founded the Pasteur station in Odessa, the first outside of Paris, and introduced inoculation against hydrophobia in Russia.

The succeeding years of his life have been replete with scientific discoveries and innovations.

Academician Gamaleya made the first tubercular cultures in bouillon and to demonstrate the toxic properties of dead tubercular bacteria, for which accomplishment he was decorated and awarded a prize by the French Government.

Likewise the first to demonstrate that the diphtheria toxin could be rendered harmless by pepsin, he initiated as well the preparation of vaccine against anthrax and the practice of preventive inoculation against typhus in Russia.

At the end of the last century he took an active part in the campaign to stamp out cholera in Transcaucasia, in the South of Russia and in St. Petersburg. He showed that water supply systems may be a cause of the disease and it was the adoption of the measures he proposed to prevent the pollution of water sources that helped overcome the epidemic.

Equally successful was his campaign against the plague in Odessa in 1904. He discovered the breed of rat which



From the painting by Pavel Korin
Academician Nikolai Gamaleya

was the bearer of the plague and the initial campaign organized to exterminate rats in a large city was effective in eliminating the disease.

In 1917 as director of the Smallpox Institute in Petrograd he obtained legislation for compulsory vaccination all over Russia.

Parallel with his research work Gamaleya maintains pedagogical activities. He is chief of the Chair of Microbiology in the Moscow Second Medical College and is advisor to a number of other Moscow institutions. In addition he takes an active part in all conferences of microbiologists and is the chairman of the Society of Microbiologists and Epidemiologists of the USSR. He is also a member of the Paris Biological Society.

In the early period of the war when the Academy of Sciences evacuated to Kazakhstan Professor Gamaleya went along, and he continued his scientific work.

In a recent interview the scientist said: "Borovoye", (the town in Kazakhstan to which the Academy had evacuated), "is a wonderful health resort. It has at least as many sunny days in the year as our celebrated Kislovodsk. While I was there

I studied the locality from the point of view of its suitability for the cure of consumptives, and have written a book on the subject and delivered a number of lectures to members of the Academy and to physicians.

"In 1943 I founded a laboratory in Borovoye with funds supplied by the People's Commissariat of Health of the USSR, for the testing of a new method I have invented of treating tubercular patients. It was applied with very good results in a nearby Army tuberculosis sanatorium and in the tuberculosis center of the town of Shuchinsk. On my return to Moscow I continued my experiments with even more fruitful results.

"I have also returned to my studies of the etiology of malignant ulcers. I have long been interested in the dread disease of cancer and the substance known as the 'miraculous bacillus'.

"I am now continuing my study of the properties of the 'miraculous bacillus.' It has been found that injections of the preparation induce an acute fever in rabbits, and fever, as we know, often has a powerful curative effect.

"While I was in Kazakhstan, I prepared a second edition of my *Textbook of Microbiology* and also wrote chapters on 'The Cure of Malaria,' 'The Dialectics of Infections,' 'The History of Streptocide,' 'Pathology and Physiology of Old Age' and 'The History of Russian Microbiology' for my forthcoming book, *Achievements of Microbiology*.

"I am also writing reminiscences of Pasteur, Koch, Mechnikov, Roux and other scientists."

Stadium at Kiev

One of the largest stadiums in the Soviet Union—to accommodate 60,000 spectators—is now being built in the capital of the Ukraine. The stadium is to be named after Nikita Krushchev, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the Ukrainian Soviet Republic.

Conversation in a Law Office

By B. Izakov

On a recent visit with a friend—a lawyer—the conversation turned to the German war criminals. The lawyer's assistant, a young woman who had recently graduated from law school, joined the discussion which ran as follows:

Woman: It is nearly three months since the end of the war in Europe, and the chief war criminals have not yet been tried. Isn't it high time they were brought to justice?

First man: You are right, Masha, and I think it won't be long now.

Woman: It is essential that, along with Goering, Hess, Ribbentrop, Ley and the rest of the gang, those who backed them should also be put on trial.

First man: Whom do you mean?

Second man: I suppose Masha is referring to the German industrial and financial magnates.

Woman: Yes, it was Krupp, Voegler, Reschling, Schnitzler, Stinnes and other big industrialists and financiers who placed Hitler in power. It was they who for years subsidized the Nazi Party until it became strong enough to establish its rule over the entire country. It was their gold that paved Hitler's way to power.

First man: You speak as if you were reading an indictment, Masha. Go on. What are the other points?

Woman: After the Nazis came to power it was the leading corporations which became the undivided masters of Germany—the United Steel Works, Krupp, I. G. Farbenindustrie, Rhenish Westphalian Coal Syndicate, AEG Company etc. It was they who prompted the Nazis to issue the slogan, "Guns Instead of Butter." It was on their instructions that the Second World War was unleashed.

First man: And what would you say if you were confronted with an argument to the effect that there were differences between the Nazis and industrialists and financiers?

Second man: This idea has rather wide

currency in some British and American circles.

Woman: I know. This false idea was deliberately spread by the Germans themselves. But we know well enough that there is not a grain of truth in it. The Nazis came to power as the obedient servants of the industrial and financial barons. The Nazi leaders made haste to line their pockets and to become a part of Germany's plutocracy. Hitler and Goebbels were proprietors of the largest German publishing houses. They owned printing plants, palaces and villas. Hess, Himmler, Ley and Ribbentrop also became millionaires.

First man: And what about Goering? You seem to have forgotten him.

Woman: Certainly not. I left him for last. This fat Nazi symbolized the undivided sway of the Germany plutocratic upper crust and Nazi chieftains. It was not for others that Goering conceived the idea of a four-year plan of preparation for war. He was founder of the huge Hermann Goering concern. In the years of war and the occupation of the western European continent, the Hermann Goering Company swallowed numerous enterprises in occupied countries. Goering became the richest man in Germany, and one of the richest in the world.

First man: Not only Goering, but all German rulers, from Hitler down to the smallest industrialist in the Ruhr, made capital of the war and the sufferings of European peoples. All of them took part in the looting of occupied territories, stole mills and factories, stocks and bank funds, museum pieces and other treasures—anything on which they could lay their criminal hands. They also jointly took part in forcing millions of foreign workers into slave labor.

Woman: They engaged in robbery and shared the loot. According to the laws of any country they must all be called to account for their joint crimes.

First man: Our Soviet laws have made a special point of the responsibility of the instigators and organizers of crime.

Second man: The conclusion is that the Krupps, Schnitzlers and Stinnes' must be put in the dock along with the Goerings, Hesses and Ribbentrops.

First man: Exactly.

Woman: It would promote the cause of European peace if the magnates of German industry and finance were severely punished. For, as a matter of fact, they are already hatching new intrigues against peace.

First man: What intrigues?

Woman: In the first place, there are their efforts to preserve the German war industries intact. What other purpose can they have in this except to prepare for another war? And with the purpose of paving the way for a third world war the German imperialists are trying to set the Allies at odds. A case in point is Alfred Hugenberg's memorandum recently reported in the press.

First man: Alfred Hugenberg is no novice at the game. He was quite prominent in Germany after the First World War. The proprietor of large newspapers, publishing houses and movie concerns, he was one of those who liberally financed the Nazi Party before its accession to power.

Second man: Hitler showed his gratitude to Hugenberg by including him in his first cabinet.

Woman: Now Hugenberg has submitted to the Allies a document in the form of a memorandum on economic questions in which he raises the bogey of "the Bolshevik peril" in Germany.

First man: That is a familiar tune. German rulers spoke the same way after the First World War. Apparently they have forgotten nothing of the old and have learned nothing new.

Woman: Only a severe sentence by the tribunal of the United Nations can teach them their lesson.

Notes on Soviet Life

For exemplary fulfillment of military tasks set by the Supreme Commander-in-Chief in the struggle against the Japanese imperialists, Hero of the Soviet Union Marshal A. M. Vasilevsky has been given a second Gold Star Medal.

Marshal R. Y. Malinovsky has been awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union, and Marshal K. A. Meretskov the Order of Victory.

★

Seven technical schools being opened in Lithuania this year will train people as zootechnicians, soil experts, mechanizers of agriculture and other specialists. Farm youth in large numbers are enrolling.

★

The Crimea wine industry is flourishing once more. Long-neglected vineyards again are in order with row after row of heavy blue and red clusters. Last year the half-ruined Massandra winery produced 2,000 tons of grapes, 2 million liters of wine, and stored 1,300,000 liters of the finest wines. This year the output will be increased by one and one-half million liters, and the assortment will be more varied. The collection of rare old wines which had been evacuated during the war has been returned to the Massandra cellars.

★

Total deposits in savings banks increased 1 billion 158 million rubles in the first six months of this year, which is a record figure for savings in the Soviet Union.

★

The Council of People's Commissars of the Russian SFSR will award prizes for the best works in the pedagogical sciences. The Presidium of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences will consider all original papers on the theory and history of pedagogy, school hygiene and psychology as well as outstanding works on teaching methods and textbooks. Premiums will be presented in 1946.

The All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions is giving special consideration to the question of employment of the invalids of the Patriotic War. Stolyarov, assistant to the People's Commissar of Local Industry, and Anufriev, Secretary of the CCTU, reports that from 25 to 50 per cent of the war invalids in their enterprises hold responsible posts or are engaged in highly skilled work.

★

Soviet geologists have found potable water in the Kzyl-Kumy desert, a great economic discovery for Uzbekistan. The largest Astrakhan sheep farms are situated in the southwestern part of the desert where formerly the population and cattle relied on very few wells. Several new artesian wells have been drilled on three State farms and in one pasture under the direction of the geologists. Each yields enough water for 15,000 head of sheep, a sharp contrast to the old wells which supplied only 800 to 1,000 animals. The projected increase in the number of artesian wells will make it possible to convert this part of the desert into a blossoming oasis.

★

One of the most complicated projects of reconstruction is being undertaken in Petrodvorets (formerly Peterhof) near Leningrad. The famous fountains in the parks of the Peter I Palace, which were destroyed by the Germans, will be completely restored.

Built early in the 18th century this system of unique fountains has miles of buried pipelines and 350 waterspouts.

★

On bicycles presented by Marshal Leonid Govorov, the 16 best pupils of the Boys' Secondary Railway School have started out on a ten-day race from Leningrad to Moscow. Their route lies through Novgorod, Kalinin, Klin and places in battlegrounds of the Soviet-German Fr

Professor Mikhail Kondak of the Sugar Industry Research Institute has invented a drill for sowing sugar beets. Under the previous system, an extra quantity of beet seed was sown and this required additional labor for thinning out the sprouts. Kondak's drill controls the intervals between seeds.

Experiments have shown that the new device reduces the necessary seed by one-fourth, and the labor required 40 per cent.

The new apparatus is being tested in the various districts on a total area of 750 acres.

Kondak's drill can also be used in planting corn, peas and sunflowers.

★

Fourteen avio-medical stations exist in Ukrainian cities, and send doctors by plane to remote spots of the Republic. During the first six months of this year planes carried 1000 doctors where they were needed and transferred 66 patients to hospitals.

★

A splendid first postwar tobacco crop is ripening on the Caucasus plantations, and the leaves are being gathered in Abkhazia, Adjaria and Kakheta.

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5

Scientific Work in the Universities

By E. Finn

In all Soviet higher schools considerable scientific research is carried out. This work is done by the professors and assistants and there are, in addition, special scientific assistants as well as the most talented students of the senior courses. According to the figures of the Committee for Higher Schools, Soviet universities and institutes have 4,000 Doctors of Science, and over 10,000 Candidates of Science on their staffs, all of whom do research in addition to their pedagogical work. In many of the higher schools the work is under the supervision of academicians and Corresponding Members of the Academy of Sciences.

The war with its greater strain on the nation had its effect in the world of scientific research. The workers more intensely than ever cooperated in solving problems which were of significance to the war effort and the country's economy. For that many of the universities and institutes were not great scientific centers before the outbreak of the war. Among such centers were the Moscow University, the Urals Industrial Institute in Sverdlovsk, the Tomsk Medical Institute and the Leningrad Polytechnical Institute.

What the war did was to increase the number of such scientific centers.

We could cite dozens of illustrations of the significance of the work being done in these institutions. In the Moscow higher technical courses a new technology for simplified casting was conceived which raised the general productivity of war-plant foundries. The same higher school evolved standard tools for metal cutting. The implementation of these inventions in the munitions industry resulted in the savings of thousands of millions of rubles. Among other important problems solved is the gas generator and the construction of various improved machine-tool devices.

Moscow University has done much work on the prevention of corrosion and developing the instruments needed in war industries. The Moscow Auto-Mechanical Institute has worked out a process for the renovation of electrical equipment in captured automobiles, found methods for converting internal-combustion automobiles into cars driven by gas generators, at the same time developing new types of gas generators.

The Moscow Chemico-Technological



The action of electric current on blood is studied by V. Morev, who is completing a thesis for a Candidate of Science degree

Institute has done considerable investigation in cement. The achievements of Soviet medicine are known to the whole world. Much work in the field has been done in the medical institutes, including the effective treatment of wounds, prevention of shock, blood transfusion and the discovery of new medicines.

With the scope of scientific research expanding to such an extent a central body was necessary to prevent the duplication of work. It was this need that gave rise to the special department in the Committee of Higher Schools, headed by Professor Kulma Zhigach.

Professor Zhigach's first report to the Committee was heard with profound interest. A number of scientists have been



In spite of extensive damage from bombing, the buildings of Moscow State University have been made ready for the new academic year

called upon to propose plans for scientific research. Working in eleven sections to plan scientific work in the higher schools are 35 Academicians, 18 Corresponding Members of the Academy and almost 300 professors. Various People's Commissariats have sent in assignments to the sections to be completed in the next

two or three years. Almost a thousand such tasks have been received. Other requests made by various national Academies of Sciences and other bodies bring the total number up to several thousand. The section on Metallurgy and Machine-Building alone has some 2,000 themes under consideration.

This is not the first year that scientific work has been organized under a plan in the Soviet Union. The Academy of Sciences has always planned its work before the beginning of each year, with discussion of proposed projects beginning in the autumn. The same method of open discussion will be practiced in the higher schools.

CAN SCIENCE BE PLANNED?

By A. Joffe,

Director of the Physico-Technical Institute



Academician Joffe receiving the "For Defense of Leningrad" medal

Can scientific research be planned? This question long the subject of heated argument still is argued abroad. There are people who claim that the fulfillment of any plan is incompatible with the private initiative of a scientist: that aiming at the solution of practical problems in industry, agriculture, transport or defense, hampers the study of essentially theoretical problems.

Yet the experience of science in the Soviet Union shows that these and other contradictions advanced by opponents of State participation in the guidance of scientific endeavor are purely imaginary—they disappear upon closer scrutiny.

It will be seen that the planning of scientific research is not only possible but also essential, if science is to play a maximum role in the advancement of the culture, economy and standard of living of the people. Inasmuch as the aim of the

Soviet State is to promote the speediest possible growth of knowledge and the national economy and the people's prosperity, it cannot but regard the pace of scientific development as a matter of first importance. Hence the all-out aid the Soviet Government renders scientists, and the interest both Government and people display in the direction and objectives of scientific investigation.

Not as in a Factory

It would be a mistake, however, to think that the same methods of planning are applicable to science as to, say, rationing foodstuffs in wartime, or to industrial planning. If in a factory there is the capacity of machinery and the number of workers to go by, in creative scientific work there are not the same concrete data on which to base a plan. As a matter of fact, if a scientist could tell exactly

what he was going to discover in the future, there would be no need for establishing goals.

A plan in science is only a guide to the research worker as to where to begin and what to aim for. There can be no question of fulfillment in a factory. But the scientist does not work for the plan—the plan is there to help the scientist, by enabling him to employ available material resources and personnel with maximum effectiveness.

Sometimes in the course of a research undertaking a scientist discovers facts which run counter to his expectations and make it necessary to alter his original aims and intentions or even to abandon them completely. In such cases the entire conception of the research worker's labor may be changed, regardless of the fact that his plan was approved and filed away by the Academy. But since the range of investigations is not determined by the pecuniary interests of a manufacturer but by the requirements of the nation, embracing every imaginable field of endeavor, there is really nothing to hamper initiative.

By way of illustration I can cite my own experience of my own in May 1930 at a time when our country was still comparatively poor and everything was being directed towards the fulfillment of the First Five-Year Plan.

My colleagues at the Physico-Technical Institute and I thought it essential to begin work on the atomic nucleus. We were worried, however, because it was the middle of the year, when appropriations for our work had already been made, and

the new research work we had outlined required an additional expenditure of several hundred thousand rubles.

I went to Sergei Orjonikidze, who was Chairman of the Supreme Council of National Economy, put the matter before him and in literally ten minutes left his office with an order signed by him authorizing the sum. Once started, we continued work on the atomic nucleus for fifteen years, an essential part of our plan.

The only research worker who is discouraged by the existence of a plan is one who pursues only his own inclination. It is even for those working for themselves, neglecting the interests of their contemporaries and perhaps even succeeding generations, some place is always left in the general plan. It is required only that any important results of their work be reported and published. As the late W. H. Bragg put it, a scientist can only be proud of not being of service to anyone.

Theory and Practice

Soviet science has shown that there is no contradiction between an applied science serving the immediate needs of the nation, and a science dealing with theoretical problems that promise nothing except the advancement of knowledge in general. We cannot imagine a sound development of either of these two branches of science if isolated from each other.

By now it is clear to everyone how important was the role our scientists played in securing the victory over Hitlerite Germany by rendering direct aid to the Army and industry. Yet, at the same time, many Soviet scientists were awarded Stalin Prizes for their work in astronomy and mathematics, efforts far removed from the practical needs of the moment.

The program of scientific work is based on an analysis of past experience and on philosophic prognostication on the course of scientific development in the future. Thus not one of us would think a minute of excluding the treatment of theoretical problems from our plans. To do that would amount to destroying the roots of a tree that bears rich fruit. Never or later an abstract theory will be influenced by the advance of knowledge; by deepening our knowledge of

New Home for Academy of Sciences

Model of the central buildings of the scientific institutes, a section of the Moscow Palace of Culture



Plans for the Academy of Sciences buildings, to be erected soon, were drawn up by the Russian architect Alexei Schusev. The structure will house the Presidium of the Academy and will include an auditorium seating 1,000, the great scientific library of six million volumes, study halls for the scholars, several institutes and two museums.

Rising above the main building a 60-meter tower will contain an astronomical clock. Construction begun shortly before the outbreak of the war is now to be resumed. Part of a great enterprise, the Academy is a section of the project of the Moscow Palace of Culture.

natural phenomena we gain mastery and control over our environment.

The best of our scientists in the Academy of Sciences of the USSR and in the Academies of the national Republics are working on theoretical key problems which in the final analysis form a foundation for the development of the national economy and culture. The Academies maintain close ties with the thousands of specialized industrial, agricultural and other institutes working on concrete practical problems, as well as with the faculties of the 700 higher schools engaged on the most diverse questions arising from the developments in science.

Teamwork

The Academy of Sciences of the USSR is the nerve center of a tremendous organism consisting of hundreds of research institutes, laboratories and universities embracing all fields of knowledge. That an organization of this size should have a plan, or rather that it cannot function at maximum efficiency without one, is obvious. Otherwise it would not be possible to distribute the innumerable tasks involved and the personnel re-

quired for their speediest solution; or to select the most important problems so as to assure the necessary means for their advancement.

The important thing to remember is that the greatest achievements of modern science have been made not by research workers laboring singly, but by teams of scientists, or collaborators in institutes or laboratories. Prerequisites for this kind of teamwork do not always arise of themselves; but rational planning invariably insures them.

The successes scored by Soviet science during the war are to be explained by the fact that all its branches were guided by a unified plan. From the very beginning of hostilities constant ties between science and industry and connecting links between various branches of science guaranteed the smooth operation of all parts of the complex mechanism.

Joseph Stalin, our leader in war and in peace, defined progressive science as one which stands in no awe of fetishes, boldly discards everything outdated and always works for the people. Rational planning is one of the ways to achieve this goal.

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) is a federal State, the members of which are the Union Republics. Each Union Soviet Socialist Republic is a sovereign state comprising a distinct nationality, although in some cases small compact minorities are included. All of the Union Republics are equal members of the federation, in which they are voluntarily associated for the purpose

of mutual economic and political assistance and for common defense against alien attack.

The USSR consists of 16 Union Republics: the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic (RSFSR), the Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Azerbaijan, Georgian, Armenian, Turkmenian, Uzbek, Tajik, Kazakh, Kirghiz, Karelo-Finnish, Moldavian, Estonian, Latvian and Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republics.

Having united in their common interest, the Union Republics voluntarily limited their own sovereignty and correspondingly ceded to the Union certain rights which are defined in Article 14 of the Constitution of the USSR, which, amended by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR in January and February 1944, reads as follows:

"The jurisdiction of the Union of



Textile worker Vinogradova of Russian SFSR



Collective farmwoman Andrenuk of Ukrainian SSR



A student from Byelorussian SSR

Soviet Socialist Republics, as represented by its highest organs of state authority and organs of government, covers:

"(a) Representation of the Union in international relations, conclusion and ratification of treaties with other states, and the establishment of the general character of the relations between the Union Republic and foreign states;

"(b) Questions of war and peace;

"(c) Admission of new Republics into the USSR;

"(d) Control over the observance of the Constitution of the USSR and insuring conformity of the Constitutions of the Union Republics with the Constitution of the USSR;

"(e) Confirmation of alterations of boundaries between Union Republics;

"(f) Confirmation of the formation of new Territories and Regions and also of

new Autonomous Republics within Union Republics;

"(g) Organization of the defense of the USSR and direction of all the armed forces of the USSR; the establishment of the guiding principles of the organization of the military formations of the Union Republics;

"(h) Foreign trade on the basis of state monopoly;

"(i) Safeguarding the security of the State;

"(j) Establishment of

the national economic plans of the USSR

"(k) Approval of the single State budget of the USSR as well as of the taxes and revenues which go to the Union, Republican and local budgets;

"(l) Administration of the banks, industrial and agricultural establishments and enterprises and trading enterprises of All-Union importance;

"(m) Administration of transport and communications;

"(n) Direction of the monetary and credit system;

"(o) Organization of State insurance

"(p) Raising and granting of loans

"(q) Establishment of the basic principles of the use of land as well as the use of natural deposits, forests and waters;

"(r) Establishment of the basic pr



Minstrel Avak Avaryar of Azerbaijan SSR



Ski champion I Maskhishvili from Georgian SSR



Schoolgirl of Armenian SSR in national costume



Deputy to Supreme Soviet Ataev of Turkmenian SSR



Chess champion Nadezhda dinov of Uzbek SSR

A Voluntary Federation of Sovereign States

principles in the spheres of education and public health;

"(s) Organization of a uniform system of national economic statistics;

"(r) Establishment of the principles of labor legislation;

"(u) Legislation on the judicial system and judicial procedure; criminal and civil codes;

"(v) Laws on citizenship of the Union; laws on the rights of foreigners;

"(w) Issuing of All-Union acts of amnesty."

Beyond these provisions each Union Republic exercises state authority independently and retains all sovereign rights, which are protected by the USSR and by numerous legal and actual guarantys. Each Union Republic, for example, has its own constitution, adapted to the specific features of the Republic, drawn up by itself and not requiring the ratification of the Union. To every Republic is reserved the right freely to secede from the USSR. Territorial boundaries may not be violated. Inhabitants, while citizens of the USSR, are also citizens of their own Republic. Each Republic may make its own laws provided they are not at variance with the All-Union law. It has its own budget, which is the economic foundation of its sovereignty.



Schoolteacher of Estonian SSR



Industrial worker G. Trey of Latvian SSR



Scout H. Frenkel of Lithuanian SSR

the organs of the Union Republics on a basis of mutual agreements and cooperation.

The organization of state authority in a Union Republic is as follows: The highest organ of state authority and the sole legislative body is the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic, which is elected by its citizens on a basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage and by secret ballot, for a term of four years. The collective president of a

The growing strength of the Union, thanks to the common efforts of the Union Republics, made it possible recently, at the height of the war with the fascist aggressors, to enlarge the sovereign rights of the Union Republics. They have been empowered to enter into direct relations with foreign states, to conclude agreements with them and exchange diplomatic and consular representatives with them. Each Union Republic moreover now has its own military formations, which are component parts of the Red Army.

Political power in the USSR falls into three categories: the first within the exclusive jurisdiction of the USSR; the second within the jurisdiction of the Union Republics; the third exercised jointly by the organs of the USSR and

Union Republic is the Presidium of its Supreme Soviet, elected by the latter in each term of office. The government of the Union Republic is its Council of People's Commissars, appointed by the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic. Each commissar and his commissariat has charge of some branch of administration. Justice in a Union Republic is administered by its own judges. The highest judicial body is the Supreme Court of the Union Republic, the judges of which are elected by its Supreme Soviet.

Each Union Republic has its own capital and a distinctive emblem and flag.

Within some of the Union Republics there are autonomous Republics and regions, each comprising a compact national minority.



Young girl in native dress in Tajik SSR



Poet and collective farmer Umurzakov of Kazakh SSR



Folk costume of Moldavian SSR



Deputy to Supreme Soviet Sali Allimov of Kirghiz SSR



Deputy A. Kijutshareva of Karelo-Finnish SSR

As has been mentioned, the majority of the population comprises a distinct nationality, and the Union Republics are therefore sometimes known as the national Republics. Their voluntary federation on the basis of complete equality, mutual trust, fraternal alliance and friendly cooperation insures free national development. The non-Russian peoples, free of the exploitation and oppression suffered under the tsars, are members of the union of Soviet nations. Since the formation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, each of them has made uninterrupted progress—economically, politically and culturally. They have developed a heavy industry scarcely known under the tsars; agriculture has been modernized and mechanized.

In the RSFSR, industrial output was

eight times as great in 1936 as in 1913; in the Kazakh and Armenian Republics, twelve times; in Byelorussia, 16 times; in Georgia, over 18 times; in Kirghizia, 95 times and in the Tajik Republic, 116 times. This economic expansion was not halted even by the war, when, on the contrary, the industrial importance of the eastern Soviet Republics became greater than ever.

The progress of the Union Republics has resulted in a rising standard of living and a general cultural growth both of urban and rural populations.

Universal compulsory education is the rule, with all instruction offered in the tongue of each region. In each community there are native teachers, doctors and other intellectual workers. The

language of the Republic is official.

The friendship of the nations of the Soviet Union has stood the test of the trials of war and has grown even stronger in the fight against the enemies of all freedom-loving peoples—the German-fascist invaders and the Japanese imperialists, who counted on dissension among the peoples of the USSR and the break-down of the Soviet Union.

But Soviet patriotism, ardent and life-giving, welded the Union Republics more closely together. As Stalin said: "The ideology of the equality of all races and nations, which has become firmly established in our country, the ideology of friendship among nations, has achieved complete victory over the ideology of brutal nationalism and race hatred preached by the Hitlerites."

BATTLE OF POLTAVA

By Lieutenant Colonel S. Kaganov

At the close of 1707, Charles XII, King of Sweden, invaded Russia, hoping to rout the Russian Army and then to dictate peace terms in Moscow.

Peter I, Tsar of Russia, mobilized the country and the army for a decisive battle. Troops were organized into divisions, brigades, regiments, battalions and companies. Training was conducted on a single principle.

The Army was well equipped with firearms and cannon. A General Staff was set up. Peter's cavalry was the first to acquire light field artillery. A great deal of attention was devoted to military engineering, the preparation of the battle area and the perfection of tactics. Leading positions were allotted to able officers and generals who had distinguished themselves in past battles. Thus, a few years after the Narva defeat (1700), the Russian Army became a trained, disciplined and splendidly-equipped force.

With their bases far in the rear, Swedish troops, acutely short of food and ammunition, marched across the scorched earth laid waste on instructions from Peter. Finding himself in a difficult situation Charles XII, changing his initial strategical plan, turned south to the Ukraine. But if the Ukraine could supply



From the painting by I. Kupetsky

Peter I, Tsar of all the Russias

the Swedish army with food, it could not provide ammunition. Therefore Charles XII ordered General Loewenhaupt with his corps of 16,000 men and 7,000 ammunition carts to start out from Tiga and join him.

While the main army under Sheremetiev lured Charles on into the Ukraine, Peter with his force of 12,000 overtook Loewen-

haupt near the village of Lesnaya and dispersed his troops. The Swedes lost over 9,000 in killed and wounded, and over 800 prisoners and had to abandon all their supplies. This engagement, which Peter called the "Mother of Poltava Victory," was a clever and far-reaching maneuver which completely changed the relation of forces for decisive battle.

In the spring of 1709, Charles XII decided to seize Poltava and make it his base for an attack against Moscow. But the 30,000-strong Swedish army, despite a strenuous effort, could not overcome the resistance of the heroic garrison of Poltava numbering but 4,000 men and supported by the population. The siege, lasting three months, tied up the greater part of the Swedish army, thus giving the main Russian force time to prepare for the general engagement.

By summer of the same year the Swedes, weakened by the defeat at Lesnaya and the casualties sustained during the siege, found themselves isolated in the Poltava area.

Roads west, north and east were cut by Russian detachments. The Swedish army was strategically encircled, and the morale of the troops was very low.

A Russian Army of 42,000 (58 bat-

talions and 72 squadrons) with 72 cannon, which Peter concentrated in the area of Poltava, crossed over to the right bank of the River Vorskla and established itself in fortified positions five kilometers north of Poltava.

On the approaches to their positions (a defile 1.5 to 2 kilometers wide between two forests), the Russians built redoubts at intervals of rifle shot. Construction was begun in four other redoubts, but by the time the engagement started only two were completed.

The redoubts erected on the approaches to the battlefield were of a new design, providing many advantages for the Russian Army. If the Swedes attacked the fortifications they would inevitably have sustained heavy casualties and after breaking through would have encountered the heavy flanking fire of the Russian artillery. A surprise action, the favored tactic of Charles XII, was likewise prevented. For the Russians' attack against the Swedish camp the redoubts proved excellent starting positions.

The Poltava battle began at daybreak, July 8, 1709. At 2:00 A.M. the Swedes marched to the Russian camp, and at 3:00 A.M. they attacked the redoubts. The Swedish infantry, met with devastating fire, failed to overcome the Russian resistance. In an attempt to break away, the infantry columns of Ross and Schliepenbach were isolated from the main force and were forced to retreat by the cavalry of Prince Menshikov.

Charles gave the order to cease the attacks against the redoubts and to start a movement to the northeast. This maneuver exposed the right flank of the Swedish army to the deadly fire of Russian artillery. Then the Swedes began a disorderly retreat westward, and not until they had withdrawn from the range of guns was any order restored in their ranks.

The decisive engagement followed. At 6:00 A.M. Peter ordered the troops out onto the battlefield, leaving nine battalions in reserve.

At 9:00 A.M. the two armies began to move into action under the thunder of guns. Approaching within 50 meters of the foe, the Russians opened up and charged. The attack of the Swedes on the left wing of the Russian front was repelled under the leadership of Peter himself.



From the painting by A. Kotaeu

The Battle of Poltava

Launching a dashing infantry assault on the front and a cavalry attack on the flank, the Russians dislodged the Swedes from their positions and sent them reeling back to Budishche Forest.

By 11:00 A.M. the battle was over. The Swedes had lost 9,234 men—killed—and all told 13,281 soldiers and officers. The remnants of the Swedish army retreated south. Charles abandoned his troops and fled to Turkey.

On July 11, near the Dnieper crossing, Menshikov and his detachment of 9,000 forced the Swedish General Loewenhaupt and 16,000 men under him to capitulate.

The Poltava engagement, which had brought the hitherto unconquered Swedes to utter defeat, put an end to the struggle between Russia and Sweden.

The Poltava battle was a significant factor in the development of military proficiency.

Peter I, the founder of the regular Russian army and navy, based his tactics on the fighting spirit of the soldiers and officers. "Numbers will not win battles," he said. "Wisdom and ability bring victory . . ."

Contrary to the advocates of the Prussian school, Peter considered that the aim in battle should be the destruction of the enemy's manpower as a means of victory. Peter did not increase the numerical

strength of the Russian Army, but he equipped the infantry with bayonets, turning it into one of the best fighting forces in Europe. His redoubts were the predecessors of the present blockhouses.

Over two centuries have elapsed since the Poltava battle. The Red Army following in the footsteps of the old Russian Army has continued to develop the art of warfare.

In the war against Nazi Germany, the Red Army waged numerous battles for the encirclement of strong enemy groups, operations unequalled in military history.

Silkworms Bred in North

A new breed of silkworm developed by Professor of Genetics Chetverikov at Gorky State University, will breed not only in the South, but in the central and northern regions of the USSR. It produces cocoons once a year—in the summer only—as compared with the two a year of the usual Chinese breed, and the cocoon is larger—producing about 1,300 yards of thread as compared with the 450-550 of the Chinese insects.

The professor is at present studying the problem of feeding the silkworms on birch leaves which are plentiful in colder climates, where mulberry leaves are scarce.

Novelist of the Don Cossacks

By I. Arolichev



Serving as a correspondent in the Great Patriotic War, Sholokhov held the rank of colonel. Here he is back at home in his native village

Mikhail Sholokov's home is in the little village of Veshenskaya—eighty miles from a railway. On every side stretch the rolling steppes. In a log cottage near the river which he immortalized lives the author of *And Quiet Flows the Don*, the ancient cathedral and village square described in his writings only a step away. Here the Cossacks used to gather before setting off to war.

The writer, who is forty, looks much younger. When I first saw him about nine years ago he looked like a youth in his teens. In Veshenskaya he hunts or goes fishing practically every day.

His cottage is simple. From a small, rather dark hallway doors open onto a sitting room, dining room and bedroom. A winding staircase leads to the attic where Sholokhov has his library and workroom. In the library he has a small round table and a large bookcase which fills one wall. The workroom has several bookcases and two large desks. The walls are bare except for a barometer.

As it is rather cold in the study in winter, Sholokhov usually wears a sweater with a high collar which makes his rather small head look even smaller and his thin face thinner.

In summer he works on a small balcony outside the attic window, from which he has a magnificent view of the Don.

Wife-Secretary

One desk in his workroom is strewn with manuscript pages in his characteristic

"beady" handwriting. On the second desk stands a typewriter on which his wife, Maria Pavlovna, types his work. Maria is not only housekeeper and mother of his four children, but does all his secretarial work as well. The daughter of a Cossack, she was born on the Don. In spite of her busy life she often goes hunting with her husband.

Downstairs in the anteroom, where Sholokhov usually receives his guests and treats them to tea with cherry preserves, there is a large bookcase where he used to keep all the editions of his works. It was quite a collection, for his books have been translated and published in all parts of the world. All this is gone. The collection was destroyed along with all of Sholokhov's written records, when the Germans occupied Veshenskaya.

Sholokhov has a large mail box for the great quantity of letters he receives from all over the world. Some people relate their experiences; others ask for advice. Many come to see him—mostly Cossacks, proud to be able to claim such a writer who knows their life so intimately.

It is a pleasure to hear Sholokhov talk. His subtle irony and keen perception illuminate a subject like a lightning flash.

It is not true that Sholokhov merely copies his characters from nature. There was indeed a Cossack, Yermakov, whose life Sholokhov partly reproduced in Gregory Melekhov, the hero of *And Quiet Flows the Don*. But that does not make them identical. Take for example the case

of Aksinia, Melekhov's second wife. Her characteristics did not come to Sholokhov at once or ready-made.

"The main outline was there from the beginning," says Sholokhov, "but it had to be filled in from imagination. We have many fine women among the Cossacks—warm and strong-willed. Situations aren't usually taken exactly from life. The theme of Tolstoy's *Anna Karenina* was, as we know, based on fact. But that doesn't really concern the readers. We know only one *Karenina*—the one described by Tolstoy."

Maria Pavlovna told me that when Sholokhov wrote the first part of the novel he would lock himself in a room in his father-in-law's house (where he then lived) and write for days and nights. He would come out only for a few minutes to have a bite to eat. When he finally emerged his eyes would be feverish and he would move like a drunken man.

During the war Sholokhov spent a great deal of his time at the front. He held the rank of colonel in the Red Army. When the enemy approached his village Sholokhov's family moved, first to the Urals and later to the Volga town of Kanyshin. Only his old mother refused to evacuate. The Germans killed her.

A German bomb damaged Sholokhov's house, but it has recently been repaired. He is now settled there once more and is at work on his new novel *They Fought for Their Country*.

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5

Centenary of Geographical Society

By Academician Vladimir Obruchev

The author of the following article, Vladimir Obruchev, dean of Russian geologists and Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, is an Honorary Member of the American Geological Society.

One of the outstanding explorers of Central Asia and Siberia, he published a Geology of Siberia in three volumes, a History of Geological Exploration in Siberia in five volumes and Ore Deposits and Field Geology, besides numerous articles and monographs.

On October 10, 1943, the noted scholar celebrated his eightieth birthday. For outstanding services in the promotion of geological knowledge and geographical research he was awarded the Stalin Prize, the Przhhevsky Prize, the Helmersen Prize and the Gold and Constantine Medals of the Russian Geographical Society, and received the Order of Lenin and the Order of the Red Banner of Labor.

Russian geographers, globetrotters and explorers through the centuries have greatly enriched our scientific knowledge.

In the fifteenth century Afanasy Nikitin, a Tver merchant, journeyed to Persia and India and described these countries in a detailed account of his travels.

At the end of the following century, by the efforts of Russian scholars the so-called *Book of the Great Chart*, a veritable mine of geographic erudition for that time, was compiled.

By sailing around the northeast seaboard of the Eurasian continent the bold traveler in the seventeenth century discovered the strait which separates Asia from America.

A large cartographical survey of Siberia was completed in the early part of the eighteenth century.

The large-scale study of our country's

geography and geology was inaugurated by Peter I in the first quarter of the eighteenth century. With his establishment of the Academy of Sciences in 1725, investigations in this field took a step forward.

On the eve of his death Peter sponsored an expedition headed by Vitus Bering, who sailed (1725-30) from the mouth of the Kamchatka River to the strait discovered by Dezhnev, which now bears Bering's name.

* * *

Dividing the history of geological and geographical research into periods, I consider the first period to be the 75 years between 1725 and 1800, during which time large expeditions to Siberia and to Kamchatka Peninsula were outfitted. Toward the end of the century the northern, eastern and southern provinces of European Russia, including Crimea, the Caucasus, the Caspian coast and the Urals

were investigated. Many surveys included not only geography and geology but also the fauna and flora, history, archeology and ethnography of various regions.

In the middle of the eighteenth century the famous Russian scientist Academician Mikhail Lomonosov added his genius to the fields of geology and mineralogy. His sweeping ideas in the sphere of geology were ahead of those of scientists in other European countries of the period. The cartography of Russia begun by Peter was continued by Lomonosov, who sent questionnaires to all parts of the country to gather information. He was instrumental in equipping the first northern expedition to Spitsbergen which had as its object finding a passage to India.

In the second period—the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth centuries and up to the October Revolution—the nature of investigations changed. Greater



A group of prospectors gather material in the glaciers of the Pamir Mountains

and greater specialization was the order of the day as science developed. More thorough and more painstaking observations were made. On the other hand the previous scope and comprehensive approach were lost. Only in Soviet times have depth and scope gone hand in hand.

In the nineteenth century the universities and scientific associations began to take part in geographical and geological research. One of these newcomers was the Geographical Society, which on October 1 will celebrate its 100th anniversary. The Society sent out many large productive expeditions, particularly to Asia.

Among the founders of the Society, which was established in St. Petersburg in October, 1845, were Fedor P. Lutke and Constantine I. Arseniev. Lutke (1797-1882) known for his Arctic and round-the-world voyages was for many years president of the Geographical Society and of the Russian Academy of Sciences. Arseniev (1789-1865) was professor of Economic Geography in St. Petersburg University and later a Member of the Academy of Sciences. Another active leader of the Society was the linguist and ethnographer Vladimir I. Dal (1801-1872).

Originally there were four Departments: Mathematical Geography, Physical Geography, Ethnography and Statistics (Economic Geography). Two more have since been added; Biogeography and History of Geographical Sciences.

The first expedition was organized in 1847 "to explore the boundary between Europe and Asia throughout the whole length of the northern Urals." Subsequently, in 1852, the Society published an extremely valuable map of the northern Urals based on astronomical observations from 186 points.

The research of this period added an abundance of data. A broader and more accurate knowledge was obtained of land surface and geological structure, mineralogy and paleontology. Among the areas which became much better known were the Caucasus, the Black Sea coast, the Caspian coast, and northern and northeastern Siberia, including Kamchatka Peninsula. Of interest are the expeditions at the beginning of the present century to study the least-known areas in the Far North.

An expedition to the high Arctic latitudes on board the airplane "SSSR-169" piloted by the well-known flyer I. Cherevichny alighted three times on ice-floes in the area of the Pole of Inaccessibility. Here a windlass is being pulled on a sledge to a hole in the ice for depth-sounding



The venerable Mahomed Evkurov directed scientists to new layers of copper, lead and coal in the mountains of Tshetsheno-Ingus Autonomous SSR



Professor Konstantin Radugin of the Tomsk Institute of Technology who took an active part in the prospecting which resulted in the discovery of the Tashtagol iron ore deposits, selects samples of minerals in the mountains of the Kuznetsk Ala-Tau range



At the turn of the twentieth century theoretical work developed in geology, geochemistry, mineralogy, crystallography and paleontology. The works of Academician Karpinsky who, after the Revolution, became the first President of the Academy of Sciences to be elected and not appointed, as well as of Academicians Vernadsky, Andrusov and Fedorov, were no less important than the best works of the scientists of Europe and America and in certain respects were on a higher level.

The third period—the most fruitful in the development of the geological and geographical sciences—began with the Soviet Revolution of 1917.

Why the most fruitful? The following figures suggest the trend. Throughout the nineteenth and in the beginning of the twentieth centuries no more than a small group at the Academy did geological work. There was not a single institute in the field of geology or geography. By 1941 the numerous institutes, laboratories and committees comprising the Academy's section of Geological and Geographical Sciences (founded in 1939) reported 768 persons working in these fields.

But the change is not only in number. The very nature of the work has changed, assuming a sweeping comprehensive scale. It is carried out by large groups of scientists of various specialties. Along with the geography and geology of territories and regions, the expeditions study the soil, flora and fauna, economic conditions and means of communication. This is a revival of the best traditions of the initial period of the Academy's work but on a higher plane.

A great role in this all-embracing study is played by the conferences called by the Academy itself or at the request of the various republics or regions of the Russian SFSR. These gatherings have been held in the Urals and Siberia to consider the industrial development of the Urals and the Kuznetsk Basin. Explorations in Yakuta, Buryat-Mongolia, Kazakhstan, Kirghizia, Oirotia and Turkmenia have made real progress in the study of these Republics.

Six conferences were devoted to the study of frozen soil, a problem that came into prominence with the development of the Soviet Far North. Others were held on tectonics, paleogeography, paleontol-



In the spring of 1937 the drifting North Pole station was set up. This picture of Papanin, Krenkel and Fedorov using a hydrological winch was taken during the stay on the ice floe

ogy, the Quaternary geological period, soil science, copper, bauxites, coal and landslides.

Almost all the regions and republics of the USSR have been explored. The Kola Peninsula, the oil field region between the Volga and the Urals, the Urals themselves and Kazakhstan have been the subject of special surveys. There has been extensive research on eternally-frozen soil, including the problems of housing construction and water supply. A geological map of the Soviet Union has been compiled on the basis of this wealth of new data.

Two decades of geological achievements were demonstrated to scientists of the world at the seventeenth International Geological Congress held in Moscow in 1937. The foreign guests had only praise for the numerous reports of Soviet scientists and for the exhibitions, maps and diagrams shown.

Of great assistance in the war effort, the Academy's geologists concentrated on unearthing new reserves of strategic materials at the known levels and in searching for new deposits and varieties of materials. Specialists in the fields of geography, soil science and the frigid zone also worked on war assignments.

New Geological and Geographical Departments

By Docent Semyon Rudnikh

In 1944 the Academy of Sciences of the USSR opened the following four laboratories: volcano study, lake study, aerial photography and hydrogeology.

The volcano laboratory and its station on Kamchatka, under the direction of Professor A. N. Zavaritsky, Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, study active and extinct volcanoes and the products of eruptions.

In its station on Lake Baikal the lake-study laboratory directed by L. S. Berg, Corresponding Member of the Academy, considers theoretical questions of the origin and development of the chief types of lakes, the physico-chemical processes taking place in them, the water, the chemical and thermal system of lakes, their mineral, vegetable and animal, and power resources and their influence on climate.

Academician Professor P. I. Stepanov heads the laboratory of aerial photography, which develops methods of employing aerial photographs in geological, geographical and other surveys of the USSR.

Commissioned to compile data on engineering, geology and hydrogeology the hydrological laboratory also studies problems of the formation of subsoil waters and their connection with surface waters and the formation of the physico-technical properties of rocks under the influence of wind erosion. The laboratory is directed by Academician F. P. Savarensky.



The camp of the Papaninites where they lived for 274 days

EXPEDITIONS IN 1945

By Lydia Bakh

In 1915 on the initiative of Academician Vernadsky a commission was formed for the study of the natural productive forces of Russia. The commission, later reorganized as a council, was prevented by the war from sending out expeditions. It was not until 1920 that the planned scientific investigation of the Kola Peninsula was undertaken under Fersman. This led to the creation of large-scale apatite and copper and nickel industries in the tundra beyond the Arctic circle.

Since that time scientific research aiming at the development of the resources of the country has become one of the main tasks of the Academy of Sciences. In the past quarter of a century over 500 expeditions outfitted by the Academy have visited every part of the country in search of mineral deposits, agricultural materials and power resources and have described the ethnographic features of remote places and the languages of the various peoples. The work on cosmic rays is widely known.

As a result of these expeditions, new deposits of minerals have been found. Geological calculations show that the USSR occupies first place in the world in resources of oil, peat, iron, manganese, apatite, phosphorites, magnesium salts and niobium; and second place in coal, lead, zinc and nickel. Expeditions of the Academy and other organizations have gathered a mass of factual materials on the productive forces of the country and its mineral resources. The task today is to study these materials and to draw the scientific conclusions which will lead to their proper utilization.

The Academy sent out only three expeditions in 1939, but they were very large. They projected an integrated study of the east-European highlands of the Urals and the Caucasus to lay a scientific foundation for the development of the oil, fuels and metallurgy industries founded on local raw materials and power. The East-European Highlands Commis-

sion surveyed the oil fields between the Volga, the Kama and the Urals—the so-called Second Baku.

The Urals expedition headed by Ivan Bardin, vice president of the Academy of Sciences, laid special stress on raw materials for metallurgy and helped in transferring Soviet heavy industry to the East at the beginning of the war and in mobilizing the resources of the Urals for defense. Research throughout the war years has been directed mainly toward the solution of immediate problems. It becomes evident that a new scientific approach will be required for the development of the economy of the Urals after the war.

The plan for the Urals commission for 1945 puts emphasis on the study of theoretical bases for the investigation and development of the raw materials for Urals industry. Among the objects of investigation will be the tectonics and stratigraphy of the Urals; the location of mesozoic deposits; soils and plant life; types of wood and their use in agricultural economy; bauxites; kaolin and copper pyrites.

The Caucasus expedition which had not begun its work before the war, was forced to break off its preparations due to military operations there. Preparations have started again under the supervision of Members of the Academy Belyankin, Strumilin, Baikov and Professor Lebedev. The plan for 1945 includes a scientific study of the Caucasian Mountains and their mutual interconnections with the Carpathians and the Alps; examination of natural resources as a basis for the future oil, chemical-metallurgical and agricultural development of the northern Caucasus and the Kuban; and scientific assistance in the rapid restoration of the economy of the northern Caucasus, which suffered heavily during German occupation. There is special consideration of oil and gas prospecting.

In 1944 an expedition of scientists

representing various fields, under the direction of Members of the Academy Obratchev, Bardin and Obraztsov and Professor Gorsky, left to find answers to questions connected with the investigation and development of the natural resources of the north-European part of the USSR, including the Komi Autonomous Republic and the Urals, beyond the Arctic circle. This vast and little-known territory has boundless possibilities hinging on the development of the Pechora coal basin and the establishment of a metallurgical industry in the northwest of the USSR and in the northern Urals.

Here is a wide field of scientific investigation. Plans for a 1945 expedition include investigation of the coal of the Pechora basin, the iron and manganese ores of the Urals beyond the Arctic circle, the eternally-frozen soil phenomena, forest varieties, and prospects for the development of coal, chemical and metallurgical industries and transport in the northeast of the Komi Republic.

Another expedition under A. Fersman will study the Leningrad-Murmansk region. The development of the steel and iron industry of the area makes new supplies of raw materials an immediate necessity. Among the objects of study will be the deposits of iron ore on the Kola Peninsula, particularly the Olenegorsk and the so-called marsh ores, and auxiliary minerals, above all fire-resistant materials. A general survey is planned of the district between Ladoga and Onega Lakes to discover new deposits of iron ores.

Together with workers from the Academy's Kola base, which has renewed its activities since the armistice with Finland, the expedition will investigate the nickel deposits of Mengetundra and Petsamo, which comprise a single geological unit.

An expedition under Professor Sukachev to be sent to southern Kirghizia will determine the usefulness of the forests and wild fruit trees as raw materials for the vitamin and canning industries.

Double Celebration in Moldavia

By P. Sidorov

Five years ago the people of Bessarabia, freed from the yoke of the Rumanian boyars, were reunited with their brothers on the left bank of the Dniester.

The fifth anniversary of the formation of the Moldavian Union Republic, into which Bessarabia and the Moldavian Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic were incorporated, occurs on the first anniversary of Moldavia's liberation from the German and Rumanian invaders.

Five years ago a bright new epoch dawned for the Moldavian people who at last acquired an opportunity to build up their Republic in peace and security. During the first weeks after the liberation of Bessarabia, peasants who had formerly owned little or no land received from the Soviet Government more than 250,000 hectares of land, over 2,300 hectares of gardens and vineyards formerly owned by the landed gentry, and cattle and agricultural implements. Moreover, the peasantry was relieved of the heavy burden of taxation.

The Republic's national economy responded to the expansion and advancement open to it. More than 1,000 tractors, some 200 combines and much other modern agricultural machinery appeared in the Bessarabian farmlands. Old industrial enterprises were remodeled and new ones built. Unemployment, which had been a scourge for many years, was eliminated.

A regeneration also occurred in the cultural life of the Republic. Three new higher educational institutions and some 2,000 schools were opened providing tuition for all children of school age.

But all this progress was broken off—the Germano-Rumanian invasion put a stop to the peaceful constructive labors of the Moldavian people. Soviet Moldavia was one of the first to be attacked by Hitlerite Germany and her Rumanian ally. Thousands of innocent people were shot or tortured to death in the dungeons of the Gestapo and the Siguranza. More than 63,000 victims were shot or hanged on the territory of the Moldavian SSR. Over 50,000 young Moldavian men and women



State Emblem
Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic

were driven off to slave labor in Germany and Rumania.

All branches of the Republic's national economy suffered grave damage at the hands of the occupationists. Kishinev, the capital of Soviet Moldavia, was shattered, 76 per cent of all its buildings destroyed. Tiraspol, Bendery, Orgeyev and hundreds of other inhabited places were similarly wrecked as were all of the power stations, public utilities and medical institutions.

The invaders made havoc of industry, transport and agriculture. Cattle were driven off to Germany and Rumania, and the remaining agricultural machinery and implements were destroyed. The best vineyards and gardens, covering a total area of more than 30,000 hectares, were laid waste. Although the fascists tried to enslave the Moldavian people and form a Rumanian province—Transnistria—the free-spirited Moldavian people did not submit. The sons of Moldavia fought in the ranks of the Red Army on the battle fronts of the Patriotic War. Many of them have been decorated for valor and several have earned the title Hero of the Soviet Union.

During the period of occupation the Moldavian patriots waged a bold and gallant struggle against the invaders. Men and women partisans in the rear of the enemy wiped out tens of thousands of soldiers and officers, wrecked more than 2,500 railway cars and locomotives, blew

up 45 bridges and destroyed quantities of enemy materiel. Two Moldavian partisans, Frolov and Timoshuk, have been awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union for their intrepid activities.

Once again the Republic has returned to the Soviet family of nations. Its population has resumed its peaceful development interrupted by the war.

All collective and State farms and machine and tractor stations have been restored. The peasants, more than 150,000, who owned little or no land formerly, and who were robbed by the invaders of the land they received from the Soviet Government in 1940-1941, have been reinstated.

The USSR Government has supplied Moldavian agriculture with 3,500,000 rubles worth of tractors and other agricultural machinery, 22,000 poods of seed and tens of thousands of head of cattle. A 300 million ruble subsidy from the USSR Government figures in the Moldavian State budget for 1945.

At the present time Moldavian farmers are bringing in a new harvest. The canning and wine industries are flourishing. Railway transport and communication services have been restored to normal.

More than 330,000 children were attending school before the summer vacation began. The pedagogical, agricultural and teachers' training institutes and the conservatory of music have begun to function. Studies have been resumed in 19 technical schools. Before long the State Institute for Teachers will be opened in Beltsy.

The popular Moldavian and Russian theaters are opening and the Folk Art Center, the State Museum Art School and several music schools are functioning. There are 1,039 village clubs, 54 district and city Houses of Culture and 145 city, district and village libraries.

Medical services are reaching normalcy with 99 hospitals, 529 polyclinics and clinics, 682 obstetric stations and 33 medical consultation centers for women and children.

Agrarian Reform and Democracy

By E. Varga

From New Times, No. 8:

(The following is the first half of a two-part article.)

The agrarian reform carried out this year in a number of liberated countries of eastern Europe is an event of paramount social and political importance. It implies the abolition of feudal survivals which have persisted from medieval times right down to our day and have laid their impress upon every phase of social life. The agrarian reform by removing the most solid prop of reaction clears the way for a really democratic social system in countries which hitherto had practically no democratic forms of political life.

It is in the nature of things that agrarian reform is intimately connected with the victory of the democratic forces of the liberated nations. The great landed estates, which the reform abolishes, were a heritage from feudalism with its domination of the landed nobility over all other classes of society and its system of overlordship and vassalage which denied all rights to the common people. The monopoly of landlordism arose and for many centuries was maintained on account of the political dominion which the landed aristocracy exercised in society and government.

Ten centuries ago, when the population of Europe was still small, the landowning class kept the laborer forcibly tied to the soil. It was not the land which was valued but the men who cultivated it. In references to transfers of land in the records of the period, boundaries are indicated only very roughly: from rivers to hills. But on the other hand, a detailed enumeration is given of every peasant and artisan belonging to the estate and his particular skill, the kind of work he is capable of performing and the yearly services he is bound to render his master. Of land there was enough and to spare. But in order that a peasant might not throw off the yoke of the landlord and live independently on his own plot, all land was proclaimed the property of the nobility. *Nulle terre sans seigneur*—no land without its lord—was the fundamental precept of the feudal law. Not only was the peasant serf obliged

with his primitive implements to till the fields of the landlord; he also had to cede to him and to the church a substantial part of the crop he gathered from his own land. The feudal social system rested on personal servitude and on personal attachment of the peasant to the soil. The peasant was an appurtenance to the land, part and parcel of it.

With the growth of trade and the rise of capitalist relationships, the feudal superstructure came into conflict with the economic foundation of society. The feudal yoke became intolerable to the peasant. As long as the product taken from him was directly consumed by the landlord and his retainers, feudal exploitation was confined within comparatively narrow economic limits. There would have been no sense in the landowner's exaction from the peasant of more than he could consume. But these bounds fell away as soon as it became possible to convert agricultural produce into a commodity. The landlord began to extort from the peasant an ever-larger portion of the product of his labor. The plight of the serfs grew more desperate. It is appropriate to recall that it was worst of all in Poland. *Polonia infernum rusticorum* (Poland is the Hell of the peasants) it used to be said five centuries ago.

In an unbroken series of peasant revolts which mark European history from the thirteenth to the nineteenth centuries, the peasants strove to break their shackles. Time and again the revolts were brutally repressed. They did, however, undermine the foundations of feudal rule and pave the way for the victory of the bourgeois revolution. As a fetter on the capitalist development of productive forces, the feudal dependence of the peasant on the landlord disappeared in one country after another.

But it was only where formal abolition of the feudal system was accompanied by a breakup of the big estates that it signified the economic and political emancipation of the peasantry. This, for example, was the result of the French Revolution at the end of the eighteenth century.

Where the abolition of feudalism was not accompanied by the disappearance of landlordism, there political power remained in the hands of the landowners. Such was the case in Italy, Prussia, Poland, Hungary, Rumania and tsarist Russia.

The landed nobility, together with the financial oligarchs with whom they were associated, continued to direct the home and foreign policy of these countries. It was the nobility who furnished the court dignitaries, ministers of state, generals and heads of government service. In the countryside the local officials, gendarmerie and schools served the interests of the landlords. All who represented the authority of the state over the people were dependent upon the landowners or were intimately connected with them.

In Prussia the *Gutsbezirke*, embracing all "free" laborers on every large estate, survived down to the present century. In these communities the right of administration, judgment and punishment was vested in the lord. He was the judge in causes to which he himself was a party. It goes without saying that under conditions in which all power and all authority belonged to the big landowners, democratic rights for the common people were purely nominal. For example, in such countries parliamentary franchise, as far as the numerous rural population was concerned, was largely a farce. The ballot might be "secret" but the peasants and agricultural laborers were obliged to vote as the landlord ordered.

Even in England, traditional land of bourgeois democracy, the landowners, who are closely linked with the big bourgeoisie, retain considerable political influence—even in our day. It was only a hundred years ago that Gladstone said: "The House of Commons is a house of landlords." And Hazey in his highly interesting book, *Tory, M. P.*, published in 1939, convincingly proves that the Conservative Party is dominated by a small number of families belonging to the upper landed aristocracy. A large proportion of the Conservative members of Parliament

and ministers in Conservative cabinets are from these families.

In his pamphlet, *Personnel of an English Cabinet, 1801 to 1924*, Professor Laski shows that in the period 1906 to 1916, of 51 Cabinet ministers, 25 were peers. The House of Lords is likewise controlled by the landed aristocracy. The Conservative defeat in the recent Parliamentary elections testified—as the more sober-minded Conservative observers themselves admit—that the people are no longer willing to have so large a political influence remain in the hands of a small circle whose conditions of life totally differ from those of the broad mass of working people and who are remote from their daily cares and interests.

England, we know, is the country which first entered the path of industrial development. Agriculture in that country plays a minor role.

The position of economically and politically backward countries is somewhat different. There agriculture is the means of subsistence for the overwhelming majority of the population. It is therefore not surprising that in these countries the great landowners have dominated the social and political life. They were the bulwark of reaction—politically, socially and culturally.

It is not fortuitous that the Hitler bloc in Europe consisted almost exclusively of countries where large landownership prevailed. Everywhere the fascist parties had intimate ties with the landed proprietors.

Mussolini's fascist party began its career of brutal violence and terrorism by destroying the agricultural laborers' organizations to gratify the Latifundists of northern Italy. In Germany, the Prussian Junkers played a great part in paving the way for the Hitler regime and for its criminal and piratical war. We need only recall that Oldenburg Januschau, one of the leaders of the Junker caste, was directly instrumental in raising Hitler to power by scaring the senile Hindenburg with the assertion that Schleicher was preparing to strike a blow at the Prussian landowners.

Spanish fascism, which still survives, rests on the support of the reactionary landowners.

In a word, in all European countries

reaction in all its manifestations has the full support of the big landowners whom, in its turn, it serves.

It is not surprising under these circumstances that even after the feudal servitude of the peasant was abolished, agrarian reform remained one of Europe's major political problems. The working peasants who suffered from an insufficiency or a total lack of land of their own never ceased to demand a breakup of the big estates. During the First World War the political leaders in a number of countries promised the peasants far-reaching agrarian reform. But, as often before in history, the landlords deceived the peasants. Only in a few countries, where landlords belonged to an alien nationality, as, for example, in Transylvania (the Magyars) and in Czechoslovakia (the Germans), was any large proportion of the land divided up. In the vast majority of cases the agrarian reforms undertaken after the First World War left the power of the landowners untouched. Official data shows that in Germany during the two decades between the World Wars, 79,345 new peasant farms were created and that these received a total of only 264,000 hectares of land. In addition, another 293,000 hectares were allotted for the enlargement of 172,000 existing peasant farms.

But not all land turned over to the peasants was taken from the big proprietors. A certain portion was made available by draining the marshes and plowing up wastelands, while some land was assigned from state domain. The land cut off from private estates totaled approximately one million hectares. Inasmuch as in 1933, those estates in Germany of over 200 hectares represented a total area of 150,000 hectares, we see that in these two decades only 6 per cent were divided up. At such a rate of progress it would require 350 years for the abolition of the big estates apart from the fact that the peasants were constantly losing part of their land to the landlords and banks.

Not very much faster was the pace of agrarian reform in Poland. According to official data (*Statistical Year Book of Poland of 1938*) relating to Poland in her post-Versailles borders—with the inclusion of the Ukrainian, Byelorussian and Lith-

uanian territories seized by Polish magnates in the period of 1918-1937—only 2,500,000 hectares were divided up out of a total (exclusive of forests, etc.) of 25,600,000 hectares. As late as 1931, 43 per cent of all the land, roughly 11 million hectares, was still in the hands of the landlords who owned over 100 hectares each. At this rate it would have required about 80 years to abolish the estates.

Even more lamentable was the fate of agrarian reform in Hungary. Nominally, it is true, over one million holds (one hold equals 1.07 acres) were divided up. But nearly one-half this area did not fall to the share of the working peasants, but to officials, clergymen, schoolteachers, gendarmes and even landlords. The situation was analogous in Rumania.

Furthermore the agrarian measures undertaken after the First World War suffered from the serious defect that, even when the peasants did receive land, the conditions were such that they were unable to retain possession of it. The peasant had to pay a high price for the land and was heavily taxed. No one took the trouble to see that he was supplied with the necessary implements for the cultivation of his land. The manner of distribution favored the landlord, who retained the most fertile and best-located parts of his land as well as his machines and animals. The purchase price was very high and the terms were so onerous that the peasants often refused to take the plots which were offered them. Those who received land were forced into debt to cultivate it, fell into the clutches of usurers, and quite often lost the land they had acquired.

We need only cite the case of Germany. In that country 4,060 parcels of land were sold under the hammer in 1935 and 4,510 in 1934. With the exception of a few dozen or so, these were all small and medium farms belonging to peasants. In addition, in the period between the two World Wars, over 30,000 peasant allotments annually were sold "voluntarily" (not under duress). But, economically speaking, in the majority of cases these were forced sales because, having fallen into debt, the peasants were unable to retain their land.

(To be continued in the next issue)

Moscow Art Theater

Ivan Moskvín

People's Artist of the USSR



The crowd gathers early before the Moscow Art Theater for the evening performance

Since the outbreak of the war in the Soviet Union, the Moscow Art Theater has considerably broadened its activities, replenishing its repertory with a number of plays devoted to our valiant soldiers.

At the present time the Art Theater is preparing several classic and modern plays for production, among them *Hamlet*. The profound concept of the production indicated by Nemirovich-Danchenko, the late director of the Moscow Art Theater, will be followed. Nemirovich-Danchenko had patiently rehearsed the play with the cast, giving particular attention to Boris Livanov who appears in the title role. It is hoped that *Hamlet* will be a worthy dedication to the memory of our revered director.

The Last Victim and *Forest*, two plays by Alexander Ostrovsky, the classic dramatist, and Oscar Wilde's *An Ideal Husband* are future productions.

In the field of modern plays, the Art Theater has accepted Alexander Kron's *Navy Officer*, a story of Leningrad's stand in the grim days of the blockade. In rehearsal is *Twelve Months*, a dramatic tale by Samuel Marshak, based on Slav folklore. Alexei Tolstoy's new play, *Ivan the Terrible*, depicting Ivan IV in a true historic light as the great reformer and general of sixteenth century Russia, is an anticipated venture. The role of Ivan

will be portrayed by Nikolai Khmelev, celebrated actor of the Moscow Art Theater.

In performances given for the troops, the company was drawn close to the Red Army. A friendship between the actors and officers had begun long before the war, when Red Army men would be the first to view our new plays, and we would give their amateur dramatic circles every possible assistance, but never before had this contact been so strongly felt as in the critical days of the war.

Today you will not find a single member of our theater who is not anxious to provide entertainment in Army units, in hospitals and cadet schools. Teams of actors toured the fronts. Indeed, the leading actors of our company took the greatest pains in preparing special programs exclusively for Army audiences.

Since the beginning of the war the Moscow Art Theater has given over 2,000 presentations for the Red Army.

At the front the audiences were always most responsive. Programs largely ranged from selections of popular plays included excerpts from the dramatic version of *Anna Karenina* and Gorky's *Lower Depths*, and Pushkin's verse, and humorous bits from Anton Chekhov—all well received by the Red Army men.

Naturally our actors exposed themselves

to the dangers and hardships of the battle zone. But they learned to rough it and asked no greater reward than the appreciation of the Red Army men.

A valued feature of the Art Theater's activities are benefit performances, the proceeds of which go for defense, child relief, and the rehabilitation of Nazi-wrecked areas.

Best-Selling American Author

The most popular foreign writer in the USSR is Jack London, whose printings have reached ten and a half million copies. Translated into 26 languages and numbering 567 editions, the stories are read everywhere—in the Caucasus, in Tataria, Kazakhstan, Chuvashia, Kirghizia, etc. The director of one of the largest factory libraries, attached to the Stalin automobile works, reported that last year every copy of London's works was read by 45 persons. In the purposeful character of bravery and strength, readers see heroes who might have been taken from Soviet life.

Information Bulletin

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5

Decree on Additional Demobilization

By Petrov

A decree on additional demobilization of older-age classes on active service has been issued by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

The law adopted by the Twelfth Session of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR last June provided for demobilizing 13 of the oldest classes. The new decree calls for release of the next ten age-classes

of privates and non-commissioned officers (except troops in the Far East).

It also provides discharge for privates and non-commissioned officers who have a complete higher, secondary technical or agricultural education; all men who had been teachers before entering the Army; seniors in higher educational institutions who were called during the war; those who received one or more

wounds; men called up in 1938 or earlier; all women privates or non-commissioned officers, except specialists who desire to remain in Army service.

Demobilization under the new decree is to be completed by the end of the year. Those released are extended all the material benefits, provisions for employment, housing, etc., stipulated in the law on demobilization.



After three years at the fronts as a signalman, Sergeant P. Solovyev is back at home with his wife and children. He received Orders of the Patriotic War, the Red Star and the For Valor and Distinguished Signalman Medals. His service, begun as a private, was completed as a platoon commander

Red Army in Far East



Marshal Malinovsky, flanked by Marshals Vasilevsky and Meretskov, leaves a conference



A little Chinese girl examines the orders and medals of Colonel Ostapenko



Soviet tankists buy grapes from street vendors in Port Dalny



USSR sailors pay reverence to Russians who died during defense of Port Arthur in 1904



In the streets of Port Dalny, Manchurian children gather around Soviet officers;



(right) Local Chinese chatting with a Red Army man in Port Arthur



In the Chinese quarter of Dalny, soldiers have tea offered by hospitable hosts;



(right) On board ship overlooking the harbor are Marshals Malinovsky and Vasilevsky

Radiophoto

SENATOR PEPPER SPEAKS

During a recent visit to the USSR, Senator Claude Pepper made the following radio speech:

It has been a great privilege to visit Moscow. I have had the honor to meet and talk to Generalissimo Stalin, one of the great men of history and of the world.

Through the hospitality of the Soviet Government and the people I had an opportunity to see the many interesting things one finds here—for example, the Moscow Subway which I believe to be the best and most beautiful in the world, one of the great factories producing motor trucks and passenger cars, and a collective farm. We have enjoyed a visit through the historical grounds of the Kremlin, and have seen the Kremlin Palace and the Museum of Ancient Arms. I have been thrilled by the beauty of two ballets, *Crimson Sails* and *Fountain of Bakhchissarai*, and by the opera *Eugene Onegin*. Certainly nowhere in the world can one see such magnificence in scenery, such excellence in dramatization, or a deeper love of the art of the stage than here.

Yet, as I stated in the visitor's book at the Museum of Ancient Arms inside the Kremlin walls, Russia's greatest era lies not in her glorious past but in her future.

It is the realization of an old dream to mine to be able to visit the Soviet Union, having been a friend of the Soviet people.

The people of America and good men and women everywhere owe a great debt to Generalissimo Stalin, to the Red Army and to the people of the Soviet Union for their magnificent part in turning back and destroying the evil Nazis, for their blows against the Japanese and for that this great Generalissimo, this mighty Army and this heroic people have done toward the destruction of tyranny and the restoration of freedom and independence in the world.

The United States has fought shoulder to shoulder with the people of the Soviet Union in this great war of liberation.



Harris & Ewing

Senator Claude Pepper

The long friendship between America and the Soviet Union deepened and ripened into richness as we fought this great war together. Our two mighty peoples clasped hands across oceans and continents in this crusade.

Duties and Privileges of Peace

Now that victory has been won in war, we are both turning to the duties and privileges of peace. In peace as in war we must also work closely together. The people of the Soviet Union suffered much from the enemy and his cruel devastation. That damage they will of course repair. Industries, both in the Soviet Union and in America, which have been devoted to war production can now be turned to production for peace. We must be no less heroic in production for peace than we were in production for war. It is our common task to use our great resources and to mobilize our great power of production, which during the war we had to use for destruction, for a great program of construction in peace.

We did not fight this war only for victory over the Germans and the Japanese. We must make our victory a victory

over poverty, ill-health and lack of education. It must be a victory not only over a bad life, but for a good life.

I am sure the Russian people have the same desire, for everywhere in Moscow I have seen how the people respect and like the American people.

We all know what great strides have been made by the Soviet Union in past years in the development of their industries, the opening of their natural resources, the advancement of their sciences and culture and the expansion of their national life. All this has been done in recent years under the threat of the German and Japanese menace or in the midst of a cruel war.

Now that our common enemies, Germany and Japan, have been defeated and their war-making power shattered, now that we have them firmly in our grip so they can make war no more, I know the Soviet Union will achieve new marvels of growth and development to enrich the lives of its people. The Soviet people are strong in body, mind and spirit. Their courage and fortitude are admired the world over. I know they will move ahead with ever-increasing speed.

In this new world of the future, the people of the United States can continue to walk side by side with the people of the Soviet Union. No two nations in history have had greater opportunities to make our world a more peaceful and prosperous world than we now have. People everywhere are looking prayerfully toward us and counting on us to fulfill our great missions to mankind.

Let us show the world that we shall use our mighty power for good, that the world over we shall stand for right and against wrong, that we shall stand united with good nations everywhere against any aggressor who threatens war, that we shall encourage wholesome trade and promote increasing and ever-broadening friendship among not only our own peoples, but all peoples, that we shall put new emphasis upon human welfare and betterment and dignity wherever men, women and children live together.

OIL-PRODUCING CENTER OF USSR

By G. Volchek

Long before the steamer rounded the sharp promontory of Apsheron Peninsula, and, having passed the flat, sandy island of Nargen, entered the bay at Baku, everyone on deck noticed that the surface of the sea was covered with patches of oil iridescent in the sunshine.

We had entered the realm of oil.

Apsheron, a District of Azerbaijan, holds first place in the USSR and one of the first in the world for its oil supplies. A forest of derricks, tall mast-like structures, rises above the oil fields and seems a natural addition to the landscape of Azerbaijan.

Occupying an area of 86,000 square kilometers on the shores of the Caspian Sea, Azerbaijan is one of the Transcaucasian Republics forming part of the USSR. According to the census of 1939, there is a population of 3,209,700. The country with its abundant natural resources is equally rich in beautiful scenery: rolling plains, upland steppes, wooded hills, and mountain peaks towering from three to four thousand meters above sea level and crowned with eternal snows.

In the north rises the chain of the main Transcaucasian range and its foothills; in the south lie the Little Transcaucasian and Talysh mountain ranges. Between them is a fertile plain irrigated by the Riva Kura and its tributaries, the largest of which is the Araks.

Economic development moved rapidly with the swift growth of the oil industry. In the nineties of the past century, Baku oil fields already were yielding half the world's total oil output.

After the Revolution in 1917, Azerbaijan achieved national independence, a decisive factor in the further development of the national economy and culture. Manufacturing industries—machine-building, textile and food enterprises sprang up. In addition to the oil deposits, iron ore, alunite and copper were found.

Agriculture forms an important branch



State Emblem

Azerbaijan Soviet Socialist Republic

of the national economy, wheat and barley being grown on a large scale. The pastures of the Kura lowlands provide rich winter grazing grounds to which the cattle are driven both from the hill country of Azerbaijan and from neighboring Republics and regions of the USSR.

Vegetable-growing, vineyards and silk-worm-breeding are widely developed in the foothills, and rice is sown in the Lenkoran lowlands. In the years immediately preceding the war various subtropical crops, such as tea, were introduced here. Large fisheries have been installed on the shores of the Caspian Sea, particularly near the mouth of the Kura where the best varieties of fish are found.

But the chief industry is oil.

Before the Revolution, oil was drilled by very primitive methods, and only the more accessible layers were exploited—in a barbarous fashion. Since the establishment of Soviet rule a radical reconstruction of the oil fields has taken place. Large new oil-bearing districts have been prospected. Great interest is evinced in the exploration of the sea bottom in the vicinity of Apsheron: oil has been found and is being drilled right out of the sea. These sea-bottom wells have fully justified their cost. The technology of drilling changed; it is now proceeding at a great depth, and

the results are exceptionally effective. All oil-drilling in Azerbaijan is mechanized. Huge compressor stations facilitate an increase in yield.

From the Baku oil regions high grade gasoline also is obtained. This fuel supplied the Soviet aircraft and tanks.

In recent years large-scale improvements were carried out in cities and villages. Baku, the capital of Azerbaijan, is a modern city with a population of over a million. New blocks of large and modern houses, and theaters and museums have been built.

On the eve of the war there were 3,500 schools and 13 institutions of higher learning in Azerbaijan, and an Academy of Sciences and numerous research institutes.

Certain special centers engaged in research on problems connected with the development of the oil industry have won world fame.

The theater, literature and art of the people of Azerbaijan have won recognition for their excellence throughout the USSR.

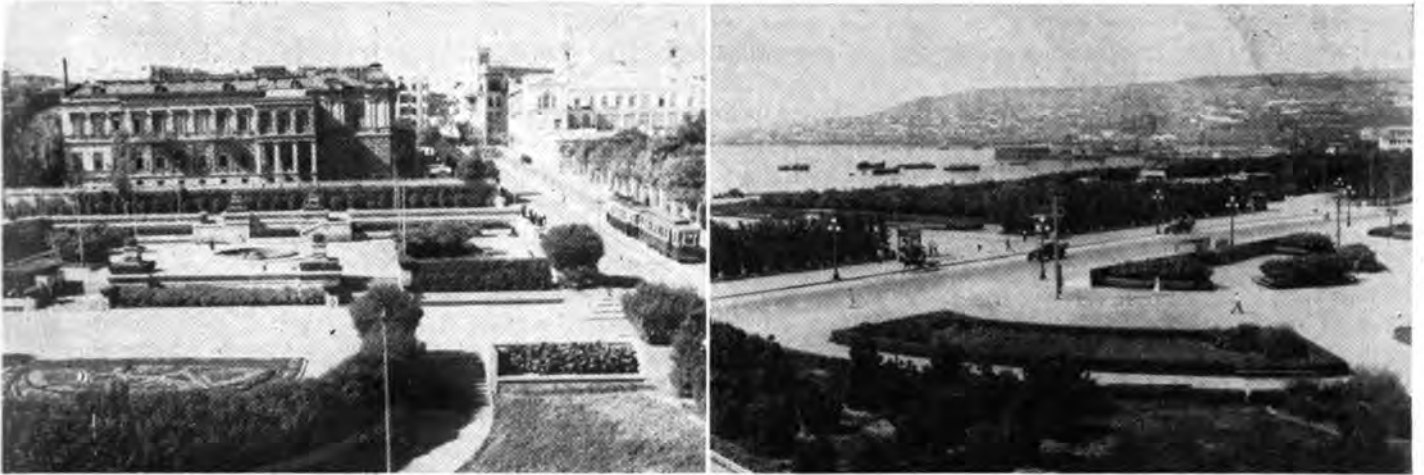
Leaders from the People

The fifteen members of the newly founded Azerbaijan Academy of Sciences are an indication of the cultural progress of the country. Twelve are Azerbaijanian, two Russians, and one Byelorussian.

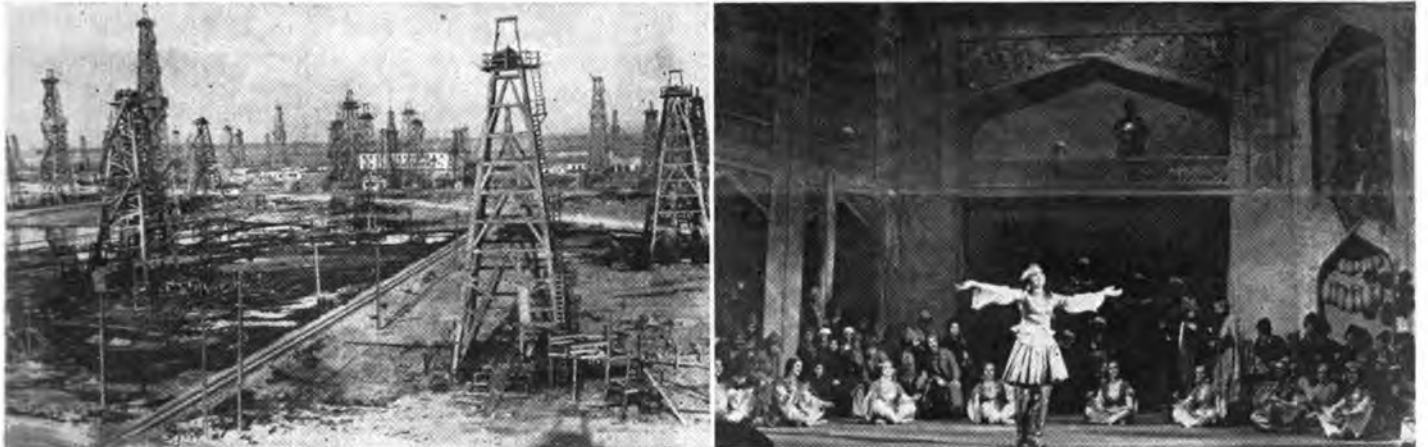
Sixty-year-old Academician Uzeir Hajibekov—founder of modern Azerbaijanian music—is a composer of rare gifts who draws his inspiration from his people. Before the Revolution he had composed melodies known far beyond the frontiers of his country.

One of the most revered poets of present-day Azerbaijan is also a member of the Academy. He revived the legendary hero Fhrad and the poet Vagif, a famous historic figure. Conceiving the fascists as evil spirits, Vurgun has woven folk poems of contemporary struggles

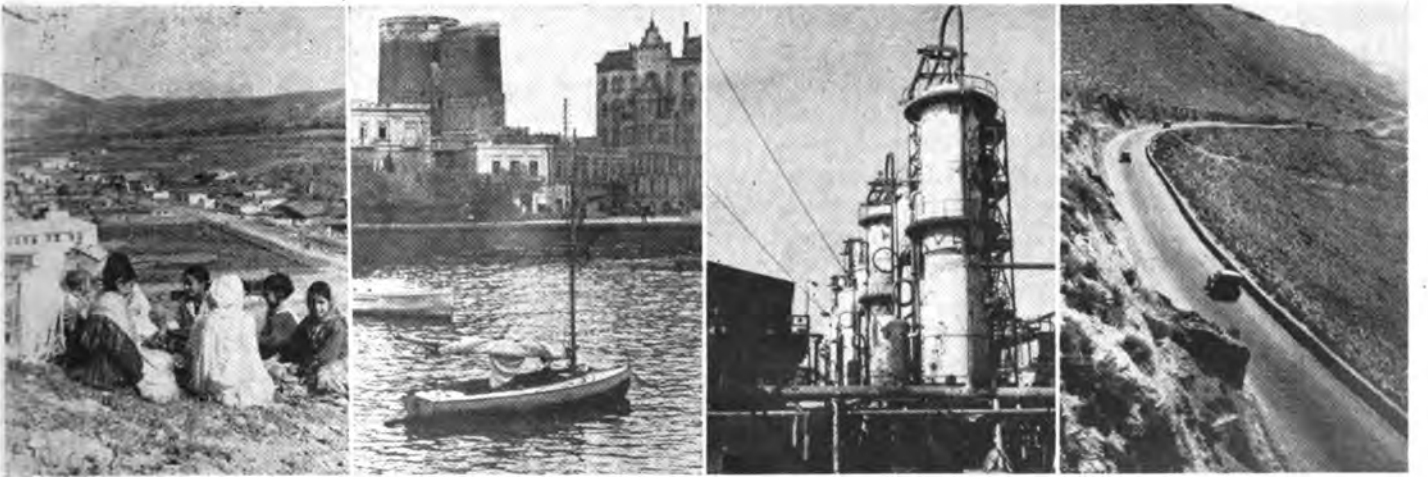
Transcaucasian Landscape



BAKU—Narimanov Street is an avenue of splendid buildings and carefully tended gardens; (right) Petrov Square has a view of the Caspian Sea



The structures of the oil wells are seen for miles on the level land; (right) A Decade of Azerbaijan Art was presented in Moscow's Bolshoi Theater. This is a ballet scene from the second act of the opera *Shakhsenem*



Collective farm children rest on a hillside

The Embankment and Maiden Tower of Baku

Stalin oil refinery in Azerbaijan capital

The highway leading to the oil fields

Agrarian Reform and Democracy

The following is the conclusion of a two-part article, the first of which appeared in the previous issue.

Quite different [from those following the First World War] are the conditions under which agrarian reforms are being carried out today after the Second World War, in countries where popular democracy prevails: Poland, Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria and Yugoslavia. In the first place, in these countries—for the first time in their history—there are governments able and willing to protect the interests of the people.

After the First World War, even where formal democratic principles of one kind or another and universal suffrage were proclaimed, the government remained in the hands of landlords and bankers. Today the democratic governments of these countries represent the broadest sections of the population: peasants, workers, intellectuals, artisans, merchants and manufacturers. This swing toward democracy has its effect on the agrarian reforms.

The reforms today are all-embracing. In contradistinction to the earlier ones when only a very small portion of the estates was alienated, today all the land belonging to the big proprietors is being distributed among the working peasants.

The present movement is being carried out in the interests of the peasantry as a whole. That is why a sharp distinction is drawn between landlords and peasants. The land of the peasant, even if it is more than he and his family can cultivate, remains in his possession, while that of the landlord, even if it is no larger in area, is alienated.

Behavior during the period of German occupation is taken into account. The land of the large proprietors who were guilty of the treason of collaboration with the Nazis to the detriment of the people is confiscated without compensation. Those proprietors who took part in the fight for liberation and who have definite services to their credit retain part of their estates (in Hungary, for example, 300 holds).

In the division of land, special privileges are granted to the agricultural laborers and small peasants who distinguished themselves in the fight for liberation.

The agrarian reform is being carried out for the peasants—not the landlords, as was the case after the First World War. Hence the compensation paid to the landlords is not calculated at prices artificially boosted by the monopoly of the proprietors, but within the means of the new owners, the working peasants. This means that the peasant is in a far better position to cultivate the land he receives. The payments for land are incomparably smaller than after the First World War when the government paid the landlords excessively high compensation and transferred the whole burden to the shoulders of the peasants who received the land. Today not only does the peasant pay the State a much lower price for the land but the payments fall due only after a period allowing time to get his husbandry going.

The democratic governments are also pursuing a radically different policy in supplying the peasants with the means of production. This is no longer regarded as the private affair of the individual peasant but as one of the tasks of the State. Many animals and machines and other means of production were destroyed during the war and the occupation. Some types of machines are not adapted for use on small farms. The government is arranging for the manufacture of agricultural machines, farm implements and equipment and also seeing to it that the available means of production are put to the best use. It also encourages the formation of peasant co-operative associations for the sale of produce and for the purchase of urban manufactures, with the object of precluding or restricting profiteering by middlemen. The government sees that cheap credit is granted to the peasants receiving new land in order to save them from falling into the hands of usurers. In a word, the government is doing its utmost to promote the prosperity of the peasants not only by allotting them land but by every other means at its disposal, as befits a government of, by and for the people.

The agrarian reform has radically altered the aspect of a number of east-European countries. The status of the peasant has fundamentally changed.

In Hungary, for example, before the

reform, 184 proprietors owned 962,000 holds of land; 869 owned 1,360,000 holds; 3,876 owned 1,530,000 holds. Today there are only 13 farms as large as 300 holds. They belong to the people who rendered a special service in the fight against the Nazis and their Hungarian underlings.

In all, some 4 million holds of landlord properties have been confiscated with or without compensation. Of 661,000 persons who needed land, 504,056 have already received allotments, including 177,790 agricultural laborers, 75,157 farm hands, 33,280 dwarf peasants, 22,951 small peasants and 15,165 artisans. The new farms average from 4.5 to 5.5 holds which is sufficient to maintain a peasant family of from four to five persons. As a result of the reform, the medium-sized farm now predominates in the Hungarian countryside; in the place of a few thousand feudal lords the land is now owned by hundreds of thousands of peasants.

In Poland more than 150,000 families, formerly landless peasants and farm hands, will this year be sowing their own lands. Over 200,000 small farms have now been substantially enlarged. In all, about two million persons counting the members of families have received land as a result of the reform.

Application in Germany

The agrarian reform in Germany is a special question. The decision of the Berlin Tripartite Conference relative to the economic principles to be applied to Germany states: "At the earliest practicable date, the German economy shall be decentralized for the purpose of eliminating the present excessive concentration of economic power as exemplified in particular by cartels, syndicates, trusts and other monopolistic arrangements."

Next to monopolistic organizations, the big estates are politically the most influential concentrations of economic power in Germany.

The aim set by the United Nations for completely eradicating fascism and Nazism calls for the destruction of the economic foundations of fascist barbarism. One of the most important of these is

the Junker estates. In the territories which have passed to the Polish Republic, the German Junker holdings are being abolished. But in the territories still in German hands these lands represent a dangerous and reactionary force, the destruction of which is one of the essential conditions for the future democratization of Germany. Together with the financial oligarchy, the Junker landlords were the real masters of Hitler Germany. They were always the protagonists of predatory German aggression and the main support of the misanthropic and chauvinistic ideology. The great feudal estates were the strongholds of German militarism.

It is therefore not without reason that the democratic anti-fascist elements in Germany are now urging the necessity of agrarian reform for the purpose, on one hand, of destroying the major economic bulwark of fascism and reaction and, on the other, of satisfying the land needs of the peasants and of the Germans repatriated from the neighboring countries. It need only be mentioned that in the province of Brandenburg one-third of all the arable land is held by the landlords. Of 106,768 hectares of arable land in the district of Prenzlau, 71,308 hectares belong to the large proprietors. The landlords are sabotaging; in this district, for example, 32 per cent of the arable land remained unsown this year.

There can be no place in the new democratic Germany for feudal landlordism and the Junker caste which constitute the backbone of Prussian militarism. Agrarian reform is one of the essential conditions for a genuine and lasting democratization of the country. At the same time, the abolition of the big feudal estates of the Junkers will be a serious blow to the forces of reaction all over the world.

Naturally enough the landowners are not disposed to reconcile themselves to the loss of their age-old rule. True, they constitute too small a minority of the population to start a fight single-handed against the democratic peoples and governments. But they are not alone. They have the backing of the reactionary forces in all countries. They have their followers—open and concealed—in practically every stratum of the population. They have followers among the big urban proprietors with whom they are linked by

partnerships in industrial, commercial and banking firms, or by family ties. There are protectors of the landlords' interests in government service, whose officials largely come from landowning families or are linked with them by financial interests. Lastly, the landlords have their agents among the upper classes of the countryside.

The fight against agrarian reform is being waged by every conceivable means. Certain agricultural "experts" allege that the breakup of the big estates will result in the decline of agriculture. The agents and landlords try to discourage the poor peasants and agricultural laborers from having anything to do with the agrarian reform by threatening them with the vengeance of landlords in the future. The officials who served in the old government administration try to delay the realization of the reform hoping that a political change will supervene.

The fight against agrarian reform often assumes the form of a bitter political struggle. The former Polish exile "government," for example, took up the cudgels for the latifundia, fought the Polish Provisional Government and stirred up nationalistic and chauvinistic feeling by fascist demagogy, the assassination of Polish patriots, etc.

On the other hand, in carrying out the agrarian reform, millions of peasants and agricultural laborers have been drawn into political life for the first time. This means that the broad democratic sections of the countries which were hitherto under the sway of the landlords are awakening and organizing. Thousands of rural committees were set up to assist the democratic governments in carrying out agrarian

reforms and to counteract the forces of reaction.

Agrarian reform on an all-embracing scale means the final abolition of the rule of the landlords. This is the earnest consolidation of the new democratic regimes in the countries of eastern and central Europe in which even the restricted formal democracy that has long existed in other countries was hitherto unknown and which were under the naked or barely-concealed sway of reaction backed by the big landlords.

At the same time, the satisfaction of the land hunger of millions of peasants is strikingly indicative of the progressive nature of the democratic regimes in the liberated countries of eastern Europe. So tangible an achievement of democracy as the abolition of feudal landownership and the allotment of the land to the broad mass of the peasantry will weigh more in the scales of history than the numerous abstract effusions on the subject of democracy with which a certain section of the foreign press is filled. As to the accusation of "totalitarianism" sometimes leveled at the popular democratic forces in the liberated countries—the time is not far off when this charge will only be regarded as the outcome of blindness.

The agrarian reform will always remain an important chapter in the history of European progress and European democracy.

In a number of European countries it is one of the most valuable sequels to the Second World War in which the freedom-loving peoples crushed the fascist enslavers. It is an essential condition for the growth and consolidation of popular democracy in these countries and a major factor in guaranteeing liberty, and peace among nations.

Appeal to Oil Trusts

All workers, engineers and employes of the oil industry have been urged to organize Socialist competition for the fulfillment and overfulfillment of the plan of coal output, refining and drilling.

The oil industry faces new important tasks. A tremendous increase in the number of automotive vehicles and internal combustion engines is planned.

In conditions of peaceful development

the equipment of agriculture with machinery will proceed at a rapid pace. Tens of thousands of new tractors and combines will be sent to the fields.

The country requires large quantities of oil, benzine, kerosene—all kinds of liquid fuel. The oil reserves of the Soviet Union are enormous and the main task is to obtain and refine the oil in required quantities.

Science Transforms Jungle in Far East

By N. Zagorodny

If you come to Vladivostok, the local people are sure to say to you: "Make a point of visiting the valley of Lyanchikha. It is the most interesting corner in the whole of the Far East."

Following their advice, I left Vladivostok by car early in the morning, and twenty minutes later we were traveling through the large, luxuriously green valley of Lyanchikha. It is only fifteen miles from the city and lies next to the track of the great Siberian railway. All around stretches the vast Ussurian taiga (jungle).

And here, amidst the hazel groves and climbing lianas, I suddenly found myself in a little glade where an orchard had been planted with trees hitherto unknown in such regions—apple, pear and plum. Slender vines were bowed down by heavy bunches of ripe grapes; nearby in a special field, large cabbages, tomatoes and cucumbers were growing.

This was a Far Eastern experimental station of the Soviet Institute of Plants, controlled by the Lenin Academy of Agriculture. The station established here ten years ago has become a most important research institution, which has done much to develop agriculture in the Far East.

Director Mikhail Smolei, whom I met in the vegetable field, proudly showed me a bed of large cucumbers named "Far Eastern Six," which yielded a harvest of eleven tons per acre, and radishes which provided a crop of twelve tons per acre, whereas the usual yield is 2.4 to 2.8 tons per acre.

The director also showed me a new species of pumpkin which, owing to its fine flavor, had been christened "The Banana Pumpkin;" he told me that many sorts of fruit trees and over 20 varieties of grapes had been cultivated here.

"Our vines are already growing in many collective farms of the Far East," said Smolei.

About thirty miles from this experi-

mental station is another research center: the mountain taiga station, named after Vladimir Komarov, former president of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, who worked many years in the Far East. The grounds have been laid out in virgin forests. Here you will find large fruit gardens, apiaries, and grain and vegetable fields. More than twenty-five scientists are busy verifying the results of various experiments.

Numerous problems connected with the development of agriculture in the mountain forest region of the Far East are being solved, and a great deal has already been done with a view to utilizing the fodder resources of the taiga for the livestock of collective farms. Results have been achieved in determining supplies of various edible, melliferous and medicinal herbs growing in the taiga. Several works on problems of the development of agriculture in these regions have been published in recent years.

In general, research in the Far East is done on a large scale. A dense network of the most varied scientific institutes has been created, and these play an important part in insuring the maximum utilization of the productive forces of this rich region. In addition to the research institutions already mentioned there are an experimental rice-growing station, a complex agricultural research station, an experimental silkworm breeding station and a large experimental apiary with some five thousand hives.

The Far Eastern Research Institute of Agriculture and Livestock Breeding, also belonging to the Lenin Academy of Agriculture, has been functioning for many years near the city of Khabarovsk. Finally, a branch of the Soviet Academy of Sciences was formed in the Far East last year, and 150 eminent scientists are now engaged in widespread research. The branch, which is in the city of Voroshilov, has numerous well-equipped offices and laboratories, and an excellent library containing some 100,000 books.

Papanin Tent to Museum

The only Soviet Arctic Museum is now being restored in Leningrad. It contains about 5,000 exhibits related to the history of the Arctic and the Northern sea route and the work of Russian expeditions to the Arctic.

During the war several hundred of the most valuable of these relics—among them pieces of equipment from expeditions headed by Russanov, Sedov, Amundsen, Papanin and others—were evacuated to the rear. Now all of them have been brought back to Leningrad. The famous Papanin tent, removed from the drifting ice floe, has been erected in its former place.

Coal from Arctic

A railway has just been opened linking the new coal mines of Intra—at the confluence of the rivers Great Usa and Ugolnaya in the Soviet Arctic—with Leningrad and other industrial areas of the USSR.

The existence of these coal deposits has been known since 1915 but their exploitation began only in 1942. Until the opening of the railway all transportation had to be by sea via Archangelsk, the White and Barents Seas and the River Pechora and its tributaries.

Experts believe that Intra will become one of the largest coal basins in the Soviet Union.

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Centuries of Art—Tretyakov Collection

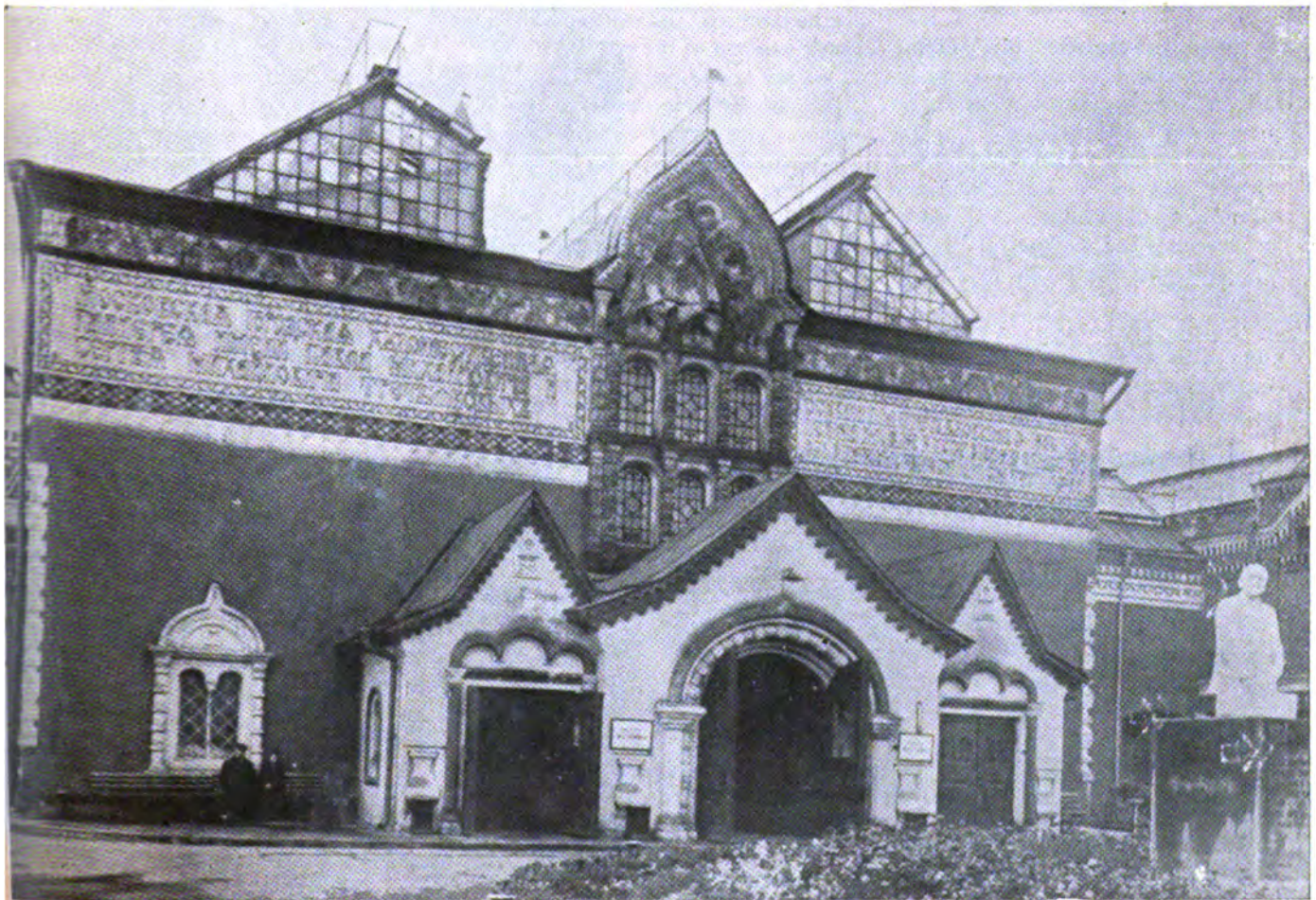
During the wave of the democratic movement in the 'sixties and 'seventies of the nineteenth century, the Tretyakov Gallery was founded, bringing to the fore a group of brilliant painters, of which Kramskoy, Perov, Ghe, Repin, and later, Levitan, were the nucleus. Their canvases formed the original Tretyakov collection. With the aim of fostering

ideological education and democratic impulses, these artists established the "Association of Traveling Exhibitions."

They created a portrait gallery of the great public figures of Russia—Leo Tolstoy, Dostoyevsky, Turgenev, Nekrasov, Moussorgsky and many others. Not sparing the scenes of the hardships of the Russian people, the overbearing attitude of

the functionaries and the viciousness of the social system, they depicted the life of their country.

I. M. Kramskoy, noted painter, fiery critic and splendid organizer, was the leader of this movement. Among his numerous canvases in the Tretyakov Gallery are the portrait of Tolstoy, a self-portrait, a painting of the poet Nekrasov



As a lifetime of systematic accumulation Pavel Tretyakov laid the groundwork for the State Museum. The first painting of the great collection was acquired in 1856



Visitors spend hours in the section devoted to the middle nineteenth century. Intellectuals and workers come in equal numbers. Right, the theater and art world were well represented at the opening of the Moscow State Gallery. Here a celebrated group discuss their impressions—(from the left) painter Vassili Yefanov, sculptor M. Manizer, film star Lyubov Orlova, architect B. Jofan and film director Gregory Alexandrov

and "Inconsolable Grief," the figure of a woman standing by a coffin, petrified with anguish.

He could lay character bare, illuminate feelings and passions. The artist exercised an immense moral influence on the painters of his generation.

The great Russian realist Repin was a disciple, and he is also abundantly represented in the Gallery. His works in the 'seventies and 'eighties of the last century awakened the public to a social consciousness.

The realism of the national school of painting of those days was strikingly and deeply expressed in Repin's canvases, in which he did not confine himself merely

to stating the fact of the oppression of the masses of the people in tsarist Russia; he perceived and expounded the emotional strength of the people.

Visitors spend hours gazing at Repin's "Ivan the Terrible and His Son Ivan," which is a masterpiece of dramatic vigor and picturesque brilliance. Repin painted a number of the great men of Russian culture. His vast compass includes portraits of the composer Moussorgsky in the decline of his life, a young woman fallen asleep in a chair, a self-indulgent dignitary—one of the public figures of the ancient regime—and a girl, splendid in her maidenhood, against the background of a sunlit Russian landscape.

With his strength, his spirited temperament and inexhaustible optimism, the artist penetrated the character of each new figure, enjoying its beauty or unmasking its crassness and pettiness.

Among other painters of the period is Perov, whose portrait of Dostoyevsky is remarkable for its virility. Small but highly expressive is "Funeral of a Peasant."

There is also the genre painting of Yaroshenko, who won fame with "The Stoker," the first portrayal of a workman in the history of Russian painting.

The battle scenes of Vereshchagin and the landscapes of Shishkin are well represented. The figures of Christ ("Golgotha") by M. Ghe, portraits of Herzen



AT THE EXHIBITION—Artists Dementi Shmarinov and Sergei Gerasimov with their wives before the Repin masterpiece "Ivan the Terrible." Right, spectators are impressed with the works of Soviet artists—the portrait of the ballet dancer O. Lepeshinskaya (center); the painting of People's Artist I. Moskvina (left); People's Artist A. Tarassova (right)

and of others, and the historic composition "Peter and Alexei," are distinguished for their deep conviction.

Forerunner of the realists of the sixties and seventies was Fedotov, a splendid colorist and a sharp satirist, who became famous with small but brilliant canvases—"The Major Comes to Woo," "Merry Widow," and others—all shown at the Tretyakov Gallery.

Toward the close of the last century the remarkable work of Surikov in the Russian school of realism had a marked influence on art. His truly monumental people's epics established a definite stage not only in Russian but also in world historical paintings. The inspired "Exe-

the sharp bend of the Volga is solemn and stormy, and in the distance is an endless blue expanse.

An aspen grove lit up by sunset ("Last Ray") is converted by Levitan into gossamer orange-hued lace, which shimmers against the background of a pale sky. "Eternal Rest," "March," "Evensong" and "The Fool" are among the finest of this artist's creations in the Gallery.

"Girl With Peaches" was the first work of Serov, exhibited in 1887. A year later came his "Girl in the Sun." When Tretyakov saw the first painting of the young unknown artist he predicted a great future for him.

Serov visualized man and nature in complete and profound harmony. In the two canvases mentioned both girls are suffused with light, even the shadows done in color.

Ornaments of the Tretyakov Gallery are Serov's portrait of the comedy actress, Fedotova, drawn in broad, free style, and the portrayal of the Italian opera singers Tamanio and Mazzini, and the composer, Rimsky-Korsakov.

The interpretation of the great Russian actor and singer Chaliapin and of the tragedienne Yermolova are examples of brilliant, monumental portraiture, which had no equal in Russian or world art of the second half of the past century. Yermolova, clad in black, is standing in the spacious foyer of a theater. The lines of the actress' stately figure are flowing; her face, calm and composed, expresses will power and temperament.

The portrait of Scherbatova, the last



The portrait of Pavel Tretyakov by Ilya Repin shows him in one of the halls of the Gallery he founded



Radiophoto

HONORED VISITOR—General Dwight D. Eisenhower on a tour with other notables admires paintings by Vasnetsov

cution of the Streltsi," "The Exile of Boyarinya Morozova," "Menshikov in Berezov" and "The Conquest of Siberia by Yermak" are masterpieces.

The struggle of the *Raskolniki* (dissenters) for the old orthodox faith against the established Church (seventeenth century) was unfolded by Surikov as a drama of the people. His painting of Boyarinya Morozova reveals a gamut of characters and the apotheosis of human feelings.

Levitan's canvas "Vladimirka" depicts the road crossed on foot by the exiles to Siberia. The centuries-old sorrow of the people, like a song without words, is expressed not by the narration of the subject, but by the power of the emotional image—the desolate, dreary road which stretches far away into infinity. In the painting "Eternal Rest," showing the mighty Russian river and a neglected cemetery along its bank, the sky above

work of the great Serov, hangs among the masterworks of the Tretyakov Gallery. It is signed "November 21, 1911, 2 P.M." On the following morning Serov died.

The works of these creators were the acme of Russian art on the eve of the Revolution. The Gallery was an early medium for disseminating ideas, but only in a very short arc. Tretyakov by no means succeeded in acquiring all the best of Russian painting in general or of Serov in particular. The finest canvases were locked up in private residences, since



TRIUMPHANT RETURN—Canvases brought back from evacuation are mounted on new frames. E. Kudryavzev (in the background) is in charge of restoration work

they were the property of bankers, merchants, and other wealthy people—of whom Serov was wont to say with characteristic irony: "There are fools in all parts of the world who, if you please, want portraits . . ."

Tretyakov tried to gather the most important canvases of his time, as well as the masterpieces of the eighteenth and first half of the nineteenth century.

The destiny of Russian art was thus closely associated with the famous Tretyakov Gallery, the center of the art education of many generations of Russians.

In 1892 Tretyakov presented his Gallery to the City of Moscow. After his death, the Gallery became the scene of a struggle between the progressive artists and the conservative members of the municipality.

A new building was completed in 1902

with a facade executed in the Russian style by V. Vasnetsov. The walls painted in red are effectively decorated with tiles bearing ancient Russian ornamentation.

The October Revolution heralded a changing existence for the Gallery. In November, 1917, at the suggestion of Lenin, a Collegium for Museum Matters and for the Preservation of Monuments of Arts and Antiquity was organized. The Tretyakov Gallery became an important center of this work. Cannon was still thundering on the fronts of the Civil War, the newborn Soviet Republic was still in the vise of blockade and intervention, when intensive creative work began.

Art pieces from private collections began to arrive in huge numbers. For the first time the people could see splendid paintings which had been locked up in monasteries and private collections. As-

sembled, these works brought renown to their authors, till then known only to a small circle of connoisseurs.

The nationalization of the Tretyakov Gallery occurred in June, 1918, in accordance with a decree signed by Lenin, not only declaring the museum State property but indicating its new function as a true people's center.

At the time of the Revolution there were 4,000 paintings in the Art Gallery. By 1938 there were 11,000 and today the collection numbers 40,000 works of art. A library on art of over 30,000 volumes and valuable archives, in which are preserved correspondence of Russian artists and documents on art, were added after the October Revolution.

The State Tretyakov Art Gallery today represents a unique museum of national paintings.

"The Three Russian Knights" painted in oil by Victor Vasnetsov (1848-1927)





"The Exile of Boyarinya Morozova" by Vassili Surkov (1846-1916) is a tragedy in old Moscow. The struggle of the dissenters against the orthodox established church of the seventeenth century was unfolded by Surikov as a drama of the people

Moscow State Picture Gallery Reopens

By A. Lebedev

Vice Chairman of Museums and Galleries

The building was closed, the treasures in safekeeping in the years of the war. All the more valuable works—some 18,000, including fragile pictures and statues requiring special handling—were evacuated to the interior of the country. Great skill and courage were needed to carry out the transfer, the success of which is evident from the fact that the renowned art collection is again on view.

The Gallery, damaged by fascist bombs, is fully restored and the great event—the reopening—has occurred. In the past this most popular art museum was visited by almost a million people annually. Since the May inaugural endless streams of people have visited the Tretyakov Gallery; on a single Sunday as many as 12,000 have thronged the doors.

The skill of some of the finest artists of the USSR has matured here. One of the best of the moderns, Stalin Prize Winner M. V. Nesterov, said:

"When we were youngsters at the school of painting and sculpture, we knew the way to Lavrushinsky Street very well. Here we emulated Ivanov, Bruilov, Kiprensky, Fedotov, Perov, Savrasov and the others. As the Gallery grew we also grew, and our understanding, tastes and, I may say, our love of art."

The best works of the great Russians—Rublev, Shubin, Levitsky, Ivanov, Repin, Surikov, Shishkin, Levitan, Serov—are all here. Not only a chronicle of the development of Russian art, they are also a mirror of history—the struggle of our ancestors against the Polovtsy and Tatars, the epoch of Ivan the Terrible, the deeds of Peter I, the magnificent epic of 1812, the Decembrist movement, peasant rebellions, events of the October Revolution and the great struggle of the Soviet people against the German invaders.

In Soviet years the Tretyakov collection has grown about ten times. It has outgrown the modest name of "picture gallery" and become a museum where not only paintings but also sculpture and applied art are found. The recent expansion may be judged by the fact that the pre-Revolution Gallery did not have such pictures as the Vladimir "Madonna," Rublev's "Trinity," Borovikovsky's "Portrait of Kurakin," "Christ Appearing to the Multitude" by A. Ivanov, Shishkin's "Morning in a Pine Forest," Kramskoy's "Unknown," Serov's "Girl With Peaches," Vrubel's "Spain," Repin's "Pilgrims," or Polenov's "Overgrown Pond."

The Department of Ancient Russian Art is much larger than its original size and a Department of Soviet Art has been added. Even during the war 600 new exhibits were acquired, many of which will be hung for the first time. Now on



A. M. Izmailova
by Alexei Antropov
(1716-1795)



Ursula Mnishek
by Dmitri Levitsky
(1735-1822)



Lopukhina
by Vladimir Borovikovsky
(1757-1825)



Peasant Lass
by Alexei Venetsyanov
(1780-1847)

exhibition are landscapes by Aivazovsky and Shishkin, a portrait by Repin, a picture by Ghe and works of Soviet artists—A. M. Gerasimov (a group portrait and a portrait of General Yeremenko), P. I. Kotov (painting of General Shovkunenko) and others.

Prized possessions are "Leniniana" painted by Andreyev and the portrait of Stalin by the same artist.

The new system of arranging pictures in the Gallery is considerably different from that in vogue before the war. All the work of one artist is shown in one room to make it easier to study the

specific features of the artist and his development. Much more space has been allotted to sculpture and drawing. More complete collections are found of the works of Ivanov, Shubin, Bruilov, Repin and Serov. In hanging the paintings, the lighting peculiarities of the different walls were taken into consideration. The Department of Soviet Art was never so full and so rich as in the new Tretyakov Gallery.

If the visitor goes over the Gallery conscientiously he will begin with the art of ancient and medieval Russia, expressed chiefly in mosaics, frescoes and icons. All the important monuments of early Russian art are present and easily rival the best work of the West European Renaissance.

The great eighteenth-century portrait painters—Rokotov, Shubin and Levitsky—are shown in separate rooms. The works of Alexeyev, Marveyev, Shchedrin, Lebedev, Lozenko, Kozlovsky, Martos, Borovikovsky, Brunin, Kiprensky, Tropinin, Venetsyanov and Fedotov are placed to advantage.

The Tretyakov Gallery was originally founded to show the creations of the "Peregrinators" the progressive, democratically-minded artists of the second half of the last century, who strove to express Chernyshevsky's ideas in art. No other museum in the world has so representative a collection of Perov, Kramskoy, Shishkin, Repin, Antokolsky,

Surikov, Vasnetsov, Makovsky, Savrasov, Levitan and Serov.

Repin's works, especially well hung, occupy two large, well-lighted rooms. Surikov and Vereshchagin are in two other halls. Then follow the rooms with the works of Vrubel, Korovin, Arkhipov, Malyavin, Ryabushkin, S. Ivanov and others.

Almost the whole ground floor is devoted to the works of Soviet art, which is demonstrated as integrated with Russian art. In this way the continuity of our traditions is stressed. It is a fine heritage which holds heavy responsibility.

(Continued on page 8)



In 1881 in the decline of the composer's life Repin painted Moussorgsky



Portrait of Crown Princess Morozova by Repin



One of the most famous paintings of the collection is "Ivan the Terrible and His Son Ivan" by Ilya Repin. The tsar and dying tsarevich are depicted with dramatic vigor. The tragedy is enacted in the ancient royal apartment, conveyed in brilliant tones. Right, in the "Cossacks of Zaporozhye" (1880-1891) a letter is being written by their scribe to the delight of the assemblage. The composition is a crude retort ridiculing the Turkish Sultan who had requested the Cossacks to give up Zaporozhye to join his guards



"Fording Towmen" (1872) is a scene on the Volga. Two of Repin's works characterized the life of the oppressed boatmen. Right, the artist's "Leo Tolstoy on the Plowfield" (1887) shows the writer at Yasnaya Polyana



"The Major Comes to Woo," is an animated and penetrating study by Pavel Fedotov (1816-1852). The splendid colorist here uses satire to advantage. Right, "Peter I Questions Crown Prince Alexei Petrovich in Peterhof" of Nikolai Ghe reveals a tragic moment in the conflict between father and son—really between two concepts. The active figure of Peter the reformer demonstrates his ascendancy over the passive protest of his son



"Lenin in Smolny" is the work of Isaac Brodsky (1844-1935). Lenin is shown in his study which is now preserved as a museum

REOPENING

(Continued from page 6)

ities. It is a challenge to an artist to be compared with the great masters Repin, Levitan, Serov. The Soviet section is good enough to stand the test. Again and again we realize the great progress that our artists have made.

The works of Nesterov, Malyutin, Rulov, Grabar, Meshkov and Yuon predominate. There are Andreyev, Mukhina, Merkurov, Brodsky, Grekov, A. Gerasimov, Johanson, Kukriniksy, Yefanov, Korin, Deineka, Toidze, Konchalovsky and Lebedeva, all of whom show wide scope in ideas and styles.

Most of the paintings and sculptures which have been awarded Stalin Prizes are shown. Those which I put in first place are: "In an Old Urals Factory" by Johanson, "Worker and Collective Farm-woman" by Mukhina and "Comrade Stalin" by Merkurov. Here are the best of Ostroumova, Lebedeva, Chadre, Mani-

zer, Lishev, Saryan, Baksheyev, Iansere, Pavlov, V. Yakovlev, Sherwood, Krymov and Byalynitsky-Birula. It is satisfying to find the works of the younger Soviet artists and sculptors so well represented. In particular the large sculptured group, "Alexander Nevsky" by Orlov, is admired.

Quite a number of the works are devoted to events of the Second World War. Among them are pictures by Kukriniksy, Plastov's "The German Has Flown Past," Deineka's "Defense of Moscow, 1941," and Pakhomov's drawings on the defense of Leningrad. Shmarinov, a Stalin Prize winner, is represented by a series—"We Shall Not Forget" and "We Shall Not Forgive."

Many thousands of pictures are still in storerooms despite the fact that 22 large exhibit halls have been added to the Gallery since the October Revolution. In the near future construction will start on a new block of 28 large rooms

which will bring the total number to 80.

Not only a museum, the Tretyakov Gallery is also an important center for the study and popularization of Russian art. The Gallery has issued millions of reproductions of famous pictures by Russian masters and a number of pamphlets and monographs.

During the war the staff gave as many as 5,000 lectures for army units, hospitals, schools and collective farms, and organized about 40 art exhibitions. Among those in Moscow were: The Great Patriotic War, Front and Rear, and a Repin review.

In addition to keeping their own pictures in perfect condition a special group of restoration workers restores and preserves unique works of art.

Saved from the fascists by the vigilance of the museum workers, the centuries of creative art of the Tretyakov Gallery are an inspiration to Soviet people and a heritage for future generations.

Noted Soviet Sculptress

By Mark Neiman

One of the Soviet Union's outstanding artists is Vera Mukhina. Her work, extremely popular here, is known to thousands of people abroad. Two early sculptures, "Wind" and "Peasant Woman," were a great success at the International Exhibitions in Venice in 1928 and 1934. Crowning the Soviet pavilion at the International Fair in Paris in 1937 was Mukhina's "Worker and Collective Farmwoman." Towering above the display the sculpture stood as a symbol of the Soviet land—its youth, its vigor and progress.



Vera Mukhina in her study in Moscow

Today a creator of monuments of world renown, Mukhina gained recognition gradually. In 1925, after several years of hard work, the sculptress exhibited three works, "Julia," "Wind," and a torso, which showed her as an artist of ample talent. Some time afterward, scoring several triumphs at shows of the Society of Russian Sculptors and at the "Fifteen Years of Art in the Russian SFSR," Mukhina won for herself a foremost place among the country's leading artists.

The sculptress' later course and particularly her endeavors in recent years are marked by the milestones that have helped to perfect her art. During that period she executed part of the interior decorations in the famous "House of Mother and Child" and conceived the models of two distinguished statues, "Science" and "The Diver," for the

Moskva Hotel. At the same time she completed a frieze for the large structure on Gorky Street in Moscow. The panel is distinguished by beauty of design and a severe, flowing rhythm of the figures blending with the architecture of the building. To this same period belongs her project for a fountain—an original decorative composition called "Fountain of Nationalities" designed for the grounds of the Palace of Soviets.

The monumental character of Mukhina's art is most evident in her portraits. While faithfully reproducing the model, Mukhina's portraits are always representative types, as in "Partizanka" and "Ballerina Semyenova." This is particularly true of her busts of Doctor Zamkov and of Zamkov the architect, both marked by a steady dignity and vigor. Of a different character is her interpretation of her son. It is altogether intimate and imbued with warm sentiment. During the war Mukhina worked on a gallery of war heroes.

It is generally agreed that her triumph is "Worker and Collective Farmwoman," the sculpture which adorned the Soviet pavilion at the International Fair in Paris. It is a 25-meter work of stainless steel, depicting a worker and a collective farmwoman holding high above their heads the hammer and sickle emblem of the Soviet Union. The dynamic movement of the two figures is accentuated by the curve of the whole composition, the breadth of the step, the backward swing of the arms and the wind-tossed hair. It is to Mukhina's great credit that she succeeded in organically blending her sculpture with the daring project of the architect. Thus the Soviet pavilion, with Mukhina's statue topping it, was an excellent specimen of the style in art which is arising in the Soviet Union.



The Worker and Collective Farmwoman



Ballerina Semyenova



Professor Zamkov



Partizanka

A People's Museum

By Alexander Zamoshkin

Director of the Tretyakov Gallery

Generations of our countrymen have studied the art of the Tretyakov Gallery. The ideals represented have helped to form the outlook of our most progressive people. The great paintings have been closely associated with the Revolutionary movement and advanced democracy. *Pravda* regarded the collection as a medium of propaganda before the Revolution. Once in conversation, Nadezhda Krupskaya remarked that these works of art strengthened her comrades in their revolutionary outlook.

Lenin, who believed that art should be related to life and play an active part in deciding the most urgent problems of the people, also considered the Gallery an important factor in raising democratic enthusiasm. His interest in Russian painting may be judged from a letter written by Krupskaya to his mother from abroad, in which she said that Lenin often became absorbed in the study of a catalog of the museum which someone had sent him.

The noted art repository has had an influence not only on artists but on writers and actors. In a letter to Chekhov in 1900 Maxim Gorky said the Art Theater had become as fine and significant as the Tretyakov Gallery.

Stanislavsky called Tretyakov the Russian Medici. Nemirovich Danchenko, co-founder of the Art Theater, found the art works applicable in his activity as a producer, and maintained that every actor should be able to find in them inspirational and practical material.

Tributes to the valued collection—which is well known abroad—



An exhibit of 150 works by 21 artists and sculptors has as its theme the artist-patriot. The Baltic sailor in the foreground is by Roos

have been received from Henri Barbusse, Romain Rolland and other eminent writers and artists of the West.

In our own day the people's interest in early Russian art has grown extensively. The particular beauty, the profound

meaning of our native culture was revealed in the days of war, and now is felt in these joyous days of victory. In the past we see foreshadowed the present glory of the Russian people.

The awakened attitude toward our heritage is expressed by visitors to the Gallery:

"It gave us officers from the front a great deal of pleasure to look at pictures by Russian artists. Our pride in the painters who have shown the character of the Russian is deepest now that our people have won their overwhelming victory over the enemy and have earned the right to call themselves victor people."

Soviet sailors wrote: "As you leave the Gallery you feel again the grandeur of Russian national art. We are sincerely proud of our country and her great people."

Army men, workers, students, professors or collective farmers—all are agreed that the culture of Rublev, Ivanov, Kiprensky, Kramskoy, Repin, Antokolsky, Surikov, Serov, Levitan, Vrubel and Nesterov is a rare and precious spiritual domain. There has been no impulse of the soul for which a painter has not found expression. The works of art assembled not only bring the spectator into contact

with the masters but also inspire a sense of citizenship, goodness, truth and beauty.

Great interest today is centered on the oldest examples of Russian painting. When guides begin a tour of the eighteenth-century room, groups ask to be shown earlier works.

These have profound meaning.



"Defense of Sevastopol" by Alexander Deineka (1943)

"Trinity," by the icon painter Rublev, predominates. Visitors linger before portraits of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries—by Rokotov, Levitsky, Borovikovsky and Kiprensky—and admire the sculptures of Shebin, the landscapes of Shchedrin. Bruilov is growing increasingly more popular. Ivanov's famous "Christ Appearing to the Multitude" is studied with concentration; Fedotov's small pictures receive careful scrutiny.

In the room where Perov's works are hung there is preference for the "Funeral of a Peasant," "Sleigh" and "The Huntsmen." Kramskoy's portraits of



"The Unforgettable" of Vassili Yefanov (1900—) is the meeting of the representatives of the Government with delegates of the Council of Wives of Engineering-Technical Workers. They engaged in volunteer activities during the period between the First and Second Five-Year Plans

Russian writers and his "Christ in the Wilderness" attract great interest. The landscapes of Shishkin and Kuindzhy are greeted as scenes familiar and dear. Vasnetsov's epics, especially "The Three Russian Knights" and his lyrical "Alenushka," never fail to produce a lasting impression.

Naturally, Repin and Surikov stir the spectators with their exalted subjects. Serov's creations and Levitan's vibrant landscapes are always stimulating as are Vrubel's symbolism and rare craftsmanship and the sparkling and vital paintings of Korovin.

With all this devotion to the past, there is no neglect of Soviet artists: Nesterov's portraits, Johanson's "Interrogation of a Communist" and "In an Old Urals Factory" and Grekov's "Battle Scenes" are closely examined. There is keen interest in A. Gerasimov's "Stalin and Voroshilov," "Portrait of Lepeshinskaya" and "Old Artists"; Efanov's pictures; Vera Mukhina's sculptures—"Maxim Gorky" and "Bread"—and those of Shchadr; Grabar's and Yuon's landscapes and the work of S. Gerasimov and Plastov. The new treatment of problems by

Orlov, Korin, Deineka, Konchalovsky and Saryan arouse animated discussion. Excited critics study the collaborative art of the three persons working under the name of Kukrinyksy. Shmarinov has eager devotees.

Foreign visitors seek an understanding of the Russian greatness of spirit in our visual art. They note the democratic feeling, the humanity and spiritual quality, and declare art a unifying force in all countries.

The director of the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship, Edwin Smith, who saw an exhibition of pictures and sculpture that reflected the Rus-



THE GREAT PATRIOTIC WAR—"Young Partisan of the Kalinin Front" by Alexei Laptev (1942)



The story of the guerrillas was dramatic material for Soviet artists. This is "Byelorussian Partisan" executed in wood by Yuri Neroda in 1943

sian people's democratic spirit through the centuries, said he hoped his countrymen would have an opportunity to see examples of Russian culture. The scientist, Charles Kellogg, spoke of his pleasure in seeing the history of the people through the eyes of their artists. The French scientists who attended the Jubilee Session of the USSR Academy of Sciences said that the Gallery was a revelation to the habitue of Paris museums where Russian painting is scarcely represented.

The president of the Royal Asiatic Society in Bengal, Maghnad Saha, called the collection "a panorama of Russian art



The martyrdom of Zoya is chronicled in many mediums. There is a plaster cast by Manizer Soviet womanhood in the war is personified in the plaster figure by Ekaterina Balashova

from the time of Vladimir to our own day."

Robert Robinson, vice president of the Royal Society of London, and Thomas Holland, vice chancellor of Edinburgh University, considered the exhibition "unique" and "profoundly impressive."

To comply with the public demand, special cycles of conducted tours have been arranged which include from three to eight visits for each group, usually composed of workers, intellectuals and students. The crowded schedule of these guided visits is evidence of popular interest in the treasure house of Russian art.

TASS WINDOWS

By Lev Varshavsky

A large and colorful poster showing Hitler speared to the wall by a pen, a pencil and a bayonet arrests one's attention on the streets of Moscow these days. Entitled "Our 1,000th Hit," it is the 1,000th poster in the TASS Windows series put out since June 22, 1941.

The political posters made their appearance with the first rumblings of war, when a group of artists and poets united for action under the auspices of the telegraphic agency of the Soviet Union and devised this form of immediate response to the country's wartime needs.

In doing so they followed in the footsteps of Vladimir Mayakovsky who during the Civil War applied both his gift for political satire and his artistic talent to keeping the Soviet people posted through the medium of daily placards on the situation at the front and the important problems of the day.

The TASS Windows during the war followed up Soviet Information Bureau communiques with pointed cartoons

supplied with brief, pithy texts recounting the exploits of Soviet fighting men, the heroic work of the men and women in the rear and the struggle of the guerrillas behind the German lines, and exposing the absurd lies circulated by Hitlerite propaganda.

"Work went on day and night in our studios," says P. Sokolov-Skalya, the artist, recalling the tense days in the early part of the war. "We were always on the spot, working sometimes three shifts turning out posters as fast as the news came in."

The 1,000 posters put out during the past three years of war can be regarded as a unique chronicle of the war. They are also evidence that our artists and writers are in step with the swift onrush of events, and that their work has become more pointed and alert than ever. Looking over an album, one is forcefully reminded of Goya's sketches of scenes from the Spanish people's struggle against the Napoleonic invasion. "They seem to

be painted not with brushes but with fists," someone remarked on viewing these drawings in the Madrid Museum. The same could be said of many of the present posters.

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Preschool Program Serves Parents and Children

By Eugene Medynsky

Member of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences

Among all the wartime figures these are undoubtedly some of the most interesting: While in the Russian SFSR in 1941 there were 14,335 kindergartens with an enrollment of 723,000, on January 1, 1945, there were nearly 18,000 kindergartens taking care of about 2 million children. This does not include summer accommodations for nearly 2 million other youngsters.

Preschool institutions as such are, of course, nothing new, but never have they attained a scale as great as in the USSR today.

As far back as 80 years ago progressive Russian educators were giving serious consideration to the training of the very young. They launched the first Russian journal dealing with preschool education. The growth of interest in this field was particularly notable among progressive teachers after the Revolution of 1905 when societies were organized in a number of cities to open free kindergartens. But in spite of all these efforts, practically no progress was made in Russia until the October Revolution in 1917. The tsarist government and local administrations, with few exceptions, had no interest in preschool education.

The result was that by 1917 there were,

all told, no more than 250 preschool institutions in Russia with only a dozen for

of only the rich. The total number of children did not exceed 5,000.

After the Revolution the State made public preschool care a primary concern. With the very inception of the new system, hundreds of kindergartens and playgrounds came into being as the Government and trade unions assigned lavish appropriations for this purpose. A Preschool Department was established at the newly formed People's Commissariat of Education.

Through discussions in the press and conferences, a new system and methodology were worked out for preschool education which differed from those of Froebel and Montessori both in method and aim. In 1918 a higher pedagogical school was established in Moscow to train skilled teachers and educators for the early years, and later other specialized schools, as well as numerous training courses for kindergarten personnel, were opened.

With the growth in the number of parents who wanted to take advantage of these institutions, the number of kindergartens and playgrounds as well as children's homes for youngsters not yet of school age

has been increasing from year to year in all the Republics of the Soviet Union.



IN A MOSCOW CHILDREN'S HOME—These children have conceived their own merry-go-round

the general public, the rest private institutions charging fees within the means



A full day's program provides care and directed play for the preschool group. Activities include everything from playing with dolls and animals to creative and constructive occupations. These little girls have chosen their favorite possession to hold while being photographed



Building blocks are a lways popular. Boys and girls use them with equal enthusiasm. At the left the familiar "playing house" is in progress, while the plump child on the right is pleased with her shiny horse



Nursery and elementary schools are often attached to the factories. In this way the child and parent may see each other frequently. The dining room pictured is at factory kitchen No. 7. These children of Red Army men are served free of charge

During the years of war this development was spurred on by the influx of Soviet women into industry and other war work.

The principal institutions now are the kindergartens, which take children from three to seven years of age and which, during busy seasons in the countryside, are augmented by temporary playgrounds. Orphans cared for at the children's homes

are supported wholly by the Soviet State.

The kindergartens keep the children ten to twelve hours a day, and there are also those where mothers may leave their children for the whole week, except Sunday—a convenient arrangement for parents who work on a night shift. Meals are provided. These institutions perform a dual function, giving the children the

guidance they need and enabling the mother to combine motherhood with the realization of her civic rights and duties—in social and administrative activity as well as in production.

Play is the main means of bringing up the child, by developing him mentally and physically. He actively participates in the life around him. The games and the simple lessons are, of course, systematized, but they lack the dry, abstract pedantism of the Froebel and Montessori methods.

The Soviet method of child education strives to take into account the psychological peculiarities of children at different stages, particularly the fact that a child's interest tends to flag quickly and that he wants to reason in terms of concrete things. Because of this, diversity is the rule and planned games and lessons alternate with the games the children themselves choose. Abstract occupations are thus cut to a minimum, and the youngsters are made to feel natural and at ease.

The kindergartens also inculcate habits of independence, hygiene and diligence, and teach respect for equipment. Courtesy toward adults and good behavior in general are emphasized.

The sponsors and organizers of the preschool program are boards of education, trade union committees, industrial enterprises and collective farms. These institutions may not be operated for profit.

The staff members at all preschool institutions have rigid requirements. The director, for example, must have a secondary education, while those in charge of large kindergartens are graduates of preschool departments of the higher pedagogical schools. The teachers, each of whom is in charge of a group of 25 children, are graduates of secondary pedagogical schools or have general secondary education rounded out at special courses.

For advanced training and assistance in procedure there are the Central Methodological Section and similar institutions functioning locally under the boards of education. Conferences are frequently called, and specialized literature and magazines are published. Other institutions helping preschool workers include the Institute and Museum of Toys, the Preschool Research Section of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences and specialized

Musicians in the Making

A new Soviet film *School of Talent* has just been completed. It deals with the life of 450 children studying music at the Moscow Conservatory.

In order to gain admission to this school a child must possess exceptional musical talent. He must maintain his promise year by year if he is to complete the course. The 450 pupils have 150 teachers, half of whom are professors. In addition to music they go through a full ten-grade course of general education.

The film shows five-year-old pupils whose first lessons look rather like a game. With special clappers the children beat time as a march from Glinka's opera *Ruslan and Ludmila* is played. Another shot shows a room where senior students are studying rhythmic.

Children of many nationalities come to

this school. Tavrid Garmiev, a gifted student, arrived from Ulan-Ude, in distant Buryat-Mongolia. When he learned of the existence of the school he gave his mother no peace till she brought him to Moscow. Another student is a Czech, Yaroslav Rubinstein, aged eight, whose father joined the Czechoslovak Corps in Russia to fight against Hitler. A Russian boy, Dodia Demidov, aged six, comes from Leningrad where he remained all through the siege. His mother died there from starvation and his father was killed fighting on the Leningrad front.

The final shot in the film shows the pupils sitting for their graduation examination in a large hall which is open to the public. In this way they learn that confidence and self-possession which are indispensable for a concert artist.



Young builders follow their teacher's suggestions with eager interest

departments at pedagogical institutes.

During the summer months the kindergartens in large cities move out to country houses in the suburbs. Besides the rural collective farm playgrounds opened during the busy agricultural seasons—there are those for city children, with the same aims and the same regime as regular kindergartens. Last year there were accommodations for 62,000 children at



Left: A little girl from the South receives her musical education in Abkhazia; (center) A group of participants in a concert pose beneath a banner symbolizing Stalin's solicitude for children; (right) Class in harp-playing. One student is a Tatar, another a Russian.

Below, lower: Members of Moscow schools present a concert; above: Professors Yampolsky and Stolyarsky give an audience to a talented young Jewish violinist

urban playgrounds, and for 1,865,000 at those maintained on the collective farms.

Cultural Monuments Destroyed

The destruction wrought by the Germans to cultural monuments during their occupation defies description.

The Grand Church of the monastery in Kiev of the eleventh century, the Novgorod churches, and the Cathedral of the Assumption in Bolotovo, fourteenth century, are in complete ruins.

In utter ruin, too, is the English Palace in Peterhof built by Quarenghi. Of the Grand Peterhof Palace built by Rastrelli only the bare walls remain. The palaces in Gatchina and Pavlovsk built by Rinaldi and Cameron were destroyed by delayed-action mines placed in their walls.

Before destroying the Grand Church of the monastery in Kiev, the Germans plundered its museum of its unique collection of gold and silver articles. When the curator Chernogubov tried to stop them, one of the German officers brutally remarked, "Take care, if you value your life. The fuehrer has given permission for every officer or soldier to take what he wants. This is our legitimate spoils of war."

Soviet architects, artists and scholars are making every effort to restore the wrecked monuments to their former grandeur wherever it is possible.



PRAVDA—Its Name Is Truth

By B. Polevey

(On September 21, when the 10,000th edition of *Pravda* appeared, the Editorial Board was congratulated by the Central Committee of the Communist Party and other organizations. The Order of Lenin was awarded by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for successful work in educating the working people in the spirit of Lenin and Stalin and for outstanding services in mobilizing the people for the building of a Socialist society and for the defense of their country.)

Campfire

This picture will never fade from memory any more than a scar ever fades completely from a body. Snow is falling softly in large wet flakes that melt as they touch the ground, and through the wreathing veil you can see that glare of a fire that seems to spread over half the sky. Against the blood-red background two endless, soundless columns of people are silhouetted as they trudge through the mud road.

It is my native town of Kalinin burning, set on fire by the Germans who have partly occupied it. The townspeople who do not want to live with the enemy are leaving it, carrying their children and their pitiful belongings. In the opposite direction march the workers' battalions, a motley crowd armed with guns of all makes and periods; they are going to the last decisive battle for the town.

We had to spend the night in a village on the outskirts. The log cabin was crammed already, so we lay down on the ground in the open air. Somebody gave us a bit of straw to lie on. A fire was burning a little way off, and refugees were warming themselves by it. There are no words to describe the despair on those faces frozen in grief.

I did not notice a little woman who came up to the fire with a newspaper, but suddenly I saw that the crowd around the fire had swelled and grown denser. High over the sounds of that mournful night—the crackle of cross-fire nearby,



Sketch by P. Vasilyev

The editors of *Pravda*, June, 1917—Stalin, Molotov, Lenin

wailing children, creaking carts and lowing cattle—rose the emotional voice of the reader. We moved closer. She had *Pravda* in her hands and was reading the leading article, which I remember clearly, "Strengthen Your Ranks and We Will Break the Enemy Assault!"

Nearly four years have passed since then, but I remember the woman reading the stirring words of Alexei Tolstoy and the concise, laconic items by Stavsky, and then again that headline article which called upon us to rally, to strain every nerve and gave us heart and confidence in the outcome of the struggle. It seemed as though the Communist Party itself were speaking to the people through its newspaper, and in its words those who had just lost home and kin, whose native town was set ablaze by the enemy, found comfort and encouragement to carry on.

The crowd around the fire never thinned. The woman came up again and again to read that issue of the paper which

someone in the stream of refugees had brought. When we fell asleep on our straw, her thrilling voice was still in our ears.

It was past midnight when the chill air woke us. The fire was still burning, the crowd around it still dense. Another voice, a man's, was reading now. The endless night grew colder. The campfire burned more brightly, the crowd grew larger, and all night long through the veil of softly falling snow came the voices of voluntary readers taking turns. They came and went, but the words of *Pravda*, like the roadside fire, warming and comforting, pointed the clearly-seen goal, uttered the clearly-heard call, and foretold victory.

On the Other Side

When I climbed into the cockpit of a communication plane in the spring of 1942 to make my first flight across the front to the Smolensk guerrillas, the en-

gine was already going. The pilot, suddenly remembering something, got out again. I watched his lumbering form, like a bear in his high fur boots, cross the flying field to the dugout man on duty. When he came back a wad of folded newspapers was sticking out of his leggings.

Why hadn't I thought of it before? A journalist cannot turn up in a guerrilla country without the latest news. A fresh newspaper means more than a case of cartridges.

On this flight I went to Orekhovka Village in Spas-Demensky District of the Smolensk Region, the outermost fringe of the guerrilla country. Here I learned the adventures of one copy of *Pravda*, dropped by plane very likely, and picked up by Ekaterina Zharinova, a collective farmer. It was at the time when the Germans, who were approaching Moscow, spread rumors in print and by word of mouth that Moscow and Leningrad had already been occupied and that the Red Army was retreating toward the Urals. It was a terrible blow to the people living here behind the enemy lines to hear stories of this kind.

Then this copy of their own newspaper *Pravda* was found and it had Comrade Stalin's speech in it, the one he made at the parade in Red Square on November 7, 1941. There were photographs of the tanks in the parade and of the Mausoleum and the beloved leaders. The people realized then that the Germans were lying, that Moscow was standing fast and that, as Stalin was there, the Germans were never likely to set eyes on it.

Ekaterina Zharinova's copy of *Pravda* became a sacred relic to which pilgrimages were made. From distant villages and from other districts, messengers were sent on foot by their home villages to read Stalin's speech, examine the photographs and feel the paper.

The fact of its existence became known to the Germans and a punitive detachment drove up in a truck and descended upon Ekaterina. Her house was surrounded, she was tortured, questioned as to where she had obtained the paper, where she had hidden it, to whom she had read it, and who came there to read

it. The brave woman betrayed no one—and perished.

But the printed word survived. Later her daughter Ekaterina found the paper in its secret hiding place in the garden behind the gutted house. Once more it was passed from hand to hand, cheering Soviet people in captivity and calling upon them to rally and fight.

Even now there are stories and legends told about that paper, guerrilla Nikolai told me with a smile. One story goes that the Germans tried to burn it, but it wouldn't burn; they tried to drown it, but it wouldn't sink. And they say that it opens people's eyes.

That is why its name means—Truth.

The Letter Never Mailed

One wild and bleak September evening, when the keen wind of the steppe whistled through the smoking ruins of Stalingrad, I made my way to a narrow slit-trench dug in the side of the now famous Mamaev-Kurgan Mountain. It seemed to have been scalped by explosions, and on closer examination resembled the moonlit landscapes in children's school textbooks. The editor of a little news sheet published by a crew of marines handed me a letter neatly wrapped in oiled paper.

"This is addressed to you. At the *Pravda* office it has got a bit knocked about, I am afraid. You will have to excuse its condition—we are all reading it."

It was almost tattered, folded in an

intricate triangle as soldiers' letters usually are, and differed from the ordinary letter only in that through the very middle there was a frayed bullet hole. On its outer side was a spot of brownish blood. I could still read the address: Editor-in-Chief, *Pravda*, Moscow.

This is what I read and copied from the letter that was never sent:

"... and when we read yesterday in *Pravda* the fiery appeal of the heroes of Tsaritsin, we wanted to reply through the paper to those same old heroes who had fought the enemy where we are fighting him now and tell them that there are still some heroes left on Soviet soil.

"Then, too, we want to tell Comrade Stalin himself through *Pravda* that he has no need to doubt us, we shall hold out in his city, glorious Stalingrad. May the Volga turn its course before any of us turn back! And may the comrades of those old Tsaritsin heroes who wrote to *Pravda* know that we are not weaker than our fathers were and that they will never have to blush for their children.

"All the citizens of our multi-million USSR should know this through the columns of *Pravda*, the organ of the Central Committee of our party, and should never doubt the marines of Mamaev-Kurgan."

"We found this letter on the body of Volodya Selyuk," the editor said. "It lay with his Komsomol ticket in the left-hand pocket of his blouse. The bullet went through the ticket and heart. We did not send the letter. You must forgive us

A fresh newspaper comes up to the First Byelorussian Front. The world and the Soviet rear speak from *Pravda's* pages to the defenders of freedom



for not doing that because we read it to the new men—the reinforcements—who came to us from across the river. It is not very snug out here on the Kurgan and Volodya's letter gives us an idea of how to think and act," the editor concluded, wrapping up the letter in the oiled paper.

In Berlin

This happened in Berlin on May 3, when the wind was driving puffs of acrid smoke through the blackened, jagged ruins and the anti-tank rifles were thundering near the Reichstag, dislodging the last of the resisting SS troops.

The capital of fascism had fallen; the thing that had been dreamed of all over the world had happened at last. But although the Red flag was waving over the Reichstag, everything within sight—the churned-up asphalt square at Brandenburg Gate, the stumps of old lindens gnawed by shells in the Tiergarten, blood still wet on the pavements and the enemy dead who lay in piles or singly—were all evidence of the battle that had just subsided.

Our soldiers who in the course of these four years had learned to adapt themselves to any conditions managed well enough here too, in the wrecked and plowed-up square of the enemy capital. An appetizing smell came from the shadows of Brandenburg Gate where a field kitchen had been set up. Infantrymen seated by the anti-aircraft gun were eating their midday meal with the greatest relish. An artillery crew with its gun had settled down in the ruins at the entrance to the Tiergarten and were resting on the grass; above them on the marble head of Wilhelm II, whose monument had been destroyed in the explosions, a musician was playing the songs of his native village on an accordion.

Then a gaily decorated truck turned into the square and from under a tarpaulin a rosy-cheeked, curly-haired girl jumped out. She had a bundle of newspapers in her hands. The truck was surrounded in a minute by a large and noisy crowd clamoring for *Pravda*. I opened a fresh copy that smelled of printer's ink and was astonished to see the date—May 3rd. Today's issue! I looked at the picture of the flag being hoisted over the Reichstag; this had taken place at dusk yesterday evening. I read a detailed account of all that happened. It seemed incredible that the news around me was already off the presses at home. Even the tank with "Friends in Arms" painted on the turret was still standing in the same spot at the Brandenburg Gate in the heart of Berlin.

It is literally true that the issue made a terrific impression. It was read by the men sitting on the fragments of Wilhelm II. It was read in the portico of the Reichstag. It was read by the tankmen who sat with their legs dangling on the armor of that very tank in the picture. *Pravda* congratulated them on their victory. The leading article called upon them to strike the conclusive blow. And we, *Pravda's* war correspondents who read our paper in front of the Reichstag that day, still surrounded by the smoke of Berlin's fire, felt prouder than ever of being *Pravda* men.

The picture came back to me of that dreary autumn night near blazing Kalinin when the newspapers, in which the victors of Berlin were now reading of the grandeur of their achievement, had comforted and quieted the dismayed souls of the retreating people; had fired their anger against the enemy; had urged them to stand fast to the death and, even in those early days, foretold the victorious march from Moscow to conquered Berlin.

NEWSPAPER DECORATED

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR has decorated the Red Army newspaper *Red Star* with the Order of the Red Banner, in recognition of its valuable work in political education and

in perfection of military training of Red Army personnel, and for actively preparing Red Army men, officers and generals for the complete and successful rout of fascist Germany.

X-Rays for Lung Cancer

At a recent medical congress in Moscow, devoted to the problem of cancer treatment, a paper was read by Professor Jacob Dillon, a prominent Soviet scientist, on "The Latest Achievements in the Treatment of Cancer of the Lung."

Professor Dillon spoke on data acquired from over 1,000 cases of cancer which were studied in his special clinic. This experience made it possible to obtain a high percentage (up to 95 per cent) of correct diagnoses.

Many scientists in all countries believe that—except in cases where surgical aid is feasible—X-ray is of little value in the treatment of lung cancer, and often only shortens the patient's life.

Professor Dillon stated that his experience refutes this belief and that his method of X-ray treatment proved quite effective. Dillon increased from four to five times the strength of X-rays used to treat the seat of the lung cancer, with the result that the cancerous tumor was destroyed and the lung healed over.

Rays of such high tension are not directed at the entire lung. The affected part is divided into 35 or 40 concentrically situated fields of an area of not more than five square centimeters each. An X-ray beam of low power is then directed to each of these fields. The aggregate power of the rays on 35 or 40 such fields amounts to quite a high dose, which thus cures the lung without having a destructive effect upon the body as a whole.

This method, Professor Dillon stated, makes it possible greatly to extend the life of people suffering from lung cancer. Five hundred out of 1,000 cancer cases kept under observation in Professor Dillon's Moscow clinic have been completely cured.

Ten of Professor Dillon's former patients were present at the congress in Moscow. They had been admitted to his clinic five years ago with advanced symptoms of lung cancer. Like hundreds of others, these patients underwent the cure under the professor's supervision and are now entirely healthy and have had no relapses.

IN RUMANIA

By Ilya Ehrenburg

Part I:

As the airplane was circling above the Bucharest airdrome I could see a motley crowd with banners. I had not known that this was the day on which Petru Groza, Chairman of the Council of Ministers, was to return from Moscow. I had hardly time to look around me before I was swept along by the tide of people who broke the barriers and rushed up to the Government plane. These were people of the South, passionate and demonstrative. "Gro-za! Gro-za!" they shouted in a regular beat. They all stretched their arms toward the plane as though happiness were being handed out from it. It is to be regretted that this picture could not be observed by those foreigners who, having "observed" Rumania from a distance, persist in assertions that the Government of Petru Groza does not express the thoughts and feelings of the Rumanian people. Such observers are not to be convinced.

I have no intention of polemizing, I merely wish to tell why the people shouted and laughed and rejoiced at the airdrome: I understood that later when I was going through Bucharest's streets, when I traveled about Rumania, looking at her beauty and her poverty, when I talked to the Rumanians. Not content with talking to democrats, I talked to enemies of the Government, the boyars who had lost their estates, ex-prefects and ex-mayors now left without revenues and marauders who had become billionaires while the Germans were here. I saw workers and ministers, writers, students and peasants. I understood Rumania's age-old sorrow and the hope of her people.

You cannot efface in six months what was built up in centuries. Rumania presents startling contrasts to the new arrival—gorgeous Bucharest and nearby coal fields of the Zhiu Valley, where the miners live in caves and crawl into their holes like beasts. Bucharest itself is not lacking in contrasts: a skyscraper with a hovel beside it; a luxurious car and a cart drawn by oxen; a lady in a many-tiered Paris hat and a barefoot

peasant woman in homespun; a boyar's mansion with birds of paradise, Della Robbia ceramics in the stables, Louis XV dressing rooms—and then a chimneyless log cabin. Exquisite French cuisine and life on the verge of starvation. Literary salons where the supporters of Mallarme argue with the adherents of Corbiere, and on the other hand millions of illiterates who have to make a cross in lieu of signing their names.

I am not speaking of picturesque contrasts or of theatrical effects, but of the profound tragedy of people doomed for centuries to stagnation.

Is it to be wondered at that now when a peasant sees the dawn of a new life, when for the first time he is not a mere taxation unit, not a draft horse or an ox, not gun fodder in the hands of adventurers, he swears to defend from all attack the people who have acknowledged him a citizen and a man?

"What a poor country," foreigners said of Rumania when they saw the peasants whose dream was a good dinner of cornmeal mush. Yet Rumania, is by nature a rich country; the soil is fertile—wheat, rice, cotton, tobacco and grapes are cultivated. And the earth has resources of oil—large resources of oil—and coal and iron of a quality as high as the Swedish. It has timber and salt and many other necessities. It was poor because the rulers thought only of one thing; their own enrichment. A gulf divided the people from the handful of Bucharest idlers.

They all remember the days of horror and humiliation when Legionaries tore people to pieces and hung their bodies in a slaughterhouse. All remember the massacre at Odessa. Who brought the Rumanians to such degradation? Not only those who went openly under the name of fascist, not only Antonescu or the Legionaries but also those who called themselves "democrats." These were the forerunners of fascism. They now dream of becoming its disciples, the so-called "historical parties." There is nothing historical in them, unless we are to dignify by the name of history the

petty despicable events that took place in Bucharest between two wars—bribery, corruption and fraud.

Two parties or, to be exact two clans, one after the other strove to drug the people with the pretense of opposition views, with promises and parodies on elections. None but the blind could assert that democracy existed in Rumania previous to fascism. Military courts were working even in the years of peace. Social conflicts were decided with the aid of machine guns. Prisons were overcrowded. Sleek and scented interrogators of the Siguranets persuasion tore the nails from the fingers of prisoners. The opposition party promised the electors freedom and boots, inviolability of person and a new bridge in place of a rotten one. But before the elections, suspected villages were isolated; typhus was supposed to be rampant. Some electors were treated to plum vodka, others were beaten.

"Democracy," according to Bratianu or Maniu, was represented by electoral canvassers armed with bludgeons. Thus did the "historical parties" prepare for the triumph of fascism. When Antonescu set out to capture Anapa and Feodosia, he kept Bratianu and Maniu by him for a rainy day: who could tell when they might become useful? These two drank Bessarabian wine and had the sense to hold their tongues.

After Germany's initial defeats, Antonescu suggested publishing a declaration by the silent pair along with their pictures in the papers: it was time for a reshuffle. The cardsharps had calculated everything except—the climate of liberty. The liberated nation resolved to open a new history of Rumania in which there would be no place for "historical" tricksters.

Like people, countries have good or bad luck. Rumania was lucky, she was on her deathbed, yet she recovered with comparatively little harm done. Bucharest is perhaps one city in liberated Europe where the least want is felt. But still Rumania had paid heavily for the blindness of her rulers; one may judge this on the roads of Moldavia rather than on the

boulevards of Bucharest, and by the hunger-stricken hill districts rather than by the smart people from *Mon Plaisir*.

Petru Groza's Government came to power only six months ago. It found the country in a fever: prices were soaring, transport was disorganized, the Legionaries were forming conspiracies after the fashion of the German "werewolves."

As may be supposed, the Rumanian Government is faced even now with immense difficulties. To recover from such a disease takes time. But much has been done. The people have acquired confidence in the future. The men at the helm are honest and bold; they do not and they will not cheat the people.

The aid that the Soviet Union is giving the country is of enormous importance. There is a high nobility of soul in our people's conduct. Antonescu's soldiery has done us much harm. We have not forgotten this, nor can we forget it. But while in Rumania, the Red Army saw the gulf between the Bucharest adventurers and the plow men. The fascist contagion did not touch the souls of the Rumanian people. A great deal is written nowadays about re-educating Germans. I am not going to talk about that. I only want to say that there is no reason for re-educating the Rumanians, they must be educated. That is all.

I have often heard from our officers and soldiers good, sound, sincere words about the Rumanian people. It is hard to find adequate sarcasm when one is speaking of stupidity of the boyars, the avarice of the Bucharest profiteers, the cheapness of the local snobs—but you cannot cast a stone at the people. Their history is tragic, they have struggled hard against the boyars, against alien enslavers, they have hungered and lived in darkness. There was not only no light in the peasant hovels, there was never an enlightening word. The people toiled and endured, for they are an industrious and noble people. To this people we stretched out a brotherly hand and our aid to Rumania will go down in history as an example of humanity and depth of soul.

* * *

There is no denying that in Rumania some are dissatisfied with Groza's Government. The "historical parties" do not like being left out of history. They would

give much to turn back to the times of the chariot. History ended for Maniu with the Hapsburg Empire and now all malcontents have rallied around this ghost; they are landowners who have lost their large estates, robbers who are indignant about controlled prices, ex-mayors who are deprived of their feeding troughs. They are few, but they make plenty of noise. The Rumanians are used to it, and the noise that the "historic" bankrupts are making creates a much greater impression abroad than at home.

Of the 22 daily papers printed in Bucharest, seven belong to the opposition. The press is reminiscent of the Italian press of the early twentieth century with its melodramatic headlines, blatant appearance and news vendors announcing the "sensational" news to the street. It all produces an apocalyptic feeling that the world is revolving three times a day.

In Bucharest there is a gourmands' restaurant, *Kwapsba*, where one may dine well and listen to the tirades of the wronged. I saw several boyars who told me that the agrarian reform was an "inept and impractical project." Nevertheless, the reform has been put into practice and 900,000 peasant households have received land. As may be supposed the distribution of land is not to the liking of Antonescu's ex-minister, Aurelio Pan, who has lost 1,500 hectares. But I have seen peasants to whom the reform was very welcome. We stayed in the village of Koshenic where I called on a landowner. He discussed things in a depressed tone. Then I went to see the peasants; they were in high glee. I shall never forget Elizaveta Sava. Raising her arms purple with grape juice (wine is being pressed now), she said, "Now we are going to live."

It has been a cruel summer; the sun-scorched fields look like deserts. Rumania has not seen such drought for many years. In the hill districts it will be particularly hard. But in the valleys grain has been gathered, and notwithstanding the heat, the feel of autumn is in the air: they are drying tobacco and arranging their weddings. I went to one. The peasants carried out a fir tree hung with bread and little flags, they drank plum vodka from wooden pitchers with painted

ornaments. An old woman said, "It will be easier for the young, they will never know our sorrows." There was a note of springtime in these words and in the joy of people given a chance to live.

The profiteers are dissatisfied with the Government and assert that there is no "freedom." At the same time, trade restrictions are much less severely imposed than they are in England. The disease known as "black market," that is, rampant speculation, is sweeping liberated Europe. This accounts for the shortage of goods, and the habit of earning easy money that arose during the years of German occupation. Some shopkeepers do only backroom trade with their acquaintances. Price control is the only method of checking inflation, and the workers, despite their terrible deprivations, refuse to fight for higher wages. These are true patriots. They want to save the country from ruin so they tighten their belts and work. Beside them the robber accustomed to spending his summers at Deauville and his winters at Nice complains, "This is not Rumanian democracy, this is violence."

It must be pointed out that people from various strata have united around Petru Groza. Tatarescu is representative of big capital. It would be absurd to call this Government the organ of the workers. But it is a democratic Government which fights against reaction and wants to raise the country out of ignorance into progress, freedom and happiness.

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Latest Five-Year Plan

By Boris Braginsky

Of the State Planning Commission

Soviet Five-Year Plans have achieved great success at home and admiration abroad. The whole world saw how the Soviet Union built up heavy industry during the first Five-Year Plan, erected thousands of new factories and united millions of peasants in collective farms equipped with modern farm machinery. The first Plan was completed in four and one-quarter years. The second made still greater gains, for it reorganized the whole national economy on the basis of modern technology and established the Soviet Union first in Europe in industrial development. The third Five-Year Plan undertaken shortly before the war was being successfully fulfilled.

A tenfold increase of Soviet industry during the 15 prewar years made the Soviet Union an important industrial and military power. The fact that all Plans were successfully fulfilled shows their great vitality, correctness and realism.

How is this vitality to be explained?

First, the Plans agree in full with the most vital interests of the peoples of the

USSR. Everyone in the USSR realizes that an increase in the strength of his State—closely affecting his own well-being—depends on the successful fulfillment of the Plan. It is this conviction which has been responsible for the invariable attainment of the Plans.

Second, the Soviet Plans are based on scientific principles; every assignment, every figure is carefully computed from an economic and technical standpoint.

Economic plans are not merely lists of figures compiled by scientists in the seclusion of their studies. The program begins at the bottom—in the factory workshops, on the collective farms, at the railway centers and in the roundhouses; it is correlated by local economic bodies, summarized by the Central Economic and Planning Organizations and, after confirmation by the Government, becomes law. But the chief factor in the Plan is that it revolves around a central idea; the general tasks to be accomplished are delineated by the Government, the guiding body in all economic life.

Now that the war is over and the Soviet Union is engaged in peacetime activities, the Government has instructed all planning organizations to prepare five-year plans for the restoration and further development of the economy during the period 1946 to 1950.

The first and most important work is the complete rehabilitation of the economy of regions that suffered from enemy action. After the First World War the chief industrial countries of Europe required ten or eleven years to bring their industrial output up to prewar standards. Everyone knows that the destruction and losses of the USSR in the present war greatly exceed those of the First World War. Total damage to industry and collective farms and to property of individuals amounts to the sum of 679,000 million rubles, in 1941 prices.

The rehabilitation of industry, agriculture and transport will not be merely a reproduction of what existed before the war. Rebuilt factories will be better equipped and have larger quantities of



Boring a well on the Timiryazev collective farm in Kazakhstan. Right, at Chkalov engineers check up on their blueprints at the construction site of the Orsk-Khalilov works, one of the largest enterprises of its kind in the Soviet Union



L. Fedorova and V. Sorokina of Krasny Proletary Plant regularly turn out twice their quota



Stakhanovites Kochurashkin and Kucherin assemble a lathe in a Kiev machine-tool works



Compressors being given finishing touches in a Soviet factory



Work starts on a 350-foot smokestack at Orsk-Khalilov coke-chemical plant

machinery; they will make use of the technical experience gained during the war, and new and more highly perfected technological processes will be introduced. All this means that factories will greatly exceed their prewar output.

Reconversion of the national economy is another essential project. During the war the Soviet Union converted thousands of enterprises to the manufacture of war materials. These factories are now to return to the production of civilian goods, and in addition, many war factories will be converted for making equipment for industry and transport.

According to the new Plan all the regions of the USSR are to undergo further expansion. The Urals, the Volga Basin, the Far East, Siberia and the Central Asian Republics greatly increased

their industrial production during the war. Many new factories were built and their output increased each year. These regions will serve as a base during the first years of the new Five-Year Plans for the speedy restoration of the ruined economy of the southern and western sections of the country. Machine tools and locomotives made in Moscow, Gorky, Saratov, the Urals and Siberia will go to the Ukraine, Byelorussia and the Baltic Republics.

In general, restoration of the economy of the Republics affected by the German invasion occupies an important place in the Plan. The young Soviet Republics of Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia and Moldavia not only have to heal the wounds caused by war, but they have to raise their whole economy to a higher technical level. With

this aim in view measures will be taken to encourage local industries and industrial cooperatives.

The Ukrainian Republic, speedily re-established, will be a huge coal and iron center as well as the breadbasket of the USSR. The Dneiper power station will begin to provide current in 1946, the iron and steel foundries of the South are already sending out metal. These mills will soon be completely rebuilt on modern lines—in fact, the whole economy of the Ukraine will be based on the latest technical ideas.

Soviet planning has always included cultural as well as economic development. The new program calls for an extensive increase in domestic building, especially in the eastern regions, the rebuilding of dwelling houses and municipal undertakings in the liberated regions, the rebuilding of hospitals, libraries, theaters, schools, sanatoriums and other such installations. The output of consumers' goods will be developed at top speed in plants formerly used for war production.

The people have suffered many privations in order that victory might be won, and they are now anxious to offer industrious and persistent labor to heal the wounds of war, to strengthen their country, to live in peace and friendship with other liberty-loving peoples.

The new Five-Year Plan will be an inspiration to the millions of working people of the Soviet Union.



SARATOV—A new shop has been built in one of the local plants for the manufacture of optical goods

ELECTION EDICT

With the termination of the war and the expiration of the powers of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR of the First Convocation, and in accordance with the Constitution which states that the date of elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR must be announced within at least two months of elections and that elections are to be carried out on a free day, the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has decreed: To appoint elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for Sunday, February 10, 1946.

Hall of Triumph

The Banner of Victory raised by Soviet soldiers over the Reichstag on April 30, 1945, and later brought to Moscow, has been installed in a permanent place in the Central Red Army Museum which has opened a Hall of Banners. The banner stands on a high pedestal in the center, under glass—a very simple flag of red cloth with an inscription in chalk.

During the storming of Berlin, the Military Council of the Third Shock Army ordered nine banners made—to be hoisted over the Reichstag—and later issued them to the infantry divisions advancing in the spearhead of Marshal Zhukov's troops. Banner number five, issued to the 756th infantry regiment advancing at the head of the 150th division, was hoisted.

This was the one given to Captain Neutroyev's company. Senior Sergeant Sianov's men headed the attack. At 2:25 P.M. Moscow time on April 30 they fought through the Reichstag, reached its dome, and Red Army man Mikhail Yegorov and Junior Sergeant Mikha Kantaria raised the Banner of Victory. Two days later Berlin surrendered.

In the Banner Hall of the Museum beneath the Victory Banner lie 200 German standards which, at the Victory Day parade on June 24, 1945, were flung before the Mausoleum in Red Square.

Embroidered with gold and silver and decorated with ribbons, they lie prostrate before the modest scarlet banner.

Hitler's personal standard lies on the floor at the base of the Victory Banner pedestal.

Consumers Goods Increased



A one-ton steam hammer manufactured at Orjonikidze works in Donbas

Light industry is sharply boosting the output of civilian goods according to Sergei Lukin, People's Commissar of Light Industry of the USSR.

But some time will be required for complete reconversion, although the experience gained during the war, when industry was quickly geared to wartime tasks and launched new lines on short notice, will help the engineers and technologists in their present task of re-gearing to peace. The People's Commissar pointed to the fact that in the course of the war, light industry increased production for the Army several times over.

Many shoe and clothing factories are at work rearranging production lines and installing machinery for goods for the general market.

The factories of the industry in which the People's Commissar is active, are paying particular attention to the quality and finish of their products. The latest fashions are being put into production and the output of postwar innovations is expected to amount to a sizable figure.

Perfected processes and methods will be employed extensively. This summer knit-goods mills will put in operation over 1,000 automatic stocking-knitting machines, and equipment for the production of high-grade linen is being installed. The manufacture of many discontinued items, including some fine fabrics will be resumed. Goos-Khrustalny, Nieman, Kiev, and Krasny Mai (Kalinin Region) glass factories have expanded kitchenware and window glass and launched the output of dinner sets.

The People's Commissar said that hundreds of the industry's plants wrecked during the German invasion have been rebuilt. Restoration work will be continued this year in more than 300 clothing, shoe, knit-goods, leather-goods and glass factories. Dozens of rehabilitated enterprises are scheduled to open by the end of the year, among them boot and shoe factories in Kiev, Minsk, Kursk, Simferopol, Lvov and Riga.

In the Central Asian Republics a number of light industry enterprises, the construction of which was discontinued at the outbreak of war, are to be completed.

Mill machine operator S. Rakitina in the Soviet Far East



Museum of Red Army Communications

By V. Shepelev



Under enemy fire a signalman restores a telephone line **Correcting artillery fire on the Northern Front** **Damaged wires are repaired by a member of a Guards unit** **Radio Officer Kozlov and Sergeant Anna Telikhova on duty**

An old building in a Moscow street now houses the Museum of Red Army Communications, a collection of more than 3,000 items characterizing the development of communications techniques of the Russian Army from the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-1878 to the present.

Among the exhibits, displayed in a large hall, are various documents and models of the equipment and weapons used in communications by the Russian Army. A special department is devoted to combat activities of the Russo-Turkish War, when the Russian Army for the first time availed itself of electrical telegraph apparatus. These relics and trophies attest to the exploits of Russian communications of old.

Of special interest is the telegraph apparatus captured by Russian troops during the storming of the Ardagan fortress. Here, too, there is the Honor Roll listing men who distinguished themselves in battle and other documents attesting to the glorious traditions of Russian communications.

The next deals with the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905. Here one may see further development of Russian communications. In this theater radio communications were applied for the first time.

Documents, diagrams and photographs depict the first experiments of valiant Russian radio operators. They reveal something of the efforts of Russian soldiers to make use of the radio and to win recognition for the invention of their great countryman A. S. Popov.

Communications in the First World War are covered in exhibits. Radio communications were growing steadily in importance, attested to by the following figures. At the outbreak of the First World War the Russian Army possessed only 79 radio stations. By the end of the war there were 1,720 stations operating with the Armed Forces.

The showcases contain many historic documents, among them photographs of instructions penned by Lenin and Stalin pertaining to the organization of communications in the Red Army.

Among the exhibits an important place belongs to the materials of the Second World War. Visitors inspect the collection with special interest. There is a complete reproduction of the communications network of the 62nd Army. The place and equipment of the Command Post is shown. From here General Chuiikov issued his orders at the peak of the fighting in Stalingrad. Communications

were frequently disrupted by the enemy's hurricane of fire, but the damage was quickly eliminated and contact restored with the Command Post. General Chuiikov wrote: "Communications were being disrupted every minute, and it was only the courage and valor of the communications men that saved the day."

Another document is the note of commendation and thanks from Admiral F. Oktyabrski to the details participating in the defense of Sevastopol. "The heroic defense of Sevastopol largely depended on the heroic communications details who for eight months furnished reliable communications. At no time was control lost of the units, even in the crucial hours of fighting. Glory to the brave communications men of the Sevastopol defense."

In a special case is evidence of the exploits of the communications men who helped to force the Dnieper. For their excellent performance during the crossing of the Dnieper more than 100 earned the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

Models of all types of telephone, telegraph and radio equipment are found at the museum. The technique of radio is displayed in all its phases, from the earliest creations of Popov to the latest powerful radio stations.

Delivering the Mail

By N. Petrov

To insure prompt service, the postal department of the People's Commissariat of Communications of the USSR resorts to every possible means of delivery from aircraft to mountain climber.

Boris Amintov, executive of the Central Postal Administration, told me in an interview that a full dozen means of transportation are employed over the Soviet Union's 22 million square kilometers of territory, including airplane, train, steamer, glider, aero-sled, automobile, motorboat, bicycle, horse, reindeer, camel, donkey and dogs.

"We realize the importance of clock-work service. This was especially true in wartime, when the folks back home were anxiously waiting for news, as were the soldiers on the front," he said. "Millions of newspapers, parcels and letters were dispatched to the front from all corners of the Soviet land and a similar flood of mail poured regularly from front to the rear. We try to let nothing delay the delivery of mail, however remote and inaccessible the address may be."

To give one some idea of what postal employees have to contend with, Amintov showed me a telegram his office had once received from Khabarovsk reporting that snowstorms and blizzards lasting several days had made the roads to outlying northern settlements almost impassable in December. In spite of such obstacles,

however, mail is delivered by dog and reindeer sled throughout the winter to places as remote as Kamchatka, Kolyma and Sakhalin Island.

About 100 dog sleds, known as the "Kamchatka trolley line," are now plying the boundless tundra on the northern peninsula, while more than 150 deer sleds are delivering letters to the remote districts of the lower Amur area.

A relay delivery system is used to shuttle mail in winter along the 2,000-kilometer route of Komsomolsk-Nikolayevsk on the Amur-Okhotsk in the Soviet Northeast, one of the longest in the world. Making the first part of the journey by horse and reindeer, the mailbags are then transferred in turn to dog sleds and reindeer sleds, and then back again to dog sleds for the last lap of the journey. A team of five or six dogs can cover up to 100 kilometers a day—about double the distance by a reindeer team. But the dogs can haul only about half the load drawn by the latter, i.e., not more than 60 kilograms. The delivery schedule for a letter from Komsomolsk to Okhotsk is 33 days.

In Yakutia the postal routes are serviced by motorcar and horses in relays. In Central Asia "the ship of the desert" does the mail-carrying in some sections. The postal department of the Kazakh Union Republic alone has more than 100

camels. Villagers in settlements perched in the mountains of Tajikistan have their letters and newspapers delivered to them by donkeys, which navigate the narrow stony mountain paths with relative ease. Only in the case of the most outlying mountain settlement, too remote even for pack animal to reach, is mail delivered on foot.

Amintov told me an incident that occurred a few weeks ago on the shores of the Barents Sea. Well out at sea a small fishing schooner carrying mail had been caught by a storm of terrific fury. Huge waves washed the deck, threatening to sweep everything overboard. To save the two mail bags he was delivering from destruction, Nikolai Rykhov, the postman, lashed himself and both his precious burdens to the rigging and brought them safely to port.

Amintov, who formerly worked in the Far East, said that post offices on the northern mail routes are so far apart that in the winter the "Kayuri" who drive the reindeer sleds over them often have to spend several nights at a time in sleeping bags in the sub-zero weather.

Meanwhile at the opposite end of the USSR caravans delivering mail somewhere in Turkmenia languish in the torrid heat and try vainly to protect themselves from sandstorms.



A Georgian postman delivers the mail on horseback to the mountainous village of Sterch-Kertch; (right) Six letters at once from the front! The girl mail carrier is welcomed by the Lavin family, members of a collective farm

IN RUMANIA

By Ilya Ehrenburg

Part II:

I read somewhere in a French book that the Rumanians were unusually lazy. Probably the writer had met only the idlers of Bucharest.

I have spoken of the industry of the Rumanian peasant and now I will speak of the workers. Though hungry, they have increased the extraction of coal; in some pits 30 times as much coal is being obtained as last year. The railwaymen have accomplished miracles. It is not so long since the country was dying of thrombosis, her veins clogged. Bridges, tracks and depots were ruined. An engineer said, "This bridge could be rebuilt in two months." The workers did it in six days.

The Minister for Communications is a railwayman, Georgin Dej. A man of strong will and attractive personality, he is respected even by his enemies. He spent 11 years in prison and emerged alive. There is something in him essentially of the people. He has optimism and confidence.

Petru Groza is immensely popular. He is the son of a Transylvanian priest and is a man of erudition. Straightforward and natural, he is a fervent diplomat.

Zaroni, Minister for Agriculture and head of the Agriculturalists' Union, is of Transylvanian peasant stock. He wears the national costume in the ministry and is in close touch with village life. Professor Bogdasar, Minister for Health, one of the best European neuropathologists, is representative of the better section of Rumanian intelligentsia. Constantinescu Yash, Minister for Propaganda, is a scholar of the history of art and the author of a book on Byzantine churches of southern Bukovina.

Living Forces United

Various classes and parties are represented in the Government: the Peasant Party, Liberals, Communists and Social Democrats. Though this or that measure of the Government may be criticised, the impartial observer must admit that Petru Groza's cabinet is the Rumanian peoples' only course: it has united all the living forces of the nation.

With the restoration of Transylvania to the Rumanians, the question of the Hungarian minority has arisen. Transylvania is peopled by both Rumanians and Hungarians. Petru Groza has a good grasp of this problem; he speaks Hungarian fluently and knows a good deal about Hungarian culture. He has succeeded in marking out the path to friendship of the two nationalities. Like everything else, it cannot be achieved all at once; the fever of nationalism still racks people in both camps, but already we can see manifestations of genuine friendliness and mutual understanding. It will surprise no one to learn that the Hungarians in Rumania are warmly supporting this Government, as I have been told by representatives of various parties of the Hungarian minority.

Before the fascists came to power there were 800,000 Jews in Rumania. About 500,000 were slaughtered by the fascists. Streicher's propaganda translated by the corrupt pens of some members of the Rumanian intelligentsia did its work. Petru Groza's Government is making a vigorous fight against anti-Semitism and has guaranteed the Jews genuine and legal equality.

I saw the leaflets that the terrorists published, calling for the extermination of the Hungarians and Jews and for "keeping a tight rein" on the workers and condemning the agrarian reform. It is cheap and crude propaganda, "democracy" and fascist slogans are mixed up in it. I do not know the motives that move people like Maniu. It may be frustrated ambition, malice or the bitterness of a gambler who has staked his last chips on the wrong card and now curses everything from the greasy cards to the world in general.

But behind Maniu stand the enemies of the Rumanian people, the foes of freedom; men of education but deplorably unenlightened. They are placing their hopes on discord among the Allies. One told me that General Franco won't recognize a government of the type of Groza's; another informed me that splitting the atom may prevent the confiscation of large estates. . . .

The opposition has its own papers: *Ardjalul*, *Independence Romain*, *Momentul* and others. When certain people abroad come forward in defense of Rumanians who are supposed to have been deprived of their freedom, they are thinking about oil and steel, about anything in the world except freedom and the Rumanians. . . .

If the Rumanian people have not been poisoned by years of fascism, we cannot say as much of a certain section of the Rumanian intelligentsia. Among the professors opponents of education are to be found and the Legionaries still have their adherents among the students. Why is it that people who should represent progress can be found in the camp of the reactionaries?

To understand this we must point out some distinguishing characteristics of the Rumanian intelligentsia. When we listen to a Rumanian speech, we involuntarily mark the intermingling Latin and Slav roots. What words could be more familiar than those for bread and love? In Rumanian the word for bread is of Latin origin, the word for love of Slav origin. I have spoken of linguistics because the general system of the Rumanian language might to a certain extent predetermine the development of Rumanian culture. It seemed that Rumanian culture should have found two wellsprings, French and Russian. But the overlords of the country have long since sealed up one of these springs. Rumania was cut off from Russian culture. It is sufficient for me to point out that there is not another country in Europe where *War and Peace* has not been translated. It was not translated in Rumania. Rumanian intelligentsia read Tolstoy's novel in French, which was their second tongue—the language of the privileged class. In the nineteenth century the French influence was revivifying. Progressive ideas came from Paris. To this day a reactionary section of the intelligentsia swears by France—not the France of the French people, but the France of Louis XIV.

The literateurs imitate Parnassians, while a few of the most daring in 1945 discovered the Surrealism forgotten by

the French. I venture to say that many Rumanian intellectuals have more brilliance than depth. I was struck by their aloofness from their countrymen. Their conception of the Rumanian people was something vaguely connected with folklore, embroidery and quaint dances.

The best section of the intelligentsia is fighting. Recently, to the indignation of some representatives of "gilded youth", the first peoples' university in Rumania was opened. The progressive students' union is working with great energy, and we can foresee the time when knowledge in Rumania will cease to be the privilege of a caste.

Interest in Russian culture is heightened and one finds a Rumanian publishing house, *Russkaya Kniga*, bringing out, in addition to Soviet authors, translations of Gogol, Turgenev, Chekhov and Gorky. I had the opportunity of meeting Tudor Argezi, the prominent Rumanian poet,

and I was glad to learn that this man who until recently kept aloof from us has a sincere desire to study Russian culture.

The foremost prose writer, Mihai Sadovianu, a brilliant narrator who knows the living language of the people, is with the people, as are many other representatives of Rumanian intelligentsia—the eminent Rumanian scholar and endocrinologist, Parhon, the famous musician G. E. Enescu, and many medical men, engineers and artists.

They now not only look toward the distant capitals of the world but turn their attention to their own villages. This is Rumania's rejuvenation.

In a New Light

The war has wrought many miracles. Rumania touched bottom in this war and came back. For a long time the world knew it only as an exotic country pictured in the novellas of Paul Morand

or in light opera. People judged it by the polished or cosmopolitan debauchees of the Paris boulevards and by the dispatches in the papers which announced that Antonescu's braves had just killed a certain number of legionaries and by way of retaliation the legionaries had torn to pieces a certain number of Jews.

Now Rumania appears in a new light: Rumania has her people.

In the streets of Bucharest I met men whom I did not care to meet: connoisseurs of the beauties of the Crimea and the villas of Odessa. But it is not these that I am thinking of. How many of them are there? Some thousands or tens of thousands.

I am thinking of the millions. I am thinking of those who have come out of prisons, of peasants toiling under the scorching sun, of laborers and dreamers—of the people.

Marriage Law in the USSR

Every Soviet citizen who has reached the legal minimum age for marriage is completely free both to marry and to choose his own spouse. Soviet law does not recognize dependence on the consent of parents—they cannot apply pressure by threatening to deprive children who marry in defiance of their wishes, of the right of inheritance.

The use of force, threats, deceit or other forms of coercion to compel anyone to enter into marriage is severely punishable under Soviet law. In remote regions of the USSR the survival of tribal customs still gives rise to instances of women being forced to marry, or to continue marital relations against their wish. Such compulsion is regarded as a serious crime and the person guilty of applying it is liable to imprisonment.

In some Eastern regions old custom used to demand that a widow should marry a relative of her dead husband. It was old custom, too, that sanctioned the abduction of women and forcing them into marriage against their will. All such actions, encroaching on the rights of women and degrading them, are dealt with rigorously under Soviet law.

The abduction of women is punishable

by a long term of imprisonment, and the abducted woman must be returned at once to the home of her parents or relatives. Local authorities are expected strenuously to combat these retrograde old customs; officials who fail to discharge their duties in this respect are themselves liable to prosecution.

The October Revolution freed the people of the USSR from the multitude of caste, national, religious and other limitations which impeded marriage in the old days. For example, in tsarist times marriages between persons of the Greek Orthodox, Catholic and other Christian faiths, on the one hand, and non-Christians on the other, were forbidden. Soviet law knows no religious, racial or national limitations in the sphere of marriage, or in any other sphere. Both parties must, however, be of age.

In most of the Union Republics the minimum age for both men and women is the age at which a person becomes entitled to all the rights of a citizen—eighteen. In exceptional cases the local Soviets of Working People's Deputies have the right, on special application, to lower the minimum age for women, but by no more than one year.

In some Republics, such as Azerbaijan, Georgia and the Ukraine, the minimum age has been set at sixteen years, because of climatic and other special conditions.

To marry a person younger than the legal minimum age is a crime punishable by imprisonment for a period up to two years. Marrying a person who has not reached puberty, or compelling a person who has not reached puberty to marry, carries a penalty of eight years' imprisonment.

Under tsarism, very early marriages were permitted in certain cases—for the peoples of Transcaucasia, at the age of 15 for the man and 13 for the girl; for the nomad peoples of East Siberia, at 16 for the man and 14 for the girl.

The Soviet State at once set its face against such practices. In lands where early marriages were the custom, strenuous efforts were made to inculcate a more enlightened attitude, both by educating the people, and by prosecuting those who violated the new laws.

The observance of monogamy is one of the inviolable demands of Soviet law. This is explicitly stated in the edict of July 8, 1944, of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

Notes on Soviet Life

The first train with demobilized veterans of the Far East has left Khabarovsk. Generals and other representatives of the Soviet Command came to bid farewell to the heroes of the victory over Japan.

★

Agricultural local municipal banks will postpone or cancel the payment of debts of soldiers who died in action, by war invalids or by people whose homes were wrecked or their cattle slaughtered or confiscated by the invaders. These privileges are also held by dependents of those who perished.

★

The fifteenth anniversary of the death of the great Russian painter Ilya Repin is September 29. The State Tretyakov Picture Gallery, where 250 of the artist's works are kept, has issued a special illustrated album on this occasion. The Central State Literature Archives has printed a collection of unpublished manuscripts, including more than 200 of his letters to various artists. The first volume of a symposium, "Art Heritage," includes several hundred reproductions of the artist's works—portraits, studies and drawings, as well as his reminiscences of contemporaries. Penaty, Repin's country home for 30 years, is now a museum.

A group of actors and writers and pupils of Repin placed a wreath on his grave.

★

A State Institute of Theatrical Art, first in Central Asia, has been opened in Tashkent to train actors for the theaters of Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Kirghizia, Turkmenia and Tajikistan.

★

The Soviet Navy field and track championship has ended here. Among the participants were sportsmen of the Baltic, Black Sea, Pacific and Northern Fleets, Naval School cadets and sailors of the Danube Flotilla. After intense competition lasting several days, the Naval School cadet team won first place, the Baltic sailors came second and the sailors of the Northern Fleet, third.

The Leningrad epic will be perpetuated by a majestic monument and three triumphal arches commemorating the city's defense. The sites of the heroic battles on Pulkovo Heights, in Kolpino and other points where the Hitlerite hordes were checked will be perpetuated.

★

Thrice Heroes of the Soviet Union Major Ivan Kozhedub and Colonel Alexander Pokryshkin, famous ace pilots of the Second World War who shot down 62 and 60 German planes respectively, are starred in the new film, *Actions of Fighter Aviation*, which will demonstrate the original air combat technique evolved by the two hero fliers.

During the war the Studio of Military Films, which is shooting this picture, released 320 films for the Armed Forces and civilians. One of these—*How to Render Harmless Enemy Mines*—with sound track in Russian, Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Estonian and Lithuanian—was effectively used in demining the liberated territories.

★

The American muskrat was brought to Karelia ten years ago. Faring well, it bred prolifically. Two years ago several farms were set up and are now to be restocked.

★

The All-Russian Fruit Exhibition will open in October under the auspices of the People's Commissariat of Agriculture of the Russian SFSR. There will be showings of standard and new varieties of fruit by individual orchard owners and by collective farms.

★

From Tashkent, wounded heroes of Manchurian battles received gifts of embroidered pillows with earphones sewn onto them, enabling the men to listen to broadcasts without exertion.

★

Groups of tourists have started along the shores of the North Caucasus rivers—the Kuban, the Don, the Taba—and along the Black Sea shore. Many prospect for mineral deposits or engage in geological surveys. A number have visited the scenes of recent battles.

At a meeting in Kharkov of trade union workers a report on the Soviet delegation's visit to the United States was made by Member of the Presidium of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions Gaiszenok.

"We visited several cities and saw how American workers live and work," Gaiszenok said. "Our delegation was received by President Truman and by the Secretary of Agriculture and the Secretary of Labor. A mass meeting was held in New York on the occasion of our arrival."

In conclusion Gaiszenok described the work of the American trade unions. A resolution was passed unanimously approving the strengthening of friendship between Soviet and American trade unions.

★

The All-Army Surgeons' Conference has ended in Moscow after summing up wartime accomplishments.

Reports were made by the most prominent Army surgeons; Colonel General Evgeni Smirnov, who headed the Red Army Medical Service, Assistant Chief Surgeon Lieutenant General Sergei Girgolv, Academician Sergei Yudin and others.

Latest methods of treating wounds with sulfa drugs, penicillin, initial treatment of wounds, etc., were discussed.

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Information Bulletin

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Statement of Extraordinary State Committee

For the Ascertaining and Investigation of Crimes Committed by the German-fascist Invaders

On Material Damage Caused by the German-fascist Invaders to State Enterprises and Institutions, Collective Farms, Public Bodies and Citizens of the USSR

In fulfillment of a Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR dated November 2, 1942, the Extraordinary State Committee has drawn up an account of the damage wrought by the German-fascist invaders to citizens, collective farms, public bodies, State enterprises and institutions of the Soviet Union and has established that on the territory of the Soviet Union subjected to occupation, the enemy caused immense

damage to the national economy and population.

The German army and occupation authorities, executing the directives of the criminal Hitlerite government and Supreme Command, destroyed and plundered the Soviet towns and villages captured by them, industrial undertakings and collective farms, destroyed monuments of art, smashed up, despoiled and sent to Germany equipment, stocks of raw materials

and manufactured goods, treasures of art and historic values, and engaged in wholesale plunder of the urban and rural population.

Before the war the territory of the Soviet Union which was subjected to occupation had a population of 88 million, a gross industrial output of 46 billion rubles at the fixed prices of 1926/27, 109 million livestock including 31 million head of cattle and 12 million horses, 71



Vilnius, once-thriving capital city of the Lithuanian Socialist Soviet Republic, is rubble and desolation

million hectares sown to agricultural crops, 122,000 kilometers of railway track.

The German-fascist invaders demolished and burned, completely or partially, 1,710 towns and over 70,000 villages and hamlets, burned and demolished over 6 million buildings and deprived about 25 million people of shelter.

Among the cities which were demolished or suffered the greatest damage are the great industrial and cultural centers of Stalingrad, Sevastopol, Leningrad, Kiev, Minsk, Odessa, Smolensk, Novgorod, Pskov, Orel, Kharkov, Voronezh, Rostov-on-Don and many more.

The German-fascist invaders demolished 31,850 industrial enterprises in which about 4 million workers had been

instituted, 43 thousand public libraries.

They ruined and ransacked 98,000 collective farms, 1,876 State farms and 2,890 machine-tractor stations; and slaughtered, confiscated or drove off to Germany 7 million horses, 17 million head of cattle, 20 million hogs, 27 million sheep and goats, 110 million poultry.

The criminal actions of the German military and civil authorities have been irrefutably proved and described in the millions of records of damage caused by the German-fascist invaders to citizens, collective farms, public bodies, State enterprises and institutions, received to date by the Extraordinary State Committee.

An enormous number of representatives of the Soviet public were invited to take

of over 679,000 million rubles in terms of 1941 State prices, including:

Damage to State enterprises and institutions—287 billion rubles,

to collective farms—181 billion rubles,
to residents of villages and towns—192 billion rubles,

to cooperatives, trade unions and other public bodies—19 billion rubles.

The damage is distributed among Union Republics as follows:

The Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic—249 billion rubles,

the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic—285 billion rubles,

the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic—75 billion rubles,

the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic—20 billion rubles,

the Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic—17 billion rubles,

the Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic—16 billion rubles,

the Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic—11 billion rubles,

the Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic—6 billion rubles.

All Losses Cannot Be Assessed

The above figures do not, by far, cover all the damage caused by the German-fascist invaders to the Soviet Union. They cover only the losses caused by the direct destruction of the property of citizens, collective farms, public bodies, State enterprises and institutions.

The total of damage does not take into account such losses as the decline of the national income as a result of discontinuation or reduction of work by State enterprises, collective farms and citizens, the cost of food and supplies confiscated by the German occupation troops, the war expenditures of the USSR, also the losses caused by the slowing down of the general economic development of the country as a result of the enemy's actions in the period 1941-45.

The total of damage does not take into account the incalculable losses suffered by our people as a result of the death of millions of Soviet people exterminated by the German-fascist invaders on the Soviet territory they temporarily occupied.



KHARKOV IN FLAMES—The fascists everywhere set fire to industry before leaving occupied territory

employed. They destroyed or carried away 239,000 electric motors, 175,000 metal-cutting lathes.

They destroyed 65,000 kilometers of railway track, 4,100 railway stations, 36,000 post and telegraph offices, telephone exchanges and other communication enterprises.

They demolished 40,000 hospitals and other medical institutions, 84,000 general and special schools, technicums, higher educational institutions, scientific research

part in the compiling of records and in ascertaining the damage caused by the German-fascist invaders. Over 7 million workers, collective farmers, engineers, technicians, men of science and other public figures took part in compiling the records.

On the basis of these records the Extraordinary State Committee has estimated the damage caused to the national economy of the USSR and to individual residents of villages and towns at the sum

Destruction of Industry, Transport and Communications

Before the outbreak of war the Hitler government and German General Staff had already worked out a detailed plan for the invasion and defeat of the Soviet Union, as well as for the organized plunder of its national economy. A secret German document, "Instructions on Direction of Economic Life in Newly-Occupied Eastern Regions" (Berlin, June, 1941), signed by "Reichsmarshal of the German Empire" Goering, contained detailed instructions to the German army and German economic institutions on the planned plundering of the property of the Soviet Union and the export of industrial equipment, raw material, manufactured goods and semi-finished goods to Germany.

Goering's Order

These notorious "instructions" were subsequently supplemented and made precise by numerous instructions and orders issued by various state and military authorities. The following order, issued by the same Goering, may be cited as an example:

"Reichsmarshal of the German Empire. Commissioner for the Four-Year Plan. Headquarters for Direction of Economic Life in the East. UR/110(83)1. Berlin, September 6, 1941. Leipzigerstrasse 3. Economic Headquarters of the East (Wirtschaftsstab Ost) is responsible to me for seizure and removal of stocks of raw materials from regions under military authorities. The same in regions under civil authorities (as I already prescribed in my order dated June 18, 1941, UR/11604). 3. . . . I appoint Lieutenant General Witting Inspector General for seizure and utilization of raw materials in occupied Eastern regions. The sphere of activity of the Inspector General includes all occupied regions of the Soviet Union irrespective of whether they are under military or civil authorities . . . (Signed) Goering."

The execution of this criminal plan for the plunder of the national economy of the Soviet Union was entrusted by the Hitler government to the Reichsminister of the SS (Hitlerite Storm Detachment),

to Imperial Ministers and representatives of German firms, to whom various economic groups, technical battalions, economic headquarters and economic inspection groups were subordinated. Among the many firms that played an especially active part in ransacking the property of the Soviet Union were the following German firms: Friedrich Krupp and Company, Hermann Goering, Siemens-Schuckert, the East mining and metallurgical company, the North joint-stock company, the Heinrich Lanz, Landmaschinenbauindustrie and I. G. Farbenindustrie.

In their efforts to carry out in full their criminal plan of plundering the industry of the Soviet Union, the Hitler government and military command did not hesitate at the ruthless destruction of mines, oil wells, factories, machines and entire industrial installations on those occasions when the German troops were forced to retreat under the blows of the Red Army and were unable to carry away this equipment from the territory they were abandoning. The demolition and destruction of factories machines, lathes, mines and oil wells on such occasions was on a vast scale, and caused enormous losses to the Soviet national economy. The heaviest damage was caused by these criminal activities of the German-fascist hordes to the following branches of Soviet industry:

Coal

In the Donets and Moscow coal basins the German-fascist invaders demolished 1,135 pits which had employed 337,000 workers and yielded over 100 million tons of coal a year. They plundered and carried away to Germany 2,400 mine electric locomotives and motor-trolleys, 2,700 hewing machines, 15,000 pneumatic drills, 5,000 pumps, 2,800 compressors and air-blowers, and 160,000 small wagons. They destroyed and plundered the power stations serving the coal mines.

Oil

Fascist Germany attached especial importance to seizing the oil areas of the Soviet Union. The above-quoted "Instructions on Direction of Economic Life in Newly-Occupied Eastern Regions" stated:

"3. B. The chief industrial raw material

is oil. Among measures not affecting the food supply, all questions of extraction and export of oil must come foremost on all occasions."

In pursuance of these instructions the German armies exerted every effort to seize the oil-bearing areas of the Caucasus. At the same time, whenever the German-fascist invaders were unable to fortify themselves in the oil areas they seized, and when they were forced to leave these regions, they did not hesitate to destroy and annihilate oil wells, equipment, shops, storehouses, etc.

At the Grozny oil fields and in Krasnodar Territory the German-fascist invaders, by air bombardment and other means, destroyed and annihilated over 3,000 oil wells which had yielded up to five million tons of oil annually. In Grozny they blew up an atmospheric vacuum installation which had turned out 660,000 tons of oil products a year, and a cracking installation capable of handling 227,000 tons of oil a year, also the Odessa and Kharkov cracking plants; they demolished the Krasnodar oil refining plant, put the Grozny-Trudovaya kerosene pipeline out of commission, and destroyed metal tanks of a total volume of over two million cubic meters at 720 oil storage centers.

Power Stations

During the occupation, and especially at the time of their retreat, the Germans demolished the powerful power systems of the Dneiper, the Donets Basin, Leningrad, Kharkov, Krasnodar Territory, Kiev, Voronezh, the Crimea, the Byelorussian Republic and the Kola Peninsula, and carried the most valuable equipment of the power stations away to Germany.

They blew up, burned or partly destroyed 61 of the largest power stations and a great number of smaller ones with a total capacity of five million kilowatts, put about 10,000 kilometers of main high-tension power transmission lines out of commission, destroyed over 12,000 buildings of power stations and sub-stations and carried away to Germany 14,000 steam boilers, 1,400 turbines and 11,300 electric generators.

Ferrous and Non-Ferrous Metallurgy

The German-fascist invaders completely or partially destroyed 37 iron and steel works which had employed 168,000 workers and had annually produced 11 million tons of pig iron, 10 million tons of steel, 8 million tons of rolled steel. They completely or partially destroyed 62 blast furnaces, 213 open-hearth furnaces, 248 rolling mills and 4,700 coking ovens with an annual production capacity of 19 million tons of coke. They destroyed 29 plants making fireproof materials, and 18 mining enterprises with an annual production of over 20 million tons of iron ore.

Among the demolished plants are: Zaporozh-Stal, with 12,000 workers; Mariupol works, with 26,000 workers; Azov-Stal, with 9,000 workers; the Makeyevka Kirov works, with 18,000 workers; the Krasny Oktyabr works, with 13,000 workers; the Krivoi Rog coking-chemical plant with 2,000 workers, the Mariupol coking-chemical plant with 3,000 workers; the Semiluki fire-clay plant with 2,000 workers, and the Chassov-Yar fire-clay materials plant, with 6,000 workers.

The German-fascist invaders destroyed and put out of action 12 of the biggest non-ferrous metallurgical enterprises, including the Dnieper aluminum, magnesium electrode plants and the Tikhvin aluminum works and bauxite mines.

Chemicals

The Germans destroyed 66 nitrogenous fertilizer and chemical factories making chemical products and fertilizers for agriculture, and combines producing rubber and articles of rubber and asbestos, including the Stalinogorsk and Rubezhansk chemical combines, the Konstantinov, Perekop, Saks and Kharkov chemical works, the Dneiprodzherzhinsk, Gorlovsk, Lisichansk, Stalinsk nitrogenous fertilizer works, and the Odessa and Vinitsa superphosphate plants.

Engineering

The German-fascist invaders inflicted enormous damage on the engineering industry. They demolished 749 heavy and medium engineering plants which had employed 919,000 workers, engineers, me-

chanics and clerks. Especially grave damage was inflicted on such huge plants as the Kramatorsk works, which employed 25,000 workers, the Voroshilovgrad works with its 23,000 workers, the Bezhetsk works with 20,000 workers, the Kharkov works with 5,000 workers, the Taganrog works with 4,000 workers, the Lyudinovo works with 6,000 workers, and the Leningrad "Russky Diesel" works with 3,000 workers.

The Hitlerites inflicted great damage on works manufacturing tractors, automobiles, railway wagons, motorcycles and bicycles. They completely demolished 21 such works, and partially wrecked 27. In particular, they reduced to a heap of ruins the giant Stalingrad and Kharkov tractor plants, wrecked the Kharkov, Gomel and Rostov bearing repair plants, the Kalinin, Kryukov and Bezhetsk railway wagon building works, which had a total annual production of 23,000 freight wagons.

They destroyed the Lodeyinoye Polye and Belsk auto-trailer plants, the Kharkov bicycle and Leningrad motorcycle factories. The German-fascist invaders demolished 64 engineering and abrasive materials plants, including those in Kharkov, Kramatorsk, Krasnodar, Kiev, Odessa, Minsk and Leningrad. They destroyed completely 169 plants making machinery for agriculture and for the chemical, wood-working and paper industries, including the Komintern plant and the Krasny Aksai, Rostselmash, Kommunar, Bolshevik, Krasnaya Zvezda, Serp i Molot and Oktyabrskaya Revolyutsia plants.

Electrical appliances plants which built

generators, electric motors, transformers, electric locomotives and other equipment were greatly damaged by the Germans. They demolished 41 plants, including the Kharkov Electro-mechanical works (KHEMZ) and the Leningrad Elektrosila, Elektroprovod and Krasnaya Zarya works.

From engineering plants German firms carried away to Germany 47,000 hoists, 34,000 mechanically operated hammers, presses and other forging, pressing and foundry equipment.

Lumber and Paper

The German-fascist invaders demolished a large number of lumber establishments with an annual production capacity of 64 million cubic meters of lumber, 260 lumbermills and woodworking factories with a productive capacity of 12 million cubic meters of sawn wood per year, and 28 plywood factories with an annual output of 380,000 cubic meters of plywood. They also demolished 14 match factories with an annual output of approximately 4 million cases of matches, and 77 paper and pulp mills with an annual productive capacity of 300,000 tons of paper.

Textile and Light Industries

In the textile and light industries the invaders demolished 120 cotton mills, 75 knitted-goods mills, 69 linen mills, 125 hemp and jute mills, 36 worsted-goods mills, 12 fur and 8 artificial fiber factories, 160 tanneries and footwear factories and over 100 glass mills.

The textile industry lost 3,000,000 spindles and over 45,000 weaving looms destroyed by the enemy.

Railway wreckage was diabolic. This is the Roslavl station after the expulsion of the Nazis



Food, Meat and Dairy Industries

The German-fascist invaders completely destroyed and demolished 204 sugar mills, 649 distilleries, 47 canneries, 29 butter and fats factories, 43 tobacco factories and 157 bakeries, and 4,490 meat and sausage, cheese, milk and butter plants.

Building Materials

The German-fascist invaders destroyed 409 plants. The following huge cement mills were completely demolished: the Yenakievo, Krichevsk and Bryansk cement mills and the Proletari and Oktyabr cement mills in Novorossiisk.

Transport

During the occupation of part of the territory of the Soviet Union, and especially at the time of their retreat, the

German-fascist invaders did great damage to the railways and to water and river transport. Using special track-wrecking machines, they put out of action 26 main railway lines and partly wrecked 8, destroyed 64,000 kilometers of railway track and 500,000 kilometers of wiring for automatic braking and railway communications. They blew up 13,000 railway bridges comprising a total length of about 300 kilometers, 4,100 stations, 1,200 pumping stations, 1,600 water-towers, 3,200 hydrants. They demolished 317 locomotive depots and 129 locomotive and wagon repair works, likewise railway engineering plants. They demolished, damaged or carried away 15,800 steam and motor locomotives and 428,000 wagons.

The enemy inflicted great damage on installations, plants, institutions and ships of the transport services of the Arctic Ocean and the White, Baltic, Black and

Caspian Seas. They sank or partially damaged over 1,400 passenger, freight and special ships. Heavy damage was caused to Sevastopol, Mariupol, Kerch, Novorossiisk, Odessa, Nikolayev, Leningrad, Murmansk, Lepaia, Tallinn and other seaports equipped with up-to-date facilities.

The invaders sank or seized 4,280 passenger and freight vessels and tugboats of the river transport system and the technical-service fleet and 4,029 barges, demolished 479 port dock systems including the ports of Leningrad, Stalingrad and Kiev, installations of the White Sea-Baltic Canal and the Moscow-Volga Canal, 89 shipbuilding yards, machinery works and enterprises.

Retreating under the blows of the Red Army, the German troops blew up and destroyed 91,000 kilometers of main road, and 90,000 road bridges comprising a total length of 930 kilometers.

Destruction of Collective and State Farms and Machine and Tractor Stations

Following a previously prepared plan, the German-fascist invaders carried out on the territory of the Soviet Union a policy of destroying collective and State farms and machine and tractor stations. For the management of agriculture in the so-called "Eastern Regions," the German government set up special departments, the direction of which was entrusted to Darre, Reichsminister for Agriculture, Reichskommissar Erich Koch, and Lose, Reichskommissar for the Ostland.

Hitler's Reichsminister for Agriculture Darre declared with cynical frankness: "In the entire Eastern area only Germans have the right to own large estates. A country inhabited by a foreign race must be a country of slaves, agricultural servants and industrial workers."

On the occupied territory of the USSR, the German invaders took away land which the Soviet Government had given to collective farms for their free use in perpetuity, or which belonged to State farms, and distributed this land to German generals and officers, landowners and kulaks. Thus, for example, the Metallist State farm in the Amvrosyevka District, Stalino Region, was given to Commandants Bosse and Hambloch. Plant No. 72,

in the Olyka District, Volynia Region, was given to Baron von Pepke and Richard Timler. The Frunze State farm, Chistyakovo District, Stalino Region, was given to Commandants Bayer, Aihof and Soelde. The Ilyich and Politotdel collective farms, with all agricultural buildings, cattle and equipment were given to Commandants Welke and Kreier. Many similar examples could be quoted.

On the basis of the agrarian law issued at the end of February, 1942, by the Reichsminister for the occupied Eastern regions, Alfred Rosenberg, the German-fascist invaders started to set up on occupied territories in place of collective farms so-called "community farms," a most convenient instrument for plundering the farmers.

In these "community farms" they introduced serf labor, forcing the collective farmers to work without payment for the German masters. Any farmer who refused to work was declared a criminal against the German state, and subjected to beating, imprisonment or shooting.

The collective farm workers resisted the introduction of this fascist agrarian "reform." The German invaders replied by burning down entire villages, destroy-

ing crops on the widest scale, dealing with the people in a bloody manner and exterminating totally innocent Soviet people.

Murdered Villagers

Thus, for example, in the Pskov Region German soldiers herded in their homes the inhabitants of the villages of Zamochye, Krasuka, Chukhonskoye Zakhoshtye, Lanyeva Gora and Golovanovo, locked the doors and burned the houses together with the people. Those who attempted to escape the flames were machine-gunned. Three hundred and fifty people, including women, children and old folk, perished in this way. More than 500 villages and hamlets in the Pskov Region were destroyed in this fashion.

In the Kalinin Region the Hitlerites burned or otherwise destroyed all populated places administered by the Mitkovsk, Korosetelsk, Kryasinsk, Antonovsk, Ramensk, Zelenicheski, Pavlovsk and Grizhinsk village Soviets, Rzhev District. In the Emelyanovsk district they burned approximately 80 per cent of all houses, and in the Turginovsk 60 per cent; in the Pogorelsk District they burned more than 5,000 of the 7,000 houses belonging to collective farmers. Razing entire villages,

the German-fascist plundered to the full the inhabitants. Those who resisted were bestially killed.

The Last Cow

In the village of Yeremkino, Vyssokovo District, a collective farmwoman, Perlova, tried to hide her last cow from the fascists. The enraged Hitlerites gouged out her eyes and cut off her nose and hands.

In the Rogachev District of the same Region there was not a single village, not a single hamlet, where the invaders did not subject the collective farmers to plunder and brutality. Some villages were utterly destroyed. The villages of Selers, Faleyev, Mostkovo and Tolchkovo were ransacked and then reduced to ashes.

In the Kamenets-Podolsk Region the German invaders burned down 33 villages and 530 populated places. In 1,600 collective farms they destroyed more than 16,000 collective farm buildings. They slaughtered or carried off to Germany 176,000 cows, 235,000 pigs, 158,000 sheep and goats, 687,000 various poultry and 198,000 horses; they robbed the collective farms of 142,000 tons of grain and flour.

One Farm's Account

In the Kursk Region, the Germans destroyed 5,220 collective farms, burned down or destroyed in them 80,000 buildings, requisitioned 280,000 cows, 320,000 horses, 250,000 hogs and 420,000 sheep and goats; they slaughtered 1,300,000 various poultry.

At Budenny collective farm, Stavropol Territory, the German-fascist invaders demolished or damaged all agricultural buildings and equipment, looted or smashed up agricultural implements, and destroyed the crops. They carried away from the collective farm 160 horses, 200 cows and 270 pigs, destroyed 16 hectares of mulberry tree plantations, 5 hectares of orchards and 12 hectares of vineyards. The total damage suffered by the Budenny collective farm is estimated at 15 million rubles.

Damage inflicted by the invaders on the Za Mir i Trud collective farm in Krasnodar Territory is estimated at 18 million rubles. They wrecked or demolished 70 collective farm buildings, carried away 70

cows, 340 pigs and 240 horses, confiscated and carried off 2,000 tons of grain, 140 tons of sunflower seeds, etc.

By order of Commandant Peck of the town of Liman, German officer Schwarz, at the head of a special squad, confiscated from Za Tempy collective farm in Stalino Region 450 cows, 205 pigs, 350 sheep and 208 horses.

In October, 1943, before the German retreat under the Red Army's onslaught, an SS squad, acting on the order of a German Agricultural Commandant, Hanenkampf, fired all the buildings of the Ilyich collective farm, Kiev Region, and destroyed the stock of agricultural produce, cattle and agricultural implements, inflicting on the collective farm damage estimated at more than 4 million rubles.

In Mogilev Region (Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic) the German-fascist invaders destroyed 2,100 collective farms, demolishing about 40,000 buildings.

On 1,920 collective farms in the Zhitomir Region the invaders confiscated more than 240,000 cows, 195,000 horses, 200,000 pigs, 230,000 sheep and goats, 460,000 poultry and 55,000 tons of grain; they wrecked and demolished more than 20,000 collective farm buildings.

The German-fascist invaders destroyed and plundered collective farms everywhere on occupied territory of the USSR. They demolished buildings, burned and trampled down crops, chopped down orchards, plundered and carried cattle, food stocks and all other collective farm property away to Germany.

Gigant Ravaged

The German-fascist invaders inflicted enormous damage on the State farms of the USSR, stealing stocks of agricultural produce, demolishing production buildings and other State farm structures.

During the occupation of part of the territory of the Soviet Union, the Gigant State grain farm in the Rostov Region, with its 28,000 hectares of harvesting area and highly developed cattle-breeding stations, suffered especially gravely. The Germans inflicted great damage on the Kuban seed cultivating State farm, in Krasnodar Territory, with a harvesting area of 10,000 hectares.

As a result of the German occupation, stud farm No. 62 in Poltava Region lost its stock of pure-bred mares—Russian-American trotters. Before the war this stud farm had 670 pedigreed horses. The Germans plundered other pedigreed stock State farms in similar style.

On grain and stock-raising State farms the Germans slaughtered or drove away more than 180,000 cows, 290,000 pigs, 680,000 sheep and 57,000 horses, and destroyed more than 1,200,000 hectares of various crops.

In wrecking the collective and State farms the German-fascist invaders also destroyed the farms' technical base—the machine and tractor stations. In the occupied regions of the Russian SFSR they destroyed more than 1,000 machine and tractor stations, wrecking or stealing 46,000 tractors, 18,000 harvester-combines and 23,000 seed drills.

In the Ukraine the Germans destroyed, wrecked or burned 1,300 machine and tractor stations and stole 56,000 tractors and 24,000 harvester-combines.

In the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic they completely destroyed 316 machine and tractor stations, from which they carried away to Germany 8,000 tractors, 1,000 harvester-combines and other agricultural machines and implements.

In the Latvian, Lithuanian and Estonian Republics the German invaders completely destroyed all machine and tractor stations.

137 Research Stations Wrecked

Altogether, the invaders destroyed, seized or took away to Germany from collective and State farms and machine tractor stations 137,000 tractors, 49,000 harvester-combines, some 4,000,000 plows, harrows and other soil-cultivating implements, 265,000 seed drills and planting machines, and 885,000 harvesting and grain-sorting machines.

In wrecking collective farms, State farms and machine and tractor stations, the Hitlerites also destroyed the scientific and production base of agriculture. They completely destroyed 137 agricultural scientific research institutes, 176 incubator stations and 14 selection stations supplying collective farms with high-quality seeds.

Destruction of Schools, Scientific Institutions and Institutions of Health Protection

The German-fascist invaders caused enormous damage to the Soviet people's cultural institutions. They demolished schools, institutions of higher education, scientific institutes, libraries, hospitals, sanatoriums and rest homes.

By the beginning of 1941 there were 82,000 elementary and secondary schools with an enrollment of 15,000,000 on territory of the Soviet Union which fell under German occupation. All the secondary schools had libraries, each of 2,000 to 25,000 books, as well as various physics, chemistry, biology and other laboratories. Many secondary schools had dormitories for children who lived far from school.

The German-fascist invaders burned down, demolished and ransacked these schools with all their property and equipment. Millions of Soviet children were compelled to cease their studies and, when the invaders had been ejected, had to resume them in premises unadapted for school studies and lacking essential equipment, books and teaching aids.

The German-fascist invaders completely or partly demolished 334 institutions of higher education with a student roll of 233,000, and carried away to Germany laboratory equipment, unique exhibits belonging to university and institute collections, and libraries.

Serious damage was caused to Kiev State University, whose educational and scientific equipment, hundreds of laboratories and most valuable collections were destroyed.

Leningrad Bombardment

The main Leningrad University buildings, as well as the Physics and Chemistry Institutes, were damaged by shelling. Great damage was caused to medical institutes of higher education. In Leningrad the well-known Pavlov Medical Institute and Kirov Extension Institute suffered from enemy shelling, as also did the 1st and 2nd Kharkov Medical Institutes and the Kiev, Dnepropetrovsk and Stalino Medical Institutes in the Ukraine.

Twenty-two blocks of the Voronezh Medical Institute and 17 blocks of the Smolensk Medical Institute were demol-

ished. The invaders destroyed and ransacked 137 pedagogical and teachers' institutes in Pskov, Novgorod, Smolensk, Feodosia, Orel, Rostov-on-Don, Simferopol, Kharkov, Kiev, Voroshilovgrad, Minsk, Mogilev, Gomel, and elsewhere.

They carried away historical archives and ancient manuscripts from special libraries; they stole or destroyed more than 100 million volumes in public libraries.

The German-fascist invaders deliberately destroyed scientific institutions, burned down or ransacked laboratories and libraries, and plundered the most valuable property and equipment.

In all, they destroyed 605 scientific research institutes.

Eight buildings belonging to scientific institutions, and 32 hothouses belonging to the Botanical Gardens of the Academy of Sciences, containing the rarest collections of tropical and subtropical plants, were destroyed during the blockade of Leningrad as a result of air raids and artillery fire.

The Germans destroyed the chief astro-



The Physicotechnical Institute of Novocherkassk. The fascists mutilated the equipment they could not remove

nomical observatory in Pulkovo, near Leningrad, which was equipped with the rarest of instruments constructed by the world's and the Soviet Union's outstanding masters. This observatory had an exceptional solar telescope, made to an original design by the Stalin Prize Winner Ponomarev. In the Crimea the German-fascist invaders demolished the Simeiz astronomical observatory founded in 1908, and carried its equipment off to Germany—a large 40-inch reflector telescope, measuring instruments, and the library of more than 9,000 negatives with photographs of the sky and spectra of stars.

6,000 Hospitals in Ruins

The Germans caused enormous damage to medical institutions of the USSR. They demolished and ransacked 6,000 hospitals, 33,000 polyclinics, dispensaries and supplementary clinics, 976 sanatoriums, and 656 rest homes. They also demolished 60 factories and plants belonging to the chemico-pharmaceutical and medical instrument industries, including the Vitebsk spectacle factory, the Poltava thermometer factory, chemico-pharmaceutical and other factories in Kharkov, Kiev and Odessa.

By their criminal actions, the fascists especially damaged and ruined many sanatoriums and medical institutions and health resorts of national importance on the southern shore of the Crimea, at the Caucasus mineral springs, in Odessa and other places, where every year several million working people took a cure and rested. In Sevastopol the Germans destroyed the Sechenov Scientific Research Institute, which was the national center for developing and applying physiotherapy under health resort conditions.

In the Soviet children's favorite camp—Artek, the All-Union Young Pioneers' Camp—the Germans demolished the main block, Eagle's Nest villa, the Tuktu Palace and many other buildings. They chopped down the Crimea forests and parks cultivated near the Sanatoriums, and also destroyed the tree nurseries where seedlings were grown for forestation.

Destruction of Museums and Historic Monuments



The Alexander Palace in Pushkin (Tsarskoye Selo) was used as a barracks by the Germans. When they had to leave they blew it up

Out of the Soviet Union's 992 museums the German-fascist invaders destroyed 427 on occupied territory, including 173 museums in the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, 151 in the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, 26 in the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, 15 in the Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic, 26 in the Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic, 30 in the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic, two in the Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic, and four in the Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic.

Museums in Smolensk, Stalingrad, Leningrad, Novgorod, Poltava, Chernigov and other cities, perished. In the Khersonese History and Archaeology Museum, the German-fascist invaders destroyed more than 150,000 objects and collections illustrating the history of the peoples of the Black Sea Basin. In Kerch Port the Germans destroyed the panorama of "The Storming of Perekop," painted by Soviet artists. Heavy damage was done to the famous panorama of the "Defense of Sevastopol," by Academician Rougault.

In the Stalingrad Art Gallery they destroyed all examples from the brush of Repin, Shishkin, Aivazovsky, Serov, Makovsky, Ivanov and others. All the Crimea museums suffered, and the collections of the Bakhchisarai Palace Museum were stolen, including the Great Koran of the Bakhchisarai Khan's mosque, with its rich ornamentation. The German-fascist invaders caused grave damage to the former tsar's palaces in Pushkino, Pav-

lovsk, and Gatchina, which had been converted into museums after the October Socialist Revolution. From these museum-palaces they carried off to Germany sets of artistically executed Russian and French antique furniture, rare books from palace libraries, paintings and sculptures, fine china and other exhibits.

The Germans treated with particular hatred the cultural relics most cherished by Soviet people. They desecrated the Pushkin Reservation and the great poet's estate in Mikhailovskoye village, where he wrote *Eugene Onegin*, *Gypsies* and *Boris Godunov*. They burned down the museum in Pushkin's house and obliterated his tomb in the Svyatogorsk monastery. They chopped down the centuries-old trees in the park. They carried the furniture and household articles and the poet's library off to Germany.

They committed similar vandalism in the Yasnaya Polyana Reservation, where Leo Nikolayevich Tolstoy, the Russian writer-genius, was born and lived. Having occupied Yasnaya Polyana on October 30, 1941, they destroyed, defiled and set fire to it. They tore up, threw out or destroyed the rarest manuscripts, books and paintings and defiled the writer's grave. They used the furniture and books as fuel to heat the house. When the museum staff protested against these outrages the German officer Schwarz declared: "We shall burn down everything associated with the name of your Tolstoy."

In Klin the German-fascist invaders

demolished the house of the Russian genius-composer Tchaikovsky, where he created the world-famous operas *Eugene Onegin*, *Queen of Spades* and many other famous musical pieces. German officers and men converted the museum building into a motorcycle garage and used music notes, books, furniture and other museum exhibits as fuel.

The Germans also destroyed the museum of the peasant poet Drozhzhin in Davidovo village, the museum of the people's poet Nikitin in Voronezh, and the museum of the famous Polish poet Adam Mickiewicz in Novogradok (Byelorussia). In Alagir they burned all remaining relics of the national bard of Ossetia, Kosta Khetagurov.

The German-fascist invaders demolished 44,000 theaters, clubs and Red Corner buildings. As a result of air raids and artillery fire, damage was caused in Leningrad to the Kirov Academic Opera and Ballet Theater, the Pushkin Academic Drama Theater and the Maly Opera House; in Moscow to the State Academic Grand Opera and Ballet Theater and to the Vakhtangov Theater. The Germans set fire to theaters in the Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic, demolished the Red Army Drama Theater and the Gorky Theater of the Young Spectator in Kiev, and also destroyed the City Theaters in Petrozavodsk, Novgorod and Makeyevka. They carried away all costumes, musical scores, scenic property and libraries from Smolensk and Odessa theaters.

Demolition and Looting of Monasteries, Orthodox and Catholic Churches, Synagogues and Other Religious Institutions

During the Patriotic War, the German-fascist invaders demolished or damaged, on the territory of the USSR which they occupied, 1,670 Orthodox churches, 237 Roman Catholic churches, 69 chapels, 532 synagogues and 258 other buildings belonging to religious institutions.

In Chernigov they demolished the ancient Cathedral of Sts. Boris and Gleb, built early in the twelfth century, the Paraskeva-Pyatnitsa Na Torgu Church—a precious relic of twelfth century Russian architecture—and the St. Yefrosinia Monastery in Polotsk, built in 1160.

In Novgorod the German-fascist invaders demolished the St. Anthony, Khutyn, Zverin, Derevyanitsky and other ancient monasteries; they reduced to ruins that artistic monument, the famous twelfth-century Spas-Nereditsa Church; they damaged the buildings of the Novgorod Kremlin, including the Andrew Stratilat Church; the Church of Intercession of the Holy Virgin and the belfry of St. Sofia Cathedral, built between the fourteenth and sixteenth centuries.

In Novgorod suburbs the cathedral of St. Cyril Monastery and the churches of St. Nicolas "Na Lipke," the Annunciation



The eleventh-century Pyatnitskaya Church in Chernigov was left in ruins

"Na Gorodishche," Spass "Na Kovaleve," the Assumption "Na Bolotovom Pole," the Archangel Michael in Skovorodino Monastery, St. Andrew "Na Sitke"—all of which date back to the twelfth to fourteenth centuries—perished as a result of enemy artillery fire. The Church of the Assumption of the Kiev-Pechersk Abbey built in 1073 and eight monastery build-

ings lie in heaps of ashes and rubble.

The German invaders, destroying monasteries, churches, mosques and synagogues and ransacking their property, outraged people's religious feelings. Officers and men entered churches wearing caps, smoked there, donned church vestments, kept horses and dogs in churches and made plank-beds out of icons.

Destruction of Cultural Institutions, Social Organizations and Cooperatives

On territory of the USSR which they occupied, the German invaders demolished industrial enterprises, stores and shops, clubs, stadiums, rest homes and sanatoriums maintained by consumers' and producers' cooperatives, trade unions and other public bodies.

They destroyed more than 87,000 service buildings belonging to cooperatives, trade unions and other public organizations, including 27,000 stores, shops and stalls, 26,000 warehouses and distribution bases, 10,000 dwelling houses and 1,839 cultural establishments.

They carried off to Germany 700 steam

boilers, 636 locomobiles, 16,000 electric motors, 12,000 metal-cutting machines, 9,000 woodworking machines, 8,000 looms, 7,000 trucks, 70,000 sewing and special machines, some 8 million books, and also confiscated large quantities of cattle, footwear, textiles, etc.

Altogether they destroyed over 40 per cent. of the entire network of shops of the consumers' cooperatives of the USSR, and more than 17,000 consumers' cooperatives and 1,600 district cooperative associations. The German invaders completely destroyed 120 sanatoriums and 150 rest homes belonging to trade un-

ions, which had served over 3 million workers, engineers, mechanics and office employees annually. Of this number they destroyed in the Crimea 59 sanatoriums and rest homes with accommodation for 11,900 persons, 32 sanatoriums and rest homes for 5,400 persons at the Caucasian Mineral Springs, 33 sanatoriums and rest homes for 7,700 persons in Leningrad Region, and 88 sanatoriums and rest homes for 18,700 persons in the Ukraine.

They caused damage to such famous sanatoriums and rest homes as Dolossy, the mountain sanatorium for tuberculous cases, in Simeiz, the Institute of Physio-

therapy in Feodosia, the Alushta rest home, the Odessa Neurosomatic Sanatorium, the Pushkin Tuberculosis Sanatorium in Leningrad, and many more.

The German-fascist invaders demolished the buildings of 46 Young Pioneer Camps and children's health institutions belonging to trade unions. They destroyed 189 clubs and Palaces of Culture, including the teachers' club of the trade union of workers of elementary and secondary schools in Leningrad, the Palace of Culture of the trade union of workers of the Donbas coal industry in the town of Krasny Luch, which served 4,000 persons at a time; the Palace of Culture of the trade union of workers of southern railways, catering for 3,000 persons in Rostov-on-Don; Palaces of Culture and clubs in Stalingrad, Kramatorsk, Stalino, Gorkovka, Yenakievo, Kharkov and many other places.



Looking at the remains of the History Museum in Sevastopol

Wholesale Plundering of Soviet Citizens

In all formerly-occupied Republics, territories and regions of the Soviet Union the German-fascist invaders plundered the urban and rural population, taking away their property, valuables, clothing and domestic utensils, and imposed fines,

taxes and indemnities on the civilian population. Wholesale plunder of the population was part of a general, deliberate program initiated by the Hitler government with the object of ruining the Soviet country, undermining her welfare, and pauperizing her citizens.

Secret instructions of the German Command dated July 17, 1941, found at the routed headquarters of the 68th German Division, pointed to the necessity of "instilling a feeling of personal material interest in the war in every officer and man of the German army." The German government deliberately unleashed the basest and most brutal instincts of officers and men of the German army.

The Extraordinary State Committee possesses an enormous amount of material and documents exposing the German-fascist invaders as robbers and barbarians who ransacked not only the property of the State, collective farm and public organizations, but also the private property of collective farmers, workers, intellectuals and office employees. In the Smolensk Region the invaders confiscated from the urban and rural population 136,000 cows, 107,000 hogs, 240,000 sheep and goats, 180,000 tons of grain and some 400,000 tons of potatoes and vegetables—all private property.

In 2,265 villages the German-fascist invaders burned down 129,000 houses and 278,000 auxiliary farm buildings which were the residents' private property.

In the Orel Region the Hitlerites burned down or demolished 173,000 houses belonging to residents, and 197,000 auxiliary farm buildings. They confiscated from the population 15,000 horses, 200,000 cows, 112,000 hogs, 312,000 sheep and goats, about three million poultry, 96,000 tons of grain, 14,000 tons of flour and 133,000 tons of potatoes.

"Herrenvolk" Felt the Cold

In ten districts of the Leningrad Region alone the fascists destroyed 25,600 houses owned by workers, collective farmers and office employees. They robbed residents of these districts of all their property. In Demyansk and Lychkovo Districts they confiscated from the population 4,800 pairs of felt boots, 2,900 fur coats and sheepskin coats, 23,000 sheepskins and 40,000 kilograms of wool.

In Dniepropetrovsk Region the German invaders confiscated from residents 137,000 privately-owned cows, 3,000 horses, 67,000 hogs, 16,000 sheep and goats, more than 1,000,000 poultry, 36,000 tons of grain and flour and 35,000 tons of potatoes and vegetables; they burned



Orphaned Byelorussian children whose parents were tortured to death

down or demolished 57,000 houses and 33,000 auxiliary farm buildings.

In Sumy Region the Hitlerites burned down or demolished 130,000 houses and auxiliary farm buildings owned by local residents; they confiscated from them 106,000 cows, 5,000 horses, 29,000 sheep and goats, 52,000 hogs, 67,000 tons of grain and flour and 47,000 tons of potatoes.

On April 18, 1943, in the course of the organized plunder of workers, collective farmers and office employees in Chernigov Region, a German punitive detachment surrounded the village of Zagrebalsnaya Sloboda and opened up machine-gun fire. The people fled to the forest, abandoning all their property, which was thereupon looted by the Germans, and the village fired.

In like manner the Germans destroyed the villages of Bobrovitsa and Yartsevo, near Chernigov, the district center of Kryukovka, the workers' settlement of Alexeyevka, and the villages of Yeleno, Kovechino, Kozary, Peski, Klubovka and others. Here they burned down 30,000 private houses and 70,000 auxiliary farm buildings, confiscated 140,000 cows, 790,000 poultry belonging to residents, and destroyed orchards containing 330,000 fruit trees.

Debris of the village of Potapovo. Smolensk Region. The fascists herded these 47 women, old people and children in a mined house and blew them up



In Polotsk Region the Germans confiscated from residents 70,000 cows, 17,000 horses, 51,000 hogs, 148,000 sheep and goats and 178,000 tons of grain and flour. They burned down 94,000 houses and auxiliary farm buildings; they destroyed orchards containing 36,000 mature trees. Only a few of the victims managed to save their domestic utensils and clothing.

In Vitebsk Region the Germans con-

fiscated from citizens 109,000 cows, 189,000 sheep and goats, 820,000 poultry, 39,000 tons of grain and 156,000 tons of potatoes and vegetables.

The German-fascist invaders took away from peasants of the Latvian, Lithuanian and Estonian Soviet Republics, land given to them by the Soviet Government, and turned it over to German barons and kulaks.

In his order of September 13, 1941, Lose, Reichskommissar of "Ostland" (the Baltic Republics) announced: "All agricultural live and dead stock is to be turned over to its old owners or to properly appointed managers who are responsible for the entire management of farms." Under the pretext of executing this order the Hitlerites evicted the toiling peasants of the Baltic Republics from their land, and confiscated their agricultural implements and equipment; they even took away the lumber which the peasants had prepared for the construction of houses.

In the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic the German invaders took away from former farmhands, landless and poor peasants 600,000 hectares of land and all their cattle and agricultural implements, for the purchase of which the Latvian Soviet Government had granted them a loan of 27 million rubles. From the Latvian peasants the Germans confiscated and carried



In every city and town innocent people were hanged. Here Kharhov citizens are swinging from a school balcony above Sverdlov Street

away to Germany 320,000 units of agricultural equipment and implements and some 2 million cattle; they destroyed 500,000 fruit trees, and confiscated, plundered or carried away more than 9 million tons of agricultural produce.

From Lithuanian citizens the German invaders took away 620,000 cattle, 220,000 horses, 770,000 hogs, 270,000 sheep and goats, 760,000 tons of grain, and 485,000 tons of other foodstuffs.

For the purpose of plundering and massacring the population, the fascist invaders staged raids by punitive detachments on villages. In September, 1942, officers and men of the 15th Police Regiment robbed and shot without exception all the residents of the villages of Borisovka, Borki and Zablochye, in the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, after which the villages were reduced to ashes. Company commander of this regiment, Oberleutnant Mueller, after the destruction of the village of Borki made the following exceptionally cynical report to his superiors:

"Confiscation of grain and implements was carried out according to plan, excepting that it was shifted in time. The number of carts proved sufficient, as the amount of grain was not large, and the place where unthreshed grain was stored was not far. Cattle drivers assembled quickly and worked deftly and zealously. An unfavorable circumstance was that no preparations had been made on Mokrany estate, which made feeding and milking of cattle quite difficult. The question should be taken up whether it would not be wise in the future to make necessary preparations in advance under some different pretext. Household goods and agricultural implements were carried away together with the grain in carts.

"Follows the total of shooting: 705 persons were shot, including 203 men, 372 women, 130 children. The number of cattle collected can be determined only approximately as they were not counted at the gathering place: 45 horses, 250 cattle, 65 calves, 450 hogs and sucklings and 308 sheep. During the operations at Borki there were expended: 786 rifle cartridges and 2,496 machine-gun cartridges. (Signed) Oberleutnant and Acting Company Commander Mueller."

There were many bestial German rob-



A Soviet surgeon examines Oswiecim prisoner, Vienna engineer Rudolf Scherm

bers like this Mueller on the Soviet territory occupied by the Germans. Everywhere residents of Soviet towns were victims of unrestrained plunder by the German invaders. In Kiev on October 6, 1942, Obersturmbannfuehrer Spatzel ordered the population to surrender all gold, silver and valuables. Not expecting the voluntary fulfillment of this order by the population, the Hitlerites divided the city into so-called "combat zones" from which all residents were evicted and the abandoned houses plundered wholesale.

After occupying the town of Artemovsk, Stalino Region, German officers and men broke into private homes and searched and plundered them, taking away all property from the population.

Under threat of shooting, residents of Novorossiisk were forced to surrender to the invaders their warm clothes, underwear, bedding, timepieces, carpets, pictures and valuable furniture. The Hitlerites sent their loot away to Germany.

In Stalingrad, by order of Chief of the Commandature Major General Paul Hening, German officers and men broke into cellars in which the civilian population was sheltering from bombs, and took away from them all their valuables.

In August 1942, in Kislovodsk, Military Commandant Pohl and Gestapo Chief

Welden ordered the Jewish population of the town to surrender all their valuables. In fulfillment of this order 100,000 rubles in cash, 530 golden and silver rings, cigarette cases and watches, 105 dozen silver spoons, 230 pairs of footwear and a great number of overcoats, suits and carpets were surrendered to the German Commandant's office. The Germans took all this, after which all the Jews were shot.

Robbery of the Soviet population by the German invaders took place everywhere on the territory of the Soviet Union occupied by the invaders. The Extraordinary State Committee has summed up the damage caused by the occupation authorities to Soviet citizens, and has ascertained that the German-fascist invaders burned down and demolished about four million houses which had been privately owned by collective farmers, workers and office employees, confiscated 1,500,000 of their horses, nine million cattle, 12 million hogs and 13 million sheep and goats as well as an enormous quantity of all kinds of household goods.

The German invaders guilty of organizing and carrying out the destruction of towns and villages, factories and mills, collective farms and State farms on territory of the Soviet Union, and of plundering citizens' private property, must bear full responsibility for their criminal misdeeds, while the damage caused by the German-fascist invaders to the national economy of the USSR and to Soviet citizens must be indemnified by Germany.

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Labor Reserves

By P. Moskatov

Chief of the Labor Reserve Board

Five years ago the Supreme Soviet of the USSR issued a decree on labor reserves. The idea had originated with Joseph Stalin, who even then pointed out the need for having a reliable source from which the working class could obtain necessary reinforcements. There is no reserve of unemployed or impoverished agricultural laborers in the Soviet Union.

Stalin made specific recommendations for the training of young workers. Special schools were to be set up to recruit young people and teach trades, with the State fully responsible for board and lodging. These are the present vocational, railway and factory schools.

During the five years that have elapsed, these institutions have trained 2,250,000 young people for various occupations. On graduating, the workers find jobs in the most important branches of industry.

Recent placements have been as follows:

War factories have received 600,000 workers; railways and river transport, 310,000; iron, steel and non-ferrous metal concerns, 250,000; building and building materials, 200,000; coal mines, 180,000; oil fields and cracking mills, 70,000; power stations, 80,000 and engineering plants, 150,000.

Young people who had studied together are usually sent to work together, sometimes hundreds of them going to one concern. In Magnitogorsk, for example, the Stalin iron and steel mills and the Magnitostroi building trust together received 27,000 workers from the schools. Many factories, especially those evacuated or built during the war, have staffs of which 50 per cent or even 70 per cent were

trained in their own factory schools.

During the war these young workers proved their value. They worked in towns besieged by the enemy, they worked on railways near the fronts under constant bombardment, they worked on Arctic sea routes, on civil air lines in the mountains and taiga—everywhere the Soviet people have built their industry.

During the early months of the war when the Germans drove deep into our country they wrecked 900 of our vocational and factory schools, took 1,200 machine tools away to Germany and destroyed 2,000 school buildings. Additional schools were opened during the war, and those in the occupied zones were rebuilt as soon as the Red Army had driven the

fascists out. By 1945, therefore, the total number of schools had increased from 1,550 to 2,570—over 1,000 more than before the war.

Training labor reserves involves a considerable expense. Figures on supplies are revealing—200 million meters of cloth for uniforms, 9 million pairs of boots, 4,600 million rubles for food—to say nothing of thousands of machines and large quantities of metal, timber, etc. The total sum spent by the State to date amounts to about 11,000 million rubles.

The schools will continue to function in the postwar period. Immediately after the war 450,000 new students were enrolled. New progress is anticipated in the Five-Year Plan for the period of 1946-50.



The students of Trade School No. 5 in Moscow

SOVIET ELECTORAL SYSTEM

By N. J. Kupritz

A primary feature of the democracy of the Soviet State system is the fact that all Government bodies, from the lowest to the highest, are elective.

Elections in the USSR are universal—in the real sense of the term.

There are no restrictions whatever on the right of suffrage. The right to vote is enjoyed by all citizens who have reached the age of 18, irrespective of race, nationality, religion, educational qualifications, social origin, property status or past activities.

Neither are there any residential qualifications. A citizen living in a locality temporarily has the right to take part in the elections on an equal footing with permanent residents. Women enjoy the same rights as men. The franchise is extended to all persons in the Armed Forces. The only exception is made in regard to insane persons and persons deprived of electoral rights by a court sentence.

Elections in the USSR are equal.

Each citizen has but one vote, and all citizens participate in the elections equally.

Elections in the USSR are direct.

All Government bodies, from village and town Soviet to the Supreme Soviet, are elected by direct vote of all citizens.

The voting at elections is secret.

The principles enumerated above apply both to national and municipal elections, as well as to the elections for both chambers of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

The Soviet of the Union, or the Chamber representing the interests of all the multi-national peoples of the USSR inclusive, is elected on the basis of one Deputy for every 300,000 population.

The Federal Chamber, or the Soviet of Nationalities, reflects and takes care of the specific interests of the various nationalities of the USSR. Each of the 16 Union Republics constituting the USSR is represented in this chamber by 25 Deputies. Other nationality units forming part of the Union Republics are also directly represented in this Chamber: Autonomous Republics by 11 Deputies each,

Autonomous Regions by five Deputies each and nationality areas by one Deputy each. There is no difference in the qualifications of candidates for the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities.

Both chambers of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR are elected for the same term (four years) and the elections take place at the same time.

The USSR has no individual president elected independently of the popular representative bodies. The president of the Soviet Union is a collegium—the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, elected at a joint session of the two chambers, and accountable to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

The legislative bodies of the Union and Autonomous Republics—their Supreme Soviets—consist of one Chamber each, and are elected for a term of four years. The basis of representation is established by the Constitutions of the respective Republics. The Supreme Soviets of the various Republics likewise elect their Presidiums.

Members of the Soviet legislative bodies may not be prosecuted or arrested without the consent of the respective Supreme Soviet and, in the period between sessions, without the consent of its Presidium.

The same democratic principles operate in the case of the election of local Government bodies, Municipal, District and Regional Soviets. All such bodies are elected for a term of two years, and the basis of representation is established by the Constitutions of the respective Republics.

* * *

Elections are so organized and conducted as to insure the fullest possible exercise of the democratic principles of the Soviet electoral system.

Lists of voters are drawn up by village, settlement and town Soviets and are conspicuously posted where everyone can read them. The lists must include all electors living (permanently or temporarily) in the city, village or settlement at the time lists are prepared and who will have

reached the age of 18 before election day. Complaints of any inaccuracies are filed with the respective Soviets, which must act on such complaints within three days. A petition against the decisions of a Soviet is filed with the People's Court of the particular locality, which must examine it also within three days at an open session, to which a representative of the Soviet is summoned. The decision of the Court is final.

There is no room for any sort of "gerrymandering," for any manipulation of election districts. Electoral areas are formed strictly in accordance with the size of the population from which the Deputy to each Soviet is elected.

Elections are held by precincts, formed to make it as convenient as possible for the voters to cast their ballots. An average precinct covers an area with a population of from 500 to 2,500. In the two largest cities of the Soviet Union, Moscow and Leningrad, an election precinct includes a population of 3,000.

Separate precincts may be formed in hamlets or groups of hamlets with a total population of 300 to 500. In remote places inhabited by tribes of hunters or mountaineers, 50 to 300 may constitute a precinct.

If there are at least 50 voters in each case, precincts may also be formed in military units, in long-distance trains, in hospitals (with the exception of wards for infectious diseases), in lying-in hospitals, sanatoriums, homes for invalids, and also on board ship, if there are at least 25 voters among the passengers and crew.

Election committees made up of representatives of public organizations and confirmed by the Soviets see to it that the elections are conducted strictly in accordance with the law, decide on the type of ballot boxes and ballots to be employed, count the votes, establish the results of the elections, register the elected Deputies and supply them with certificates of election, and submit all the documents of the elections to the credential committees of the respective Soviets.

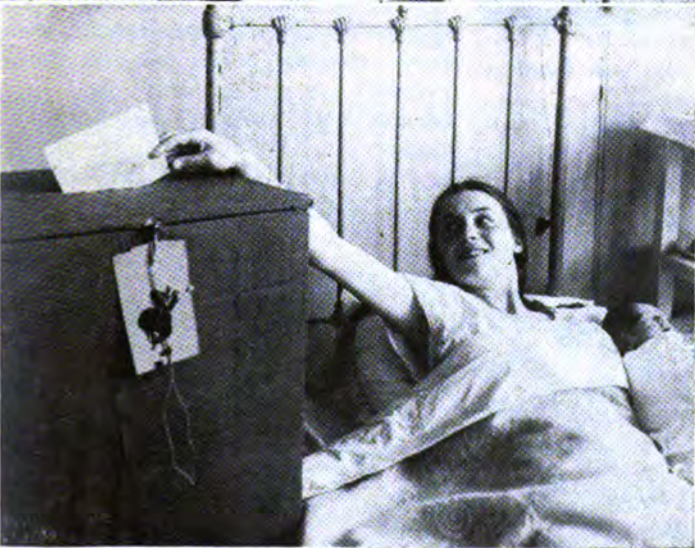
UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE



Going to the polls is a holiday for 83-year-old Tursun Makhsudkhanova of Tashkent (Uzbek SSR), who is accompanied by her sons and grandsons



Elections to the Supreme Soviet are closely followed by a public alert to their rights as citizens. In a remote and mountainous village precinct, Ana Kurban Akatov and the chairman of a collective farm Aman Mamed Ovez cast their votes



A young mother in the Tbilisi Obstetrical and Gynecological Institute exercises her right as a citizen. Balloting facilities are brought to hospitals, ships and trains, and the privilege is extended to temporary as well as permanent residents of a locality

Candidates are nominated for electoral areas. The right to nominate candidates is secured to a public association: party organizations, trade unions, cooperative

societies, youth organizations, cultural and educational societies, etc. This right is exercised both by central and local organizations and by general meetings of

workers, farmers, office employees and Red Army men.

The electoral area committees register and enter all legally nominated candidates on the ballots, which are printed in the language or languages of the population of the given electoral area. A candidate may run for any Soviet only in one electoral area.

Every organization which has nominated a candidate and every Soviet citizen has the right to campaign for a candidate at mass meetings, in the press and by other means.

Elections are held in the course of one day, which is the same for the entire USSR in the case of elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, or for an entire Republic, in the case of elections to the Supreme Soviet and other Soviets of the particular Republic. No campaigning is permitted in the premises of the election precinct committee on the day of the elections.

Sick and aged persons who find it difficult to walk to the election precinct are provided with means of transportation at Government expense.

Voting is secret, each elector personally casting his ballot in a strictly isolated booth. The voter leaves on the ballot the name of the candidates for whom he wants to vote, crossing out the rest.

Votes are counted first by the precinct committees and then by the electoral area committees. Representatives of public organizations and the press have a right to be present at the counting of the ballots.

The candidate who receives more than half of all votes cast is considered elected. If none of the candidates polls an absolute majority of votes, a second election is held within two weeks, the contestants being the two candidates who polled the highest number of votes.

If less than half the number of voters of a given electoral area have cast their votes, new elections must be held within two weeks.

The electoral rights of citizens are fully protected by Soviet laws. An attempt—by means of violence, deceit, threat or bribery—to prevent a Soviet citizen from exercising his right to vote or be elected is punishable by imprisonment for a term of up to two years. Forgery of election documents or deliberate miscounting of

votes by an official representative of a Soviet or by a member of an election committee is punishable by imprisonment for a term of up to three years.

The functions of Soviet voters do not

end with the election of Deputies. The Soviet Constitution accords the electorate the right of recall, which enables them to exercise control of the activity of individual Deputies and of whole Soviets. It

is the duty of each Deputy to report to his constituents on his own work and the work of the Soviet of which he is a member, and he may be recalled at any time by a majority vote of his constituents.

TO THEIR OWN LANDS



Approaching their native village in Smolensk Region are farmers and their families, who traveled from Germany in wagon caravans

The following is the summary of an article by General F. I. Golikov, Commissioner on Repatriation, published in PRAVDA:

Those repatriated during the past year numbered 5,236,130, including 3,104,284 men, 1,498,153 women and 633,693 children under 16 years of age. In all, 4,491,403 repatriates have been returned to their homes and occupations and some 750,000 are still en route. Many of those who were released from German captivity joined the Red Army and helped defeat Hitlerite Germany.

Never in human history has a peaceful population been slaughtered on such a scale, never have so many millions been shipped into slavery as they were by the

Hitlerites in the countries they invaded. The whole of Germany was one vast prison and death factory for the enslaved nations of Europe.

The Soviet Government never for a moment forgot about its citizens suffering in a foreign land. Throughout the Great Patriotic War, Stalin in his speeches and orders constantly urged the fighting men of the Red Army and the whole Soviet people to hasten the deliverance of the millions of Soviet people under the yoke of the German imperialists.

Although cut off from their native land for a long time and subjected to frightful terror and suffering, the Soviet people did not waver in spirit or lose faith in their country. The enemy did not suc-

ceed in Germanizing our people and turning them into submissive slaves. Soviet patriots in fascist captivity fought heroically against the Hitlerite bandits, both on the territory of Germany as well as in the occupied countries.

In the area of Arras of northern France, for example, a group of 200 Soviet war prisoners, who had escaped from German concentration camps, formed in June, 1943 a partisan detachment which carried out over 100 combat operations against the German occupationists. They wrecked 19 army trains, destroying 30 locomotives and 900 cars, wiped out 400 Hitlerites and captured 229 enemy soldiers and officers.

The Soviet partisan brigade *Za Rodinu* (For Country) operated for a long time on the territory of Belgium. It took part in many of the battles for the liberation of Belgian towns and villages from the Germans. On Tessel Island, Holland, more than a thousand Soviet prisoners-of-war (Georgians and Armenians) held in a German concentration camp, staged a mutiny; they killed 200 German guards, took possession of the island and subsequently repulsed repeated attempts by German punitive detachments to put down the rebellion.

While waging a bitter struggle in fascist captivity, the Soviet people did not lose hope of their ultimate deliverance by the Red Army and their return home. And their hopes were justified. Soviet troops freed them from fascist slavery and the Government took every means to speed their resettlement on their own soil.

The repatriation of millions of people scattered over various countries of Europe, America, Africa and Asia is a tremendous undertaking. No other country ever had to tackle a problem of such magnitude. Agencies were set to work in all the for-

eign countries to which Soviet people had been shipped, as well as in all the areas of the Soviet Union that had been occupied by the Germans, to locate displaced citizens and arrange for their transport to their homes. These organizations were also able to help Allied citizens. More than 10,000 officers and men of the Red Army are still engaged in this work.

The Soviet Government provides free conveyance to the place of residence as well as food, medical service, and clothing and footwear. Local Soviet and Party organizations take care of the needs at home.

The scope of the program may be judged from the fact that some 1,650,000 persons were shipped from the zones of the former fronts during the months of July, August and September. More than 7,000 motor vehicles were used.

Before the end of hostilities in Europe, repatriation proceeded rather slowly. People had to be transported mainly by sea, through Murmansk, the Persian Gulf, the Far East and later through Odessa. Tens of thousands were brought home in this way. The mass return of Soviet citizens, however, began in earnest after the defeat of Hitlerite Germany.

From May 23, 1945, by special agreement with the Allied Command, exchange of displaced persons was effected directly across the line of contact between Allied

troops and those of the USSR.

Soviet citizens returning from fascist captivity are given every opportunity to take their place again in the great family of peoples, building up the economic, cultural and political life of their country. In three Republics alone—the Russian SFSR, the Ukraine and Byelorussia—some 545,633 repatriates are already working in industry and 1,100,000 in agriculture.

The Soviet State extends substantial material aid to returned citizens. Besides food, clothing and money, they are given timber from the State fund to reconstruct their demolished homes.

Thousands from the Baltic Soviet Republics have already received aid and are at work. More than 27,000 are in industry and over 30,000 in agriculture.

Hundreds of thousands of Soviet children, with or without parents, languished for a long time in German dungeons. Many thousands perished. Of those who survived the hardships and misery and have now been liberated, more than 600,000 children have already come home. Orphans are placed in children's homes and sanatoriums.

Nor long ago a letter signed by 448 children brought back from German captivity was sent to Stalin. "We are very grateful to you, Comrade Stalin," they wrote, "for the attention we receive and for the kindness and solicitude shown us. . . . We thank you for giving us back

our happy childhood and the opportunity to study again and work for our beloved country."

Allied citizens have been liberated by the Red Army in accordance with agreements concluded with Great Britain, the United States and France.

By September 30 of this year the Soviet Government had arranged for the departure to their native lands of 817,844 persons. These include 24,422 Britishers, 22,279 Americans, 294,690 French, 33,155 Belgians, 32,464 Hollanders, 1,099 Norwegians, 1,352 Luxemburgers, 756 Danes, 96,973 Yugoslavs, 159,276 Poles, 30,595 Czechoslovaks, 1,480 Bulgarians, 22,254 Rumanians and 8,750 Hungarians. In the Far East, 1,275 Americans, 660 Britishers and 66 Hollanders liberated from Japanese captivity by the Red Army were turned over to the Allies.

All foreigners were kept in special distribution centers and received the same supplies as Red Army men and officers, including new uniforms, additional rations for officers, free medical service and transportation. At all distribution points internal administrations were set up, composed of officers of the respective armies.

A number of testimonials and statements of gratitude have been received from representatives of various nationalities.

Thirty-four British soldiers expressed



THE RED ARMY FREED THEM—American and British prisoners in the yard of a German camp near Poznan posed behind the barbed wire which had enclosed them for years. At the time of the photograph they had already been released by Soviet troops

their thanks for the comfortable traveling facilities provided by Soviet authorities and for the attention given their needs.

"Before returning to our own country from which we have been cut off for so long, we should like to express our admiration of the heroic Russian people," states a letter signed by 22 Frenchmen, on behalf of a group of 3,000. "We know how much our Soviet comrades suffered, we know what sacrifices they have made and the losses they have borne in order to destroy the Hitlerite regime. Russian soldiers heroically endured much suffering to free their country from the blood-thirsty invaders and destroy the oppressors of all European nations. Now that we are free again and are about to be restored to our families, we wish to express our gratitude to the Red Army as a whole and to the great leader who led it to victory, Marshal Stalin."

"It was with great excitement and profound gratitude that we officers of the Belgian Army, imprisoned in the Prenzlau camp for five years, met the first soldiers of the Red Army at dawn of April 27," reads a letter from 33 liberated Belgian generals written by Lieutenant General Minkels, Chief of the General Staff of the Belgian Army and Lieutenant General van der Bergen, Commander of the Fifth Army Corps. On May 7, in the presence of Mr. Le Geux, Belgian Ambassador to the USSR, they thanked the Soviet Government, the Red Army and Soviet repatriation agencies for deliverance from enemy captivity and for the warm reception accorded them.

Statements of appreciation have been received from the personnel of Soviet repatriation agencies by Mrs. Churchill, who visited a large transit camp for Allied citizens in Odessa, and from General Petit, General Keller, Mrs. Catroux, General Ruge, Commander in Chief of the Norwegian Army, who was liberated by the Red Army from German captivity, and others.

The Allies in return helped us relocate Soviet citizens they had freed from the Germans. The Allies have returned more than 2 million Soviet citizens. Many thousands more, however, are still in Allied occupation zones and on the territory of other countries awaiting their transfer to their homeland.

GIFT TO THE AUSTRIAN PEOPLE

By Guards Major Anufriev

In the Austrian town of Krems the opening of a steel bridge across the Danube, restored by the engineering troops of Marshal Konev, was the occasion for a jubilant celebration. Representatives of the democratic parties and crowds of people, young and old, gathered at the bridge to thank the Red Army for its wonderful gift. The demonstrators carried portraits of Generalissimo Stalin and slogans and placards glorifying the Red Army.

At noon a large column of passenger cars arrived. Soviet generals and members of the Austrian government were received with stormy applause. The generals and the accompanying representatives of the Allied Command, the members of the government of the Austrian Republic and the Soviet and foreign correspondents proceeded along the embankment to the first section of the huge bridge, decorated with the national flags of the Soviet Union and Austria. Colonel General Kurasov, Assistant Commander of Central Group troops, cut the red ribbon barrier, and a group of the representatives of the Soviet Command and the Austrian government passed over the bridge. They crossed slowly, examining the structure. At the other end another ribbon barred their exit. Dr. Rener, State Chancellor of the Austrian Republic, cut that and the bridge was open.

To the strains of the Soviet State Anthem, a passenger car bearing the Red Flag sped across the bridge. It was followed by mobile equipment of the engineering troops which had rehabilitated the bridge. Then came heavy artillery.

In the center of the bridge at a small table with a red cover, the official ceremony of presentation to the Austrian government took place. A testimonial on the aid of Soviet troops to the people of Austria was signed by commanders of

the Red Army and members of the Austrian Republic headed by Dr. Rener.

On behalf of the peoples of the Austrian Republic, State Chancellor Doctor Rener thanked the Red Army for its aid. His words could scarcely be heard over the enthusiastic applause of the thousands of people present.

Next to speak were members of the Austrian government, the burgomaster of Krems, and others who expressed heartfelt thanks to the Red Army and spoke of the great significance of the bridge for the country. The ministers of the Austrian government and the representatives of Krems told of the interest with which the Austrian people had followed the work of the Red Army engineering troops and how they had helped in every way they could. Some of the metal parts had been manufactured by local factories and the population had participated in a number of the operations at the construction site. At the conclusion of the meeting Colonel General Kurasov spoke for Marshal Konev, saying that the aid of the Red Army in raising Austria's economy would help strengthen the already friendly relations between the peoples of the USSR and the Austrian Republic. Commenting on the tireless work of the engineering units in restoring the bridge, the Colonel General stated: "On behalf of Marshal Konev I want to congratulate the builders of the bridge on their great victory and splendid technical achievement."

Hundreds of Krems' residents strolled over the bridge, admiring its beauty and improvements. And the Austrian and Soviet people congratulated each other.

After the ceremony a Red Army Command banquet in Krems was attended by Soviet generals and officers, representatives of Allied units, Doctor Rener and members of the Austrian government.

Leaders of Medicine

The Academy of Medical Sciences of the USSR now includes 21 scientific research institutes and a biological station. Four institutes (microbiology, therapy, surgery and the study of viruses) are in the process of formation. Forty-two new members will be elected, and 50 corresponding members. About 600 names recommended by scientific organizations of the Union Republics are under consideration.



LENINGRAD ART SCHOOL—During the blockade talented young people studied the techniques of architectural design and restitution in order to be ready to restore the buildings of the city. On the left is a class in stonecarving; (right) An instructor demonstrates decorative modeling

Youth Redecorate City

When Leningrad was clamped in a ring of blockade and enemy shells were destroying houses and historic buildings, the Leningrad Soviet opened an art school. It was organized by artist Joseph Wax at the suggestion of the City Architectural Administration to train young people in the art of building decoration.

Many of the young pupils had lost

their parents in the heroic defense of the city against the hated enemy.

There are four main departments—decorative modeling and painting, and carving on stone and on wood—under the foremost Leningrad artists.

The bombardment of the city never ceased. A shell hit the school dormitory and killed 17 young students. But studies continued, and now the graduates are

working intensively on the restoration of the treasured buildings of the heroic city.

Most of the modeling and painting on the building of the Kirov State Theater of Opera and Ballet was executed by the members of this art school. They are now at work on the Mariinsky Palace and the Pavlovsk and Yekaterinsky Palaces in the suburbs of Leningrad.



By the time the siege was lifted the institute had trained enough restoration crews for the immediate tasks of reconstruction. The present full enrollment promises competent designers for the buildings of the future



←
Top: Ivan Fetisov and Lydia Rakhmanova, former pupils and now teachers of the art center, visit Joseph Wax, director
Center: Dmitri Orzhanov, an old master, gives advice on artistic woodcarving to Maya Ananina



Bottom: Decorations for the Mariinsky Palace are being finished by the best pupils of the modeling department—Tat'yana Zavadovskaya and Zinaida Nikitina



→
Students prepare copings and cornices to replace the parts of buildings damaged by enemy shells

Notes on Soviet Life

The following decree has been issued by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR:

In view of the termination of the war and discontinuance of the state of emergency, the further existence of the State Defense Committee is considered unnecessary, and therefore the State Defense Committee is to be abolished and all its business to be transferred to the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR.

★

The Signing of the Act of Japanese Surrender, a new documentary, was filmed by six Soviet newsreel men. It shows all stages of the ceremony: General MacArthur's arrival, on board the *Missouri*, the representatives of the Allied powers following him. Next the Japanese delegation passes amidst dead silence. At 10:30 (Tokyo time) General MacArthur is at the microphone. The audience hears his speech on the purpose of the ceremonies. The Japanese leave the battleships, and airships of the Allied powers fly in formation over Tokyo Bay.

★

Stock will again graze on the famous Barabino steppes in Siberia. Over 1,250,000 acres of marshland are to be reclaimed, the first 25,000 acres already restored by the collective farmers themselves.

Miles of canals have been repaired or newly built and the farmers are now digging a 25-mile canal which will transform 125,000 acres of arid land into green pastures.

★

The Kremlin will shine again with golden domes and white stone buildings.

The extensive restoration work is under the direction of the well-known architect Nikolai Vinogradov and the artist, Academician I. E. Grabar. The Kremlin was covered with a thick coat of camouflage and sham windows and roofs were painted on the walls of the cathedrals and other Kremlin buildings. These valued memorials of antiquity will now assume their original splendor.

The Uzbek State library is celebrating its 75th anniversary. In 1917 its book repository contained 80,000 volumes. Today there are 1,500,000 volumes in 140 languages, with a rich collection of books on Central Asia and adjoining countries. A prized possession are 170,000 Arabian, Persian and Turkish manuscripts.

★

Lieutenant Mikhail T., who suffered serious shell injuries to his cheek, nose and lips, was treated at the Leningrad Trauma Institute by Professor Limberg. A new face was constructed by plastic surgery. The Filatov method of skin grafting was used, initiated in this country in 1917 by Professor Filatov of Odessa.

Professor Limberg's school successfully utilizes bone grafting for the repair of crushed jaws.

★

Soviet scientists will observe the 2,000th anniversary of the death of the great Roman poet Titus Lucretius Carus, materialist philosopher of ancient times and one of the founders of the atomic theory. The Academy of Sciences of the USSR will devote a special general session to the event, and several papers will be read on the life and activity of Lucretius. An edition of *De Rerum Natura* will be issued by the publishing house of the Academy of Sciences.

★

Pilots of the Soviet Civil Air Fleet fly regularly to the United States, China and Teheran, and make trips to London, Paris, Prague, Warsaw, Belgrade, Sofia, Bucharest, Vienna and Budapest. The route linking Moscow with the United States is the longest, running through Yakutia, Kolyma, Kamchatka and Alaska.

★

A fully equipped physiotherapy sanatorium for war invalids has opened in Odessa in a picturesque spot on the shore of the Black Sea.

Alexei Tolstoy's novel, *Road to Calvary*, dealing with the history of the Revolution, has been adapted for the stage by the Maly Theater and will be put into production. The scenic version follows the plan suggested by Tolstoy who, in January, 1945, though gravely ill, made corrections in the second script.

★

Historic documents and various materials pertaining to the combat activities of Soviet communications details during the war are continually sought and added to the collection of the Museum of Red Army Communications. From every part of the USSR the Museum daily receives valuable materials, photographs, drawings and reminiscences of the men who maintained the Army's communications during the war.

★

Sugar production has started in the Ukrainian mills, with a plan for one million centners during the current season. This year's area under beets exceeded last year's by 140,000 hectares. All sugar beet-growing collective and State farms have been restored, and the new crop will be processed in 124 re-established mills. One of them in Lkhvitsa has a daily capacity of 16,000 centners.

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5

The Coming Campaign

Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR will be held on February 10, 1946. The following are among numerous editorials which have appeared in the newspapers of the country:

IZVESTIA writes October 12:

The Regulations on Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is a document of enormous political importance, setting forth the principles and procedure insuring the citizen of a Socialist State the free and full exercise of his right to elect the supreme organ of the Soviet Government and to be elected himself.

Soviet society is regulated by the Constitution which legally establishes the great achievements of the Soviet people. The strength of the Stalin Constitution lies in the inviolable unity of the Soviet society, in the harmonious cooperation of workers, farmers and intellectuals and in the friendship and fraternity of peoples.

In the time that has passed since the last elections, the Soviet State has grown even mightier, enjoying the full support of our whole people. The basis of our life is Soviet democracy. Participation in the affairs of the State has become an organic part of the life of the broad masses of Soviet citizens.

The citizen of our country deeply realizes that his work is part of the great common construction of Socialism, and he associates his personal activities with the development of the entire State, with its growth and prosperity. This is the practical result of Soviet democracy which increases the State consciousness and popular activities of the masses.

In the forthcoming elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, Soviet democracy will be revealed in all its fullness and consistency. The system and entire



Voters receive their ballots in ward No. 62 in Tallinn

order of preparing and conducting elections will help the people in the great cause of strengthening the further might of the Soviet State.

The working people are provided with everything they need for the organization and conduct of elections. They are guaranteed unlimited possibilities for electioneering for their candidates. In this lies the specific feature of Soviet democracy: not only does it proclaim the rights and political freedoms of the citizens of the USSR, but it lays emphasis on guaranteeing these rights, on providing the means for exercising these rights and political freedoms.

According to the regulations, "All citizens of the USSR who have reached the

age of 18 years, irrespective of race or nationality, sex, creed, education, residence, social origin, property status or former activities" are entitled to take part in the elections of Deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

Articles V and VI of the regulations specify that women have the right to elect and be elected on an equal status with men, and that citizens who are in the Red Army ranks take part in elections on an equal basis with all citizens.

A citizen who has reached the age of 23 may be elected a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

Universal equal and direct franchise by secret vote is an unattainable dream as yet for the majority of the world. The

peoples of the Soviet Union have this right and use it for their own benefit.

The Supreme Soviet of the USSR of the First Convocation has played its historical role. It has led the State through the peaceful years of tremendous construction and through the gravest war trials to complete victory over the enemies of our country.

By taking full advantage of their truly democratic election system, eight years ago the Soviet people created a supreme body of State authority worthy of our country. The coming elections will be another attainment for Soviet democracy.

The Soviet system is now as strong as ever. The political maturity of the working people has been immeasurably extended.

These elections constitute a test of the State and of the public attitude toward the policies pursued by the Government. That Government authority which represents the will of the people, which defends its vital interests, emerges from the elections with new strength.

From PRAVDA, October 12:

The Regulations on Elections have been published within several days of the announcement of the date of elections to the Supreme Soviet—February 10, 1946.

The Soviet country emerged victorious from the greatest war of all times and, reorganizing its life on a peaceful basis, is preparing for elections.

Four months of great political and organizational work lie ahead, in which the whole population will take part. Our elections are genuinely popular.

The guiding principle of the regulations is to guarantee the free expression of the will of the people, to insure that the most worthy citizens of the USSR are elected to the supreme organ of State authority.

The nation knows its best people, those who without sparing effort or life defended the country on the battlefields, and those who self-sacrificingly worked in the rear for the sake of the country's freedom and independence. Thousands of leading citizens will be on election commissions and will head the campaign. The best of the best will be nominated as candidates for the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

Blueprints for Villages

By N. M. Shestopal

The years of peaceful construction preceding the Patriotic War produced great changes in our villages. The collective farm system had raised the standard of living and improved the general well-being of the rural population. Shops, clubs, cinemas, kindergartens, day nurseries and many other facilities appeared in the countryside for the first time.

The professional architect, however, was still not much concerned with village planning. His main interest was the reshaping of cities and the creation of great new towns in the remote wilderness.

The war has changed this. Hitler's armies wantonly destroyed thousands of villages in Russia, the Ukraine, Byelorussia and the Baltic Soviet Republics. Village planning is now very much the concern of the Soviet architect. We intend that the new villages which are to rise on the ruins of war shall be much more attractive and more comfortable than the best of the old ones.

In this article I should like to discuss the public buildings we want to see in all our Soviet villages. These, in my opinion, are no less important for the villagers than are the houses in which they live.

Schools and Kindergartens

First of all—the school. The ideal village school is situated among the farmers' cottages, within easy reach of the road. Most of its windows face south. Every Soviet village school is allotted about three acres for a playground.

Two other children's institutions which should be within easy reach of all the houses are the kindergarten and the day nursery. Large villages will have several of each type of institution distributed among the farmers' cottages, so that mothers will not have to make long journeys to and from the kindergarten or nursery.

When we plan new villages, we estimate that 50 per cent of the children in the age groups embraced by these institutions will attend them. If it turns out that more mothers want to leave their children at the nursery during working hours, especially during the spring sowing and at harvest time, movable creches and other

facilities will be provided to meet the need.

Public baths and laundries now being planned for postwar Soviet villages will be large enough to serve the entire population.

Hospitals and out-patient clinics existed in most villages of any size before the war. We are giving a great deal of attention to these services. Buildings designed as public health institutions will be equipped as well as science can devise.

Cafes and Restaurants

An interesting feature of the projects for villages of over 8,000 inhabitants is the provision of cafes and restaurants. This typically urban feature will be quite new to most rural dwellers, but will no doubt soon become as popular as the village club, library and reading room.

Architects have prepared a series of typical layouts of farm buildings. The buildings are disposed so as to avoid unnecessary transport of fodder in winter, while insuring perfect sanitary conditions.

Soviet rural planners are laying particular stress on the provision of proper water supplies and the planting of parks and gardens. Skilled hydrotechnicians are being employed to see that the best water available in the district is harnessed to serve man and beast.

It may seem a little odd to talk of planting parks in the country. But it must be remembered that the Germans ruthlessly burned the trees in the regions they occupied. Belts of trees are necessary not only to provide a healthy atmosphere, but also to serve as windbreaks. The village itself will be graced by private orchards and by small parks laid out between groups of cottages. Decorative shrubs and hedges will enclose the private holdings.

A Venerable Age

Margarita Kodzhoyan, a woman collective farmer from the Armenian village of Shirak, is 112 years old. She has fifty descendants.

She well remembers some episodes of the war between Russia and Turkey of 1853-1856 and the celebration of the Russian victory.



This could be any city after German occupation. It is the ruins of Smolensk

Smolensk—Before and After Occupation

By V. Grigoryev

Smolensk is situated on the shortest route to Moscow from the West. Founded more than 1,000 years ago, the city, through centuries of Russian history, has been a bastion at the gates of Moscow. In 1609-1611 it withstood a 20 months' siege by the Poles. About 200 years later Russian troops fought Napoleon under the same walls and 130 years after the War of 1812, the city faced another enemy—fascist Germany.

The accompanying pictures show Smolensk before and after German occupation. Smolensk had a population of 170,000. Of this total, 135,000 people were murdered or tortured to death by the Nazi

invaders and thousands were driven into slavery in Germany.

When Smolensk was liberated, 25,000 people remained, who had saved their lives by hiding out in the surrounding villages and forests. Only 700 out of the 8,000 buildings in Smolensk were standing. All 96 factories were destroyed, and only 10 of the 54 schools escaped destruction. Every one of the 19 libraries was leveled to the ground. Only 10 of the 67 hospitals and clinics survived. The total damage is estimated at 4,118,000,000 rubles.

According to estimates, 80,000 men will have to work, day in, day out, for from three to four years to bring Smolensk to life. Since the liberation, very little reconstruction has been done—because of the tremendous amount of the damage and because the people were still working for victory.

One of the first reconstruction jobs completed was 10 factories manufacturing such con-

sumers' goods as footwear, clothing, furniture and kitchen utensils.

The population has grown to 58,000, all of whom are contributing to the vast restoration undertaking.

When one sees schoolchildren give up their games to help repair a home for a war invalid or for the family of a serviceman, one wonders how objection can be raised to compelling those who destroyed a city to rebuild it.



The Medical College before the war



An office building before occupation

SURGEONS DRAW ON WAR EXPERIENCE

By S. Girgolav

Member of the Academy of Medical Sciences of the USSR

Pirogov, one of the great Russian surgeons, called the war an "epidemic of traumatism" providing new material to study and master. In no previous war was there so large a variety of wounds.

It was the Red Army Medical Service which made the first successful attempt to bring the surgeon to the firing line. Hospitals were set up to treat wounds of the joints; many specialized in thigh and

field inviting further study is the physiology of wounds, with investigation of the laws of pathological change in tissue.

Naturally, surgeons alone will be unable to cope with the gigantic task of penetrating into the pathological physiology of gunshot wounds; they will be helped by the patho-physiologists, biochemists, physicists, chemists, physicochemists, biologists, histologists and physiologists. Re-

tached to the use of antiseptics and antibiotics—microbes antagonistic to those causing diseased wounds.

As early as 1909, the great microbiologist Mechnikov showed that Darwin's idea of the struggle for existence is applicable to the world of microbes. He said then that if this idea were put into practice it would lead to great progress in medicine. The idea was realized in 1929, when the English microbiologist Fleming discovered penicillin. In 1940 another substance which devours disease microbes—gramicidin—was discovered in the United States.

Professor Yermolyeva and dozens of other scientists are working in the USSR on this problem of employing microbes in treatment.

The next important postwar problem for surgeons is that of rehabilitation. This includes eradication of the aftereffects of wounds: fistulas, ulcers, unknitted fractures and the frequent offender, osteomyelitis. Soviet surgeons are of the opinion that surgical treatment of osteomyelitis should be accompanied by physiotherapy, especially ultra high-frequency ray treatment—a theory confirmed in practice.

The second job that rehabilitative surgery has to do is to improve or completely restore the functions of organs, sometimes by means of complicated operations. Past experience is being mobilized and special hospitals set up for this purpose. In Leningrad the Central Traumatological Institute is giving treatment to disabled ex-servicemen which includes plastic operations on bones, the straightening of displaced joints, the sewing and restoration of nerves and skin, tendon and muscle transplantations. A number of other Leningrad clinics and institutes, headed by such famous surgeons as Academician Y. Janelidze, Academician N. Petrov and Professor N. Samarin, are specializing in reconstructive surgery.

In a Museum of War Medicine all the



Honored Worker of Science Professor N. N. Petrov removing a malignant tumor at the State Oncological Institute in Leningrad

hip injuries, and others dealt only with wounds to the thorax, etc. Special institutions were established for neurosurgery, maxillo-facial surgery, the treatment of the slightly wounded and for the supply of artificial limbs.

Problems once thought solved came to the fore in a new light; they were met in the treatment of gunshot wounds and in eradicating such aftereffects as osteomyelitis, trophic ulcers, slow healing, etc. A

habilitative surgery will become truly effective only when there is a profound knowledge of the physiology of wounds.

Soviet medical men already employ surgical methods to accelerate the healing of wounds and ulcers; in particular, there are new methods for treating the nervous system, attempts at using moribund tissue to heal wounds, etc.

In the treatment of gunshot wounds and their aftereffects, great importance is at-

Expanding the Academy of Medicine

By Professor Kirkov-Kekcheyev



SURGERY AT THE FRONT—Operating on a gravely wounded man

material gathered during the war will be systematized and exhibited. Comprehensive research papers will then be compiled on this material.

To maintain medical skills extension courses for physicians are being offered. Many young men had not completed their training or had taken short courses in their senior years to fill the wartime need for medical service. These young doctors acquired considerable practical experience in the field, but are lacking in theoretical knowledge. They are "one-sided," and the program is directed toward their requirements.

Today great importance is attached to the scientific training of all surgeons, not only of young students. The Moscow Central Doctors Institute for postgraduate study just graduated a group who will lecture in medical colleges.

Surgical specialties somewhat neglected in wartime will now receive special attention. A case in point is oncology, the science of tumors. This branch of medicine is in need of trained people and technical equipment. Of national importance, the fight against cancer is already being extended.

In the health offensive of the Academy of Medical Sciences, formed nine months ago, the usual tasks are greatly amplified by the need to restore institutions and medical standards in the areas of German devastation. A system of teamwork is being effectively employed in which specialists in every field of science and medicine work in collaboration.

Organized for the scientific study of the problems of medical theory, the Academy proceeded on a substantial foundation of scientific achievement. Attainments in the war were an indication of the already high level of medicine, with 70% of the war-wounded returned to physical fitness, and not a single epidemic occurring in the country in spite of the movement of great numbers of troops and the displacement of many civilians.

The medical forces totaled more than 120,000 physicians and hundreds of thousands of other personnel.

The Academy, headed by Nikolai Burdenko, founder of Soviet neurosurgery, has 60 members in three departments, medical-biological, hygiene and microbiology, and clinical.

The salient task with which Soviet medical men are concerned is the elimination of infectious diseases. Although the USSR has long since stamped out such deadly diseases as cholera, bubonic plague and smallpox, and the incidence of typhus and remittent typhoid has been sharply cut, malaria and grippe, as well as various other infectious diseases, including intestinal diseases, must still be wiped out. With this in view the Academy is setting up new institutes, such as those of bacteriology, epidemiology, virusology, malaria, medical parasitology and helminthology. These and others functioning under the Academy make it possible to subject communicable diseases to thorough study and to work out effective means for combating them.

The Academy's Institute of Pharmacology and Chemical Therapy has produced a number of original preparations for the treatment of pneumonia, dysentery, malaria, syphilis, etc.

The Tuberculosis Institute is attack-

ing the disease so prevalent in areas that were temporarily in German hands. Treatment with chemical preparations is gaining recognition and the use of anti-tuberculosis vaccine, which previously had splendid results among children, is being further investigated.

The Institute of Oncology is progressing in research on the early diagnosis of malignant tumors and their treatment with X rays and radium as well as by surgical intervention. The number of oncological stations and hospitals has continued to increase.

Research in diet and nutrition is one of the most important of the Academy's fields.

During the past nine months new institutes working on fundamental problems of medicine have been established and old ones greatly expanded, among them the Institutes of Experimental Biology, Morphology, Physiology, Physiological and Medical Chemistry and the Evolutionary Physiology of the Higher Nervous System.



AT A FIELD HOSPITAL—Giving a blood transfusion

Fighter Ace Ivan Kozhedub

By L. Lerov

No one could describe that battle. Things moved faster than the eye could follow. Of only one thing could you be certain—that one of the fighters in the mixup was always higher than his adversaries and kept coming on at the Luftwaffe planes from above. With dizzy figures executed at lightning speed the pilot retained his advantage. First he shot down one Focke-Wulf 190, then another. Finally he was alone against four Nazis, as the rest of our fighters were ordered at a bevy of Junkers that had appeared. One of the German fighters seemed to crumple up under his guns, and he came down in flames. Down below we heaved a combined sigh of relief as the remaining three turned tail.

"Good for Kozhedub!" exclaimed Air Colonel General Goryunov, the commander of our air forces, with whom I watched the intense struggle 2,000 meters above.

It was my first introduction to Major Ivan Kozhedub, and it took place during the summer of 1944, in the course of the fighting in Rumania.

The weather was excellent and the air over Jassy was thick with air engagements, dozens of which were fought every day. To relax the tension and insure our superiority in the air our Command sent the famous Sword Squadron to this sector, made up of ace fliers under Kozhedub.

The day I first saw Kozhedub fly, the Sword Squadron had been sent up to block a German attempt to gain the upper hand in the air; our Command expected such an attempt would be made, for it knew the enemy was preparing major counterattacks. Such action usually meant that a large Luftwaffe fighter force would try to clear the way for bombers. This was true now; soon the German fighters made their appearance on the horizon. At the same time reports came in to the General that fighters, piloted by the crack fliers of the Udet Squadron, had taken off from German airdromes. In a few minutes they had to reckon with Kozhedub and his aces.

A few days after that lightning engagement I attended the presentation of

decorations to the fliers of the air regiment in which Kozhedub served. His name headed the honors list. When his name was called out I saw a broad-shouldered, blue-eyed man of 25, with fair hair combed smoothly back, step out of the ranks and, with the rolling gait of a sailor, walk up to the General. Besides receiving the decoration he was thanked by Marshal Konev.

After the ceremony the General gave a dinner in honor of those who had received awards. He seated Kozhedub next to himself in order "to protect him from the correspondents." So my next bet was his best friend, Hero of the Soviet Union Captain Yevstigneyev, also of the Sword Squadron. From him I learned that Kozhedub, the number one fighter pilot of the front, had seen his first action only in July, 1943 near Belgorod. "Perhaps no other Soviet flier has done so much in so short a time," he said.

Any notion that the fighting ace had begun his career with a brilliant exploit and thus gotten a head start was soon corrected.

"His flying began with a defeat—mistake you can call it—that almost cost him his life," the Captain told me. "He was shot down during his first mission. He took it very badly, could not forgive himself for having been caught napping by an enemy flyer."

This first bitter lesson was not lost on the airman. He began persistently to cultivate in himself the ability to see everything—a quality so important to a crack flier. His fellow fliers began to joke that Kozhedub had a rubber neck which enabled him to turn his head a full 360 degrees.

Fame came to him on the Dnieper. Almost every day the front-line papers featured his name. In the course of a single week he brought down 11 German planes.

The conversation with Yevstigneyev was interrupted by the General rising to drink to Kozhedub's second Gold Star Medal, the insignia of Hero of the Soviet Union which he was certain the flier would earn. And true enough he got it later. I poised my pencil to jot down his

reply to the toast, but there was not much to write. Embarrassed and blushing, Kozhedub said when the applause had died down, "I will do my best."

Beginning with the Dnieper, Kozhedub's fame grew and spread. His name appeared time and again, both in the press and dispatches. Particularly dazzling was his performance at the bridgeheads on the Dnieper, Southern Bug, Dniester, Prut, Bug, Sozh, Vistula and the Oder. He flew over all these rivers when they were the scene of the fiercest and heaviest fighting.

During the latter period of the war when the front moved to the approaches of Berlin, he was already second in command of the so-called Marshal's Regiment, which consisted of picked top-notch airmen and was at the disposal of the Chief Air Marshal for use on decisive sectors of the front.

Kozhedub was on a mission when I arrived at his airdrome. According to the officer on duty at the regimental radio station, he was in action over one of the suburbs of Berlin. Hearing I had come to see the famed airman, the officer began to praise him for the fighting in which he was then engaged.

"The other day he and his group shot down 27 enemy aircraft in three days while covering our bridgeheads on the Oder," the officer said. "In another action his sextet took on 30 Focke-Wulf 190's, Kozhedub himself downing three Germans while his comrades accounted for another five. We got a wire from the ground forces artillery commander stating the performance exceeded anything he had seen in air fighting."

The officer was just beginning to tell us about how the airman lent a hand to some British fliers, when our conversation was interrupted by the return of the Lavochkin fighters piloted by Kozhedub and his fliers.

It was more than an hour later before I was able to get hold of the noted flier himself: One of his men had committed some error in the fighting they had just seen, and before he would talk to anyone he held a "closed lecture" to explain why the erring pilot should have con-

ducted himself differently. And before he would see me he wanted to read a letter he had just received from his father in the Sumy Region. In a few minutes he was through and we sat down under the wing of one of the planes. Kozhedub was in gloomy spirits. I asked whether the letter had bad news.

"Dad writes he does not think he will last long and wants to see his sons before his death," he said. "All my brothers are at the front, and Mother died before the war. That leaves him all alone, and although the whole village looks after him and he is not lacking anything, he is worried about us. He writes that he does not sleep nights. Maybe I will get permission to fly home after we have taken Berlin.

"Now let us get down to business; what is it you wanted to know?"

Helping Allies

I asked him about the time he had lent a hand to the British fliers.

"There was a case like that," he replied. "Some British planes were bombing the suburbs of Berlin, and the Germans sent a considerable number of fighters against them. I was sent out to help the Allies cope with the Nazis. It was a rather hot fight. We broke into the very midst of some Focke-Wulf 190's. One of the Germans got above me and I resorted to a stunt the Germans had not experienced

before—attacking the Nazi from below. The German went down. I was barely out of this tangle when another Focke-Wulf 190 came at me. We went at each other head on to see whose nerves would crack first. His gave way and I shot him down, too. That is all."

"You're not very talkative, are you, Major?"

"Instead of going into long stories I usually show you newspapermen my notebook," he said. "I have a full record of my air battles there. Want to take a look at it?"

He gave me a small, much-handled notebook, but it contained only diagrams and brief notations, too brief to be of much use to me. But I jotted one of them down. It read:

"October 23, 1944, nine hours, 15 minutes, cut down Junker 87; attacked from above. Eleven hours, ten minutes, set Focke-Wulf 190 on fire, see film record, Thirteen hours, 30 minutes, scrap with four Focke-Wulf 190's, shot one down in head-on attack, then downed another."

Giving his book back to him I asked whether he could say something about the mission he had just been on.

"Nothing out of the ordinary," he replied, "I was going at 4,500 meters when I spotted four Focke-Wulf 190's. Relying on their numerical superiority, the Germans attacked head on. Two of them

flew a little higher than I and two below. While the Germans were trying to close in on me, I attacked the lower pair and shot down the leading machine. The rest decided not to engage me. It was just an ordinary air battle that was over in a flash. For me it is interesting because it rounded out my score at 60."

I barely had time to congratulate him on the occasion, when the cook drove up in a jeep carrying a birthday cake which he handed to Kozhedub with appropriate felicitations. The words "In Honor of the 60th Victory" in icing decorated the top of the cake. Kozhedub threw a rapid glance at me, and then muttered, "Stand by, Kozhedub, for a raid by a division of war correspondents."

A few weeks later I met him in Moscow—three days after Victory Day. He was complaining that newspapermen, artists and sculptors had not given him a moment of peace.

"Fame may be all right, but in small doses. I want to get back to my regiment as soon as possible. I will go as soon as I have met Lavochkin, the aircraft designer. After all, it is in his plane I bagged all 62 German aircraft."

"How many?" I interrupted.

"Sixty-two. Since I saw you last I shot down two planes over Berlin. I am certainly looking forward to meeting Lavochkin."

All Roads Are Open

By K. Fyodorovich

The Riga railway station was the scene of great commotion when a train arrived bringing the Latvian children who had been away almost four years. There was much shouting and laughter with tears of joy as the children were reunited with their parents and families. For a number of children there were no loved ones to meet them, for the Germans had slaughtered mothers as well as fathers. But the children had the comfort of knowing they would be provided with homes and care and friendship.

The memory of those terrible days in June 1941 when Latvia was invaded by the German hordes, is too poignant to fade. Most of the children can still see the long procession of refugees trudging down the roads. They can still hear the

roaring enemy planes overhead, and the deafening crashes of exploding bombs. The children can remember the weariness of endless tramping to reach the train which would carry them away from these horrors. Then the German planes came swooping down on them. There was bedlam—death and mutilation on all sides.

A shadow seemed to pass over their faces as the familiar landscape brought back these painful recollections.

While in evacuation the children had been lodged in special homes near Kazan and in the Kirov and Gorky Regions. Everything was pleasant and clean and comfortable there. What a thrill it was when the fresh greens from their own garden, and milk from their own cows, were served at the table.

While the days were filled with good, wholesome work at school, at home and in the garden, the evenings were for rest and relaxation. They danced, sang, gave plays, drew pictures, played games, listened to stories, composed songs and wrote letters to friends and relatives.

Four years! Many who were mere tots when they left will be entering school in the autumn. The older children have an impressive command of the Russian language and even know some Tatar. Some had begun to study English.

These young people know what they want. They have made up their minds as to their future professions and are confident that nothing will interfere with their plans, for all roads are open to them.

RETURN OF THE HERDS

By Yakov Sholnik

The signal came on December 15, 1943. The Council of People's Commissars of the USSR directed the livestock supply department of the People's Commissariat of the Meat and Dairy Produce Industry to return the evacuated herds to the collective farms of the Ukraine.

Fifteen thousand drovers, most of them amateurs at the job, had to move about 100,000 head of long-horned cattle and over 200,000 sheep a distance of more than 600 miles. We remembered well enough the difficulties attending the delivery before the war of a few hundred cattle from Chernigov Region to the Bryansk meat-packing plant—a distance of about 200 miles.

It was essential to keep losses down to an absolute minimum, because every cow, every sheep was of priceless worth to the denuded farms of the Ukraine.

Organization

To move the animals by rail was out of the question. It would have required 20,000 trucks to accommodate the livestock bound for the Ukraine alone. It was unthinkable in wartime to impose such a burden on the transport system. There was no alternative to driving the herds by road.

Elaborate preparations were necessary. First of all, each animal due to return was given a rigorous veterinary examination. Then the People's Commissariat of Agriculture of the Ukraine, aided by the Ukrainian branch of our own department, drew up twenty-four routes to be followed by the homing herds, based on the directions in which the animals would be traveling from the eastern regions and Republics. Ample stores of fodder and water were collected at points along these routes. We set up stations for rest and veterinary inspection at intervals of eight to ten miles.

The routes we chose were the easiest for the animals, and we took care to avoid unnecessary detours which would add to the length of the journey. Eleven veterinary inspection stations were set up on the borders of the Orel, Kursk, Voronezh

and Rostov Regions, and three on the borders of the Ukraine.

No praise is too high for the herdsmen. As I have already said, most of them were new to the job. They did brilliantly. They seemed inspired by their task. They were proud to be helping in the restoration of the collective farms of the Don and the Ukraine.

Milking En Route

The working day began with the first streak of dawn and ended at nightfall. The cattle covered a steady eight to twelve miles a day in all weather. Speed was not the only thing that mattered. It was most important that the animals should arrive in good condition. The cows were milked on the way, and the milk taken to the local collecting depots. Special care was taken of the young stock.

The 1,500 sheep which Ivan Dykhnov brought 450 miles to the Zaporozhye Region gained considerable weight on the road. Nikolai Ilichevsky left Pugachev District, in the Saratov Region, on August 8, 1944. On October 20 he reached Kirovgrad with 350 sheep; their total weight increase during the journey was 2.7 tons. Sergei Ivanov, another of our herdsmen, lost one sheep on the way, but there were five lambs born on the journey to take its place.

The 1,040 head of long-horned cattle which Petro Kobelev drove from Voroshilovsk (Saratov Region) to Kirovgrad between July 3 and September 2, 1944, made an aggregate gain of 3.3 tons on the way.

Altogether, the 5,540 long-horned cattle and 10,644 sheep which trekked from Saratov Region to Kirovgrad made a 2 per cent increase in weight on the road.

A herd of 7,000 cattle which covered a distance of over 1,250 miles from the Kustanai Region, in the Kazakh SSR, to the Voroshilovgrad Region, arrived without a single loss, and in excellent condition.

We went to a lot of trouble to provide good conditions for the drovers along the route. In the Ukraine alone, 147 supply centers were set up where they could

get anything they were likely to need. Before they set off, they were fitted with suitable clothing and footwear.

The drive back to the Ukraine from the East began in the first days of May 1944. By the middle of June the first herds were home. There were 39 large inspection centers at journey's end, where the local farmers took over from the drovers.

Today our task is nearly done. The State farms of the Kharkov Region have received 20,000 head of long-horned cattle and 33,000 sheep. Kiev Region has received 9,000 cattle and 17,000 sheep.

The arrival of the animals at their destination was, of course, a tremendous moment. The farmers made a festival of it. I was at the Chervonny Geroi collective farm, in the Brusilov District of the Zhitomir Region, when the herds were sighted. What a welcome they got! The drovers were feasted like heroes, and the animals were shown into really palatial quarters. There was rejoicing all through the villages of the Zhitomir, Kharkov and Poltava Regions in the days when the herds were returning.

There were meetings in the fields and squares, and the drovers were acclaimed again and again as they well deserved, for the animals had arrived home in even better condition than they had set out.

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Central Asia and Transcaucasus Make Strides

By Boris Braginsky

Before the 1917 Revolution the provinces of the Russian empire, especially the eastern ones, were extremely backward, economically and culturally. In 1913 in Central Asia and the Transcaucasus, where over a quarter of the population lived, the total gross industrial output amounted to no more than eight per cent of production for the whole country; the engineering industries supplied a bare three per cent of the country's total. In all of Central Asia there was not a single large engineering plant.

Agriculture was just as retarded. In eastern Russia there was only one school of higher learning (in Georgia); even secondary schools were scarce. Literacy was naturally very low. Only a few newspapers were published in the languages of the people. In Uzbekistan there was one theater, while in Armenia, Turkmenia, Tajikistan and Kirghizia there were none at all.

The Revolution eliminated the inequality of the non-Russian nationalities, granting complete political freedom and complete equality in all respects in political, economic and cultural life. Unlimited possibilities for development opened up.

In order that equality might be realized it was necessary to raise backward regions to the level of the most progressive.

In the Soviet Republics of Central Asia and the Transcaucasus, the Five-Year Plans brought about an extremely rapid growth of industry, agriculture, transport, education, health services and domestic building.

During the period of the first plan, 1929-1933, the volume of industry in the

non-Russian Soviet Republics and regions increased to more than three and one-half times its former figure, while in Russia and the Ukraine it was doubled.

During the following years and up to the outbreak of war, there was a more rapid rate of development in the non-Russian Republics and regions than in the older industrial districts. Huge hydroelectric power stations were built in Central Asia which provided current for the new heavy and light industries and for the food-packing industry. Large plants for the production of farm machines and fertilizers were built to help develop grain-growing farms. Textile mills were erected for cotton and wool, and new meat-processing plants handled the prod-

ucts of the immense Central Asian livestock farms.

In Kazakhstan, a country almost as large as the whole of Europe, huge combines were set up to mine and refine many different metals.

Prosperity came to the Soviet Transcaucasus. Many of the peoples of these southern lands—Georgians, Armenians, Azerbaijanians, Abkhazians and others—built up industries with the aid of the Russian people. Oil in Baku increased to four times the pre-Revolutionary level. Huge power stations, worked by the swiftly flowing Caucasian rivers, were erected and the unlimited treasures of the Caucasus Mountains were placed at the service of man. Oil and non-ferrous metal re-



The Pedagogical Institute of Yakutsk trains native educators

fineries were built, engineering works and textile factories began to pour out their produce.

Agriculture was completely overhauled. Despite the favorable conditions, Central Asia and the Transcaucasus had not to any great extent cultivated such crops as cotton, fruits (especially citrus fruits) tea, grapes, tobacco and other southern and subtropical crops. A metamorphosis occurred. The cotton crop was increased several times over, especially in Central Asia where gigantic irrigation works were built. Tea plantations, lemon, orange, tangerine and mulberry groves, fields of plants yielding essential oils that formerly existed only as tiny oases have now become widespread.

Sericulture, viticulture, tobacco growing, fruit preserving and packing and the manufacture of the tea leaf have developed on a huge scale. In the Central Asian Republics, where there is a large livestock industry, food packing, processing and the packing of meat have become highly important.

In the industrial centers large contingents of skilled workers have been trained. Tens of thousands of engineers, technicians, teachers, doctors and professional workers have been graduated from the

higher educational establishments. In 1939, the number of students was ten times greater than in 1929; the number of secondary school pupils, five times greater. Compulsory universal education was introduced, and literacy became the rule rather than the exception.

One of the greatest achievements was the opening of a network of institutions providing free medical attention. In the non-Russian Republics of the Soviet East there were nine times more hospital beds in 1938 than in 1913. Libraries, clubs, Houses of Culture, educational establishments and scientific research institutions were made available to all working people.

National art, retaining its rich local color, began to flourish, and became richer in content under the influence of the more mature Russian art.

Millions of poor peasants were raised to affluence by joining collective farms. The one-time impoverished laborer entered industrial enterprises and enjoyed all the rights of a Soviet worker—social insurance, free medical services, paid holidays, etc.—and yearly wage increases.

The millionaire collective farms of the non-Russian Republics are famous throughout the Soviet Union. During the war the Uzbek, Tajik, Turkmenian,

Georgian, Armenian and Bashkir collective farmers made voluntary contributions to a defense fund of hundreds of thousands of rubles, large quantities of wheat, meat and other farm products. Members customarily make annual purchases of large quantities of furniture, clothing, bicycles, gramophones and other articles that were formerly unknown, or impossible to obtain.

Naturally, without the aid of the Russian people, the non-Russian Republics would not have been able to achieve such successes in such a short period of time. Factories of the older industrial regions of the USSR sent machinery to the distant republics, provided them with equipment, fertilizers, metal and consumers' goods. The Russian higher schools, together with those of the non-Russian republics, trained a large staff of young professionals and the Russian people lent the Republics every possible material and financial help.

Today the goal is new progress in the period from 1946-1950. There will be even greater advances in the economy and culture of all the Republics of the USSR and a strengthening of fraternity and friendship among the peoples of the Soviet Union.

Our Reckoning With the Germans

By Alexander Selivanov

Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Kharkov Soviet of Workers' Deputies

Kharkov is one of a number of cities which were virtually transformed before

the war. In a period of some ten years it underwent great expansion. New districts with many tall buildings were opened up. The old streets and squares were reconstructed and planted with trees and flowers, and new streets, squares and parks were added.

There were splendid theaters, clubs, museums and stadiums. Kharkov was proud of its up-to-date Donetsk water main which

eliminated the water shortage in the city. The narrow and shallow rivers were widened and filled with clear, rapidly flowing water; they were spanned by beautiful bridges and flanked with granite embankments.

The Government of the Ukrainian SSR spent huge sums annually on city improvements to provide the one million people with the best of living and cultural services. Visitors who had seen the city in '35 and '36 were amazed at the changes when they revisited Kharkov in 1940.

It was this thriving, growing city that the German fascists invaded, burning everything in their path. In the torrid unforgettable August days of 1943 we



LIBERATION—A group gathers before the City Soviet



On guard long after the city was freed, anti-aircraft gunners kept watch in the streets of Kharkov. Here they are in one of the typical open-spaced squares

viewed a liberated Kharkov in ruins. Words do not convey the terrible devastation left by the incendiaries and sappers, who so carefully carried out the barbarous orders of the German command. They turned the modern administrative and scientific center of the Ukraine into a wasteland of scorched earth. Before their retreat the Germans destroyed the fruits of long years of painstaking creative work, they reduced to nothing the city's huge material wealth. It was apparent at a glance that it would take years of effort and huge expenditures before Kharkov would be restored to her one-time stature.

In the table of figures from the findings of the State Committees to ascertain losses inflicted by the German-fascist aggressors, results of the German ravages are given. Naturally a great deal has not and, indeed, cannot be calculated at all. But the total expressed in money is stupendous.

Here, for example, are the Committee's figures relating to the city housing fund. The Germans, it is known, burned and blew up, destroyed or partly destroyed more than half the dwelling houses of the city—a loss estimated at almost 564 million rubles.

Scientific and medical establishments suffered enormous damage. Of the 56 buildings housing scientific institutions, 16 were completely destroyed and 34 partly destroyed, with a calculated loss of more than 182 million rubles. Most of the hospitals and clinics were destroyed,

with losses of more than 58 million rubles. Many theaters, clubs, higher, secondary and elementary schools and libraries were ruthlessly demolished and plundered. Communal facilities suffered tremendous damage, power stations, city transport, the gas works and water mains were shattered. In particular, the Germans blasted the splendid structure of the Donets water main. Neither did the German vandals spare the churches, chapels, synagogues and mosques.

The following statement of one of the Committees is of interest:

"Museum treasures of great value, mostly rare objects that cannot be restored, were plundered or destroyed. In the Historical Museum alone the cost of objects that could not be evacuated is about 600 million rubles. Two billion rubles' worth of museum pieces that were evacuated were wrecked en route when the train was hit by German aircraft."

The people of Kharkov justly demand of the Germans that they answer for the destruction they inflicted on the city, its homes, scientific and medical establishments, theaters, museums, clubs, schools, public

facilities, monuments, gardens, parks, bridges and roads, everything created in years of persevering labor by the whole population.

Losses inflicted on Kharkov amount to at least 3.5 billion rubles. It is more than two years since the Germans were driven out of the city—time well used. Despite the difficulties, the people have set about rehabilitating their city.

Those who saw Kharkov in the autumn of 1943 would be amazed to see how rapidly it has changed in the comparatively short period. Buildings burned and destroyed by the Germans are replaced. Communal facilities for the population are growing.

But this is only a beginning. Much work and effort lie ahead for the resurrection of the city from its ruins.



An exhibition in Kharkov showed the rapid economic rehabilitation of the Region

Jobs and Opportunities Await Them

By G. Kolmanov



The mortar crew of Sergeant Antipov (right), which destroyed nine enemy batteries and six machine-gun nests during the advance on the First Byelorussian Front

That men demobilized from the Red Army should be confronted with work problems—when the demand for labor exceeds the supply and will continue to grow during the new Five-Year Plan—may seem anomalous. Yet the condition exists—in particular among two categories of returned soldiers and officers: (1) those who were too young to have acquired any profession before they joined the armed forces, and (2) those who outgrew their old professions at the front.

Young people who went into the Army from school and college were robbed by the war of four extremely important years of their lives, which normally would have been spent in universities or technical colleges. By this time they would have been engineers, doctors, teachers or lawyers. Shall they now return to the classroom or shall they take unskilled jobs?

The problem confronting the second group—those who outgrew their former

professions while in the armed services—is somewhat different. Take, for example, the case of the tractor driver who was called up in the summer of 1941. He fought in tank units, distinguished himself in battle, was sent to an Officers' Training School, and was finally put in command of a battalion. He was a long way from his tractor.

Or the collective farm bookkeeper who became a major in the Quartermaster Service organizing the fuel supply of a motorized infantry division, from Voronezh to the Elbe. His old job is not likely to hold much attraction for him.

I know a girl who used to sell ties in a department store before the war. A month ago she returned from the Army, which she had joined as a volunteer, with two Orders, the Medal for Bravery and a certificate stating that "Agrippina Dimina had rid the country of 22 Germans."

Can you see Agrippina going back to her tie counter?

* * *

To simplify matters for the young demobilized servicemen every possible facility is offered for re-entering higher educational institutions. Exempted from entrance examinations and guaranteed a State scholarship, tens of thousands of young people have availed themselves of these opportunities.

Not long ago at the Moscow Power Institute, I was introduced to the young man who had been chief of staff of a Marine regiment. He admitted that he had not readily taken to the idea of going back to school. For two reasons, he explained: "In the first place I was not sure I could take to the quiet of the classroom after the stormy war years. The District Military Commissariat gave me a choice of several jobs. One of them was especially tempting—assistant chief of a seaport—that paid a good salary, offered comfortable living quarters and residence in a warm climate. Some of my friends succumbed to similar opportunities, feeling they can finish their education by correspondence courses. But I don't believe that you can get a fundamental education by correspondence."

"And what was the second reason?"

"Well the scholarship, of course, is less than my salary as assistant chief of a port would be. A student has to live more or less modestly. Not every demobilized man can accept that. Don't forget that in the Army we never had to worry about clothing, food or living quarters. Our quartermasters attended to that."

It is difficult to establish the exact percentage who decided to go back to their studies after four years of Army life. But some estimate is possible from the fact that 280 ex-servicemen and women have joined the student body of Moscow State University this term. These include five Heroes of the Soviet Union (three women fliers and two artillerymen). There are

ex-servicemen—officers, sergeants and soldiers—in all of the 11 departments of the University. They can be found in every one of the 762 Soviet higher educational institutions—from Moscow and Kiev to distant Novosibirsk.

In the three cases mentioned—tractor driver, collective farm bookkeeper and salesgirl—all were well launched in life when they joined the Army. But for two of them, at least, their former activities are no longer suitable.

Tractor driver Konstantin Dudka went right from an Army hospital to the City Military Commissariat to get advice about his prospects. He was looking for a job suited to the knowledge and experience he had acquired, and was especially interested in tank, tractor and automobile plants. What were the chances of getting work? The officer he spoke with rapidly scanned the huge pile of requests from plant directors for men in all fields, including gardeners and pyrotechnicians. But engineers, foremen and technicians were in greatest demand. For these, good salaries were offered, in some cases with apartments or dormitory accommodation, and a month's vacation in the plant's rest homes or a sanatorium of the South before starting work.

"Unfortunately," Dudka said with a sigh, "I am not an engineer."

"Then why not be one?" suggested the officer and reached out for another folder.

"No, no," said the former tractor driver. "It would take me at least seven years to get my diploma, three years to complete my secondary education and no less than four years of engineering school. I would never have the patience."

"Perhaps we can find you something in your old line, then. According to law, you know, you have a right to demand work in keeping with your newly-acquired experience and not inferior to the job you held before the war," the officer quoted from the Demobilization Law adopted at the last session of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

He got the personnel department of the People's Commissariat of Agriculture of the Russian SFSR on the wire and in ten minutes had the choice of several jobs to put before Dudka. The most attractive was job director, or assistant di-

rector of a machine and tractor station. Many new stations are due to be opened shortly and personnel of all kinds is greatly in demand.

With a hundred tractors and several hundred other agricultural machines to keep in commission and a "battlefield" of some 30,000 acres of land to work on, Dudka should be content. "Give me the address of that Commissariat, please," he said.

Open any Soviet newspaper today, and in three out of five cases, the placements are similar. There is not a single returned soldier—city dweller or farmer—who can complain of a lack of interesting offers. For those who do not wish to return to their former occupations, industrial training in many plants is available to learn new skills.

In the villages the energetic and enterprising soldier wins the respect of the community at once. I know of several soldiers and officers who head State farms, village libraries and clubs.

Ivan Lukin, the former collective-farm bookkeeper who was a major in the Quartermaster Service, is typical. Six weeks after he returned to his native village he was made assistant director of a local building trades office which is helping the farmers restore village structures razed by the Germans.

* * *

Quite unpredictably Agrippina Dimina, the sharpshooter, has gone back to her department store.

I met her two months ago outside the Rzhev Station the day Moscow was wel-

coming the first trainload of demobilized war veterans. Among the crowd gathered around the platform on the square was a red-haired girl with a cluster of decorations on her tunic that immediately attracted the attention of newspaper reporters. It did not take us long to learn that she had volunteered early in 1943, had been graduated from the school for sharpshooters and had fought on the Leningrad front.

I remembered all that when I saw her on the street recently and heard the surprising news that she had gone back to selling ties.

"But, wouldn't you like to acquire a more interesting profession?" I inquired.

"I should like a lot of things," she smiled. "I should rather study than sell ties. But, you see, it takes some time to get attuned to normal life again. I still wake up at five in the morning as I did at the front when I had to take my position for sniping before the sun rose. I am tired—not physically, because I am extremely healthy. But I don't seem to be able to pull myself together sufficiently to make the important decision to start life all over again. I don't mind my job. The shop is quiet and the work is not strenuous. After a while, perhaps, when I get used to the old life again, I shall begin to want a change."

"I am sure you will."

"Yes, I suppose so," she quickly agreed, obviously anxious to get off the disturbing subject. "But," she added suddenly, "isn't it wonderful to think that the war is over?"

An oral examination is held at the Moscow Machine-Building College. The student is "defending" the dissertation he presented for his diploma



Private Property

By P. Ognev

This is the first in a series of articles to appear in successive issues:

The economic system of the Soviet Union is based on Socialist ownership of the means and instruments of production.

Socialist property in the USSR exists either in the form of State property, or in the form of cooperative and collective-farm property.

The land, its natural deposits, waters, forests, industrial enterprises (mills, factories, mines), rail, water and air transport, banks, postoffices, telegraph and telephones, large State-organized agricultural enterprises (state farms, machine and tractor stations, and the like), as well as municipal enterprises and the bulk of the dwelling houses in the cities, are State property, i.e., belong to the whole people.

Cooperative-collective farm property is formed by farmers voluntarily joining a collective farm, and handicraftsmen, a cooperative organization, after which they pool the means and instruments of production or pay dues as members of the cooperative organization.

Collective Economy

The prevailing form of agriculture in the USSR is collective economy, i.e., collective farming of the land. By 1939, 93.5 per cent of the total number of farm households were in the collective farms.

In a collective farm all the principal instruments and means of production are pooled as public property—all the draft animals, agricultural implements, seed stocks, fodder in quantities necessary for maintaining collective-farm cattle, farm buildings needed for running the collective farm and all installations for processing the produce of the collective farm.

In collective farms and cooperative organizations all the basic means of production as well as all the output, as distinct from State enterprises, are the common property of the members of the collective farm or the cooperative organization who use this property, as indicated by the general meeting of collective farmers or members of the cooperative organization.

The land occupied by collective farms

is secured to them for their use free of charge and in perpetuity, by special Government deeds and cannot be bought, sold or leased.

In a collective farm the members retain for their personal use a small plot of land attached to their dwellings (from one-half to two and a half acres), and as their personal property a dwelling house, livestock, poultry, and agricultural implements needed for farming the plot.

Soviet law permits the small private economy of individual farmers and handicraftsmen, based on their personal labor.

The prevailing form of economy in the USSR is the Socialist system. A total of 98.7 per cent of the productive capacity of the entire national economy consists of public property, 1.1 per cent is the personal property of collective farmers and only 0.2 per cent is owned by private individuals—farmers and handicraftsmen.

Private property of citizens exists on the basis of the two main forms of public property; State property and cooperative-collective farm property.

To have a correct idea of what this means, one must clearly grasp the interrelations between public and private property in the USSR.

In the Soviet Union the income from State enterprises, and the output of publicly-owned enterprises, do not go to private individuals, thus creating an undue accumulation of wealth in their hands, but are put at the disposal of the State and is the property of all the people.

The distribution of all output of State enterprises follows certain main channels. One part is designated for making good the wear and tear of the means of production and for the construction of new mills and factories. Certain sums are allotted to insurance and reserve funds. Allocations are also made for maintaining the Government's administrative machinery and for strengthening the country's defenses.

The rest of the output is earmarked for consumption. It is divided into two main parts. The first is designated to satisfy the requirements of the people—allocations for cultural and public services and for

the incapacitated. The second part is for personal consumption.

The distribution of that portion of the public output earmarked for personal consumption among workers, intellectuals and office employees is effected in the USSR in the form of wages.

Everyone receives in the form of wages that share of the public output which is due him in accordance with the quantity and quality of the labor he has expended.

All commodities produced by State enterprises and destined for consumption by the population, are sold through the State trading machinery.

Every citizen may acquire, out of his earnings, any commodities he desires for his personal consumption.

The citizens of the USSR are not limited in any way in acquiring personal property if it is not used as a means of exploiting another person's labor.

Private Savings

Every citizen, for example, may be the owner of substantial personal savings but he may not lend this money out at interest or practice usury.

It is not permissible for citizens of the USSR, possessing large libraries, to make a practice of lending books out for payment. Every citizen may purchase for his own needs an automobile, a sewing machine, a tractor, a threshing machine, a mowing machine, or any other means of production, but he has no right to use them as a source of unearned income or as means of profiting from the labor of workers hired to operate them.

The right of citizens to acquire out of their own earnings commodities necessary for their personal consumption is insured by law. Article 10 of the Constitution of the USSR reads as follows: "The right of citizens to personal ownership of their incomes from work and of their savings, of their dwelling houses and subsidiary household economy, their household furniture and utensils and articles of personal use and convenience, as well as the right of inheritance of personal property of citizens, is protected by law."

THE CHAIN OF THE KURILES

By P. Rogozinsky

From the shores of Kamchatka down to the Japanese mainland stretches the long chain of the Kurile Islands. Seizing them 40 years ago, Japanese militarists cut Russia off from the ocean and threatened the Soviet Far East.

Soviet troops captured the northern isles of the chain in the middle of August. After the Japanese surrender, ships of the Pacific Fleet landed troops on all other islands, including those of the small chain, which consists of six isles running from north to south. The Japanese had prohibited shipping in those waters.

The craggy cliffs of Kunashiri located in the south of the big chain is visible from a distance of 40 miles. Its steep western shore has no convenient harbors.

Soviet ships made the bend of Kunashiri by way of Catherine Strait, emerging east of Khuruka Mapaun Bay, which is covered on all sides by hilly woodlands. In the middle of the bay there is a small village.

Knowing how treacherous the Japanese are, Soviet seamen took every precaution. The ships under officers Zvyagin, Zavyalov and Syatenco went out on reconnaissance, and while one approached the moorings, another kept guns trained on the shore. The hundred Japanese soldiers found in the village surrendered

without any attempt at resistance. At other posts 300 more were disarmed.

Meanwhile, the vessels kept on the course for the small chain of the Kurile Islands. Soon after noon Shibotsu appeared in sight—flat plains overgrown with tall grass and reeds. Here and there were small houses. The flat-bottomed landing craft approached the shore, and as soon as they touched the ground a detachment of Marines armed with machine guns headed for the nearby village. The inhabitants at first began to hide, but discovering that no one harmed them they came out and told the soldiers the location of garrison headquarters.

Lieutenant Litovchenko hoisted the Soviet flag on the building of the powerful radio station.

The Japanese had converted Shibotsu into a military base with blockhouses, trenches and gun emplacements.

According to the chief of the garrison, the island had billeted 5,000 soldiers and officers, but due to heavy casualties, the majority were dispatched to the front, and at the time of the Soviet landing only 500 men remained.

There is a large crab-canning factory. Although the soil is favorable for cultivation, agriculture is very poorly developed.

The animal stock was confined to goats and horses brought from Canada. No civilian administration existed on the island. The villages were managed by the chief of the garrison and by the police through the agency of elders.

Soviet ships sailed from island to island. The Japanese garrisons on the small chain were comparatively small, but the billets showed that previously the Japanese had kept strong forces there. Many ammunition dumps and stores were located.

No one seemed interested in the natural resources of the islands. In many cases it was even forbidden to fish near the shore. The Japanese militarists who always complained about the shortage of soil on the Japanese mainland made no use of the Kurile Islands for peaceful purposes, but built fortresses instead.

To the east of the small chain lies the island of Shikotan with its range of wooded mountains. In a picturesque bay forming a natural harbor the Japanese had a good and heavily defended port. The guns established on the two sides of the cape could prevent any ship from entering. In the cliffs near the shore the Japanese erected dugouts and blockhouses connected by trenches and underground passages. Many subterranean stores of supplies were discovered.

ART FROM THE U. S.

By Sergei Vernov

American color prints on exhibit at the Kalinin Picture Galleries have attracted wide interest. The collection was sent to the Soviet Union by a group of 23 noted American artists working in a special medium called serigraphy, or the silk-screen stencil process.

A variety of subjects is covered at the exhibition. Many works are devoted to the war. A print by Charles Keller called "For Democracy" depicts a Negro family sending their son off to war. A striking print by August Henkel, "Letter from the Front," shows a group of people of different ages eagerly drinking in every word from the front. The vigor of the

American soldier is fully expressed in a print by Elizabeth Olds called "Soldiers in Winter." Work in the fields is portrayed by artists Ruth Rose Tromka and Meert. A very striking piece by Richard Floethe is called "The Liberator." It shows torn barbed-wire entanglements, demolished prison walls, fetters lying about: the enemy is defeated and the people, delivered from German slavery, extend their hands to the liberator.

A print by Sluiser, "Girl from Taos," is rendered in large colorful daubs in five tones. Ernest Hopf's "Evening," and Harry Shokler's "Midsummer" are done in 13 tones.

Lighting the Farms

In the Molotov Region 28 hydroelectric stations have been built and put into operation and 18 are nearing completion. The Krasny partisan collective farm in Komu Region has a new power station supplying current to the stud and dairy farms and warehouses. This service is soon to be extended to the farm homes and to the saw mills.

Nine power stations have been built at the collective farms of the Yaroslav Regions, 45 will soon be running in the Gorky Region, and seven are in operation and 42 more are under construction in Uzbekistan. There will be dozens of hydropower stations in Moscow, Lenin-grad, Sverdlovsk and other Regions.

Theatrical Season in Moscow

By Stanislav Radzinsky

Nearly all Moscow theaters are now in full swing. The capital considers the season open when the Bolshoi Theater of Opera and Ballet and the Art Theater are back in town.

As usual, the initial production at the Art Theater is *Tsar Fedor Ioannovich*, the historical drama with which Stanislavsky and Nemirovich-Danchenko launched the Moscow Art Theater in 1898. It was also the first play presented by the company on its tour of America in 1923.

Rehearsals are proceeding at top speed in all Moscow theaters. Every effort is directed toward expressing that great spirit of victory, national pride and feeling of exaltation which has gripped the whole nation.

The theatrical outlook is interesting and varied, with 25 premieres in the offing for the next two months.

At the Bolshoi the first new production will be the ballet *Cinderella*, which has a libretto based on folk motifs and music by the eminent composer Sergei Prokofiev. The producer is Rostislav Zakharov, ingenious ballet master and *mise en scene* designer, whose production, *Fountain of Bakhchisarai* has run successfully on the boards of the Bolshoi for many years.

An early presentation by the Moscow Art Theater will be *The Trying Years* by the recently deceased writer Alexei Tolstoy, a master of Russian prose. *The Trying Years* is the second part of the trilogy which Tolstoy wrote on Tsar Ivan IV. The first part, called *Ivan the Terrible*, was presented by the Moscow Maly Theater.

The striking personality of Tsar Ivan, a mighty ruler of the sixteenth century and a great patriot, who has been immortalized in numerous stories and songs, is the principal character of the play *Great Monarch* by Vladimir Solovyev, which will be the first offering of the Vakhtangov Theater.

One of the historical plays shown re-

cently was *The General* depicting Kutuzov, conqueror of Napoleon in 1812. The premiere at the Central Theater of the Red Army marked the 200th anniversary of the birth of this great commander. *The General* was the last play written by Konstantine Trenev, one of the oldest Russian writers and a friend and contemporary of Maxim Gorky.

Lucrative Place by Ostrovsky is one of the Russian classics shortly to be shown at the Maly, a theater often referred to as "the house of Ostrovsky." Ostrovsky used to collaborate on his own productions. It was during the writer's lifetime that the famous actor Prov Sadovsky created his superb characterizations.

Only recently the Maly Theater honored another Prov Sadovsky, grandson of the great actor and one of the most popular stage figures in the capital today. Strong and vital, Sadovsky is a People's Artist of the USSR and a Stalin Prize Winner. To observe his anniversary the Maly Theater presented the third act of Griboyedov's classic comedy *Wit Works Woe*, in which the actor brilliantly played Famusov, a Moscow nobleman of the 'twenties of the last century.

One of the first contemporary plays to be produced is Nikolai Pogodin's *Creation of the World*, in which the drama of the reconstruction of cities is unfolded. Gazing at one of the Nazi-wrecked towns, a character calls it Pompeii. The struggle of the play is that of the Soviet people—the creation of life on the ruins of cities.

New and stimulating is *Under the Chestnut Trees* by the noted poet and dramatist Konstantine Simonov. Based on personal impressions gathered with the Red Army in Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia, it is dedicated to the friendship of the Slav peoples.

Other scheduled plays are, *They Lived in Leningrad*, about the blockade, to be

shown at the Kamerny and *Plane 24 Hours Late*—due at the Maly in November—a comedy about the adventures of passengers on a plane which, by accident, lands somewhere in the taiga.

Foreign plays continuing their run here are Lillian Hellman's *Watch On the Rhine* (or *The Farrellys Lose Their Peace of Mind*) and *The Little Foxes*.

Two plays by the English dramatist Somerset Maugham, *Penelope* at the Theater of Satire and *Circle* at the Moscow Theater of Drama are expected in the next few months. Premieres are promised soon for the Romany Gypsy Theater and the Jewish Theater.

Rehearsals of children's plays are winding up. The Central Children's Theater will soon have the charming comedy *Jolly Dream* by the popular poet Sergei Mikhalkov, and the Moscow Theater of the Young Spectator is preparing *The Three Musketeers* based on the novel by Dumas Fils.

To meet the great public demand, four new theaters are to be opened in Moscow by the end of the current season.

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PATRIOTS OF UZBEKISTAN

By **Abduvali Muminov**

Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Uzbek SSR

Fighting bravely at Moscow and Leningrad, and in the heroic defense of Stalingrad, the sons of Uzbekistan covered the road from the Volga to the very den of the fascist beast.

Every Uzbek soldier, wherever he fought, knew that the destiny of his Republic was tied to that of the Soviet Union; in liberating the Moscow Region, the Ukraine and Byelorussia from the German invaders he was fighting for the honor, freedom and independence of his native Uzbekistan.

Near the Soviet city of Orel is a village named after Hero of the Soviet Union Akhmedjan Shukurov, an Uzbek farmer. During the struggle for this village Akhmedjan dashed forward with his machine gun, clearing the way for the advance of Soviet units and the liberation of the village.

Heroic exploits were numerous—30,000 officers and men were awarded orders and medals of the Soviet Union. Sixty Uzbeks earned the highest military honor—the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

On the home front those who remained worked tirelessly to produce airplanes, arms and munitions. Uzbekistan became one of the Red Army's arsenals in Central Asia.

For the creation of a defense industry the complete reconstruction of industry was necessary, since before the war Uzbekistan had produced chiefly consumers' goods. Conversion to war production was a tremendous job, accomplished by the determined effort of workers and engineers. Only a few days after the outbreak of war some of the larger establishments began to produce for the front.

Not only the conversion of existing plants, but also the building of dozens of new plants was effected—all in record time.

In the first period, when the fascists had succeeded in seizing part of the western regions of the USSR, many plants were "leap-frogged" to Uzbekistan. In many cases evacuated plants promptly exceeded previous production records.

One of the difficulties in Uzbekistan was the shortage of electric power. But this difficulty, too, was overcome. Powerful hydroelectric stations had to be built. Six new power stations—doubling the supply—were erected in the industrial district of Tashkent.

The Farkhad hydroelectric station on the Syr Darya River, with a projected ca-

capacity third in size in the Soviet Union, was launched in wartime.

The rich natural resources of the Republic were placed at the country's service. Numerous geological survey expeditions left for all corners of Uzbekistan in search of new deposits of minerals, rare and non-ferrous metals essential for defense. Another wartime development was the creation of a coal industry in this Republic.

Astonishing records were made by the workers, who strove tirelessly to meet military needs. The Stalin textile mills in Tashkent exceeded their plan by more than a million meters of fabrics, 220,000 kilograms of yarn and a million spools of thread in the period between January 1 of this year and Victory Day.



A MOUNTAIN OF COTTON—In Andizhan Region, Uzbek SSR, the crop is being packed in preparation for shipment to a cleaning plant

The workers of a shoe factory in Tashkent turned out enough shoes to supply several Army formations.

Uzbekistan, as the basic cotton-growing center of the Soviet Union, produces two-thirds of the country's fiber. In 1944 Uzbek farmers grew 311,000 tons more cotton than in 1943.

Before the war Uzbekistan received grain shipments from other Republics as, for the most part, the region planted in-

dustrial crops. During hostilities Uzbekistan began to grow its own grain. The cultivation of sugar beets, started in wartime, made Uzbekistan an important source of sugar in Central Asia.

In many less complicated ways the population expressed their earnest patriotism. They contributed 500 million rubles for the construction of tanks and planes for the Red Army. Women replaced their husbands in industry and agriculture. Doz-

ens of trainloads from Uzbekistan, carrying wine, fruit and warm clothing, went to the front as gifts to the Red Army.

Numbers of Ukrainians and Byelorussians who had been forced to give up their homes because of the German invasion found shelter and work in Uzbekistan. About 35,000 children evacuated from the war zone were housed.

Now that Hitlerite Germany has been defeated, people are returning to the peaceful, creative labor that fascist aggression had interrupted.

The first large effort is to increase the average cotton yield.

Peacetime plans are attacked with renewed vigor. Supplying more than half the total silk of the USSR, by June 25 Uzbekistan already had completed its annual program by 98.9 per cent.

Important tasks lie ahead for industry. The construction of the first iron and steel plant in Uzbekistan, to operate entirely on local raw material, is nearing completion. Non-ferrous metal plants and building materials plants are also to be erected. A new era of economic and cultural expansion are the outlook for peace.



In her leisure time an Osoaviakhim girl learns to shoot. She is a worker at the cotton-ginning plant of the region

Artillery Offensive

By Engineer Colonel Pavel Zverev

In the years preceding the Second World War, military minds were as much occupied with the problem of a breakthrough of fortifications as with the mass employment of tanks and aircraft. This was dictated by the experiences of the First World War and the tendency to build such powerful fortified areas to protect borders as the Maginot, Siegfried and Mannerheim Lines. In addition, the development of fortifications showed that the construction of field defenses would also be based on the principle of many-lined fortified areas.

These forecasts were confirmed in the majority of Red Army offensive operations during 1942-1945, which invariably began with a breakthrough of the German defenses. It should also be borne in mind that the farther the Germans were forced westward, the stronger their re-

sistance became. But now that the powerful East Prussian defenses have been shattered, the dozens of fortifications situated between the Oder and Berlin have been overcome by Soviet forces, and under the blows of Allied armies the Siegfried Line collapsed, we may draw the indisputable conclusion that the problem of blasting fortified zones has been solved.

Considering the experience of the Red Army, we may assert that this solution was reached in a new way by the artillery offensive.

There are examples in the First World War when the concentration of artillery was not far below the average of this war. But there can be no comparison in the results achieved in the First and Second World Wars. In those days with the pounding of the enemy's defense zone continuing for days, the break-through

operation was protracted and therefore did not yield the desired result, whereas now, as displayed by the Red Army artillery, the preparation continued for no more than 90 minutes or two hours, but the quality of fire was so highly superior that tanks and infantry negotiated the main defense lines in a single day. This was achieved not only by an increasing density of fire, but also by a skillful conduct of barrage—a tactic in which Soviet gunners have reached perfection.

In spite of the fact that in a majority of cases the number of Soviet artillery regiments on the sector of the breakthrough highly exceeded the number of infantry regiments, the artillery never hindered the operations of the infantry. On the contrary, its fire was completely subordinated to the objectives of the infantry.

Artillery offensive was composed of

three main periods: artillery preparation, creeping barrage, and shifting fire deep into the enemy's defense zone.

The first stage is the most intensive, for it engages all the guns in a simultaneous action on the sector of the proposed break-through.

An original interesting example of the organization of artillery preparation was provided by the Army of the First Ukrainian Front when German fortifications on the Vistula south of Sandomierz were blasted in January 1945. The main feature was that as a preliminary to the offensive, a short sham artillery preparation was started with only one-tenth of the available guns in action, and a feint attack was begun by a few battalions. The Germans mistook this for the real thing, bringing in all the forces at their command, and the attack was easily repulsed.

But soon the Soviet artillery, 250 pieces for every kilometer of the front, began again to pound the enemy. The barrage went on for over 90 minutes and was so effective that Soviet tanks and infantry made a wide gap in the entire depth of the enemy's defense zone.

Referring to this battle, Colonel Schtresner wrote in his diary: "The Russian artillery fired with amazing precision. In a matter of 15 minutes, communication was completely disrupted. I could not raise my head at the C.P. It was quite impossible to direct the operations of the regiment. All my units sustained heavy casualties from gunfire. Those who survived, scattered."

It would be a mistake, however, to think that this was the only method used during the preliminary bombardment. There were hundreds of variations.

But no matter how effective the preparatory barrage may be, there always remain enemy firing points capable of inflicting heavy casualties on the attacking force, or even of checking the advance. For this reason the importance of artillery fire becomes even more significant when the attack is finally launched. If during the period of preparation the fire of each gun is directed to a certain target, then with the attack in progress the batteries can move their fire in strict coordination with the movement of the infantry and tanks.

The change of depth of fire is accom-



Long range guns shelling the retreating Germans during action in East Prussia

plished either by concentrated action or by setting up a barrage, or by combining the two. But whatever the method employed, Soviet infantry and tanks always moved just ahead of the creeping barrage and crushed every resistance. This wall of fire accompanied the troops for approximately 700 to 1,000 meters from the enemy front-line defenses and continued for about 30 minutes. That brought the second stage of the artillery offensive to an end, and then followed the third period.

This division of the artillery offensive into periods is theoretical, of course, for artillery fire was constant. While the wall of fire was being shifted from the first to the second trench, regimental and anti-tank guns had already begun to move forward and, following in the ranks of the infantry and firing direct, they silenced the surviving firing posts, knocked out counterattacking tanks or infantry parties of the enemy. Immediately afterward divisional artillery went into action.

Under this method of organization, the Soviet infantry always had the support of the artillery. Every enemy attempt to counterattack was frustrated by the concentrated fire of the divisional and corps artillery.

At the beginning of an offensive the artillery pounded the enemy defense zone to a depth of eight or ten kilometers, but

with the advance of the infantry the fire zone naturally diminished, while the number of guns in action remained unchanged. This enabled the attacking force to deal ever stronger artillery blows and retain the superiority of firepower.

The long range of the corps and Army artillery groups, the mobility of the regimental and divisional guns, enabled the gunners to concentrate fire on the entire tactical depth of the enemy's defense zone and thus to paralyze resistance.

Pursuit of the Whale

Over the expanses of the Northern Pacific hangs a dense fog, the forerunner of snowstorms. The schools of whales have started their thousand-mile journey to warmer southern waters. Coming into Vladivostok harbor are the huge Soviet whalers packed with blubber and tinned whale meat. In one day whalers bagged 17 sea animals weighing from 50 to 60 tons each.

It was in a violent storm that the whaling boat *Avangard*, under Captain Nefedyev, set out. Soon the lookout had sighted the quarry—a whole school in its wake. The thunder of harpooning guns rolled over the sea, as the crews of three boats fought the whales—and conquered them. It was another successful haul.

Significant Date

By Academician E. Tarle

From KRASNAYA ZVEZDA, October 10:

When, on October 10, 1761, Russian troops who had already conquered East Prussia entered Berlin, that city received them with the utmost submissiveness, humbly, slavishly cringing. In this respect the capital exactly duplicated the example of the rest of the country. Not only the Russians, but foreigners as well marveled at the ease, the complete "naturalness" and unperturbed tranquillity, with which the change was effected as the currents of war favored the Russian Army.

The dwellers in the neat little houses bowed low as they came out to meet the victors and invited them inside for a snack of bread and butter and a cup of coffee. Local authorities went out of their way to anticipate every wish and demand of the Russian generals. Berlin journalists, who for years had been slinging mud on Russia and the Russian people, took seriously a jest that they would all be punished with birches for their offenses. Losing no time, the journalists assembled at the appointed place for the punishment, and demonstrated irrepressible elation and boundless loyalty and gratitude to the Russian authorities when they were dismissed after nothing more than a stern oral warning to behave in the future.

When the Russian authorities later ordered the population of conquered East Prussia to swear allegiance to the Empress Elizabeth, the order was carried out without the least delay. Among those who took the oath was the famous philosopher, Kant, a professor at the University of Konigsberg. There was a veritable race to take the oath. Berlin, whose first conquest by Russian troops we recall today, has throughout history behaved the same in the face of a victorious adversary.

The crushing blows dealt by the Russian Army proved to be particularly painful to the vastly inflated reputation of Frederick II as a strategist—a reputation which through persistence and deliberate falsification of history survived until the days of Hitler, although in the eyes of



Eugene Tarle

contemporaries of the Kunersdorf debacle, it had been considerably shaken.

In 1757, when the Russians launched military operations against Prussia, both Frederick II and his entourage were filled with the most unshakable and insolent contempt for the new adversary who was coming from the East. But in January 1762, when by the whim of the chronically half-drunken German Peter III who, unfortunately for Russia, found himself for several months on the Russian throne, the war was suddenly terminated at the moment when our troops were scoring their most brilliant successes; Frederick, as he openly admitted many times, felt that only an utterly incomprehensible miracle, absolutely unexpected by him, had saved him personally from suicide, and Prussia from being permanently incorporated among Russia's possessions.

What was it that happened in those years—the most terrible for Frederick—four and one-half years of Russia's actual participation in the Seven Years' War? Those very events led Suvorov, who took part in that war, to the firm conviction that the "Russians have always beaten the Prussians." The point was not even that at Kunersdorf the Russian Army had so utterly routed Frederick's crack troops

that the king barely managed to escape. Nor was it that Kunersdorf was repeated several times and that Frederick was despairing as he saw that each of his defeats practically signified the slow but inexorable approach of the frightful final catastrophe of the Prussian state. It was becoming clear that the Russian Army possessed some special durable element of unflagging strength. He had coped with the French, he had coped with the Austrians, but he could not cope with the Russians. That was something Frederick never forgot.

How did events develop? On August 30, 1757, the Prussians for the first time came to grips with the Russians at Gross-Jagersdorf. The Russians hurled the Prussian Army back, inflicting heavy casualties.

But Frederick was not yet worried—there was hope, he thought, that everything would right itself. Then came January, 1758, and the Russians compelled Konigsberg to surrender. There were new clashes—between Zulflichau and Palzig, July 23, 1759—in which the Prussians were scattered. In a few more days Frederick met with real disaster; at Kunersdorf the Russians literally pulverized his main forces. Scores of thousands of Prussians were either killed or scattered. The king retained a force of less than 3,000 men.

Consolidating their positions in East Prussia the Russians advanced on Berlin. But they moved very slowly and haltingly. The king won victories over the Austrians, which somewhat improved his spirits. But not for long. By September 1760 the Russian Army was close to Berlin. In vain the authorities of the capital appealed to Frederick for aid. On October 10 the Russians compelled Berlin to surrender. The excellently armed Prussian forces, 14,000 strong, disgracefully, without any attempt at resistance, fled from Berlin to Spandau, leaving the capital to its own fate.

That day was not the end of the war

More than a year passed before Frederick was finally seized by a profound and hopeless despair and before death by his own hand began to seem the only way out. October 1760: It was because the Prussian capital fell at a time when nearly the whole country was firmly in the hands of the Russians that the Prussians were particularly dejected by the Russian triumphal march into Berlin.

And forty-six years after the first entrance of the Russians into Berlin, the Prussians again without any transition went from chauvinistic bragging about "invincibility," into the same display of slavish obedience shown to Napoleon on his defeat of Germany.

In 1813, when the Russians who had liberated Germany from Napoleon's yoke arrived in Berlin, they were also met with complete subservience. In order to flatter Field Marshal Kutuzov, the burghers of Berlin made up a song which they loudly sang for the entering Russian troops:

"Ein zwei drei!

Mit Franzosen ist's vorbei!

Die Deutschen haben sie fettgemacht,

Die Russen haben sie abgeschlagt!"

Thus, the Germans, forgetting all pride, cynically taunted themselves for their own servility.

Today the visitors have before them the fully rounded-out picture: the ferocity of the robber as long as luck is with him, and slavish humility and cowardly cringing when his luck has changed. Tidy little houses, but shabby souls of German burghers. A characteristic attachment to his possessions, but indifference to his country's honor in the hour of its defeat. Excellently fattened pigs and cattle, but children who have grown up as cruel savages trained by the Goerings' and Goebbelses for pillage and murder.

And yet throughout history it has invariably been brought home to the Germans that prim houses and meticulously cultivated gardens and fat pigs—all that prosperity—are not worth a penny if they are based only on lucky plunder in the past and are kept alive by the hopes of still luckier plunder in the future. For

time and again their apparent wealth and might has toppled with the ease of a house of cards.

But nothing availed the Germans who drew no conclusions from the lessons of history.

For more than two centuries Berlin deliberately took upon itself and, undeterred by the worst failures, persistently performed the role of hegemon in setting up in the heart of Europe a robber camp which seemed so long absolutely impregnable. This was very aptly expressed by Mirabeau when he said that war was Prussia's national industry. Saltykov-Shchedrin made this remarkable statement about German aggression: "Berlin has been created for manslaughter." Berlin set itself the aim to conquer Europe, to conquer Russia, to conquer two continents and to get a firm position in two oceans. . . .

And even if on the long, historic road some "unpleasant incidents" did occur, if in October 1760 Russian troops entered Berlin, if in October 1806 Berlin municipal councilors, unable to reach Napoleon's hand, reverently and feelingly kissed the mare on which the French emperor was riding into the German capital, what of it? All such inopportune and embarrassing recollections are forgotten by the German robbers. The triumph of the 1870-1871 victory at Sedan, the formation of an empire, wiped out all those memories. "In our Berlin, in the Berlin of the victory of Sedan, we have been told that we are the salt of the earth, and we believe it." That is from the verse of a Berlin poet.

So the most modern, imperialist Germany set out to conquer "two continents and two oceans," and once again it was Berlin that led toward this new goal.

And, it seemed, how well, how neatly and smoothly, how easily and painlessly that enterprise began! How swiftly Guderian's tanks reached the shores of one ocean—the Atlantic! True enough, a disagreeable and quite unforeseen delay held up the advance to the other ocean—the Pacific. But what of it? That could wait a bit. Meanwhile Berlin lived a "full life" as the center of the predatory "new order." German imperialism found in Berlin the vital factor needed for aggres-

sion: absolute freedom from all moral principles.

This time all disguises were removed, all barriers down. Bismarck's brazen slogan, might is right—that was but a *Freischutz* played by timid girls! There were no limits to the moral corruption, the utter shamelessness with which Hitler's Berlin supplied Germany before leading it to plunder.

Goering's slogan solemnly proclaimed in Berlin, "I back the scoundrel," became the norm of behavior for the Hitlerites. "In large centers minds are more easily relieved of old encumbering prejudices," was the answer received in Berlin on the eve of the war by an American journalist who cautiously and delicately asked: "Do Berlin high school boys really like to watch the torturing of prisoners in prison cells where they are taken 'to harden their nervous system?'"

The Red Army put an end to this age-old hotbed of malevolence and crime, to this infamous temple of political and every sort of moral corruption, to this headquarters of aggression where plans for the conversion of whole nations into dumb yoked working cattle were hatched, put in shape and had already begun to be carried out. Stalin's heroes crushed the fascist viper in its vile nest.

The Red Army won a great victory. It knew well and remembered that Berlin was not merely a city but a symbol of aggression, the soul of German imperialism and that as long as it had not been finished off, victory would be neither complete nor lasting. Those who drove the German fiends before them, who mercilessly and tirelessly beat them all the way from the Volga to the Spree, could not forget this, and they did not forget it.

Soviet troops hoisted the flag of victory over Berlin. Glory to the Red Army and the Soviet land which fathered it! Berlin, which raised the sword, this time perished by the sword . . .

The Russian people who accomplished the greatest Revolution in the world, and then defended the gains of that Revolution in a Civil War, despite all sacrifices and deprivations has now defeated the fascist beast. Historic justice has been done!

Private Property

By P. Oghev

This is the second in a series of articles to appear in successive issues:

The income of working people in the USSR is not limited to wages. A large share of the public output is set aside to meet the needs of the country as a whole in the form of schools, public health services, and so on. In the USSR all deductions made by the State from a person's private income are returned to him as a member of society, either directly or indirectly.

The amount of the public output set aside for personal consumption by the population increases concomitantly with the growth of the public output and the national income. The national income, for example, increased from 48,500 million rubles in 1933 to 105,000 million in 1938. During this same period the annual earnings of workers and office employees rose from 34,953 million rubles to 96,425 million rubles.

The systematic increase of that part of the public output marked for personal consumption stimulates the citizens of the Soviet Union to do everything in their power to promote the growth of the public wealth, to take a most active part in the well-being of the enterprise in which they work, to increase labor productivity and to overfulfill the plans.

The improvement of the general welfare of the State leads to an improvement in the welfare of its citizens.

Every citizen of the Soviet Union has the right to acquire as his own private property all he requires for satisfying his personal needs. But every citizen knows that, the richer the State, the more his private property may expand.

No Restrictions

The right to private property, as laid down in the Constitution, has no restrictions whatever. The private owner has the unlimited right of ownership, use and disposal of his property. This right is established by Article 58 of the Civil Code of the Russian Socialist Federative Soviet Republic and corresponding articles in the civil codes of other Republics.

The owner has the right to appeal to a court for the return of his property if it has been unlawfully appropriated, or to demand reimbursement of the value of the property, if it has been lost or damaged, and also to demand reimbursement for all the costs involved (Article 59 and following in the Civil Code).

This means that neither the State, the public, nor other persons have the right to encroach on the ownership, use or disposal of the private property of citizens. The owner has sole discretion over his personal property.

There is only one reservation—the use of private property must conform to its social-economic purpose, as established by Article 1 of the Civil Code. This can be explained by the following example.

Let us suppose that a citizen owns a home. Instead of maintaining this dwelling in suitable condition and repairing it when necessary, the owner allows it to fall into disrepair. In such a case the responsible State authorities warn the owner that he must take better care of his property. If such a warning fails to bring the desired results, the authorities may appeal to the court with a suit to take this dwelling from its owner. In the event that sufficient evidence is provided, the court may grant the claim.

Only by decision of the court and by the owner's failure to exercise his right in accordance with the social-economic purpose of the property in question, can the State interfere in the citizen's right to private ownership. The court decides against the owner only if he intentionally and willfully allows his property to fall into disrepair.

The main source of every Soviet citizen's private property is his wages, earned by his own labor. No one has the right to interfere in a citizen's disposal of his wages. If necessary, the right may be established by appealing to a court.

Wages are also a source of savings, which the citizen may keep wherever he desires. The State guarantees the inviolability of savings bank deposits, and information on such deposits is given only

to court investigators in the event a criminal charge is brought against their owner, and this information is requested by the court (Article 7 of the Statutes of the State Savings Banks of the USSR).

An established rate of interest is paid on private deposits in savings banks. The owner has the unreserved right to dispose of his deposits and to withdraw them completely or in part from the bank.

House Property

Citizens of the Soviet Union have the right to own dwelling houses and subsidiary establishments connected with them. Each person, however, has the right to own only one home and to own it for a whole family—husband, wife and minor children.

But this does not imply that the owner is obliged to reside in his own home. On the contrary, both the owner and his family may, at their discretion, reside in another dwelling—in a summer home for instance. In such a case the owner may rent part or all of his dwelling to another party.

Dwellings which are the property of private individuals may be bought, sold, mortgaged, given away or willed, as may all other forms of personal property.

To avoid possible abuses of the right to buy and sell private dwellings, the law provides that each citizen has the right to purchase a dwelling no oftener than once in three years. This precludes the possibility of misusing this right as a means of making profit.

No limits or controls are placed on the right to the personal ownership of utensils and articles of personal use and convenience. Household linen, clothing, furniture, cutlery and china—everything that a person needs, everything that he can use—books, ornaments, musical instruments, articles needed for the practice of sports, trades or professions—in a word, everything conducive to a full cultural, professional, social and domestic life, may become his personal property. This property may be sold, mortgaged, given away or bequeathed by will.

POLAR PILOTS

By Mazuruk

Deputy Chief of the Northern Sea Route

Many Polar fliers rushed to the fronts at the first news of war. Nothing could hold them. They demanded transfer to units on active service.

But those who remained to continue their civil duties also rendered valuable assistance. Flying transport machines, they ran the risk of being shot down by U-boats, or by batteries in the enemy's rear, where their assignments often took them.

For the safe convoy of transports in the Arctic seas, flights to reconnoiter weather and ice conditions were extremely important. Day and night, in storm and fog, they scoured the land and sea and conveyed their observations to the command.

Now that the war is over we may reveal more about the efforts of the Polar fliers who not only determined weather and ice conditions but also escorted convoys sailing into Soviet ports from America and England, at times even protecting them. Like the fighting pilots, they were also assigned the task of screening and guarding convoys and ships from attack by

enemy submarines. They flew in all weather, to any sea area, including high altitudes.

Stories of Arctic adventures are numerous. One of the most exciting is the following: Cherevichny, a well-known pilot, was sent out to locate a U-boat sighted by a convoy. His plane carried no bombs, but, of course, the Germans did not know that. They waited in ambush for the approach of the convoy. Cherevichny, realizing what the enemy's game was, headed straight for the submarine as if with the intention of attacking it. A short burst from the enemy's machine guns would have sent the transport plane crashing into the sea, but the U-boat captain, taken in by the daring maneuver, hastily submerged. To forestall any attempt to rise, Cherevichny patrolled the area, the whir of his motors reminding the Germans that he was still there waiting for them. The U-boat never once emerged, and the transports with their valuable cargo, escorted by the unarmed Cherevichny,

reached their ports of destination without a mishap.

In the grim and anxious days of September 1941, under the most adverse flying conditions, Cherevichny was co-pilot with Zadkov on a flight conveying a party of aircraft specialists from Moscow to the United States. It took exactly three days. Experts had estimated that the flight would take at least two weeks in a transport plane.

The experience of Polar pilots in their numerous Arctic flights proved a valuable asset in the days of the war.

Last year, in October, four crews under my direction flew four hydroplanes from Washington to Moscow on a round-the-world flight. The Arctic fliers Mazuruk, Titlov, Vlasov, Tomilin, and I flew from Moscow via Alaska and Canada to Washington, returning from Washington to Moscow. Under adverse flying conditions the pilots delivered the machines in perfect order.

Notable flights have also been carried out by Polar fliers Pusep, Shtepenko and Asiamov, all three Heroes of the Soviet Union. Pusep and Shtepenko conveyed Vyacheslav Molotov to England and America, flying over enemy-occupied territory during the short summer nights.

Without the reports of the Polar pilots transports could never have sailed the Northern Sea route. On the data accumulated during those Arctic flights, specialists of the Arctic Institute worked out a new method of forecasting ice conditions.

Despite winter storms, mists and poor visibility, Arctic fliers Cherevichny, Sirovkasha, Kruze, Kotov, Tomilin and others never yet have failed to execute an assignment.

During the whole period of the Arctic navigation season this year, pilot Sirovkasha conducted ice reconnaissance and escorted ships from the Bering Strait to the Far West. Sirovkasha had to fly nearly every day, sometimes staying in the air for over 18 hours without landing. During those flights his invariable companion

(Continued on following page)



At Amderma fliers replace the wheels on their planes with skis, to be ready to travel to the Arctic

Testament of Loot

A German notebook listing a number of objects plundered from Tsarskoye Selo near Leningrad was found beneath the rubble amid the ruins of Koenigsberg Palace.

Kunstmeister Alfred Rode, director of the Koenigsberg Museum, declared that the Amber Room of Catherine's palace in Dyetskoye Selo was plundered by General Field Marshal Kuochler, who shipped the gilded furniture to Koenigsberg from Dyetskoye Selo. Although the furniture was found beneath the ruins of Koenigsberg Palace, the amber treasures have not yet been discovered. Excavations, however, have yielded many other museum pieces from Kiev, Minsk, Kharkov, Dniepropetrovsk and Pushkin. Thirty-five gold frames were found which the occupationists had stolen in Gatchina.

Other treasures discovered in Koenigsberg included ancient church paintings of the fifteenth, sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, stolen in Kharkov and Koval, the original canvas of "Pine Wood" by the famous Russian painter Shishkin, a bronze filigree plated cabinet, a mother-of-pearl ornament from Gatchina and other valuables, about 2,500 in all.

PILOTS

(Continued from page 7)

was the hydrologist Subbotin who plotted ice conditions. These diagrams were dropped on the decks of ships and ice-breakers. During this navigation season Sirokvasha's flying time ran into 340 hours.

Zadkov and his navigator Padalko operated in the Laptevkh Sea and the East Siberian Sea. The crew of Polar flier Kotov spent their time investigating ice conditions in the eastern sector of the Arctic. On his numerous flights to high altitudes he collected some very important data.

Now that the war is over and the long-awaited peace is here the Polar pilots fly their regular routes from Amderma to Cape Schmidt and from the mouth of the Yenisei to high latitudes.

As the Artist Sees Berlin

By E. Borisov

Paul Sokolov-Skalya has always done battle scenes. A large panorama depicting the Battle of Perekop during the Civil War was interrupted by the war, and thereafter Sokolov-Skalya devoted himself to posters. About 500 of the 1400 posters put out in Moscow by the Tass Window studios were created by this artist. Along with other artists of these studios, he received a Stalin Prize.

After the victory Sokolov-Skalya went to Berlin and has returned recently with a number of studies and compositions.

When I called on the artist at his studio, I found a very tall, dark man clad in a smock, engrossed in his painting. The charming face of a young girl looked at me from the canvas. In her hand was the small flag of the traffic regulator. The ruins of Berlin were behind her.

"The Mistress of the Alexanderplatz," the artist introduced her to me with a smile. "What do you think of that as a title for my picture?"

"You know best," I said. "You saw her at work."

My remark invited reminiscences of our troops in Berlin. It was the story of the city through the eyes of an artist. He recalled his first visit to the German capital in 1928, when Stormtroopers could already be seen parading through the streets of Berlin under the banner of a war veterans' union.

"This is what they look like today," the artist said, displaying a study called "The Last SS Men." The artist painted their ragtag remnants at the moment the Red Army had complete possession of Berlin and had ousted the SS troops from the subway where they were hidden.

"Did you come across any German artists?" I asked.

"My first meeting," Sokolov-Skalya replied, "occurred in rather unusual circumstances. I was working on a painting in the ruined Avenue of Victory (*Siegessallee*), when a group of German artists passed by. One of them, a gray-haired

man, stopped near me and, pointing to the rubble of Berlin, said sorrowfully, "This is what one bad artist could do." As is generally known, Hitler fancied himself an artist. But artists did not fare so well under Hitler. Sokolov-Skalya told me of a visit to the well-known German sculptor, George Kolbe, who was completely neglected in Germany when he refused to adapt himself to the official crude style. His splendid pictures had no market. When he was given assistance by the Red Army it was the first time in many years that the artist had received any attention.

Sokolov-Skalya placed a picture called "Bach" on an easel. It shows German musicians playing Bach's compositions at the request of Soviet officers.

Before parting from the great master I asked him whether he expects to produce any monumental work as the result of his trip.

"Yes," was the reply. "It will be a large battle scene of the capture of the Reichstag."

An exhibition opened recently in Moscow has scores of Sokolov-Skalya's studies and pictures, including "Reichstag" and "Bach."

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Information Bulletin

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The People's Health

By Sergei Kurashov

Deputy People's Commissar for Health, Russian SFSR

Health services in the Soviet Union are free and available to all and great stress is placed upon preventive care. Every citizen has access to hospital or outpatient-department treatment.

In the Russian Federative Soviet Republic there are 12,686 clinics, outpatient departments and dispensaries for specific diseases. At the polyclinics, physiotherapy, X-ray and laboratory services are provided free of charge. Consultations with specialists are encouraged.

Every therapist is allotted a district in which to answer home calls. The ambulatory patients from his district are assigned to the same physician at the polyclinic, so that the doctor-patient relationship is preserved. An intimate knowledge of his district enables each practitioner to conduct prophylactic work with his families.

When treatment at home is prescribed, a trained nurse is sent from the clinic. Otherwise, hospitalization is offered.

In 40 of the largest towns of the Russian SFSR, there are hospital clinics in which medical students work. The leading professors of the medical institutes head the various departments.

In the rural districts medical care is under the supervision of doctors operating from the district and inter-district hospitals. During the Soviet period the number of physicians in the rural areas has grown five times. There were 29,000 centers in the rural areas at the beginning of 1945. In many, trained nurses render emergency care pending the arrival of the doctor.

Rural medical institutions include the lying-in hospitals which not only deal with all confinements in their district but conduct a welfare and educational program for mothers and children.

Every regional center has a number of hospital aircraft for the transport of patients to city hospitals or for the transport of specialists to a village when the sick

cannot be moved. One of the projects for the future is the enlargement of this service.

In all parts of the country there are welfare centers for expectant mothers and institutions for newborn infants, with milk kitchens for those who need extra feeding. Prenatal care is offered pregnant women, and infants are kept under constant medical supervision. In the cities, 99 to 100 per cent of all births take place in the State lying-in hospitals.

There is a network of nurseries for children up to four years of age, with accommodation for 334,000 in the towns and 203,000 in the rural areas of the RSFSR. This has not only freed mothers for other work, but has also brought about a significant decrease in infant mortality. Mothers whose children attend the nurseries learn proper child-care.

During the period when the farmers are at work in the fields, seasonal nurseries are organized in the villages. In 1944, for



CREATING A BLOOD BANK—During the war thousands of donors came daily to the Medical Institute to build up a plasma supply for the wounded. Technicians are shown withdrawing blood. Right, Surgeon Pozdnyakova gives a transfusion to Lieutenant Korolev who was brought to the hospital in a critical condition

example, in the RSFSR there were 68,000 summer nurseries with accommodation for 2 million children. The various sanitary and prophylactic measures that have been adopted in the Russian SFSR have led to a considerable decline in child mortality.

The State sanitary inspectors and the anti-epidemic service of the public health departments maintain facilities for the prevention of epidemics. Even under the extremely difficult conditions of the Soviet-German war there was no serious outbreak in the country. No longer are there such diseases as smallpox and cholera, which were a constant scourge in old Russia. In addition typhus, enteric dysentery, diphtheria and scarlet fever have been reduced. On the territory of the RSFSR there are 1,750 epidemic stations, each of which operates a laboratory disinfection station under a staff of qualified epidemiologists. Research in this field is done by 32 scientific research institutes which work out the practical measures to be adopted. In the RSFSR network there are 5,000 doctors with many thousands of helpers, nurses, disinfection experts and technicians.



In the physiotherapy department of the Frunze hospital in Moscow a patient receives treatment

The value of climatic treatment is fully exploited. In the Caucasus and Crimea

there are a number of sanatoriums and rest homes at the disposal of working people, and similar resorts are found in all parts of the country.

Financed by the State budget, the Soviet medical services are part of the State plan for the development of the national economy. Various commissariats, boards and other departments of the RSFSR are involved in the program. During the war everything that the civilian health services could provide was willingly supplied to the Army. The Army medical institutions, in their turn, rendered excellent service to the people of the liberated regions in the period before the civilian medical organizations were functioning properly.

The great impetus toward the creation of an effective medical system arose in 1918, and from then on the Government has directed a consistent effort toward the protection of the health of the people. There are numerous institutes and schools to train doctors in all branches of prophylaxis and healing, and there has been a tremendous increase in the number of research institutions, with 100 in the Russian SFSR alone.

The Great Force of Soviet Democracy

The following letter written by a schoolteacher, M. Khrustaleva of the Kalyazin District, Kalinin Region, appeared in IZVESTIA:

As I have been reading in the newspapers discussions from abroad about democracy, elections and the participation of the "common man" in the administration of the country, I feel the urge to speak out about our Soviet democracy—as I understand and see it through the eyes of an ordinary Soviet citizen.

In close touch as I am with the activities of our Frolovo Village Soviet, I am ever more fully aware of the great force inherent in the Soviet system, precisely because the Soviet Government is a Government of the people.

In the last elections the citizens of neighboring villages voted for candidates of the Communist and of the non-party bloc. They elected to the Village Soviet their best representatives, Stakhanovites

of collective farming, collective farm leaders and rural intellectuals. Now what sort of persons are they, and how are they serving the people?

Deputies Sergei Kondakov and Ivan Guschin went to the front and distinguished themselves in action. The other deputies who remained in the rear have also proved that they are loyal servants of the Soviet people.

Tatyana Sokolova was formerly a rank and file member of a collective farm. Since women enjoy equal rights with men, Sokolova was promoted to a leading position on the collective farm and was elected to the Soviet which she has been heading for more than six years. Who does not know and respect Tatyana Sokolova! A woman of the people, she is alive to the needs of the population and skillfully performs her Government duties, enjoying the support and assistance of the people in the collective farm village.

There is fondness and respect for Deputy Tarakanov, who is also chairman of the collective farm. No matter is too small—or large—for his consideration, whether it concerns the school, hospital or flour mill. On the basis of his report to the voters, the people have expressed their approval of his activity as a Deputy in the local Soviet.

Of those who come from the ranks, we may boldly say in the words of Lenin, that they have developed into "real organizers of the people, with a sober mind and practical acumen, combining devotion to Socialism with the ability . . . to integrate and concert the efforts of a large number of people with the Soviet organization."

But it is not only the members of the Soviet and its Executive Committee who take part in settling State affairs. You look around and you cannot fail to be enthusiastic at the sight of so many able

assistants in the service of our Government. There is Petrushina, manager of the dairy farm, and Trusov, chairman of one of the best collective farms, brigade leader Melnikov, bookkeeper Kulikova, schoolteachers Komarova and Ankudinov, medical assistant Malkova and many others.

They are all forward-looking men and women, whose authority is respected by the population. They are on the permanent committees to carry out Government plans. They delve more deeply into collective farm production or into the work of schools and medical institutions; they organize aid for the families of demobilized soldiers; they actively help to raise funds. For the interest of the State they lead their fellow villagers and willingly overcome any obstacles.

Last winter the Frolovo Village Soviet fell behind in wood deliveries. Sokolova put the situation before the meeting of the Soviet. She pointed out how urgent it was to remedy the situation—the railways needed fuel. At Udarnik, the collective farm which lagged behind more than the others, 60-year-old Taryana Korolyova, an active assistant of the Village Soviet, took matters in hand. The collective farmers admiring her intelligence and organizing abilities say that she has a "minister's head." She is not a member of the Soviet, but whenever there is anything of importance on hand, whether it is canvassing subscriptions for the State, or grain deliveries, she is sure to do her share. Korolyova succeeded in mobilizing the entire membership of the collective farm.

She borrowed flour from the collective farmers to bake bread for the woodcutters and supplied tools and felt boots and warm clothes. By her simple words straight from the heart she so inspired the collective farmers that the plan for wood deliveries was completed ahead of schedule.

Where does the Village Soviet get such devoted assistants? It is our truly democratic system that makes it possible to draw the majority of working people into activities where they can show themselves, reveal their abilities and "bring out their talents, of which there is an untapped font among the people."

Ordinary Soviet people advance to ac-

tive participation in the administration of the State, because in our country the democratic liberties written into the Stalin Constitution—freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of public meetings, the right to band together and form various public organizations—exist in actual fact—not merely on paper. Our collective farmers and rural intellectuals actually receive a civic education at the general meetings and conferences of the best workers, etc. They acquire organizational experience by serving on the boards of the collective farms or on auditing committees, by holding posts of brigade and team leaders, by taking part in the activities of rural cooperative societies, the trade union committees, the parents' councils, etc.

Thanks to the close ties established between the Village Soviet and the people there are usually some 20 to 25 outsiders attending the meetings of the Soviet, and when particularly urgent questions are discussed, as many as 60 collective farmers, teachers and medical workers come to the meeting. The people come to their Soviet with questions, they take part in drafting the decisions adopted and help put the decisions into effect. That is the source of the Soviet Government's strength.

I take an example from the sphere that concerns me closely. When the initiative of the Zhitomir collective farmers became known, our Village Soviet took up the question at one of its meetings, and immediately our collective farmers set out to help the schools prepare for the new school year. Some sent carpenters or supplied the building materials, others gave linseed oil for drying the paint or money to pay for repairs. In two schools, repairs costing 15,000 rubles were made. The children of Frolovo never before had such excellent conditions for study.

In May 1946 the Frolovo Interkolkhoz Maternity Hospital will be ten years old. It is also a product of public enterprise. The maternity home was built and is maintained by 27 collective farms. With the help of the collective farms, the Council for Assistance to the Maternity Hospital, headed by Deputy Ushakova, sees that the hospital is kept in an exemplary condition. Women from the entire neigh-

borhood, and even from the villages of Yaroslavl Region come here for deliveries.

Despite the hardships of the war years, the collective farms in the territory of our Village Soviet, far from declining, have progressed and grown stronger. Almost all of them have built new farm structures. With fewer hands they are producing more than before the war. This is shown by the example of the Udarnik, which is considered an average farm. Cereals and flax were planted on an area thirty-six hectares larger than a year ago. The flocks of sheep and pigs increased four times, and heads of cattle doubled.

The production successes of the collective farms in the years of the Patriotic War were a true "Soviet miracle." This miracle was worked by the people under the guidance of their own Soviet Government. It is not surprising that people abroad were astonished by it.

Of course there are defects in the activities of the local Soviets. Government workers are not always alert to the needs of the population. The collective farmers of part of the Kalyazin District across the Volga have complained to the District Soviet Executive Committee for the poor organization of traffic across the river. The teachers and employees in the territory of our Village Soviet are dissatisfied with the work of the cooperative which regularly holds up the baking of bread. The District repair and construction office delayed repairs on the Frolovo Hospital.

But these are not defects of the Soviet system. They are a result of the fact that here and there Government posts are held by persons of an "indefinite" type, of whom we say that they are "neither a candle for God, nor a poker for the Devil." As soon as this comes to light, such persons are removed from their posts by the will of the people.

The fundamental and decisive point is that our Soviet democracy is truly a popular democracy. Any important job undertaken by the local Soviet is warmly supported by the people. In our country there is no antagonism between the interest of the State and the personal interest of the individual. The interest of the State is the interest of every member of our society.

Pilgrimage to Lenin's Tomb

By B. Krinitsky

Moscow's Red Square, familiar to all as the scene of so many parades and triumphal processions, regained a lost significance when the Lenin Mausoleum, closed to the public since the end of 1941, reopened a fortnight ago. Once again it is the object of reverent pilgrimage.

I was one of the 10,000 people who passed through the great man's tomb the other day. I was at the end of a winding queue of men, women and children that stretched for a good

kilometer. It was between the manege and the iron grill gate of Alexander Park at one of the traffic hubs in the heart of Moscow. Everyone's thoughts were occupied with mundane affairs. Two women just behind me, typical energetic, bustling matrons, were complaining to one another about the pranks of their children. In front of me two officers were exchanging reminiscences about the Battle of Berlin in which they had obviously both participated. As far as I could judge from their conversation, one hailed from Alma-Ata, Kazakhstan, and the other was from Siberia. What struck me about those two Army men who were standing with their backs to me was their non-military posture, for their arms were linked tightly together as though they were afraid of losing each other.

Moving at the rate of ten or 15 steps a minute, we finally passed Alexander Park and came out at the foot of the tall, round corner tower of the Kremlin from which the view opens on Red Square and the top of the Mausoleum.



RED SQUARE—There is always a long line waiting to enter the Lenin Mausoleum, which is open again for the first time in four years. The tomb (in the foreground) is before the Kremlin wall

Standing there, between this tower and the Museum of History, we seemed to be pausing on the threshold of a temple. "We shall soon be there," I heard one of the women behind me say, and they both fell silent, the petty cares of everyday life set aside. The officers straightened their shoulders. "If only I had been able to come here before the war," said one.

From where we were we could see a double row of people slowly moving up the asphalted incline to the Square, under the shade of the silvery firs that line the Kremlin wall. There were Turkmenians in tall sheepskin caps, a Caucasian in a heavy felt cape, farm women from the villages around Moscow and Don Cossacks with their red hoods slung dashingly over their shoulders. But most of the people were Army men obviously passing through Moscow en route to their homes in different parts of the Soviet Union.

The crowd stood silent amid the Red Square's solemn stillness, broken—like a placid sea ruffled by rippling wavelets—

only by an occasional automobile horn or the silvery chimes of the clock on the Spasskaya Tower. And now we were only five or six meters from the Mausoleum. We could see the sentries standing in statuesque immobility at the entrance, and in obedience to our emotions we removed our hats long before it was necessary.

The cold marble of the majestic tomb gleamed dully in the autumn sunlight, and I thought of another autumn,

of a rainy day at the end of 1941 when the casket with the embalmed body of Lenin was shipped to a distant Siberian town far beyond the reach of the Germans, who were then pressing close to the capital.

The removal of the casket seemed to leave a tangible void in Moscow, although Lenin was constantly with us everywhere—at the front, where regiments marched into battle with his portrait on their banners, in beleaguered Leningrad where people died whispering his name, and in the remote rear which displayed such selfless devotion to Lenin's injunctions. And when Stalin spoke words of encouragement and exhortation to the Soviet people at crucial moments of the war we knew that he was voicing the great truths propounded by Lenin.

Now Lenin once more reposes beneath the walls of the Kremlin in a casket of crystal, as pure and translucent as the tears shed for him. Looking back I saw on the faces of those around me the re-

Reviving Scientific Institutions in Leningrad

By Ivan Bondarenko

flection of the same inexplicable emotions stirring within me as I slowly approached the brightly illuminated focal point of the tomb. We crossed the threshold of the Mausoleum, leaving behind us all of our everyday commonplace thoughts, and our hearts filled with love for one whom we owe so much.

Lenin looks much the same as many of us remember him. Only the sculptural repose of his figure clothed in the simple garb of a soldier brings home to us the bitter truth that we shall never again hear his impassioned eloquent speeches.

Suddenly the two officers in front of me stopped beside the casket and one of them stretched his hand out toward the crystal. This strange gesture attracted my attention, and it was only then I realized that the officer was blind. The tips of his fingers trembled nervously as he strove to feel what his eyes could never see. He stood thus longer than the measured movement of the procession would ordinarily have allowed, but we who were behind carefully passed him, feeling a tightening in our throats as we left him standing there, his hands outstretched to the crystal casket.



A star gleams above Spasskaya Tower illuminating the Lenin Tomb at night

Between granite banks the Neva flows majestically past palaces—the Admiralty, Senate and Synod on the right and buildings devoted to science on the left. Between the Palace Bridge and the Lieutenant Schmidt Bridge stands the main building of the Leningrad Academy of Sciences. Farther along are the University, the Academy of Art and a number of scientific research institutes. The district has an ancient splendor, with buildings dating back to the time of Peter I. Now everything is cluttered with lumber and building materials; everywhere one hears the noise of construction.

This section was bombed dozens of times during the blockade and shelled mercilessly. Most of the windows were blocked up with bricks, anti-aircraft guns stood at the bridges, and a passer-by was rare on any of the streets in the vicinity of the Neva.

As the bombs fell, eruptions of debris and ice burst from the surface of the river, and clouds of dirty smoke hung over the neighboring roofs.

A number of research centers returned to the liberated city last year, among them the Institutes of Literature and of Theoretical Astronomy and the Physico-Technical, Radium and Botanical Institutes, the University and over 25 other higher schools.

Scientists, teachers and students set to work cleaning out their buildings, sorting the wreckage, repairing holes in roofs and walls and putting in window panes or covering windows with sheets of veneer when they could not get glass. Before winter set in they made it possible to resume normal studies and scientific research.

But this was only the first phase of work. Everyone was busy overhauling, from cellar to attic, from plumbing to sculptures and frescoes.

Last year the plumbing and heating systems of the main building of the Leningrad Academy of Sciences were put in

order and panes were set into a few windows. Work is being continued with the restoration of murals in the large and small council halls, among them a mosaic by Mikhail Lomonosov called "Poltava Battle Scene."

A direct hit by a German bomb destroyed the entrance and meeting hall of the Institute of Physiology and a number of rooms in which Ivan Pavlov had worked. Eight laboratories for the study of conditioned reflexes have now been fully repaired and the damaged structure is being rebuilt.

The Academy of Sciences Library now has again a new central heating plant and a fully restored council room. By autumn the home of over 6 million books in all fields of knowledge will be ready for students and scholars. Restoration work already has been completed on many of the laboratories of the Radium Institute.

Allocations for the rehabilitation of the Academy of Sciences and for the University each total 4,750,000 rubles.

The Institute for Oriental Studies, the Pulkovo Observatory and the Institute of Ethnography are returning from evacuation in Tashkent. A group of scientists of the Institute of Zoology returned from Stalinobod, Institute of Language and Thought from Alma-Ata and the Institute of the History of Material Culture from Elabuga. As many as 20 higher schools of pedagogics, economics and agriculture will also be re-established after their long absence in the East.

Vladivostok-Odessa

After an interval of four years the first Soviet ship has arrived in the Black Sea port of Odessa from the Far East.

The ship sailed from Vladivostok to Portland (U.S.A.), loaded a cargo there and proceeded to Odessa, crossing the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans, the Sea of Japan, the Sea of Okhotsk, the Bering Sea, the Caribbean, the Mediterranean, the Aegean and the Sea of Marmora.

Private Property

By P. Ognev

This is the last in a series of three articles:

Every citizen of the Soviet Union may acquire the commodities he needs as his own property, either individually, or jointly with other persons. Each party to such jointly-owned property has the right by law to demand the part belonging to him at any time. If the property is indivisible then the owner has the right to sell or turn over his part to other persons, the other parties to the property having the right of first option of purchase.

This right of the participants in joint property ownership to acquire shares of a common indivisible property (a dwelling, for instance), is established by Article 65 of the Civil Code of the Russian SFSR and corresponding articles of the civil codes of the other Union Republics.

Family Property

Family property also exists in the USSR. Only husbands and wives are recognized as owners of family property. Children may not become the owners of property acquired by their parents. Articles which belonged to the husband and wife before they contracted their marriage continue to remain the personal property of each individually after marriage. Property acquired during their married life belongs to husband and wife jointly, as established by Article 10 of the Code of Laws on Marriage.

This joint ownership of property does not depend on which of the parties to the marriage earns the means by which the property is acquired. It is understood, however, that articles of personal use, such as clothing or occupational materials are considered the property of the party using them.

On the subsidiary establishment on the plot of land attached to the household of a collective farm family, the articles of private property are the dwelling, the livestock, poultry and agricultural implements. These articles are not the property of separate members

of the family but of the household in the aggregate.

The property of the household is jointly owned by its members. Prior to its division or to the allotting of any portion of it, no member has a separate share in this property. Therefore the death of one of the members of the household does not involve the question of the inheritance of his share but simply reduces the number of joint owners of the property.

Collective Farm Household

A distinction must be made between the property of the collective farm family as represented by the property of the household itself (the dwelling, livestock, agricultural implements) and the property belonging to separate members of the family (clothing, books, etc.), which is their personal property.

The collective farmer's main source of income is from the collective farm enterprise. The farming done on the subsidiary plot of the household has only a secondary significance and is a supplementary source of income for the material security of the collective farm members. The main means of agricultural labor are pooled together as the public property of the collective farm. The statutes of the collective farm permit only minor agricultural implements to remain the property of the collective farm household.

The income which a member receives from his part in the general work of the collective farm constitutes his indivisible personal property. Collective farmers usually sell any surplus products on the open market and purchase needed commodities with the money realized from the sale.

The richer a collective farm and the stronger it is economically, the greater is the income of each member for his part in the work of the collective farm and the greater his opportunity to satisfy his cultural requirements.

There also exist in the USSR a few small farms run by individuals who are not members of collective farms, and in-

dividual handicraftsmen who are not members of cooperative organizations. The Soviet Constitution permits the small private economy of such individuals on condition that the private owner expends only his own labor on his means of production and does not exploit the labor of others.

Inheritance Rights

There remains the question of rights of inheriting private property in the Soviet Union. According to Soviet law property may be inherited by children (including adopted children), wife or husband and incapacitated parents, as well as other incapacitated persons who were dependents of the deceased for not less than one year preceding his death. If any one of the children dies before the will is read his share devolves upon his children (the grandchildren of the deceased), and in the event of the death of the grandchildren, upon their children (the great-grandchildren of the deceased).

In the absence of heirs of first precedence or in the event of their refusal to accept the inheritance, the next in line are the able-bodied parents or, in their absence, the brothers and sisters of the deceased.

Every citizen of the Soviet Union may will all his property or part of it to one or several of his legal heirs as well as to state organizations. He cannot, however, deprive his minor children or other dependent heirs of the share due to them by law. In the absence of legal heirs the property may be willed to any person indicated by the testator.

Finally, if there are no legal heirs and the deceased dies intestate, the property reverts to the State.

Such, in general outline, are the salient features of the laws governing the ownership of private property in the Soviet Union. Soviet law protects the right to own private property against all infringements. Every citizen may appeal to the courts for the protection of his rights. The violation of the rights of private property by others is punishable by law.

(Continued on last page)

TEACHING THE HISTORY OF THE MIDDLE AGES

By E. A. Kosminsky

Professor of the Lomonosov University, Moscow

In Soviet schools the period of the Middle Ages is taught in the eighth grade. The average age of the pupils in this year is 14-15.

The course covers the history of the Middle Ages in Western Europe and in Asiatic countries, but not in Russia. The history of our country is a separate course which includes the period corresponding to the Middle Ages in the West.

The objective is to show that the Middle Ages and feudalism represent stages in mankind's progress from a primitive state through the slave-owning society of antiquity, medieval feudalism and modern capitalism, to a higher form of social development—Communism. The teacher stresses the progressive role of feudalism compared with the slavery of ancient times. To be sure, the transition from antiquity to the Middle Ages was accompanied by a decline of culture. But the supersession of slavery by serfdom, which was a relatively light form of exploitation under which the peasant had his holding and was interested in a higher productivity of labor, opened the way for an increase in the productive forces of society and ushered in the transition to the next higher stage of historic development, the capitalist (bourgeois) system of modern times, under which the personally-free wage worker is exploited.

This phase of history shows the gradual progressive development from the relatively primitive relationships characteristic of the early Middle Ages, through technical progress, the rise of towns, the formation of national states, great geographical discoveries, etc., to modern European society.

This progress was furthered, on the one hand, by the persistent toil of the people, and, on the other, by the struggle of the oppressed classes for their freedom from the feudal yoke. Special attention is given to the struggle of the towns and *Jacquerie* in France, the Wat Tyler Rebellion in England, the Hussite wars in Bohemia, the Peasant War in Germany, the Netherlands Revolution and the great Revolution in England in the middle of

the seventeenth century, as landmarks in the fight for emancipation. The pupils study the lives of the leaders of these movements—Wat Tyler, John Ball, Jan Ziska, Thomas Muentzer, Cromwell, and Lilburne.

Another important feature of the Middle Ages was the development of science. The Catholic Church of the Middle Ages at first played a certain progressive role in preserving the survivals of antique culture, but later became an impediment to the progress of free scientific thought.

One of the main themes stressed in the period is the fight of forward-looking thinkers for a free science, and the gradual triumph of knowledge over ignorance and superstition.

Pupils learn to esteem the names of the great heroes and martyrs of science—Roger Bacon, Leonardo da Vinci, Columbus, Copernicus, Giordano Bruno and Galileo.

Feudalism, at first a progressive vehicle, subsequently became an obstacle to social advance and was swept away in a series of successful revolutions—the Netherlands Revolution at the end of the sixteenth century, the English Revolution of the middle of the seventeenth century and the French Revolution of the end of the eighteenth century.

The study of the Middle Ages is brought up to the eve of the English Revolution, which is regarded as the dividing line before the era of modern times.

The countries and events which influenced the history of our own country receive special emphasis. Byzantium, for example, a country which exerted a progressive influence on the development of culture, is shown to have been a force in the Middle Ages.

In presenting the Slav countries and, particularly, the history of the struggle of the Slavs against German aggression in the East (*Drang nach Osten*) the course indicates the infamous methods employed by the Teutonic feudal lords in their forays into Slav lands. The fallacy of the racialist theory about the "superiority" of

the German race is exposed, and it is shown that the Germans prevailed against the Slavonic tribes only when the latter were divided and quarreled with one another; German aggression was always powerless against the united Slavs. The pupils learn the story of the Battle on the Ice of Lake Peipus in 1242, when the Novgorod Prince Alexander Nevsky routed the German knights and hurled them away from the Russian frontiers, and the story of the Battle of Grunwald in 1410, when the united Polish, Lithuanian and Russian forces administered a lasting defeat to the Teutonic Order.

The curriculum covers the fight of the small Czech people against the German feudal lords at the time of the Hussite wars, when the Czech peasants beat off five German "crusades," took the offensive, invaded Germany and put the troops of the knights to flight.

By no means are the non-European countries overlooked. The injustice of the disparagement of the Oriental people is revealed and the great debt of Europe to Eastern civilization is recognized. Tribute is paid to the role of Arab culture in the history of mankind.

Special chapters deal with the ancient and rich cultures of India and China. The Crusaders are contrasted with the high civilization of Byzantium and the Arabian East.

While explaining the great historic significance of the geographical discoveries of the end of the fifteenth and the beginning of the sixteenth centuries, the material draws attention to the inhuman methods of the European colonizers who wiped out whole tribes and cultures.

Thus, while setting forth events objectively and without bias, the course in the history of the Middle Ages is calculated to instill a faith in progress, in the triumph of freedom over tyranny and of reason over superstition. It inspires a will to fight for the lofty ideals of humanity, a profound respect for the great men who contributed to mankind's progress and a deep sympathy for the oppressed and hostility to the oppressors.

Notes on Soviet Life

The title of Master of Air Force Radio Communications has been conferred on Thrice Hero of the Soviet Union Colonel of the Guards Alexander Pokryshkin, Twice Heroes of the Soviet Union Lieutenant Colonel Zaitsev and Major Smirnov, and a number of other outstanding attack plane and fighter pilots.

The award designates the mastery of aviation radio equipment and the knowledge of the principles of electro- and radio technics and of the use of radio in Army aviation.

★

The "Murmansk" has set out on her first Arctic trial run since she was put out of action by German bombs. The great ocean liner was restored at the Murmansk shipyards, which had just been completely rebuilt.

★

Famous Don Basin miner Luka Golokolosov established a new record for overfulfilling a shift. He mined six weeks' coal in one day, by far surpassing all other Don miners. Since the first of the year Luka Golokolosov has mined three annual quotas—6,000 tons of coal.

One-half million Germans were wiped out by Ukrainian guerrillas during the war, as attested by an exhibition dedicated to partisan activities in the Ukraine. There is an especially interesting relief map of raids in the enemy rear.

The exhibition will open on the anniversary of the raid effected under the command of Hero of the Soviet Union Semyon Kovpak—an event that played an important part in the liberation of the Ukraine.

★

New model tractors are in production at the Kirov works. The first of the 80-horsepower caterpillar tractors of the improved Stalinets type will be ready by November 7, the 28th anniversary of the October Revolution.

★

The third volume of History of Diplomacy will appear before the end of the year. The second volume, just off the press, deals with the years 1872-1919. The third volume, twice as bulky as the second, covers the period from 1919 to September 1939.

Within ten years 1,000 trade union members have been graduated from the Pictorial Arts Studio functioning under the auspices of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions. The school was set up to enable workers to learn painting, drawing and sculpture in their leisure.

Many of the graduates while in the Red Army and Navy devoted their spare moments to art. These works, along with those of other students, are to be presented at an exhibition.

★

A children's encyclopedia is being compiled by the Academy of Pedagogy of the Russian SFSR, with Viktor Potemkin, People's Commissar of Education, as chief editor.

★

Textiles for civilian consumption are being produced in greatly increasing quantities. In the last quarter of the current year the industry has expanded the output of cotton goods, compared with the previous quarter, by more than 3 million yards; worsted goods, by 400,000 yards and semi-silk fabrics, by 1.2 million yards. The new plan allows for a large supply of finished goods, such as towels and blankets.

PROPERTY

(Continued from page 6)

Embezzlement, fraud, misappropriation and any other possible infringements of the rights of private property are punishable by severe penalties which may include imprisonment for various terms (Articles 162, a, b, and c, Article 169, Part 1, Article 168 and others of the Penal Code of the RSFSR and corresponding laws of the penal codes of other Union Republics).

Every citizen of the Soviet Union is well aware of his right to own private property. He also knows, however, that the welfare of the Soviet State is created by the labor of its citizens, of which his

labor is a part. The higher the level of welfare in the State, the higher the level of his own personal welfare.

It is for this reason that Article 131 of the Constitution of the USSR states:

"It is the duty of every citizen of the USSR to safeguard and strengthen public, Socialist property as the sacred and inviolable foundation of the Soviet system, as the source of the wealth and might of the country, as the source of the prosperous and cultured life of all the working people. Persons committing offences against public, Socialist property are enemies of the people."

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The Don Welcomes the Cossacks

By Lieutenant V. Fomenko

The streets of Rostov were packed on a recent Sunday morning. The town looked its best. In the autumn wind fluttered red flags, and huge streamers conveyed words of greeting to the victorious soldiers.

"The Cossacks are back from the front."

The happy news spread like wildfire. Columns of people—workers, office workers, scientists and school children—marching to the beat of music, entered the theater square. Soon it was filled with the thousands of celebrants.

All eyes turned to the famed cavalymen who were surrounded by young people singing the familiar melody, *Song of Past Campaigns*. The Cossacks, their tunics sparkling with orders and medals, bent from their steeds to accept the flowers offered with love and admiration.

Marshal Semyon Budenny, Colonel General Pavel Belov, the District Military Commander, a Hero of the Soviet Union, leading Soviet and public officials and representatives of Army units mounted the platform.

Speaking on behalf of the workers of the Rostov District, Andrianov welcomed the Cossack units. A foreman at Rostselmash, he greeted the horsemen in the name of the factory workers.

Aged collective farmer Dmitri Matekin, from the village of Starocherkaskaya, ascended the platform. He said he had come to Rostov at the request of the collective farmers to convey the love and welcome of the village people. Although he is 71, Matekin is still working on the farm.

"Before coming here," said the old man, "I went to the Novocherkassk Cathedral to see the gates of the Azov fortress and the guns lying there. They were brought

here in 1643 by our great-grandfathers—the Don Cossacks. That was when the Don and the Kuban were liberated from Turkish oppression and violence. The trophies have been lying thus for three generations to remind us of the glorious deeds of our forefathers. You Cossacks of the Guards have not disgraced them. The German has been brought to his knees. Japan is defeated. We old people see this as proof of the invincible power of our land. No one can get the better of our great and rich country.

"We have always striven to give you our widest assistance. While you slashed the enemy with your sabers, we in the village toiled to supply you with food.

Our collective farm had never failed to fulfill a year's plan in good time. This year, too, we were the first to deliver the grain.

"The German ruined us, and you have avenged us. Thank you, lads! We shall do all we can to restore the farms in the shortest possible time. Take it from me, in a year or two our farm will be richer than it ever was before."

Then Colonel Privalov of the Guards spoke for the Cossacks.

The speech by Marshal Budenny was cheered and applauded. In the name of all Red Army cavalry units he congratulated the Cossacks on the historical victory of the Soviet peoples over the German



Collective farmers of the Don steppes. Natives of the Region, who are famed chiefly for their horsemanship and military prowess, were assigned to special units in the Red Army

and Japanese invaders, and on their happy return to their villages. In conclusion, the Marshal paid tribute to the Soviet troops, the Soviet Motherland and the great leader, Generalissimo Stalin.

Immediately after the meeting the parade of the Cossack units began. On bay horses, with drawn sabers, the horsemen galloped past the platform.

This Guards unit has a long and remarkable history. The men covered 9,000 kilometers in the war. They fought in the Caucasus, the Donbas, the western Ukraine and Bessarabia. They routed the enemy in Rumania, Hungary, Yugo-

slavia and Austria and inflicted severe casualties. They defeated the German SS divisions "Viking" and "Death's Head," and were mentioned eight times in the Orders of the Day of the Supreme Commander-in-Chief.

The steeled soldiers, veterans of many wars and battles, have returned to their native Don. Captain Paramon Kurkin, who is 66, fought the Germans in the First World War, defended Tsaritsin (now Stalingrad) and served in the First Cavalry Force. He volunteered for active service at the outbreak of the Patriotic War and left for the front with

his three officer sons, ten nephews and a son-in-law. Captain Kurkin is the holder of four orders and two medals.

Fifty-four-year-old Cossack Konstantin Nedorubov enlisted and along with his 17-year-old son distinguished himself in many battles.

The aged Cossack was awarded the coveted title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

This meeting of the Cossacks with the toilers on the Don was another demonstration of the deeply-rooted love of the Soviet people for the Red Army and the unfading battle traditions of the Cossacks.

Designer of Light Hand-Machine Gun

By A. Litvin



The designer examines a model of a hand-machine gun. He is Georgi S. Shpagin, whose inventions were used on battlefronts from 1942 through the end of the war

Radiophoto

A light hand-machine gun designed by Georgi Shpagin is very popular in the Red Army. Armed with Shpagin hand-machine guns Red Army men penetrated enemy lines, carrying out daring reconnaissance and participated in parachute landings and tank-borne operations. Valiant partisans used this weapon to wipe out German patrols and punitive forces. The Soviet troops which stormed Berlin were armed with Shpagin machine guns.

Georgi Semyonovich is 48 years old and has devoted 25 years of his life to designing and perfecting infantry armaments.

During the First World War he worked in a regimental arsenal. In 1920

when he joined the designing bureau of the ordnance plant where the famous designers V. Fyodorov and V. Degtyarev were employed, Shpagin's dream of designing infantry weapons was realized. Here he not only made many parts for new armaments but also worked on his own inventions.

Recalling those days, Lieutenant General V. Fyodorov said: "Shpagin was one of my best pupils. In 1922 he mounted twin automatic guns on a swinging tank turret. The guns when heated could be easily and quickly replaced by another pair."

Shpagin later perfected a swinging tank turret on which Degtyarev's machine

gun with a folding butt and special sights were mounted.

The young designer was awarded the Order of the Red Star for these inventions. Among his other contributions are light tripods for hand-machine guns, a drum for a high-caliber machine gun built by Degtyarev, etc.

"The importance of automatic weapons became particularly clear to me after the war with the Finnish White Guards," Georgi Shpagin said. "From that time on I devoted most of my attention to the perfection of a light hand-machine gun."

There were times when Shpagin worked in his experimental shop for several days without rest. Whenever his helpers encountered difficulties in making parts, Shpagin rolled up his sleeves and made them himself. He is an expert pattern maker, turning-lathe and milling-machine operator and fitter, as well as a brilliant designer.

For turning out a new hand-machine gun in record time, Georgi Shpagin was decorated with the Order of Lenin and awarded the Stalin Prize. His model played a significant role in the rout of the German invaders.

The inventor arrived in Moscow to receive the Gold Sickle and Hammer Medal and the Order of Lenin. The title of Hero of Socialist Labor was conferred upon him for the creation of new armaments for the Red Army and Navy.

SCHOOLS FOR NATIONALITIES

By Petrov

A quarter of a million children, one-fifth of Armenia's population, are in school in the towns and villages of the Republic.

The opening of the new term of the city schools was a solemn occasion. War heroes, deputies to the Supreme Soviet and public education officials visited the pupils to wish them well in their studies. Special greetings were extended to the newcomers—the tiny overawed children receiving their initiation into the wonders of classroom life.

I have spent the past week in a number of schools studying the system of education. To provide facilities for the large numbers of Azerbaijanis and Russians (the latter are descendants of the religious sects who settled here in the past to escape persecution), residing in Armenia, about 250 of the Republic's 1,136 schools use these languages—200 Azerbaijan and 50 Russian.

All schools are under the jurisdiction of the People's Commissariat of Education of Armenia headed by Arusyak Khachikyan, a 48-year-old one-time village schoolteacher who taught in Armenia. Before the term began she advised me to make a study of Armenian schools. "That will help you to understand how they differ from the Russian schools in Moscow or, say, Archangel."

To give effect to the national principle upon which the schools in the Republic are based, the seven and ten-year programs prevailing throughout the USSR were revised to include the Armenian language, Armenian history and literature. This is obtained by slightly curtailing the course in foreign languages, biology and Russian.

Pupils in Armenian schools begin to study Russian from the third grade, the course being planned in such a way to



A young member of the Azerbaijan Republic reads the local Turco-Tatar newspaper. It is printed in the Latin alphabet, which has replaced the intricate Arabic script

give them sufficient knowledge of the language to enable them upon graduation to continue their education in any Russian higher school or college. One of three foreign languages, English, French or German, is taught beginning with the fifth grade.

The program for the Azerbaijan schools presented a more difficult problem. As in Armenian schools, almost half the study time in the lower classes is devoted to the native language and the national history, literature and geography. But the Azerbaijan child has to learn both Armenian and Russian.

As for Russian schools in Armenia, their curriculum is identical with that of regular secondary schools in Moscow, but with the addition of Armenian as

the language of the Republic.

This flexible system, based on national characteristics of the Republics, has been successful, providing a thorough education for all children of school age.

Although Armenians possess one of the oldest cultures of the peoples of the USSR, the tsarist government did not encourage opening schools in the Armenian language. The two secondary schools and 289 elementary schools of pre-Revolutionary times were conducted in Russian. Today there are 160 ten-year schools alone.

During a visit to one of the Russian schools in Erevan I asked the principal how many graduates go on to the higher schools.

"I should say that approximately half continue their studies."

"That entails their moving to Russia, I suppose?"

"Not necessarily. They can get a college education right here in Erevan if they wish. Our State University has a department in Russian, and so have our Pedagogical and Medical Institutes. And studies in the Polytechnical Institute are in Russian."

I put the same question to the principal of an Azerbaijan school.

"Azerbaijans who finish school in Armenia can get only higher pedagogical education in their native language in Erevan. But don't forget they study both Armenian and Russian in school, and in most cases living in such close proximity to the Armenians they speak the language quite fluently."

In conversation with different school principals I learned incidentally that the chief ambition of senior students is to become specialists. That explains why there are four or five applicants for every vacancy in the numerous technical schools of Armenia.

Interurban Electric Railways

By D. Svetov



An electric train winds along the Suram Pass in the Georgian Republic

Moscow transport workers recently celebrated the 15th anniversary of the opening of the first Russian electric railway—the Moscow-Mytishchi section of the Yaroslavl line. It was projected under Lenin's famous plan for the electrification of Russia.

The Moscow-Mytishchi electric railway was later extended to Zagorsk, and the experience gained enabled Moscow railway engineers to undertake extensive electrification of other suburban lines, especially on the Moscow-Ryazan and Moscow-Kursk railways.

The project on the Moscow suburban railways continued even after war broke out. While the front ran through Vyazma and Smolensk, plans were being made for the electrification of the western main line which connects these towns with Moscow. Last year a stretch of the Moscow-Kuntsevo section was opened, connecting the most important Moscow terminals—the Kursk, Northern, October and Byelorussian—with the station of the Western railway. Transit passengers may now proceed from one station to another without

having to cross the city by tram or bus.

The economic significance of this electrification program has been very great. New factories have been built, farming and market gardening in outlying districts have been intensified, and workers living in distant suburbs are brought rapidly to work in the city. On Sundays, especially in the summer, hundreds of thousands of Moscow people use the electric railways to reach their victory gardens.

During the 15 years that have passed since the first line was opened, many roads carrying heavy traffic have been completed. Powerful electric locomotives built in Soviet factories pull trainloads of coal, iron ore and metal goods on the railways of the Urals, Siberia, the Ukraine, the Transcaucasus and the Kola Peninsula. Today over 2,000 kilometers are electrified.

Since the war began, the coal and iron industries of the Urals have developed rapidly, and electrification of the Urals railways served to speed up deliveries on those sections that had to handle the heaviest traffic. This year a new branch, the Perm-Chusovaya, was constructed to carry coal from the Kizel Basin, metal from the Chusovaya factories and chemicals from Berezniki and Solikamsk. Transport costs were thus reduced to one-fourth. This section completes the heavy-traffic line from Sverdlovsk through Tagil and Chusovaya to Perm (now Molotov).

The double-track line from Chelyabinsk to Zlatoust, a distance of 161 kilometers, begun last September, will soon be ready. The railway follows a winding course and has steep grades, but Soviet electric locomotives operate efficiently. Later the line will be extended 160 kilometers further, as far as Kropachevo, to speed up traffic on one of the most congested lines of the Soviet Union.

The work on the electric railways has produced a number of new ideas and inventions. An outstanding achievement is that of engine driver Lugov of the Tbilisi depot, whose methods of running and maintaining his locomotive increased the

run, without overhauling, from 60,000 kilometers, the official standard, to 250,000 kilometers. Lugov, and those who have followed his example are, in addition to being drivers, excellent electricians and mechanics, and do all the necessary minor repairs during halts.

When the war began, many engineers believed that these railways would be particularly vulnerable to enemy action, especially bombing, as a break in the transmission network might put them out of action for long periods. Practical experience on Soviet railways, especially on the Kirov railway, which traverses the Kola Peninsula, has shown that this is not true. The electrified section of the line at Kola was near the front line and under constant aerial bombardment. There was not a single case of work being interrupted or of the supply of electric power breaking down; breaks in the transmission wires were instantly repaired, and trains proceeded according to schedule.

During the 15 years in which electric railways have been in use, the Soviet Government has effected great economies. By electrifying some of the most important sections the Soviet Government saved 4,200,000 tons of fuel and freed 281 locomotives for other use, and saved 58 million rubles.



On the suburban route in the Ukraine

Turning Back the Volga

Among the many unusual events which marked the Stalin Five-Year Plans there was one which in other times might have been considered a miracle: the flow of the Volga was turned back toward Moscow. Another blue area appeared on the map—the "Moscow Sea."

The Ivankovo power station was the first to force the Volga to serve man. The Moscow-Volga Canal was the beginning of the reconstruction of the river.

The builders moved on. Once more the ancient Russian town of Uglich was fated to play a prominent part in history. Another blue spot appeared on the map—the Uglich reservoir. There was a water-power project—dam, lock and power station—near the walls of the Uglich Kremlin.

Soviet engineers moved on downstream—to Rybinsk. Here the Sheksna falls into the Volga, and somewhat higher, the Mologa, too. In the spring these rivers used to overflow their banks for dozens of kilometers, tearing down everything in their way. Then they again entered their banks and peacefully bore small craft, rafts, fishermen's boats on their journeys.

But in 1941, spring floods were caught in a trap and locked in a huge hollow of the Mologa and Sheksna beds. And thus it was that Soviet engineers created the "Rybinsk Sea." Now it is silently lapping its banks. But in windy weather the sea raises high waves and from the middle only sky and water can be seen.



There was formerly a city here, on the site of the "Rybinsk Sea." This building which remained after inundation serves as lighthouse

This reservoir occupies 4,650 square kilometers—almost double the territory of the state of Luxemburg. The Rybinsk Sea holds 25 billion cubic meters of water.

Now the Volga regularly receives its "ration," and a low water season is unknown. The river has grown wider and easily carries large ships from Astrakhan to the walls of the Moscow Kremlin.

Soviet experts are fully exploiting the power potential of the dams. A powerful hydroelectric station has already been built

at Uglich, and another is under construction at Rybinsk.

The first turbine at Rybinsk was set in operation on November 18, 1941, but this fact was not reported by the press at that time. Yet the addition of 55,000 kilowatts was an important event for Moscow—a veritable weapon aimed at the enemy. At that time several power stations which had supplied current for Moscow were disabled and others were cut off from their sources of fuel. And so the Volga sent her first present to the capital.

The second installation was launched in January 1942. The Rybinsk station was to give power in the peak hours of the day. But during the war all hours of the day, all days, weeks and months were peak hours. And so these two installations worked day in, day out, month after month—a year and a half without stopping, without repairs.

Sergei Andryanov, director of the station, mentions his admiration for the Leningrad people who manufactured these two essential plants. The generator for the third machine was built in the midst of the war.

Vassili Kulikov, chief engineer of the Leningrad plant, tells about the birth of the generator for the third machine: "We worked under artillery fire. Many shells fell on the building, sometimes as many as 200 a day. But the generator kept growing. The whole population of the city helped to build it. It became a symbol of the invincibility of Leningrad."



Panorama of the Uglich hydroelectric station in the process of construction on the shallow and unnavigable part of the Volga

Children Regain Health

By Raisa Benyash

It was dinnertime when I visited the Leningrad Institute of Pediatrics. Three-year-olds being treated by the Physiological Department were seated around small, low tables, intent on the business of eating without the aid of grownups.

Side by side sat two little girls as alike as two peas. They were Olya and Tonya Potashnikova, I was informed by the nurse on duty. And if it were not for the different color of the ribbons in their hair I should never have been able to tell them apart. The children looked so dimpled and healthy that it was hard to believe that they had weighed one pound thirteen ounces and one pound fourteen ounces respectively, when they were brought to the Institute in the autumn of 1942. They were born three months before their time and their mother, suffering from malnutrition, had died in childbirth.

Twenty-five infants, as puny and weak as Olya and Tonya, had come to the Institute at the same time. Scientific feeding and constant medical attention have made sturdy little youngsters of them all.

In the Institute's clinic for older children I was introduced to 16-year-old Zoya Ryzhikova who is suffering from an incurable heart disease. When the Germans killed her parents in Krasnoye Selo the horror-stricken child fled to the hospital for protection.

Since Zoya is too ill to attend school, the Institute provides tutors to give her the regular class work of the ninth grade.



Curative calisthenics are used at a sanatorium in the Crimea

Next spring the Board of Education Examination Commission will come to the Institute to test her progress. The little girl has quite a gift for needlework, judging by the handiwork I saw on the tables in her ward.

The Institute functioned throughout the blockade. The gallant efforts of the staff to carry on in spite of terrific odds is an epic in itself. There were more than 1,000 juvenile patients in the 15 clinics

when war broke out. And they scarcely knew there was a war—until the day when an artillery shell hit Academician Maslov's clinic at the moment a serious operation was in progress. Outwardly nothing changed in the hospital regime. As usual, nurses in starched caps and white smocks brought the youngsters their tasty meals; the laboratories continued producing new types of vitamins; at a regular hour infants in their buntings took naps on the terraces and Academician Maslov continued to deliver his lectures to the medical students.

Even later, when the city was in the pitiless vise of blockade, of hunger and cold, the Institute was a small oasis of comfort and plenty. Fresh milk came regularly from its own dairy farm, and stocks of apple, black currant and cabbage juice made it possible to add the requisite amount of vitamins to the children's diet. So the older children went blithely on, making toy boats, embroidering handkerchiefs and riding hobby horses, and the little ones romped in their play pens.

The number of patients rapidly increased as mothers, themselves on the verge of collapse, placed their sick children in the Institute. Maria Silber, chief physician of the Premature Infants' Department, had her hands full in those fuelless days keeping the temperature of her incubator at 28 degrees centigrade.

When the bomb hit the Surgical Department on that memorable day in the



The doctor examines a mildly protesting infant at a Stalingrad institute; (right) Doctor Z. Lenova exhibits little P. Golubev

life of the Institute, 870 children were carried down to the basement. During the worst eight months of the siege all the inmates, from Professor Julia Men-deleyeva, Director, to the tiniest premature baby, lived underground. The central heating installation was wrecked, so the doctors and nurses built stoves and went down to the Neva for water.

Doctor Balinskaya and her assistants had a hard time trying to keep the children's diet unimpaired by searching for

all kinds of substitute sources of vitamins and calories. It was in this grim period that 126 of the doctors wrote the treatises that are now of invaluable aid in determining the influence of the war and blockade on the mortality and physical development of children. And in the meantime, the gardeners, who divided their daily bread ration of 150 grams into three meager portions to last through the day, grew strawberries, raspberries and gooseberries in the Institute's experimental

gardens for the weakest patients, who didn't suspect that each delicious berry was a symbol of human courage and compassion.

The Leningrad Institute of Pediatrics, which celebrated its 20th anniversary recently, has earned the everlasting gratitude of thousands of parents whose ailing children were nursed back to health. The hospital's record is a shining page in the annals of Soviet medicine.

MODELING THE HEROES OF AVIATION

By Efim Borisov

When I telephoned sculptor Mikhail Olenin for permission to visit his studio and see his work, I was invited to come the following day. An elevator took me to the top floor of a Moscow skyscraper, where the studio was ensconced in a circular tower.

A first glance at the studio revealed busts of fliers all over the studio, with sketches and preliminary studies of their portraits pinned up on the walls.

Olenin, who has spent four years with Soviet fliers, lived and worked at the air-dromes where units took off on long-range missions. He had a close-up view of some of the foremost people in the Soviet Air Force.

A sculptured bust standing on the piano caught my eye—the face was that of a thinker and warrior.

"That is Sokolov Sokolenok, chief of our Air Academy," the sculptor informed me. "Although I met him only casually at the beginning of the war, he really inspired me in my work of modeling people in aviation. He helped me to become more intimate with my subject. The person who attracted my attention then was Marshal of Aviation Golovanov. When I asked permission to model his portrait, I received a point-blank refusal.

"There is no sense in your bothering with a portrait of me," the Marshal said. My role in aviation is a modest one. But we have lots of people who deserve to be immortalized. I will give you every opportunity to meet them and watch them.

I assure you that they are more interesting and important."

Sculptor Olenin told me how he subsequently got acquainted with the still little-known Captain of Aviation—Molodchy. That was soon after he had become a Hero of the Soviet Union. In conversation, Marshal Golovanov had described Molodchy as an exceptional personality, painting glowing colors of courage and renown.

"I did not know how to begin," continued Olenin, "when I first saw that singularly modest young man. Is it possible that this is Molodchy? Where is the outer indication of fearlessness, of daring?" I wondered. I decided to get into a plane with Molodchy and watch him at work. We made a combat flight and I was astonished and awed. He was like a fighting eagle, he seemed transformed in the air. Watching him I was fired with creative endeavor and worked on a bust of the flier with inspiration."

Mikhail Olenin pointed out the head of Molodchy. The proud position, the frank, eagle-eyed glance, the unusual youthful energy—were the striking features of twice Hero of the Soviet Union Molodchy, who had remained in the air for 12 to 14 hours at a time during the bombing of Berlin.

In another corner of the studio stood a bust of twice Hero of the Soviet Union Alelukhin, a remarkably interesting figure. The Germans feared him intensely; they drove themselves to desperation in trying to trap him.

The Germans did manage to bring

down twice Hero of the Soviet Union Lavrinenko. But while being transported to Berlin, he jumped out of a fast-moving train, made his way to Soviet partisans and returned to his base.

"Why do you want to model me?" inquired Lavrinenko. "I have only one Gold Star Medal so far."

A few days later Lavrinenko was awarded a second Gold Star Medal and he came to pose of his own accord. A somewhat gloomy countenance, firm jaw, raised eyebrows and grim, tightly-shut lips, compose the impressive sculptured portrait.

For six months Mikhail Olenin asked Lieutenant Nikolai Kharitonov to sit. At that time he had only one Order of Lenin and he refused because he felt he was not a hero. Finally the Command ordered Kharitonov to go to the sculptor's studio. Of course he obeyed. But he did not return on the following day. After staying away for two weeks he unexpectedly appeared. It seems that brought down by the Germans, he hid himself in a forest, and with the help of partisans rejoined his unit.

Nikolai Kharitonov is portrayed with many orders and medals, including the Gold Star which is the emblem of a Hero of the Soviet Union. He received all these awards during the time the sculptor was modeling him.

"Do you know," Olenin said to me smilingly, "all 28 aces I have sculptured came out of this diabolic war alive and unscathed. It is really fate."

In the Realm of Sports

By Stander



Radiophotos

The gods of soccer so willed it that the last game in the country's championship tournament between the Moscow Dynamo and the Central House of the Red Army—the two leaders—should bear no direct influence on the title. With its three-point lead, Dynamo simply could not be dislodged from the top. But other considerations made this encounter one of the most exciting of the season, and the 80,000 spectators who filled the Dynamo bowl certainly got their money's worth.

Both teams had something to gain. For the Dynamo the issue at stake was a new record in the history of Soviet soccer: to go undefeated through the championship tournament. The Army team, on the other hand, was out for blood. It had lost only one game and that to the Dynamo by a score of 1-4. This defeat had to be avenged at all costs even if it were no longer a question of the title.

The game started off with the Army on the offensive. The eleven was led into action by Grigori Fedotov, center forward, and as an old soccer fan I can testify that such stubborn defense or sweeping drives have seldom been seen. The Army booters went after every ball as though it were a matter of life and death. They held the upper hand from the outset and all attempts of the Dynamo eleven to capture the initiative were futile. Vassili Kartsev, Dynamo's main gunner, was definitely out of the running.

Fate was still favoring the champion. The best Army forwards fired away at the Dynamo goal post only to miss their mark by a narrow margin. At last Vsevolod Bobrov, Army right inside, managed to open the score. Bobrov, incidentally, is the hero of more than one game, and this goal was the 24th he has scored this season, a record figure for Soviet soccer.

During the second half the Army eleven continued to dominate. Time and again Dynamo tried to launch attacks, but they were at once scotched by their opponents' impenetrable defenses. Only on two occasions was the Army goal in any serious danger.

In the middle game Grigori Fedotov was disabled. For five minutes the Army team played without a substitute, hoping against hope their captain would come back. His place was taken by Ivan Shcherbakov who five minutes later drove home the second goal. Desperate efforts by Dynamo to score failed; the Army defenses were too strong. The final score was 2-0. The Dynamo team left the field with their only defeat of the season.

This moral victory gives the Army added strength and confidence for the coming USSR soccer cup play. Grigori Fedotov, who was on the sidelines during the last 20 minutes of this thrilling game, told your correspondent, "Should we chance to meet the Moscow Dynamo during the cup play, they had better watch out. It seems as though we have found the key to their invincibility."

Above left: The USSR cup final was won by the Army team, shown being acclaimed; right, A dynamo goalie saves a shot at the net. Below: N. Romanov, chairman of the sports committee, presents the cup to Honored Athlete G. Fedotov, captain of the Army eleven



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Soviet People Erase Scars

By L. Volodarsky

Head of the General Planning Department of the State Planning Commission

The amount of reconstruction and rehabilitation to be undertaken by the Soviet Union is colossal. The regions over which the Germans ruled for even a few months were left a shambles. In the occupied areas, all the power stations, the majority of factories and workshops, the mines and the railways were completely destroyed. Besides wrecking industry and agriculture, the barbarians blew up schools, hospitals and monuments to Russian art and culture. The destruction of the eleventh century cathedral of St. Sophia in Novgorod and of the homes of Leo Tolstoy, Tschaikovsky and Turgenev was typical German warfare.

The State Extraordinary Committee has estimated the loss at 679 billion rubles, including 31,850 industrial concerns, 84,000 schools and other educational establishments and 98,000 collective farms; 1,710 towns and over 70,000 villages were laid waste.

By wrecking the economy of the regions they occupied, the Nazis hoped to undermine the economic might of the Soviet Union. They believed that several decades would pass before the USSR would be able to restore all that had been lost. "It will take Russia 25 years to repair what we have destroyed," the Hitlerites wrote.

Not putting off the work of reconstruction, the Soviet people began the work in the liberated regions while the fighting was still going on.

A vast amount of labor and resources are going into the restoration of the Donets Basin, the chief fuel supply center of the USSR. In the Donets the Germans flooded mines, destroyed equipment and blew up all pithead installations. Fires raged underground. These great obstacles

had to be overcome, and the results are already to be seen in the hundreds of mines that are now working. Two hundred others are under repair. The first group of mines in the Basin that have been opened produce 71,000 tons of coal per day, which is substantially more than the amount produced by the whole area before the Revolution.

The iron and steel industries of the south are being successfully re-established. Month by month the output of the huge mills of Yenakiyevo, Mariupol and Kramatorsk increases. From the time of liberation up to the first of April, 1945—less than 18 months—the following concerns reopened in the Ukraine: 14 blast furnaces and 47 open-hearth furnaces, 38 rolling and tube-rolling mills, 63 coke

installations, 34 iron mines and 9 manganese mines. The Krasny Oktyabr iron and steel mill and the metal works in Stalingrad have been restored. The latter, completed while the war was still in progress, was an important contribution to the defeat of Germany. Today these enterprises are providing materials for restoration.

The work of the railwaymen is well known. During the war some 50,000 kilometers of track were repaired on the territory of the USSR. In foreign liberated countries 30,000 kilometers of railway and 16,000 bridges were repaired, as well as thousands of kilometers of subsidiary lines and telegraph installations. Everything was done in an unbelievably short time. Huge bridges across the Dnieper



STREETCAR CEMETERY—Workers of Orel rescue old cars thrown on the junk heap by the Hitlerites

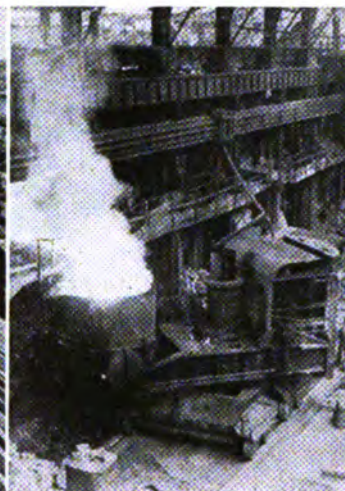
Foundations of Peace



MOGILEV



SEVASTOPOL

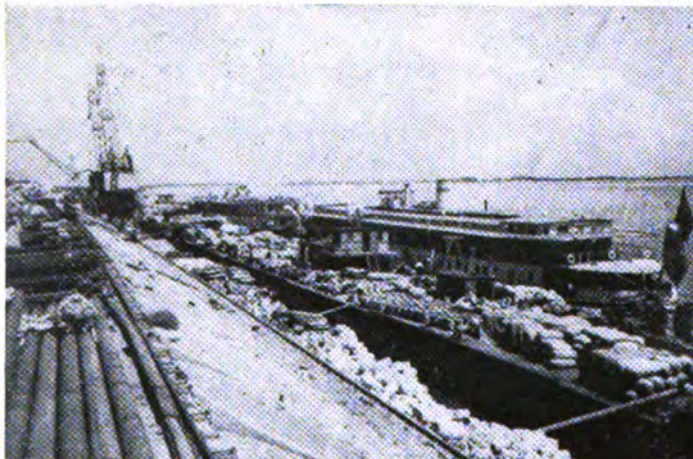


KALININ



SOCHI

In the cities of the Soviet Union the sound of battle has been replaced by the rhythm of reconstruction



The wharf at Stalingrad receives a constant stream of supplies to help the city resume its former beauty and importance; (right) Residents of Kursk remove rubble to be ready for the builders



The walls of a house in Kalinin are laid expertly by emergency crews of women; (right) Students of the town of Stalino in the Donets Basin volunteered to clear the streets

were rebuilt at a speed of 70 to 80 meters a day.

The Soviet people are building and they submit to no difficulty. Dozens of engineering works have been completed and are turning out their normal production. The Stalingrad tractor plant has produced hundreds of machines. At Kharkov the turbine plant has repaired assemblies for power stations. Machine tools are being made in the rebuilt factories. Engineering plants, once more put in operation, are themselves helping other branches of the national economy in the regions that endured enemy occupation.

The power supply systems of the liberated regions are beginning to function again. Over 40 district stations now re-

built are producing current, among them the big stations of Sterovka, Zuevka and others. Day and night the work is continued to recreate the gigantic Dnieper hydroelectric station; very soon this huge project will supply current to factories, mines, houses, schools and farms.

The restoration of the consumers' goods industry is considered of paramount importance. Some 2,000 food-processing and packing plants have been repaired, and hundreds of clothing and footwear factories are again working.

The countryside is reviving. In the Ukraine at the beginning of 1945, 47,807 tractors and 14,930 combine harvesters were working in the fields. The overhauling of dairy farms has been achieved.

Everything is being done to bring a normal life to these people liberated from fascist slavery. Millions have moved out of dugouts and bunkers into new houses, but so great was the destruction caused by the Germans that there are still many people without homes. The thousands of schools, clubs and hospitals are only the beginning. The towns the Germans destroyed—Stalingrad, Smolensk, Odessa, Minsk, Vilno and Kiev—emerge as vital forces.

There is still a great deal to be done to bring the economy of the nation to its prewar level. Now that the war has ended in victory and our people can work in peace, restoration will go forward at an accelerated pace.

NEW PROSPECTS FOR RUBBER

By N. Nikolayev

What promises to be a revolutionizing chapter in the cultivation of natural rubber in the Soviet Union has been opened on the collective farms in the Kiev Region. The fields of the kok-sagyz plant, the Central Asian cousin of the common dandelion, are expected this year to yield almost as much rubber per hectare as the tropical tree (*Hevea Brasiliensis*) which is the principal source of the world's supply of crude rubber.

That the roots of the kok-sagyz contain rubber has been known since 1932 when the plant was found growing wild in the Tien Shan Mountains. But cultivation involved much labor and the yields were uncertain. Several years ago Ivan Kolesnikov, an ex-schoolteacher, now a prominent geneticist, tackled the problem and came up with a method of increasing the yield. His method promises to make this cold- and disease-resistant plant a strong competitor of the tropical rubber tree.

In its wild state the kok-sagyz was sturdy enough but when cultivated it became highly capricious. It would yield as much as ten tons of roots per hectare on one plantation, and for unknown reasons perish completely on a nearby plantation. The average yield for farms in Central Asia, Byelorussia and the Ukraine on which it was cultivated (there were 5,000 hectares in 1936 and 16,000 the following year) was very low.

To obtain a good yield each plant had to be carefully tended. This involved the colossal expenditure of 400 man days for a crop of seven and a half tons of roots per hectare.

Today one-tenth as much labor is needed. The rubber-bearing roots are much heavier. For the first time 100 per cent of the seeds planted sprouted.

The method by which Ivan Kolesnikov and his co-workers achieved all this is amazingly simple. So simple, in fact, that there is only one explanation for its having been overlooked; it runs counter to all rules of agronomy.

On the advice of Academician Trofim D. Lysenko, the famous scientist, Kolesnikov made a trip to the Tien Shans to study the kok-sagyz in its natural habitat. His observations enabled him to work out a novel method of planting seeds in conditions closely resembling those in nature.

In 1943 he set up field experiments in the Vladimir Region of Central Russia. Personally supervising the sowing and cultivation, he obtained a greater number of sprouts and succeeded in growing larger roots. Getting the seeds to sprout had been one of the key problems in kok-sagyz cultivation.

The initial results of the novel method were more than satisfactory. To convince himself that they were no accident, Kolesnikov planted the seed on a wasteland.

Again it took root well and produced an unusually high crop.

When his native Ukraine was liberated, Kolesnikov returned to continue his experimental and applied research. He does not doubt that the plantation harvest this autumn will further prove his method.

When the kok-sagyz area is extended next spring, farming it will be much easier. Machines will be used throughout, beginning with the sowing and ending with the harvesting. Special seeders already have been designed.

With his work on the kok-sagyz, Ivan Kolesnikov continues the impressive achievements of the past decade which earned him the Stalin Prize, the Order of the Red Banner and the large Gold Medal of the prewar All-Union Agricultural Exhibition. He is known for his methods of cotton plant pruning, combating pests, rapid-growing shelter belts and intervarietal crossing.

An interesting fact about Kolesnikov's scientific career is the fact that he launched on it when he was already an adult with an established position. He was teaching in a rural school when he decided to take a correspondence course in an agricultural college. He graduated in 1936 and most of his time is spent not in his study or laboratory but in the fields, for his motto is, "The scientist must be where the fate of the crop is being decided."

How We Organize Our Economic Planning

By A. Fineberg



Assembly shop of the Ordzhonikidze machine-building plant in Sverdlovsk

Since 1928, the initial year of the first of the three Five-Year Plans, the Soviet Union has been converted from an agricultural country into one of the world's foremost industrial powers.

In those fifteen years hundreds of billions of rubles were invested in the national economy. Thousands of modern mills and factories were built, mines were sunk, railways laid, rivers harnessed, power stations erected, and sea and river ports opened.

Instead of being concentrated in a few limited areas, chiefly in the north, center and south of European Russia, as it was in tsarist times, industry is now distributed all over the Soviet Union, including Siberia and the Soviet Republics of Central Asia, once so backward.

State Ownership and Gosplan

This vast expansion proceeded not haphazardly, but strictly according to plan. The program of capital development is an integral part of national-economic planning in the Soviet Union.

Such a program is practicable because not only all the land, but all the industries

of the USSR, except for cooperatively-run establishments, are owned by the State. The country is therefore able to develop in accordance with its needs, making full use of resources.

For practical purposes, the various branches of industry are administered by Government departments, or People's Commissariats; for example, the People's Commissariats of the Iron and Steel Industry, of the Chemical Industry, the Textile Industry, the Railways, of Heavy, Medium and General Machine-Building, of Electric Power Stations, and so on.

Each People's Commissariat, besides operating its particular branch, provides for enlarging its existing plants and erecting new ones.

But in planning capital developments, the People's Commissariats are not independent or autonomous. If they were, the national economy might be thrown out of balance, with certain branches of industry expanded at the expense of others and to the detriment of the whole.

Plans for industrial development, like the national-economic plan as a whole, are coordinated by the Govern-

ment through the State Planning Commission, known as Gosplan.

In drafting their plans for the coming year the People's Commissariats are guided by the long-term plan for the development of the national economy, drawn up by Gosplan and sanctioned by the Government and legislature. The long-term or "perspective" plan usually covers a period of five years, though before the war a fifteen-year plan was being worked out.

Function of Commissariats

The perspective plan is directional, not operational. It gives a general outline for the development of whole sections of industry over a given period of years, without going into great detail or earmarking funds and materials.

The operational plans are the yearly and quarterly plans. They originate in the People's Commissariats. Each industrial enterprise, besides its production plan, draws up an annual plan of capital expansion (erection of new shops, acquisition of new plant and machinery, building of houses for employees and so on), and submits it to the appropriate board of its People's Commissariat. The boards, which administer the various sub-branches of a particular industry, examine these plans, amending, adding to or rejecting them as they deem fit, and collate them into a general plan, which also provides for the building of entirely new plants.

The plans drawn up by the boards of each People's Commissariat are then integrated into a general plan for the whole Commissariat, and submitted to Gosplan.

The vast, complex task of compiling the grand plan of capital development on a countrywide scale for the coming year is done by Gosplan.

Gosplan is guided first by the perspective plan and the special instructions of the Government, next by its knowledge of the progress of each industry and its needs, as well as of the country's available and prospective financial resources, supplies of materials, machinery and manpower. Naturally, in compiling the current annual plan, the perspective plan

is modified to suit the actual state of affairs and to meet any new needs which may have arisen.

An essential feature of Soviet planning is the determination of the location of new factories, railways, power stations and other industrial enterprises, for on the proper placing of these enterprises depends the rational and efficient development of the national resources.

The national plan of capital development, as finally coordinated by Gosplan, is submitted to the Government for endorsement, after which Gosplan sends the approved plan of development to each People's Commissariat. The Commissariats in turn present the plans to their boards, and the boards direct them to the individual enterprises or capital development departments.

The plan indicates the volume and cost of capital construction (including the acquisition and installation of machinery) to be undertaken by each branch of industry and by each large construction job in the ensuing year; it states where the new factories, railways, mines, etc., are to be constructed, what the work is to cost, and what plants or sections of plants are to be completed and put into operation in the given period.

For greater convenience, each annual plan of capital development is divided into quarterly ones, each of which, after the first, is subject to modification in accordance with the progress made in the early part of the year.

Industrial Construction

Every industrial and transport People's Commissariat has its capital development department, whose business it is to see that the plan of development endorsed by the Government is carried out. It has under its control building-construction organizations and machine-installing organizations, with appropriate staffs of engineers and skilled workers.

A People's Commissariat may either undertake its building jobs itself through its own building organizations, or else contract the work out to the "trusts" of the People's Commissariat of the Building Industry, which specializes in all branches of industrial construction.

But the functions of the People's Commissariat of the Building Industry are

wider. It exercises technical control of all industrial building in the Soviet Union by establishing and endorsing construction standards. It works out standard designs for industrial structures. Its trusts hire out building machinery and transport facilities and also manufacture materials and parts.

The chief producer of building materials and maker of standard prefabricated components, however, is the People's Commissariat of Building Materials.

Financing of Capital Development

Since the industries of the Soviet Union are State-owned, their profits are State revenue. They are credited to the Treasury through the Industrial Bank (Prombank), and constitute a fund for the further development of the economy. Amortization of existing industrial structures and plant is a first cost on production, and is recovered by an increase in the selling price of the products. This too is paid into the Treasury through Prombank, and is earmarked for industrial renewal and expansion.

These funds are supplemented, if necessary, from other sources of Government revenue. The appropriations for capital development are made in the annual State budget, itemized for each of the People's Commissariats, in accordance with the plan of capital construction endorsed by the Government. The funds are credited, quarter by quarter

and month by month, to the accounts of the People's Commissariats and Prombank.

Prombank handles all the financial and banking transactions connected with industrial building in the USSR. Founded in 1922, and known originally as the Trade and Industrial Bank, it is today a vast organization with offices, branches and sub-branches all over the Soviet Union—in fact, wherever industrial construction is being carried on—and that is in practically every corner of a country which embraces one-sixth of the territory of the globe.

Like all the banks of the Soviet Union, Prombank is endowed with wide powers of supervision and control. It is, so to speak, trustee and guardian of the national-economic plan, as far as capital development is concerned. It was Lenin who first insisted on this function of the banks in a planned society.

As I have said, all that part of the proceeds of industry and transport which is earmarked for capital development is paid into the exchequer through Prombank. Through it, too, pass Government appropriations for capital development.

The capital development departments of all the industrial and transport People's Commissariats keep their accounts with this bank, as do all building-contracting, machinery installing and geological survey organizations.

Thus every payment and settlement



Loading cotton on the Vakhsh State farm (Tajik SSR)

connected with capital investment is transacted through this one bank, which is at one and the same time a vast clearing-machine and a faithful reflector of the state of industrial development in all its aspects throughout the USSR.

All construction organizations have their own working capital in the form of machinery, stocks of material and working funds adequate for the performance of a given volume of work. The Government appropriations are paid by Prombank at stated periods for work actually performed in accordance with the plan. Hence, if a construction organization tends to waste funds in building up excessive stocks of machinery and materials, it very soon finds itself in financial straits, and Prombank will bring pressure to bear to correct this.

The diversion of funds to purposes not envisaged in the current plan of cap-

ital development will also automatically put an enterprise into financial difficulties and cause the bank to intervene. The bank by this means enforces what we know in the USSR as "plan discipline" and "financial discipline."

Similar automatic signals direct attention to other irregularities. For example, the plan lays down the estimated cost of each item of construction work, which can be adhered to only if materials are acquired at Government fixed prices, if labor power is not used wastefully and if overheads are kept within reason.

Application to the bank for funds in excess of the physical volume of work actually performed will indicate that these provisions have not been complied with, and the bank will exercise its disciplinary powers. This is known in our country as "estimate discipline."

Prombank's powers of control are cor-

respondingly wide. Without interfering in the actual management of the construction job, it may investigate the building site, estimate the volume and cost of work actually performed, have inventories made of stocks of material and machinery, and examine all books, invoices and other documents. It reports any irregularities to the People's Commissariat concerned, or to the Government, and if necessary exercises financial pressure to have them corrected.

It will be seen that the role of Prombank as an instrument of planned economy is a very important one. Prombank is the sentinel of the public interest. Upon it largely depends the effectual, economical and orderly utilization of the huge national investment in capital expansion.

Its powers were reaffirmed and reinforced in 1938 by a decree of the Council of People's Commissars.

IN VANQUISHED JAPAN—Part I. A Country After War

By Nikolai Bogdanov

From Krasnaya Zvezda:

The fog and snowstorm in the mountains of Japan were followed by torrential rain. When our airplane landed, a crowd of American airmen and paratroopers expressed admiration for the skill of our pilots. The Soviet plane was the only one that had landed on the airfield that day.

Our trip to the capital took us past Japanese villages lining a tortuous road. The landscape reminded us of our own Transcaucasus. At times it was like traveling in the region of the Green Cape near Batumi.

But what a difference in the way of life! During the entire trip we did not see a single horse or cow or agricultural machine. Peasants in rags with mattocks in their hands gazed at us with curiosity. We saw shabbily dressed old women carrying water in wooden pails and old men with cane baskets on their backs. Here and there we saw peasants in costumes of a thousand years ago—straw hats and raincoats made of rice straw.

We were coming nearer to the capital. It is said that prewar Tokyo had a population of over 6 million and was one of

the largest and most populated cities in the world. Our guides assured us that we were already there, that we were actually driving through the streets of the city. But we saw no Tokyo—only empty lots, russet in color, on both sides of the road; traces of fires, but no ruins. On close scrutiny we could see that we were driving over the asphalt pavement. We were overtaking streetcars, but there was no habitation anywhere in sight.

Thus we drove for kilometer after kilometer through the streets of a non-existent city. It was strange to see the driver turning, now to the right, now to the left, apparently following the pattern of former streets and squares. Then we came to what must have once been the business section of the city. On both sides stood hundreds of charred fireproof safes. They stood there like memorials of doom of the small Japanese merchant class. It seems that the owner of even a small store made it a point to possess a fireproof safe in which to keep his valuables and money. Now a vast fire has wiped out his store made of wood, cardboard and bamboo, leaving only the safe. The safes became ever more numerous as we ap-

proached the center of the city. Some lay on their side, having dropped from upper stories. Skeletons of burned streetcars and automobiles also became more frequent.

The capital of the samurai was once destroyed by fire. That was during the earthquake of 1923. Tokyo was a storehouse of inflammable materials. The Americans knew it and dropped small incendiary bombs. The wind did the rest, and several fires merged into one huge conflagration. Thus everything that was Japanese in Tokyo, the bamboo, plywood and cardboard went up in flames.

The fire and typhoon wiped out bustling business sections, tea houses and ancient temples. But the backbone of the city remained intact. The sewers, water supply and electric system escaped. The European-style buildings—banks, ministries and embassies—are intact. Life in Tokyo as the center from which war and industry were directed could go on despite the sufferings of the population. All the main industrial plants in Tokyo survived. There are the motor works of the Mitsui concern and the assembly plants of Mitsubishi. Likewise, almost all metal plants survived.

We have seen these plants with their numerous new machine tools now standing idle because of the shortage of raw materials which formerly came from Manchuria.

The incendiaries dropped on Tokyo were like a firebrand thrown into a pile of wood shavings saturated with oil. Among the buildings that went up in flames was the Emperor's palace in which he held receptions. The one in which he resides remained intact. It is separated from the city by sacred ponds, high walls and a broad area of gardens and parks. Once a beautiful spot, now it is disfigured by hastily dug trenches and bomb shelters. The traces of war are everywhere in evidence. There are stone pedestals without monuments—the latter reduced to their metal. All gridded iron fences, all iron railings on bridges are gone. From the European-style houses even the central heating pipes were removed and smelted to produce shells.

Japanese motorcars are seen driving over the battered central section of Tokyo. The ministries before which they stop have only broken windows. The once elegant cars are unsightly now. Because of the shortage of gasoline, the Japanese converted their motors to solid fuels. Clumsy wood or coal-burning stoves have been installed in the luggage compartments at the back of the cars and gas pipes run right over the tops, giving the cars a very strange appearance. They look more like porcupines. They run slowly by fits and starts. When one car stops another pushes it until it gets started again.

The people are obviously in a bad plight. Starvation has long been rife. It is impossible to get supper—for any money. The yen is worth nothing and the black market is run mainly on a barter system. Newspapers teem with advertisements such as: "Exchanging suit for food," "Exchanging shoes for canned goods."

A Japanese intellectual in European clothing and glasses rummaging in a garbage can near the American soldiers' kitchens is quite an ordinary sight in Tokyo today.

Starvation is prevalent in other cities as well. All through the war Japan never managed to organize a regular supply of food to the population. Although the peasants had to give up all their food-



stocks, the latter did not reach the urban population.

Nor could it be otherwise. The purchase and distribution of food products was in the hands of private companies operating on contract. Under that system no control could curb the speculation and profiteering of the private businessman who waxed rich because the population starved. The profiteers organized their own underground stock companies. Attempts to expose and liquidate such companies proved futile. The cases were quashed because the threads of such organizations led to the highest ruling circles.

The situation was no better in manufactured goods. In Japan, the country of silk, you cannot get a few meters of silk fabric for any money in the world. When Japan entered the war the production of silk fabrics for the population was discontinued. The entire silk and textiles industry was converted to war production. Small wonder, therefore, that the throngs in Japanese cities lost their exotic, colorful appearance. The war reduced all to green and khaki. Most of the Japanese men, from the aged to mere boys, wear soldiers' outfits and puttees and soldiers' rubber slippers on their feet. Men dressed in European clothes are barefoot. All

women wear trousers. The wearing of kimonos, it seems, was forbidden by the Emperor himself. They were very inconvenient for putting out fires or digging.

Tokyo has a fairly large population today, too, estimated at two million. They live in hovels, amid ashes and ruins. Here and there the people have collected charred sheet iron and have built shacks out of them. They write their names in Japanese characters and sometimes even put up paper lanterns so as not to miss their dwellings at night. In front of these hovels women squat before fires to cook the food. You get the impression of a people turned primitive.

How did the Japanese government help the burned-out people whom it had promised world conquest, but actually brought to utter poverty? We have been told that after Yokohama, like Tokyo, was destroyed by fire, representatives of the municipality visited the ruins. They brought with them a blossoming chrysanthemum in a flowerpot, put it on an elevated stand and told the people to bow to that flower. That was "moral support." There was scarcely any more concrete aid, except perhaps that the starving people were removed to the villages, where they led a wretched existence.

High-Altitude Parachute Record



Major Romanuk (right) with Pilot Lieutenant Colonel Proshakov before the take-off for a jump from 12,800 meters

The story of bailing out at 12,800 meters and dropping for 12 kilometers without opening his chute is told by Major V. Romanuk, who made the record descent.

My last jump was the final step of 11 years' experience in parachute jumping. Special training for this record jump was confined to several ascents to a height of 12 kilometers in a barochamber. The main training came from years of experience and particularly the jumping I did during the years of the war to test new parachutes and instruments. I made about 500 such jumps. Altogether I tested over a hundred Soviet, and many foreign, chutes. To determine the safest way of bailing out from various types of aircraft, I made trial jumps—from a spiral, during a loop, while gliding and banking, and also when the machine flew wheels up. But I devoted the most attention to the more difficult descents from speed machines. Five years ago I jumped at 10,000 meters with the chute unopened for the better part of the drop. During the war I made many other similar jumps.

Perfecting my technique helped me not only to train my body, but also my will.

While testing a device this winter, I suddenly discovered that the parachute would not open. I pulled the ripcord of the reserve chute and again encountered trouble. One of the shrouds was preventing the normal filling out of the "umbrella," with the result that I was descend-

ing at double the usual speed. The danger was only too evident, but accustomed to all kinds of accidents, I kept a cool head and by pulling on the shrouds was able to set things right and make a safe landing.

One object during this last record parachute jump was to see whether man could control his body and sub-

ordinate its movements to the will of mind.

The first difficulty was in scrambling out of the cabin. This was an exceptionally arduous task, for in addition to a fur-lined flying suit and heavy dogskin boots, I had two chutes strapped on, two oxygen masks and two barographs. All that made my total weight over 120 kilograms. In rarefied atmosphere at high altitudes every slight movement demands great effort and I had to be quick, for the oxygen mask operates only for as many minutes as is necessary for the descent, and the oxygen supply might be spent if the jump were delayed. I foresaw this eventuality on the ground and was so well trained for hauling my body from the cabin in "full uniform" that I accomplished the feat with not too great an effort. Rolling over the side, I began my fall head down.

This unretarded descent continued for 250 seconds! In four minutes I had dropped 12 kilometers. One of the barographs I wore plotted the fall graphically. From 12,800 meters stretched a thin zig-zag line implying that the drop was disorderly, that I was being hurled about and twisted. Then the line straightened out, which meant that the descent was orderly. A sloping even line showed the concluding stage when the chute unfolded.

At first I made no attempt to control the fall. I did not want to waste energy. But after a flight of several kilometers I tried to give my body some sort of

equilibrium. And I succeeded. At this point I had practically the same feeling as a swimmer in water. The air seemed to acquire density and the position of my body was regulated by the movement of my arms and legs, as if by a rudder.

This was due to the speed of the fall which was then so great that by calculating every movement, I was able to control the drop until the time when the automatic device of engineer Savichev opened the chute at the designated height of 800 meters. Landing presented no difficulty.

The establishment of a record was my aim. I had the additional task of testing the oxygen mask, which proved satisfactory for jumping from high altitudes. I was also interested in again testing the possibility of body control through space for any length of time. My jump once more confirmed the fact that for a trained man this was quite feasible. And finally, the examining physicians—Bondarenko and Yakovleva—were interested in the behavior of my organs of hearing. They feared that the speed of the fall and the increased pressure that it entailed would painfully affect my hearing. But I took no other precaution than to stuff my ears. A trained and healthy body evidently has no difficulty in adapting to the exertion of such a jump.

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Major Criminals Before the Court of the Peoples

By K. Gorshenin

Procurator for the USSR

From IZVESTIA, October 20:

The indictment in the forthcoming trial of the major war criminals by the International Military Tribunal was simultaneously published yesterday in the four Allied countries; the USSR, Great Britain, the United States and France.

The warmongers, the instigators of the extermination of peoples, the murderers of women, children and old people, the butchers of culture and progress, are to be tried by the stern court of the people and suffer fitting punishment for their monstrous misdeeds.

The offscourings of humanity who fancied themselves supermen of a master race, fired with the insensate ambition of bringing the whole world under their subjection, have run their course and are now to be called to justice.

German-fascism's sanguinary adventure ended in complete fiasco. The heroic Red Army and the Armies of our Allies brought Hitler Germany to her knees.

The indictment is precisely framed in the juridical document. It enumerates the crimes perpetrated by the accused as established by investigation. It cites facts and figures. It defines the crimes in legal terms. And what an appalling catalog it is!

Besides giving a general formulation of the crimes, the indictment fixes the guilt of each accused and of whole groups and organizations.

The accused were the prominent leaders of Nazi Germany who together with the cannibal Hitler instigated, plotted, incited and abetted the staggering crimes.

These people are bereft of honor and conscience. Having seized power in Ger-

many and established a regime of tyranny and terrorism, they bent everything to the purposes of aggression against the freedom-loving nations.

From the moment of its inception the Nazi party was the rallying ground of the most jingoistic and imperialistic elements in Germany.

After seizing power in Germany in 1933, the Hitlerites proceeded to carry out their conspiracy against the world, against the peoples of the democracies. They resorted to perfidy, deceit, threats,

blackmail and corruption; they sent their secret agents into other countries and formed fifth columns within them to stab in the back freedom-loving peoples.

Having ruthlessly suppressed all the democratic elements inside Germany, the Nazis undertook aggressive action against Austria and Czechoslovakia.

Hitler invaded Austria on March 12, 1938. The next day he proclaimed himself the head of the Austrian state and annexed it to Germany. On October 1, 1938, the German troops occupied the Sudeten



ESTABLISHING AN INTERNATIONAL MILITARY TRIBUNAL—The agreement for the trial of major war criminals is signed in London. From the left: J. T. Nikitchenko, Vice President of the Supreme Court of the USSR; Lord Jowitt, Lord Chancellor of the United Kingdom; Associate Justice Robert H. Jackson of the Supreme Court of the United States

region and in March 1939 all of Czechoslovakia fell victim to fascist aggression.

Springboards

The seizure of Austria and Czechoslovakia was to serve the fascist beast as a springboard for another gigantic leap.

The next act of German aggression was an attack on Poland. Progressively clearing the way for the establishment of her dominion in Europe, Hitler Germany in April 1940 invaded Denmark and Norway; in May of the same year, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxemburg; then France and in April 1941, Yugoslavia and Greece.

Intoxicated by their easy victories in the West, the Nazi leaders decided to realize their long-cherished dream of sub-



Family of collective farmers from Kursk Region huddle before a fire in front of their home destroyed by the Germans

jugating the peoples of the Soviet Union and converting that country into a colony of Germany. They secretly massed thoroughly equipped armies on the Soviet border, and treacherously violating the pact of non-aggression, piratically and without a declaration of war, attacked the Soviet Union on June 22, 1941.

In pursuance of their imperialist designs, Germany, Italy and Japan formed the Axis bloc against the whole world. Japan took advantage of the war in Europe, and in December 1941 attacked Pearl Harbor and the Philippines, as well as British territory, French Indo-China and Dutch possessions in the Southwest Pacific. In that same month Germany went

to war with the United States.

Aggressors Must Answer

The leaders of Hitler Germany will now have to answer before the International Military Tribunal for preparing and starting an aggressive war, for treacherously violating international treaties and for their rapacious imperialist policy toward freedom-loving nations.

In furtherance of their piratical scheme of enslaving nations and establishing their "new order," the fascist aggressors resorted to methods before which the horrors of the Middle Ages pale.

Stalin in his address to the Moscow Soviet on November 6, 1941, disclosed the true nature of "National Socialism."

He showed that the Nazi party was a party of imperialists, the most rapacious and bestial imperialists in the world. He revealed the party in its true light as the party of the most rabid foes of democratic liberties, as a party of medieval reactionaries and black-hooded ruffians.

The Nazis did not shrink from the idea of exterminating whole nations in the execution of their programs of world conquest. Hitler declared: "We must resort to every means to bring about the conquest of the world by the Germans. If our hearts are set on establishing our great German Reich, we must above all things force out and exterminate the Slavonic nations—the Russians Poles, Czechs, Slovaks, Bulgarians, Ukrainians and Byelorussians. There is no reason why this should not be done."

Hitler's coadjutors, leaders of the Nazi party, organized and incited the Germans to murder, violence and robbery in the occupied countries and established the bloody regime they called the "new order."

The indictment reconstructs a grim picture of the atrocities perpetrated by the Nazis toward war prisoners.

Although Germany was a signatory to international conventions which prescribe humane treatment of war prisoners German soldiers and officials at the direct orders of their leaders systematically tortured and killed prisoners-of-war and established an intolerable regime in camps, as a result of which hundreds of thousands of soldiers and officers of the Allied armies perished.

The Soviet people demand retribution for the tens of thousands of Soviet war prisoners tortured and slaughtered in Gross Lazaret in Slavut, for the poisoning, shooting and starvation of Red Army soldiers and officers in Orel and other places, and for the torture and massacre of war prisoners in German death camps.

Nazi Amusement

In pursuit of their policy of exterminating or enslaving the Slav and other nations, the Nazi fiends shot or hanged millions of innocent people, asphyxiated them in gas wagons, buried them alive, set fire to houses and huts with living beings in them, transfixed children with bayonets in sight of their parents, subjected their victims to gruesome tortures and violated women.

Millions of civilians were herded into camps where the Germans subjected them to the torments of starvation and cold, infected them with typhus and other diseases, loosened hounds on them, performed painful "scientific experiments" and shot and tortured them without reason just for amusement.

The Nazi fiends created special death camps where the prisoners after being done to death in diverse ways were cremated in specially designed furnaces. Nearly five and one-half million citizens of the USSR, Poland, America, Great Britain, Czechoslovakia, France and other countries were annihilated in the gigantic death camps of Oswiecim and Maidanek.

Most fiendish of all were the atrocities perpetrated by the Nazis in the occupied regions of the Soviet Union.

In Lvov and Lvov Region they murdered nearly 700,000 Soviet citizens. They shot or otherwise did to death 135,000 Jews in the ghetto between September 1941 and July 6, 1943. They exterminated hundreds of thousands of civilians in Yanov camp.

None but the bestial and inhuman Nazis were capable of such cruelties as freezing human beings solid in barrels of water, shooting prisoners wholesale to the accompaniment of music played by an orchestra of prisoners who were awaiting a similar fate.

Over 135,000 Soviet citizens were exterminated in Smolensk Region. More than 100,000 men, women and children were shot in Babi Yar ravine outside of Kiev.

Wherever the German invaders set foot, they drenched the earth with blood.

Millions of Soviet citizens were carried off to Germany and there made slaves.

The Nazi slave-owning moguls condemned millions of people to serfdom, branded them, made them wear identification numbers and treated them as prisoners. Unrestrained tyranny by the manufacturers, landowners and farmers and torture, brutal exploitation and starvation brought about the deaths of hundreds of thousands of human beings.

The German aggressors deliberately set about to efface the national features of the peoples they had enslaved: they destroyed cultural treasures, defiled national shrines and wrecked and pillaged churches, monasteries and synagogues.

They wantonly destroyed many thousands of cities and villages. They destroyed vast material values and appropriated and removed to Germany public and private property on a huge scale. The Soviet Extraordinary Committee estimates the damage done by the Germans to the national economy of the Soviet Union to

amount to 679 billion rubles in Government prices of 1941.

The men chiefly responsible for all these bloody crimes now have been turned over to the International Military Tribunal. The people have not forgotten their villainies.

The "Leaders"

There is Herman Goering. It was he who called, "Kill everyone who is opposed to us. Kill, kill! Not you will answer for this but I. Hence, kill!"

It was he who signed the order introducing the axe in Germany as an instrument of execution. It was he who proudly declared that his business was to "annihilate and exterminate, nothing more."

Second only to Hitler in rank, Goering ordered massacre, violence and destruction.

In the list of accused is the name of Ribbentrop, international swindler, Hitler's adviser on foreign affairs, wine merchant and spy, one of the prominent leaders of the Nazi party and of the German government. All his activities were dedicated to furthering its piratical policy which he helped to frame and carry out. He, like Goering, bears full responsibility for all the atrocious crimes of the Nazis.

The blame is also shared by the Fuehrer's deputy in the leadership of the Nazi party, Rudolph Hess, one of the grimmest of the sinister gang of major war criminals.

There are Butcher Kaltenbrunner, Himmler's deputy; Robert Ley, leader of the "Labor Front," strangler of trade unions and rabid anti-Semite [Ley's suicide was reported October 24]; Rosenberg,

Nazi "theoritarian" and spy, head of the foreign policy department of the Nazi party and Hitler's Viceroy in the East; Frank, Nazi "legal authority," ex-president of the Academy of Law, butcher of the Polish people and instigator of monstrous villainies in Nazi concentration camps; Beldur Von Schirach, Hitler's lackey and butcher who established the "new order" in Austria; Bormann, manager of the Nazi party, Hitler's personal secretary and one of his closest adjutants; the bloody satraps Sauckel; Seyss-Inquart, Frick, and Neurath; Von Papen, masher, spy and Nazi diplomat who paved the path to power for Hitler when he was Reichschancellor; Fritsche, chief editor of the German radio service, home press and official press agency; Streicher, chief editor of the anti-Semitic *Der Stuermer*; Speer, general plenipotentiary on armaments; Funk, Hitler's economic adviser; Krupp and Schact, representatives of German big industry who helped Hitler to come to power and who armed the piratical Nazi hordes.

A special place among the accused is held by the leaders of the German High Command, Field Marshal Keitel, Colonel General Jodl, Grand Admiral Raeder and the last head of the German Nazi government, Doenitz.

Stalin said in 1942: "Let these butchers know that they will not escape responsibility for their crimes or elude the hand of retribution of the tormented nations."

The sword of wrath of the people has been raised over the heads of the major culprits guilty of these monstrous crimes.

Let justice be done.



RESTORATION—Inhabitants of Orel restoring the Diesel in their city's electric power station; (right) one of the restored shops of the Kalinin train-car building works

Work and Rest in the



The Challenge Red Banner of the State Committee of Defense has been awarded to the Krasny Proletary Machine Tool Plant for the sixteenth successive month. Above is a view of the assembly department where machine tools are assembled on the continuous-stream conveyor line.



Despite the fact that everyone at the plant works eight hours a day, the workers, and the youth in particular, are eager to continue their education in the evening schools which have been opened for them at the plant. Left above, Mark Tarasov, a fitter, solves a mathematical problem on the blackboard: (right) Dancing at the club on Sunday. Workers, young and old, spend their leisure time at the club of the plant. Concerts, plays, cinema shows and dancing programs are held here every day

Industries of the Soviet Union



TRACTOR WORKS—A. Domunkov a veteran worker who has returned to the destroyed Stalingrad plant to undertake restoration work. He is a skilled grinding-machine operator and also trains apprentices. Right, a youth production crew assembles motors. This brigade regularly doubles its daily quota



Every shop has a medical station to give first aid and to supervise sanitary and hygienic conditions. In addition there is a polyclinic to take care of the health of the workers. All these medical institutions have been set up with funds allocated by the State for social insurance. State appropriations for social insurance are handled by the local committees of the trade unions. A considerable part of these funds is used for the maintenance of nurseries and kindergartens on the grounds of the plant, making it possible for parents to see their children during rest periods.

Left center, here a nurse is dressing a patient's hand

Right center, the kindergarten teacher shown with the young pupils is Seraphima Borodkins, wife of a designing engineer

Bottom right, this is a section of the designing department of a large plant. Women are among the best workers



IN VANQUISHED JAPAN—Part II. Failure of the Kamikaze

By Nikolai Bogdanov

From KRASNAYA ZVEZDA:

In certain respects Japan resembles Germany. Here, too, everything was subordinated to preparations for war. The steel smelted in Japan cost three times as much as the imported product. "No matter how expensive, the sword will pay for itself," says an old proverb of the samurai.

The entire national income derived from the sale of silk was devoured by the steel Moloch. The peasantry oppressed by the landlords supplied the cheapest labor in the world. The children and girls sold by their parents to factories enabled the Japanese to dump the cheapest textiles on the world markets. The profits from this dumping also went to cover the cost of armaments.

When the war flared up in Europe, Japanese militarists decided that their day had come.

By a surprise attack, without a declaration of war, the Japanese put out of commission many ships of the American Pacific Fleet at Pearl Harbor and set out to overrun the countries of the South Seas, practically with impunity. A protracted and strenuous struggle began. As a result of the joint efforts of the great Allied powers, Japan has been forced to her knees.

In the company of an American colonel we examined Japanese coastal fortifications built to beat back an invasion. We saw the caves which harbored the "human torpedoes," ready for attack upon landing boats and warships. One such torpedo with a suicide pilot could sink a battleship, said the American colonel as he pointed out the cigar-shaped contrivances guarded by American soldiers.

"Do you think the Japanese seriously prepared to resist an invasion?" we asked.

The colonel replied in the affirmative, and said that the landings would not have proceeded so smoothly if the Japanese had chosen to resist.

From further conversations we gathered how the Japanese had prepared for the last decisive engagement.

The entire organization of resistance was named after a sacred wind—the *Kamikaze*.

Seven hundred years ago the mighty armada of Khubla Khan, grandson of Genghis Khan, appeared at the shores of Japan. Fear gripped the country. There seemed no hope in the face of the unnumbered Mongolian host. The samurai grew dejected. But a typhoon saved the situation. In a few hours it scattered and sank the ships of the invaders. That event was represented as a manifestation of divine favor in the shape of a "sacred wind."

In the recent war the Japanese did not put their faith in a repetition of a miracle but set out to create an organization of sons of the sacred wind—the *Kamikaze*.

Aware of Japan's weakness in armaments and economy as compared with those of the great powers, the Japanese militarists relied a great deal on treacherous methods of warfare, on surprise attacks and on the fanaticism of their soldiers. The school, family and religion all were part of the training of the bellicose fanatics. Wide use was made of ancestor-worship. Every faithful Japanese is convinced that by his good deeds he can bring his forebears heavenly bliss, while his sins may plunge them into darkness. Heroic death came to be regarded as the highest religious feat, and cowardice, surrender, and betrayal as the blackest sin. On earth those guilty of transgression were tried in court and their property confiscated, while in heaven the souls of their ancestors were hurled into a pit.

The departure of young Japanese to join the army became a religious rite. A father turned his son over to his "new father," the commander. The youth was regarded as dedicated to the goddess of war, and if he returned unscathed the occasion was celebrated as a "resurrection", and he was even given a new name.

The most extreme expression of the fanaticism of the Japanese soldiers was the *Kamikaze* organizations of the sons of the sacred wind. Young soldiers recruited to this organization took an oath to die for the Emperor and in compensation were absolved of all sins beforehand. They enjoyed honors and respect. It is reported that the *Kamikaze* led a rather gay and

noisy life, drank, ate and had a good time. Many of them took advantage of their privileged status without the least scruple. Thus they carried on until the fateful moment when the *Kamikaze* received the Emperor's orders.

A band bearing the Rising Sun and appropriate characters was tied around the forehead of the doomed soldier when he set out on his mission. The suicide plane was supplied with only enough fuel to reach the target. Since they were not expected to return, *Kamikaze* bombers could suddenly appear at points almost twice their ordinary radius.

Field Marshal Sugiyama, who was appointed commander of Japan's home defense, placed great hopes in the *Kamikaze*. He knew well enough that a young man caught in the meshes of the organization could not possibly go back on his oath; he could not fail to carry out orders. For if he refused, he would die just the same. He would die a death attended by all the attributes of shame, the implacable champions of the samurai code of honor would destroy his family, and militant fanatics would desecrate the graves of his ancestors and their sacred memory.

Sugiyama formed numerous suicide squads. There were *Kamikaze* bombers in the air force, human torpedoes in the navy, and tank killers among the ground forces.

The Japanese command figured that the Allies would have to concentrate a large number of ships in order to effect a landing. Once that armada appeared within reach of the Japanese air force and the human torpedoes, it would become an excellent target for concentrated *Kamikaze* attacks. While preparing to repel an invasion, the Japanese widely advertised their opportunities, hoping thereby to play on the nerves of the Americans and the British.

The dropping of the first atomic bomb did not break the spirit and resistance of the Japanese militarists. They bided their time. According to their information, those bombs were not easy to manufacture, they cost billions and the Ameri-

cans did not have so many of them in stock. They regarded the bomb as part of the war of nerves and were determined to show that the nerves of the Japanese were strong enough.

But then the blow came in Manchuria. True to its duty as an ally, the USSR joined the fight. The action of the Soviet Union made all further play and bargaining senseless. It became impossible for the Japanese militarists to continue

the war.

We visited several factories which are at a standstill owing to the non-delivery of raw materials from Manchuria. In Tokyo the food situation grew more acute when the rice and food production of Korea were no longer available. With Manchuria and Korea cut off, the Japanese war machine became paralyzed. The sacred wind could no longer cause any damage to American battleships.

As we watched the landing of the American cavalry, we could not help thinking of the heroes who had shed their blood in the hills of Manchuria.

There was no longer any need for the hundreds of Kamikaze planes which we had seen hidden in the bamboo and cherry groves around Atsugi airfield or in the human torpedoes which the American soldiers still find in the caves on the coast.

Chronicle of the Moscow Art Theater

By Stanislav Radzinsky

The Maxim Gorky Moscow Art Theatre founded October 26, 1898 by Constantine Stanislavsky and Vladimir Nemirovich-Danchenko, inaugurated a new era in stagecraft. The novel psychological approach which it was the first to advocate has influenced the stage not only in Russia but far beyond her borders. It was in the presentation of the dramatic works of Chekhov and Gorky, with the staging of which the Art Theatre's history is so intimately bound up, that its specific trend was determined, its staunch championing of light, freedom and truth and its genuine realism. It too has produced a whole galaxy of modern actors and actresses, among whom Ivan Moskvín, Vasili Kachalov, Olga Knipper-Chekhova, Nicholas Khmelev and Alla Tarassova deserve special mention.

* * *

The Yearbook of the Moscow Art Theater contains new and interesting material. This book was compiled and published under wartime conditions. The first volume of 800 pages, which came out recently, is profusely illustrated with photographs and sketches of settings and costumes.

All sides of stage life, from the philosophy of the theater to rehearsals, from the ethical principles which the actors are expected to observe down to the smallest details of organization are touched upon.

Stanislavsky's reminiscences of Chekhov are printed in their entirety for the first time. Nemirovich-Danchenko speaks of staging *The Cherry Orchard* and a new



Ivan Moskvín, People's Artist of the USSR and Stalin Prize Winner

production of *Three Sisters* in 1940.

The published correspondence between Gorky and Stanislavsky shows the great writer's admiration for the director whom he respected for the spirit of innovation and truth he strove for on the stage.

"You are in Russia, we are here," Gorky wrote from Capri, "but by various ways and means we are going to live and work for our country."

Nemirovich-Danchenko's views on methods are of the greatest importance to theory and practice in the theater today. For example, an article like his

"Seed of Theater Production" is considered a standard work on the drama.

Emphasis is laid by both the founders on the significance of the Revolution to the Art Theater, and Nemirovich-Danchenko points out, "We all realize that if it were not for the Revolution, the art of this theater would have been lost, would have died out."

Other interesting articles are Stanislavsky's reminiscence of his internment in Germany in 1914, excerpts from the memoirs of Kachalov, a foremost actor of the Art Theater, and stories by artists who did the settings for Ostrovsky's *Snow Maiden* and Chekhov's *Three Sisters*. There is an account of the dramatic days of June 1941 when the theater, on tour in Minsk, was caught up in the war. The Byelorussian capital was bombed from the air. Ivan Moskvín one of the best loved of the older generation of actors was offered a chance of evacuating before any of the others, because cars were not available for all.

"I am 67," he said, "the eldest of us, and I shall be the last to leave."

American readers will be interested in reports on the Art Theater's visits to America in 1922-1924. Stanislavsky expressed his admiration of the American people in letters from New York. "This is a charming people—kind, good-natured, avid for all that is new, not at all self-opinionated and free from snob-bishness."

The first issue of the Yearbook has aroused favorable comment abroad as well as in the Soviet Union as a valuable survey of the Moscow Art Theater.

Notes on Soviet Life

Under the Council of People's Commissars of the Russian SFSR a department to handle migrations has been formed to help collective farmers and individual farmers who wish to move from districts with little available land to those with abundant land. The same administration is also charged with returning the population to their former places of residence and receiving, servicing and settling repatriated Soviet citizens.

★

Only the last 300 feet of the deepest oil well in the Soviet Union—on the Apscheron Peninsula—remain to be dug. Excavation will reach a depth of 11,100 feet, 1,000 feet deeper than the previous record. Such wells are drilled by the turbine method, first widely applied in the USSR.

★

During the next five years Soviet Georgia will considerably increase textile production. New weaving mills will be built and existing ones expanded. There will be a large cotton mill in Gori. Three new mills will produce broadcloth and the broadcloth and silk mills in Tbilisi will be reconstructed. Old equipment of the Kutaisi cloth mill will be replaced.

The Five-Year Plan of the Georgian textile industry also includes a large housing program. Houses, cottages, kindergartens, and nurseries are to be built near every mill. There will also be a rest home for textile workers and one for their children at Gagry health resort.

★

Trappers are starting the winter season in the country's northeastern extremity in Kolyma Valley. The most experienced trappers intend to reach the heretofore inaccessible Cape Alyavin which is famous for an abundance of fur-bearing animals. It is blocked from the sea by reefs and from land by a chain of high mountains. During the summer the trappers managed to bring tents and stoves there and now will travel by reindeer over the fresh snow.

Sergei Prokofiev has produced a new symphony, Ode for the End of War, which the composer says sings glory to the advent of peace. It has been written for an orchestra of unusual composition—no violins, violas or cellos, but has instead eight harps, four grand pianos, three trumpets and three saxophones.

The State Symphony Orchestra of the USSR will shortly begin rehearsing the symphony. The Moscow Philharmonic will perform it for the first time during the celebration of the 28th Anniversary of the October Revolution.

★

Twenty-fifth research center to be set up within the system of the Academy of Medical Science is the Institute of Health Protection and History of Medicine, which will give advice on the problems of the restoration of health services in liberated areas and will study health protection facilities abroad.

★

Sixteen million textbooks for the secondary and pedagogical schools are being published this year. Nine million of these were issued at the beginning of the school year, and the rest will be supplied to schools by the end of 1945.

★

In the Azerbaijan Mountains near the oilfields of Baku a great power station will be built. Spanning the narrow gorge where the Kura River cuts through the Bozdag range will be a dam 250 feet high. A reservoir will be formed, greater than the famous Lake Sevan in the Caucasus.

The station will supply power for the region at one-fourth the present cost. It will facilitate irrigation of a million acres of grain crops and one-half million acres of cotton. The flow of the Kura, subject to strong seasonal variations, will be regulated, averting annual floods, and malarial swamps will be removed.

The armored car from which Lenin spoke when he returned to Russia in 1917, is being reinstalled in the square in front of the Finnish Railway Station in Leningrad. During the siege the car was removed from its pedestal and carefully stored away. Restoration of the damaged granite pedestal is being completed.

★

On November 20, the National Women's Chess Tournament will be held with 16 players participating, including the present USSR champion Olga Rubtsova and the Moscow champion Elizaveta Bykova, who is secretary of the chess and checkers section of the All-Union Physical Culture and Sports Committee. Six of the participants are invited; the other ten will be the winners of the elimination tournaments played in various cities.

★

In the year since Odessa's liberation the port, which had been demolished by the fascists, has tripled its freight handling.

Among the accomplishments of the period are 329 factories completely restored and nearly 1,000 miles of railroad track rebuilt.

Information Bulletin

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A Major Step in Reconversion

By M. I. Kalinin

Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, USSR

On August 19 the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union and the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR published a statement to the effect that it had instructed the State Planning Commission of the USSR to draw up, jointly with the People's Commissariats and the Union Republics, a Five-Year Plan for development of the national economy and transport of the USSR, and for rehabilitation of the districts liberated from German occupation.

The terms of reference given to the State Planning Commission are very far-reaching.

The prewar level of the Soviet Union's national economy must be considerably exceeded by the end of the five-year period and Nazi-devastated areas must be completely rehabilitated.

This Government decision may be regarded as an official announcement to the people about the beginning of reconversion.

I will not dwell on the complex work involved in drafting this Plan. The experience accumulated in drawing up earlier Five-Year Plans, and above all their realization, lends full confidence that the State Planning Commission will cope successfully with this task as well.

I merely want to say that all industrial Commissariats, enterprises, and local authorities must lose no time in preparing for fulfillment of this Plan.

Some may ask: How is it possible to make preparations for fulfillment of a plan which has not yet been published? It is possible, for every enterprise, institution, and local administration knows approximately, or at any rate can sup-

pose, what kind of consumers' goods it will be called upon to produce, or what restoration it must effect.

It must be borne in mind that the greater the gap between the time the Plan is adopted and the beginning of work, the more difficult will be the realization of our aims in the forthcoming year.

After four years of tremendous efforts to satisfy the demands of war, and of strenuous fighting on the part of millions of the most vigorous section of the population, the Red Army soldiers, people naturally expect considerable improvement in their living standards in time of peace. This depends precisely on fulfillment of the State Plan.

During the war, Soviet executives have shown themselves capable of effecting rapid and successful conversion of their enterprises to new production.

I think that Soviet industry will cope successfully with its new task as well, and not only industry, but also agriculture, the land departments, and the collective farms must achieve considerable increase in production, for the living standards of the population are based on the abundance of foodstuffs and the supply of consumers' goods.

If this were the only task confronting the Soviet Government and people, we could hope for its comparatively rapid realization, but the other tasks outlined by the Government are equally urgent.

Restoration and development of railway transport, which suffered severely during the four war years, will, of course, demand tremendous amounts of money and labor. These expenditures, it is especially important to realize, can be neither

postponed nor denied. Everyone will realize that the regular operation of railways is the most essential condition for normal development of the country.

Restoration in the liberated areas devastated by the fascists will also require enormous expenditures and efforts.

All these facts clearly indicate that workers, collective farmers and intelligentsia will have to work hard to achieve marked improvement in their living conditions. This indeed must be clear to everyone.

For four years millions of our people have been torn away from labor while other millions were obliged to work for the needs of war.

The enemy caused tremendous damage over large sections of our country's territory. We were obliged to spend a considerable share of the available stock of manufactured goods and foodstuffs. The people, too, are poorly clad and shod.

The end of the war does not mean that everything will be restored automatically. All this must be done with human hands. Only the high productivity of these hands will enable us to attain our prewar level, and to exceed it as outlined in the instructions of the CC of the CPSU and the Council of People's Commissars to the State Planning Commission.

However difficult the job ahead of us, it is nevertheless many times easier than four years of war.

There can be no doubt that the peoples of the Soviet Union will, in the course of the coming five years, succeed not only in healing the wounds inflicted by the war, but also in surpassing their prewar living standards.

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Five-Year Plan Launched Against T.B.

Several weeks ago the Council for Combating Tuberculosis held a conference in Leningrad. One hundred of the leading Soviet tuberculosis specialists and many other doctors interested in the prevention of chest disease attended.

Now that the war is over an all-out offensive against venereal and infectious diseases is to be launched.

In our country, efforts to reduce the incidence of tuberculosis bore little fruit until the Soviet period, with its sweeping social reforms. By 1941 the joint efforts of the Soviet Government, Soviet science and the medical profession had cut the tuberculosis mortality rate to two-fifths of the 1913 figure.

We tackled the problem from two angles; first, there were general improvements in the circumstances of the people, better working conditions, the introduction of the eight-hour working day and later of a seven-hour day, and labor legislation that guaranteed every worker an annual paid vacation. The second line of attack was through the provision of health resorts, sanatoriums and rest homes.

A key link in our chain of health institutions is the tuberculosis dispensary, which keeps an individual record of all sufferers in the area under its jurisdiction. The Soviet health services are organized so thoroughly that not a single tubercular person, not even a single suspected case, is lost sight of.

If the local doctor has the slightest suspicion that one of his patients is suffering from the disease, he at once sends him to the dispensary. The patient is under obligation to follow the instructions he receives from the dispensary doctor. If he refuses to accept the treatment prescribed, he does not get a doctor's certificate entitling him to sick benefits during his illness.

Measures at Home

The dispensary registers patients, arranges for treatment, keeps patients and contacts under observation. The district nurse calls regularly on those patients who are living at home, educates the families

in hygienic measures which will safeguard others from the disease, and sends contacts along to the dispensary for an X-ray if she thinks they need closer observation.

The dispensary has at its disposal observation wards, clinics, hospitals, research institutes and sanatoriums, all of which are legally bound to accept any patients they send along.

Our efforts to eradicate tuberculosis were to a considerable degree undermined by the war which broke out in June, 1941. The vast evacuation to the East, the overcrowding in areas ill-adapted to receive a great influx of population created serious dangers to the public health. By the second year of the war we were able to say that the menace of a soaring tuberculosis rate, created by the war emergency, had been overcome.

Measures in Factories

Early in 1943, the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR issued special instructions on measures against tuberculosis. Hospital accommodations for tubercular cases were increased and extra rations were allotted. The factories opened night sanatoriums, a new type of medical institution, where workers whose health is not entirely satisfactory are sent for a

few months. During the day they go about their usual work, and spend their nights at the sanatorium under the care of medical specialists.

We opened more outdoor schools in forests, improved the ration scales for categories of people whose health was below par, sorted out the sickly children in the kindergartens and day nurseries, and gave them special care.

We shortened the working day for people with a history of T.B., without cutting their wages. Factories were instructed that such people must be employed only on light work, that they must never do night shifts, and never be employed at trades harmful to health.

By 1944 the upward wartime tendency of the T.B. rate had been arrested, and the incidence of the disease was back at the prewar level. In some towns it was even lower.

Doctor after doctor at the Leningrad conference hammered home the need for early diagnosis.

The People's Commissariat of Health has drawn up a five-year campaign against tuberculosis, which will be submitted to the Soviet Government as part of the new Five Year Plan.

Our aim is ambitious: By 1950 we intend to have enough beds to accommodate every single tuberculosis patient in a hospital.

To carry out our program we shall need a large contingent of specialists and nurses, and we are preparing to train them. By the end of next year our anti-tuberculosis campaigners will be reinforced by 28,000 doctors and nurses.

Expansion of Industry in Lvov

The expansion of factories in Lvov, is proceeding at a rapid rate. An electric bulb factory in Lvov is turning out one million bulbs annually, anticipates the production of 26 million next year. This plant which had been destroyed by the Germans is now to become a part of a much larger enterprise. An electrotechnical machine-building industry is being set up. For capital construction a fund of 143 million rubles has been allocated.



Doctor examining child in the nursery of the Krivoi Rog Construction job

Rachmaninoff's "First Symphony" Restored

Rachmaninoff's *First Symphony*, the score of which was destroyed by the composer after a single unsuccessful performance in 1897, has been reconstructed by Soviet musicians and was played by the State Symphony Orchestra of the USSR in Moscow October 17.

The score was reconstructed from recently discovered orchestrated parts for the symphony, which had been preserved at Leningrad. The performance was exceptionally well received by the audience.

This symphony's only other performance was unsuccessful when it was played in St. Petersburg in 1897 by an orchestra conducted by Glazunov.

The 22-year-old composer, deeply affected by the audience's cold reception of his symphonic work, destroyed the score immediately after the performance.

Restoration to the world of the *First Symphony* of the great composer marked the opening of a session at the Moscow Conservatory, devoted to the work of Rachmaninoff.

The Sergei Rachmaninoff exhibition, which opened in Moscow at about the same time, is composed of exhibits illustrating the composer's life and musical career.

A considerable section of exhibits is devoted to Rachmaninoff's life in the United States. Items for this part of the collection were sent by the Rachmaninoff family from the United States to the Soviet Union.

Merited Artist of the Republic Alexander Gauk, who conducted the per-



AS RACHMANINOFF FESTIVAL OPENS
—Composer's Portrait Inspires Musicians

formance of the *First Symphony*, described it as a "splendid musical piece."

The failure in 1897, Gauk said, was probably due to insufficient preparation of the orchestration, and to the fact that the symphony was too daring musically for that time.

Rachmaninoff was born in Kiev, the

son of a family which had produced musicians for generations. His great-grandmother was a fine pianist, and his grandfather a composer.

His public career began at 18, when he directed the first performance of his opera *Aleko* at Kiev.

In 1897-98, when he was a member of Mamontov's opera company, he met the great Chaliapin, and remained his friend to the end of his life.

Rachmaninoff had exceptional success early in this century as a conductor of grand opera and ballet at Moscow. He also conducted abroad—at London in 1899, at Paris in 1907, and in the United States.

As a pianist, he was noted for his rendition of Bach, Mendelssohn, Mozart, Tchaikovsky, Balakirev, Borodin, Scriabin and Moussorgsky. His playing of Tchaikovsky's works was especially beautiful.

The Moscow exhibition includes manuscripts and printed editions of his works. Programs of his American concerts are included. Pictures show the house in which he died March 28, 1943, the church in Los Angeles where Mass was said for his soul, and his grave in Pensico. Two large portraits are included. Over one of them is Tchaikovsky's prophecy: "I foretell for him a great future."

Under the other is an inscription in Rachmaninoff's handwriting: "I am deeply convinced that Russia's musical future has no bounds."



Radiophotos

Left—Rachmaninoff's cousin, Anna Trubnikova, who was active in founding the Rachmaninoff Fund at the State Central Museum of Musical Culture which organized the exhibition. Right—Quartet playing Rachmaninoff's music at exhibition

Development of Civil Aviation in the USSR

By B. Dunayevsky

An interview with Marshal Fedor Astakhov, Chief of the Department of Civil Aviation in the USSR.

I interviewed Marshal Astakhov when the future of civil air service in the USSR was more or less defined.

"The foundations for the further development of the Soviet air lines were laid down long before the end of the war against Germany," said the Marshal. "It was when the decision to establish a permanent air line with the United States was adopted. Since then flights along the air route of Moscow-San Francisco-Washington have become ordinary trips for Soviet pilots. In the past few years a good many military machines flew from the United States to the USSR. The Soviet delegation, headed by People's Commissar of Foreign Affairs Vyacheslav Molotov, also took this route when they flew to San Francisco to take part in the Conference of the United Nations.

"After the victorious conclusion of the war it also became possible to establish an air lane with the United States via



PLANES SERVE THE FARMERS—Transporting fowl by aircraft

western Europe.

"Before the war Moscow had air communication with only three European capitals. Today machines fly regular service to Berlin, Prague, Warsaw, Bucharest, Sofia, Vienna, Budapest and Belgrade. The Moscow-Teheran line is also functioning.

"Inside the country the air lines have also been considerably extended in comparison with the prewar period. A number of routes have been set up to the newly established industrial regions in the east of the Soviet Union. Moscow again has regular air service with all

capitals of the Union Republics. The principal lines are serviced by the Soviet ZI-2 passenger machine, a machine much faster than the aircraft used before the war. The only two points the machines reach the following day are Almaata, the capital of Kazakhstan, and Stalinabad, the capital of Tajikistan. At all other places the planes arrive the same day.

"The three air lines connecting Moscow with health resorts in the

Crimea and the Caucasus are running at full capacity today. The fact that this year the Civil Air Force will carry 75 per cent more cargo than last year shows the tempo of its development.

"The use of aircraft to serve the needs of agriculture will reach its prewar level this year. Fertilizing by aircraft will also be widely employed. This method has already been tried out, and has already been applied in rice cultures.

In conclusion, Marshal Astakhov said, "I might mention that we shall not be satisfied with the prewar level of civil aviation."



PLANES SERVE THE PEOPLE'S NEEDS—Metropolitan newspapers fly to remote regions; (center) perishable freight is loaded; (right) interior of a passenger plane

Flying Ambulance Service to Civilians Expanded

By G. Galin

The Air Medical Service, an important link in the widely ramified chain of Soviet health services, is scheduled for considerable extension. Scores of new stations are to be set up all over the country and the number of ambulance planes and personnel increased.

The establishment of regular air medical service in the Soviet Union dates back to the year 1935 when individual effort of separate organizations of the republics and regions were united into a State-operated service.

In Murmansk and Vladivostok, in Kuibyshev and Sakhalin, in Mordovia, the little autonomous Republic on the Volga, and in distant Yakutia, air ambulance stations were set up with personnel ready at any moment to answer a telephone or telegraph summons to bring medical aid beyond the reach of regular hospital service.

For a vast country like the Soviet Union, with widely separated and sparsely populated areas—mountains and taiga settlements, trading stations and lone hunting cabins—the importance of Air Medical Service is obvious. Moreover, during the winter and spring there are many inhabited points that can only be reached by air.

During the war the ambulance service combined civilian duties with aid to the front. And while planes delivered many hundred thousands of liters of preserved blood and hundreds of thousands of kilograms of medical supplies to military hospitals, they also made a total of 20,000 civilian calls, performing 12,000 urgent operations and blood transfusions. Besides attending to urgent cases, Air Service doctors usually receive all other patients in the locality and take any necessary steps to prevent epidemics.

The maintenance of the Air Ambulance Service involves a large financial budget.



AMBULANCE PLANE IS LOADED—Wounded soldier being placed aboard ambulance plane

Last year the Irkutsk Station (Siberia) spent 470,000 rubles for 300 cases, that is more than 1,500 rubles per case.

Plans for the current year, drawn up while the war was still in progress, provide for considerable extension in the Air Medical Service. The number of flying hours included in the plan of the civil air fleet was set at 82,600 hours. Taking last year's expenditures as standard, this will cost the State about 20 million rubles.

A station usually consists of three or four planes staffed by one or two doctors and several nurses, but the station doctors are all highly skilled, energetic and resourceful men and women who are equal to any emergency. If extra assistance is needed, the services of the local physicians are available.

Anna Polyakova, aged 62, of the Gorky Air Ambulance Station, is a clever surgeon and a splendid obstetrician and gynecologist. Last year she performed 144 emergency operations, an average of about 12 a month, and 41 blood transfusions. Within two days she traveled to distant regions to perform seven operations.

Agnes Divikina, an air ambulance doctor of the Omsk (Siberia) Station, flew more than 2,000 hours for seven emergency surgical cases. Now 38, she was graduated from the Leningrad Medical Institute in 1929. Her skill and com-

passionate attitude to her patients have earned her the gratitude and affection of hundreds of people, not only in the remotest corners of her own region but in Kazakhstan as well.

One winter Divikina was summoned to the Narym area in the Far North to operate on a lumberjack's wife suffering from extrauterine pregnancy. The lumber camp was 1,200 kilometers distant from the station. Divikina flew to her patient, performed a successful operation and returned to her

station only to find another urgent summons awaiting her. She had just enough time to fill her bag with the necessary instruments before taking off for another corner of Siberia.

Treacherous weather and the absence of landing facilities are two of the commonest difficulties encountered by flying physicians.

Doctor Kunonerova of the Kuibyshev Station found herself outside a forest several kilometers from a village where a woman collective farmer was awaiting an urgent Caesarian operation. Kunonerova had to plow waist-deep through the snow to reach her patient. But the woman was saved.

The expansion of the Air Ambulance Service now under way will bring Soviet medical men closer to the goal of making the latest achievements of medicine available in the remotest corners of the land.

Nikita Khrushchev Honored

The Order of Suvorov First Class has been awarded the head of the Ukrainian Government, Nikita Khrushchev, for exemplary execution of the assignments of the Government of the USSR in the organization of the guerrilla movement in the Ukraine, and for achievements in the struggle against the German-fascist invaders.

IN VANQUISHED JAPAN—Part III. *The People and the Rulers*

By Nikolai Bogdanov

Krasnaya Zvezda Correspondent

The day after the signing of the Act of Surrender we were invited to an open meeting of the Japanese Parliament. The Emperor himself was going to read his edict in the House of Peers.

We were warned that the courtiers had requested that no attempts should be made to photograph the Emperor or to look him straight in the face as that would be an insult to his divinity. Some photo correspondents worked all night fixing their cameras for snapshots through coat lapels, others cut holes for objectives in their pockets; but nothing came of all this in the end. The Mikado "happened" to make his appearance before the correspondents came to Parliament. The Emperor was supposed to appear at 10:30 A.M. We came at ten. But it turned out that he had already made his speech and left. He apparently did not care to show himself to us. The courtiers politely apologized and suggested that we might gaze at the chair and imagine that the Mikado was sitting in it unseen. Every member of Parliament who took the floor first of all made three low bows to the empty chair.

So we are in the Japanese Parliament. It is said that before the war a policeman used to stand at the chair of each Deputy, for the debates often ended in a free-for-all.

To signify an affirmative vote the Deputies rise. We observed the uniform manner in which it is done, as if it were in a school or soldiers' barracks.

How reserved are now the very same men who used to come to Parliament amid fanfares of victory, those who used to shout *banzai* at the mention of Pearl Harbor or Manila. Then they all wore military uniforms. Now they have donned the old worn civilian suits of European style. What is the meaning of this disguise? The Japanese are doing their utmost to demonstrate their unanimity and obedience to the Emperor. When they were told to fight, they fought. If the Emperor now tells them to live in peace, they will live in peace.

The myth of the inviolability of the

Emperor's prerogatives is safeguarded in every way in order to create the impression that it is easiest to govern the Japanese people through the Mikado. On the eve of the meeting of Parliament, a "popular demonstration" was even organized to raise the Emperor's prestige. Those who took part in this "popular" demonstration, which marched to the palace, dropped to their knees as if at a word of command and begged the Emperor to forgive them for losing the war and thereby causing him chagrin.

The Japanese ruling clique have no intention to disarm. They are resorting to the old tried method of playing on the differences among the great powers. The Japanese are trying in every way to curry favor with the Americans.

The behavior of the Japanese press is worth noting. When the Japanese militarists were scoring victories in the countries of the South Seas, Japanese papers were full of boasts. When the Allies began their counteroffensive, the Japanese newspapers laughed. But when the Yankees appeared on Okinawa and Flying Fortresses over Tokyo, the Japanese press changed from laughter to abuse. On the eve of the landing of American troops in Japan, the press men began to threaten. They vowed by all the gods, by the sacred wind and eruption of extinct Fujiyama that no American would set foot on Japanese soil.

But the landing took place nevertheless. An American airborne division landed on Atsugi Airfield near Tokyo. A Japanese general came to meet the "guests." The evening papers that day were full of the event. *The Nippon Times* expressed its admiration at the fine sight presented by the tall and husky American soldiers, and compared the young, tall, well-built and good-looking American general with the Japanese general to the obvious disadvantage of the latter. *Asahi* likewise was full of admiration for the Americans. Smaller newspaper fry followed suit. They praised American armaments to the sky and disparaged their own.

The Japanese ruling clique extolled the magnanimity of the Emperor who they asserted issued the edict about the cessation of hostilities when he saw the technical superiority of the Allies.

While a great deal of noise is being made about the technical superiority of the Allies, absolute silence is being maintained in Japan about the events in Manchuria and the defeat of the Kwantung Army.

There is a great deal of talk in Tokyo about the advantages of a "peaceful prosperity" for Japan. As if there had been no surrender but merely an enforced pause after which everything will start from the beginning. The idea of revenge is clearly discernible in the speeches and in the newspaper articles.

Today the Japanese ruling caste, fearing to lose their investments in industry, maintain that the preservation of industry is needed to secure the well-being of the people. They try to represent the military arsenals as the source of the people's existence. Japanese politicians and diplomats who are displaying strange haste in their attempts to determine Japan's future, speak only about the people. But nowhere are people so restricted and disfranchised as in Japan. Wherever you glance, whether at the streets of burnt Tokyo or the narrow lanes of the coastal villages, everywhere you are struck by the abundance of policemen. The police has enmeshed the entire life of Japan. Its main purpose is to serve as a straight jacket on the people. The voices we heard in Parliament were not the people's voices.

To hear the voice of the people you must talk to the people. I have managed to have a few talks with the men of the people to get an idea of their sentiments. Sitting in a boat bound by silt on the shore, a Japanese fisherman was watching the landing of the American troops. His wife and children plodded in the mud, picking up the fish and seaweeds deposited by the ocean. For many weeks now fisherman Ohasi Taro could not go out into the sea to fish. First, the Japanese

A Thousand Automobiles A Day

by K. Vlasov
Chief Engineer

were preparing for defense in this neighborhood and so kept him away from the shore. Now the landing of American troops was interfering with his trade.

We chatted first about the ways of fishing. Then I asked Ohasi Taro his opinion of the surrender.

"He who owns nothing has nothing to fear," was his answer. When I asked him what he thought of the fact that Japan had lost the war, Ohasi replied, "I am no teacher or politician but a plain man. I am quite sick of war. When Japan was not at war I fished freely and did with the catch as I pleased. But when we began to gain victories, the police started to take away half my catch for the new victories. Then they began to take away the whole catch for the sake of a "better future." I fear that in the end I would have to beg for fish from the policemen and they are not too generous."

The war adventure of the ruling clique has cost the Japanese people dearly. The only ones to benefit from the conquests were the higher officers and profiteers. As for the people, each "victory" meant new sacrifices on their part.

Before leaving Japan on the way to Atsugi Airfield, we stopped over in a village. There we met a peasant, Otsuka Hagishi. His farm is typical of that of the average Japanese peasant. The little plot of land with hardly enough room for a house and farm structures, cannot feed the family of five. Otsuka therefore rents an additional small field from the landlord. He works from morning until night with his whole family and produces three crops a year. But still he does not make enough to live on. The lion's share of the crop goes to pay the rent taxes and for fertilizer.

"What are you getting for your silk?"

"During the war there was no demand for cocoons. The silkworms no longer rustle in my house," he replied. "If it were not for my sisters I would have perished and my family would become extinct," he said as he pointed respectfully to two emaciated women who obtrusively sat in a corner.

Those were Japanese working women, slaves on whose labor grew and battered Japanese capitalism.

Many years ago Hagishi's father sold his two little girls to the textile mill for

M. Kalinin, visiting our factory in 1937, was asked to sign his name on the mold of a cylinder block, which was then put into production. When toward the end of the day M. Kalinin had finished his tour of inspection, he was shown the finished product—a motor with his name on it. The engine parts had been cast, finished and assembled in a single shift.

This illustrates how highly developed automobile production at the Molotov works was in those days. But even the best technique ten years ago does not satisfy us. And certainly not in the next few years. By the close of the new Five-Year Plan we shall make a thousand automobiles a day. To achieve this we shall have to review and improve the whole production process.

The technological process will be ad-

life so as to get for them a paltry sum each autumn. They worked 12 hours a day without the right to go anywhere outside the mill barracks. When the father died the brother inherited his right to them. Now the mill has shut down. The prematurely aged sisters have come back home. The brother did not expect two additional mouths to feed and now does not know what to do.

For several years the chemical industry has worked for war only and the land has not received any fertilizer. The rice crop is expected to be poor this year. And the police are already preparing to take away whatever is reaped. Otsuka Hagishi is pessimistic about his future. If he had his say he would demand, in the first place, emancipation from the feudal landlord yoke—agrarian reform.

Our stay in Japan came to an end. Our plane easily rose from the concrete covered field. Heavy clouds covered the mountains and we had to skirt them on the south, flying over large lakes. Fujiyama appeared on the right of us. We turned westward. Following the sun, we were flying toward the shores of our country.

vanced by employing special machinery of various types able to perform many functions. We already have machines with 200 and more appliances. One of these does the work of 185 units of universal equipment. Our aim is completely to abolish universal equipment in the principal production shops. We will employ multi-function machinery equipped with cutting devices of hard alloys able to highly accelerate the metal-cutting process.

Many parts have to be manufactured in tremendous quantities. We shall be making over 10,000 pistons, as many piston rings and connecting rods, 24,000 push rods, 100,000 piston rings, etc. The testing parts will be completely mechanized. Machines will set aside all waste and sort out the tested parts according to size.

Special pneumatic and photoelectric devices will mechanize the operation of the hydraulic presses. Work will become easier and safer.

The process in the thermo shops will be radically changed if the thermic treatment is done by high-frequency currents in place of oil furnaces. Tempering then is a matter of a few seconds and the job can be done in an ordinary mechanical shop.

At present, the slabs are heated in the oil furnaces before they are passed on to the presses, but here, too, we intend to apply normal frequency currents to replace the oil furnaces.

The transportation of raw material, scrap, semi-finished and complete parts takes time, so we shall set up conveyors and employ other means to transfer parts from bench to bench and press to press.

The engineers and other personnel are now engaged in drawing up plans for the reorganization of production along the new lines. The Designers' Bureau is preparing blueprints of new machinery devices and tools.

The Molotov automobile works has the personnel and the means for reconstruction, and we do not doubt that the engineers and workers will successfully cope with the task confronting them.

Hunting for Melodies in the USSR

by T. Mikhailov

Aram Khachaturyan, Soviet composer, twice honored with the Stalin Prize, is undoubtedly one of the foremost composers in the Soviet Union. A brilliantly gifted artist-innovator, he possesses an inexhaustible wealth of originality. In his art Khachaturyan combines the advanced contemporary European and Soviet methods of orchestration with intonational and rhythmic elements of the musical language of his native Armenia.

Academician Boris Asafiev, a penetrating music critic, says: "... Khachaturyan's works weave the traditional musical art of his people on a modern frame. His music is enriched by his knowledge of Russian masters. Khachaturyan clearly expresses the modern epoch of Soviet culture and its most intensive strivings to reveal national folk art as a particularly superior form of the art of democracy ..."

One of the principal sources of Khachaturyan's creative work is the inspired improvisations of the popular Armenian bards—*asbugs*—whose songs captivated the composer in his boyhood.

Aram Khachaturyan was born forty years ago in Tbilisi. The lad showed a marked feeling for music, folk songs and dances, but his talents remained undeveloped. There was no money for musical education in the family of a bookbinder.

It was not until he was nineteen, in the autumn of 1923, that Khachaturyan entered the Gnessin Music School in Moscow—in the violincello class. But very soon thereafter, following the advice of composer Mikhail Gnessin, he began to study composition.

In 1929 Khachaturyan was a student at the Moscow Conservatory enrolled in the class in composition under Nikolai Myaskovsky. In his student years he wrote a number of compositions which were subsequently included in concert repertoires: a trio for violin, clarinet and piano, a dance suite and, most significant,



Aram Khachaturyan

a symphony in three movements—submitted for graduation in 1934.

Soon after leaving the Conservatory, and having won great success with his symphony at home and abroad, Khachaturyan wrote his magnificent pianoforte concerto (1939), recognized by the entire musical world as one of the outstanding piano concertos of our day. The exquisite rhythms and intonations of Armenian folk music, filled with fiery emotion and radiant optimism, the brilliant individuality and originality of form, contribute to make this concerto a genuine achievement in Soviet instrumental music. His violin concerto (1940), which received the Stalin Prize, is known for its novelty of thematic material, original method of development, infinite variety of tone and orchestral effects, and brilliance and freshness of the melodious solo instrumental part. It is a favorite in concert repertoires.

Among the best works by Khachaturyan is his inspired *Poem about Stalin*—a remarkably integral and profoundly impressive paean, concluding with a splen-

did chorus to the words by the people's bard Mirza—creating in a song the image of the leader of the peoples of the Soviet Union.

All the most important works of the composer, starting from his trio (1932) to the recent *Second Symphony* (1943) have become part of permanent repertoires and are played frequently throughout the world.

In 1942 Khachaturyan again received the Stalin Prize—this time for his ballet *Gayane*, produced by the Kirov Opera and Ballet Theater of Leningrad, temporarily playing in the city of Molotov. *Gayane*, built up on national themes and music, and molded along modern lines is full of the drama of the life and struggles of the Armenian people. As is usual for Khachaturyan, the music is distinctive for its diversity and picturesqueness, the impetuosity of its rhythms and for rich national melodies. The composer is particularly successful in the folk scenes and dances. The character of the Armenian girl, *Gayane*, is portrayed with tender lyricism and poetic charm.

The acme of Khachaturyan's creations is his monumental *Second Symphony* finished in the autumn of 1943.

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Information Bulletin

(Issued Three Times Weekly)

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Washington, D. C., November 3, 1945



Soviet Arctic Finds New Life

By M. Parkov

Paradoxically, shortages have become a barometer of progress in the Arctic. Nenets national area in the Soviet Far North.

For instance: less than 30 years ago, under tsarist rule, there was an average of one physician per 270,000 square kilometers in the entire Far North.

To most of the inhabitants of the region, the doctor was a myth. The population was dwindling by ten per cent annually. Most children did not live to adolescence.

Now in the Nenets Region alone, which covers 214,500 square kilometers, there are 11 hospitals, two of which are urban and five rural; a number of polyclinics; a maternity home; 23 medical aid stations; an epidemiological station; a tuberculosis center; a children's health center; a venereal dispensary, and three prenatal and postnatal clinics.

Eleven mobile medical and sanitary education stations reach the nomad section of the population.

Children and adults are given regular periodic examinations and treatment. The population is increasing.

And yet, by Soviet standards, there is a great shortage of medical facilities, and much greater expansion is planned.

The area's medical workers are asking for more skilled personnel, more health centers, and more medical supplies. They

want existing medical centers improved, training programs for health workers expanded, and health education given a



PROGRESS—A Nenets woman sews for her family with a sewing machine, a thing unheard of a few years ago.

wider scope.

This is a far cry from the early days of the health program in the Arctic, when the demand was for something, anything, a beginning, to stop the ravages of disease which had swept the region under the tsars.

In those days, the population lived in isolation and in complete ignorance of the comforts of the great world beyond the harsh, treeless tundra which was their home.

The land itself, icy and swept by blasts from the White, Barents and Kara Seas, was not theirs. They simply were born, herded their reindeer in the primitive way of their forefathers, and died while still young and usually from some agonizing disease for which they knew no treatment.

To the Nenets mother, remembering her own childhood, the clinics which give her child a good chance to grow to healthy adulthood are progress, indeed.

The services have already expanded greatly. The area's health budget in 1944 was 71 times as great as that of 1929, when the Nenets national area was organized as a separate administrative unit of the Russian Federation. Wholesale medical examinations are now conducted by districts.

In Amderma District, for instance, the medical examination has become a part of the celebration of the traditional Nenets holiday,

Reindeer Day, on August 1.

The complete eradication of smallpox is considered by medical workers in the region their greatest triumph to date. The incidence of trachoma, tuberculosis, syphilis, and other diseases which once ravaged the people of the district has been greatly reduced.

In Naryan-Mar, all children less than three years old are registered with health authorities for regular observation.

In Amderma, the resistance-building

quartz lamp treatment is given to all children. There is a special sanatorium for tubercular children or ones with a tendency to tuberculosis at Naryan-Mar.

The shortages which mean progress exist in other fields than that of public health in the Far North.

A doomed and dwindling people in 1917, they have been able since the Revolution to build themselves a new life and a bright future.

With their land their own, they proceeded to establish reindeer raising, fishing and trapping as profitable industries.

Newspapers, before this time unknown, were established at Naryan-Mar.

Education was made compulsory for children, and schools were established to teach them in their native tongue.

The people were encouraged by the Government to avail themselves of their new rights and to build a better life.

An instance is vegetable farming which has grown up in a region where once there was not so much as a tree or a green plant of any sort.

Medical workers pressed for the establishment of vegetable growing so that the population might have a more healthful diet. Hot-houses and frames were built, and the experiment was successful. Under modern agricultural methods, the frigid region produces fine vegetables.

Industry did its part to make the new hot-houses successful. At Amderma, for instance, hot water released by the local power station is used to heat the hot-houses.

In all these fields of health, education, farming, herding, fishing, and industry, there are shortages of facilities by the new standards of the population.

The son of parents who lived and died without hearing of the alphabet now feels that there are not enough books in the local reading-club.

The vegetable-grower who as a child knew no food but reindeer-meat and fish feels that if he could get more hot water he could raise better tomatoes.

So it is in every field. The new standards of a people who have risen from semi-barbarism to modern civilization in one generation, outstrip what can be achieved.

The feet of the citizen of the Arctic North are indeed on the path to progress.

Republic Celebrates Anniversary

Nakhichevan, part of the Azerbaijan SSR, has just observed its 25th anniversary.

Bordering Armenia on the north and east, and Turkey on the west and south along the Aras River, this little autonomous Republic covers an area slightly more than 5,000 square kilometers. Nine out of every ten of its population of 125,000 are engaged in agriculture.

In the past 25 years life here has changed fundamentally. Primitive farming implements have given way to combine and tractor. Livestock raising has been on the upgrade from year to year; in wartime alone cattle increased by more than 40 per cent and sheep and goats by 120 per cent.

Indicative of the development of the Republic is its mounting budget which this year runs into 34,970,000 rubles,

nearly 35 per cent more than before the war. A large part of the expenditures are for cultural needs.

"Twenty-five years ago there were hardly any schools in Nakhichevan Territory, as this area was then known. People's Commissar of Education A. Aliev stated in a press interview on the occasion of the anniversary. "There were 80 teachers and 1,700 pupils in all. Today we have 175 schools, 34 of which are secondary schools, attended by 23,000 children. Eighteen million rubles of the budget are earmarked for education."

The capital of Nakhichevan has two theaters and a teacher's college. There are also three technical schools and a music school in the Republic, as well as a branch of the Azerbaijan Academy of Sciences, which is rendering extensive aid to agriculture.

Teachers of the People

By D. Stonov

In a few days the young men and women of the Moscow Teachers Training School on Ordynka Street will finish their examinations and be ready to teach in the elementary school.

Naturally, four years of war have left their mark. Some of the students were soldiers, many were field nurses, and others exchanged textbooks for tommy guns or shovels. Everyone helped with the building of the fortifications around Moscow.

Visiting the school, my attention was drawn to a woman of about 30, the oldest of the group around me. Her features were Mongolian, with slanting eyes. She was introduced as Ta Etyngeur of the village of Drezhnevo in Chukotsk Peninsula.

"Fifteen years ago it was a great effort for me to write; my hand shook as I held the pen," Ta told me as we chatted. "I worked as a charwoman in the Drezhnevo School. I loved the children, yet they would often chide me: 'Yes, you work in a school, but you are afraid to touch a book.'

"I spoke to one of the teachers, a Rus-

sian, Vera Lukyanova, who began teaching me privately in the evening so that the children would not suspect. I persistently spent the nights poring over my books. I said to myself that I would some day be a teacher, right there in my native Drezhnevo."

"Are you really preparing to make your dream come true?" I asked.

"Absolutely. I am stubborn. The hardest part is over. I passed my examination in junior high school and came to Moscow, and I will soon pass my examinations here, and return home."

"I will pass my examinations and return home." That's what nearly all the students of the Teachers' Training School say. The majority of them want to go back to their native sections to teach in the local schools.

"My village was destroyed by the Germans," said young Mikhail Sergeev. "The school in which I studied was burned down. I doubt whether another school will be built by autumn. Still I shall ask the director here to give me an appointment in my village, and on September 1, promptly, I shall start to teach."

A New Town is Born

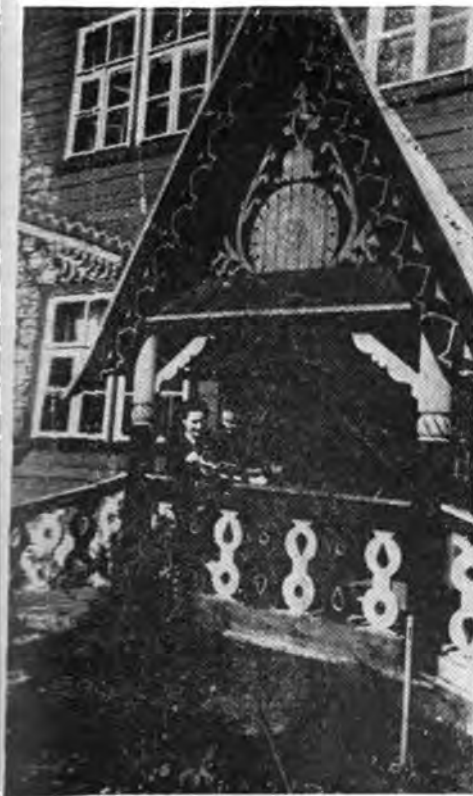
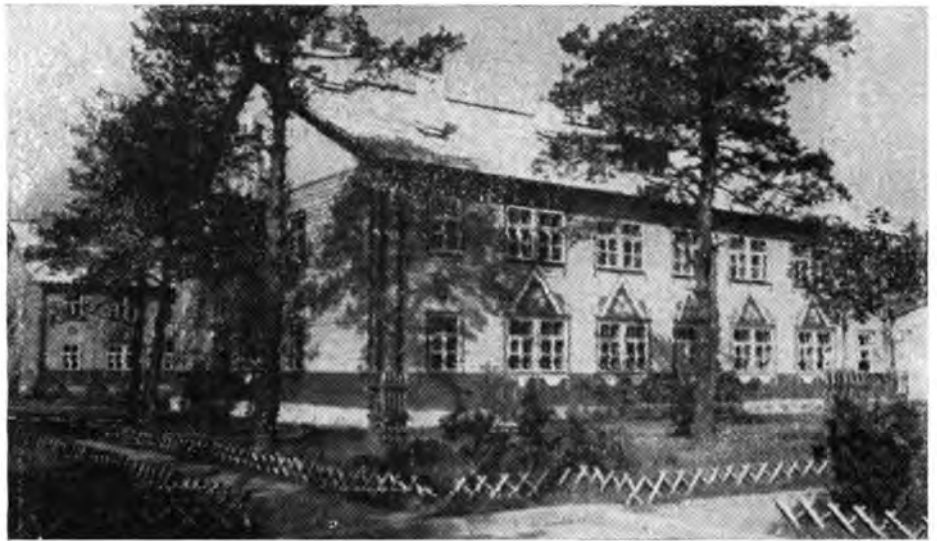
When expanding industry brought workers, engineers and technicians to build factories on the Gorky railroad line near Moscow, housing workers went too to provide for their needs.

The result is this new town, unnamed and not as yet on any map.

The town has a club, public dining hall, steam bath, laundry, stores, tailor and shoe repair shops, radio relay station, fire station, nurseries, and schools, including a high school and an industrial arts trades school.

The two- and three-room apartments are full of light and have all modern conveniences. The outer walls are painted in colorful Russian, Georgian, and Ukrainian style. Walls and ceilings inside have gypsum bas-reliefs.

Architect V. Semerdjiyev (center picture, left), designed the town, together with its gardens and lawns.



Radiophotos

VIEWS OF NEW TOWN—Left: Facade of house decorated with wood carvings. Right—Top: New apartment house. Middle: Construction officials view their completed work. Bottom: Children on their way to new schools

Kazakhstan Moves Forward

By **Abdysamet Kazakpaev**

Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Kazakh SSR

As we approach the twenty-fifth anniversary of our Republic, which falls due in November, many of us look back and draw comparison with the old Kazakhstan as it was before the establishment of Soviet rule.

Almost no industry existed over the whole of this great territory. Vast tracts of land lay untilled through centuries. The Kazakhs engaged chiefly in cattle-breeding. There were practically no schools for the local population, not a single institution of higher learning, nor any national theaters or clubs.

The national economy and culture of Kazakhstan only began to develop during the past quarter century. Kazakhstan became an independent Soviet Republic, forming part of the USSR, and having won the right of self-determination, the Kazakh people succeeded in a historically short period of time in transforming this formerly neglected outskirts of tsarist Russia into a land with growing industry and large-scale agriculture and advanced livestock breeding.

The main landmarks in the life of Kazakhstan were Stalin's Five-Year Plans for development of the national economy.

At the beginning of the first Five-Year Plan, scores of geological expeditions and



Emblem, Kazakh SSR

prospecting groups were sent through the wide steppes of our Republic and discovered uncounted riches.

After them came builders and large-scale construction began. Where caravans had wended their way through the ages, the Turkestan-Siberian railway line was laid in record time, as well as other important trunk lines of exceptional importance to the national economy.

The construction of the Chimkent lead plant, the largest in the USSR, was begun in 1930, and a year later the foundations of a copper plant were laid near Lake Balkhash. Chemical works sprang up at

Aktyubinsk; large enterprises, light, and food industries were built in a number of towns. The Karaganda coal basin, which soon became one of the most important coal fields in the country, began to be developed.

During the first Five-Year Plan the Soviet government invested 1,559 million rubles in Kazakhstan. A good half of this sum was allocated to industry and transport. These investments fully justified themselves. By the end of the Five-Year Plan, the industry of Kazakhstan was producing three and one-half times its 1927 output.

The sum of 700 million rubles was invested in agriculture. Scores of machine and tractor stations were formed to help peasants till their fields and gather the harvest. The sown area was considerably enlarged and tens of thousands of peasant households combined forces in large agricultural artels. As a result of these measures the crop yield soon began to show a sharp increase.

This time more than four billion rubles were invested in the Republic. The gross output of large-scale industry increased 2.7 times over that of 1932.



LEARNING AND DOING—Rose Shamjanova (left), pioneer and order-bearer, at her lessons in school at Alma-Ata. Scientists at Alma-Ata Veterinary Institute (right) experiment for snake-bite vaccine.



THE CAPITAL—ALMA-ATA. On the left, the outskirts of the city. Right (above) is Gorky Street. Salima Satarova, (right, below) is a leading actress.

An improved living standard and the rise of the cultural level of the people is inevitably connected with the growth of the national economy.

On the eve of war, the wage fund of our workers and employees had increased more than 3.5 times over 1932 levels.

Appropriations for social cultural measures in 1940 amounted to one billion rubles. During the years of Soviet rule, thousands of schools, clubs, and hospitals were built in Kazakhstan. All children now attend school. Kazakhstan has its own Academy of Sciences, a wideflung network of scientific research institutes, scores of institutions of higher learning, countless theaters and clubs.

The old cities have been rebuilt and improved. Nowadays even quite small

towns have their waterworks, sewage systems, power stations, hotels, parks, and sport stadiums.

Kazakhstan played an exceptionally important role in supplying defense industry with nonferrous metals. New important enterprises were built in the Republic in wartime, including an iron and steel plant.

Now once again the Kazakh people have the opportunity of devoting all their efforts to peacetime construction.

We are now working out on a grand scale the program of the Fourth Five-Year Plan for further development of the national economy.

Firm and lasting peace throughout the world is the primary condition needed for fulfillment of this grand task.



ART AND HANDICRAFT—A scene, (left) from the opera "Kyz-Zhybek", produced to celebrate the fifth anniversary of the Kazakh State Theater. (Right) women weaving a fine carpet.

The People of Kazakhstan

By G. Volchek

June 23, 1945, in the 100th year of his life, Jambul Jabaev, a wonderful Kazakh bard died.

"You ask where I was born," says Jambul in his autobiography entitled *My Own Story*. "Where the River Chu flows toward the steppe stand two mountains, Kham and Jambul.

"My father Jabai was a nomad. Once fate brought him to these mountains. During a fierce snow storm I was born, and they gave me the name of the ancient mountain Jambul. That was in February 1846."

Kazakhstan, now the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic, in which the poet Jambul lived for almost a hundred years, is a vast country, stretching over 2,735,000 square kilometers, chiefly in Central Asia, and borders on Turkmenia, Uzbekistan, Kirghizia, China and the southeastern regions of the Russian SFSR.

In the north the country consists of rolling plains, in the center it is hilly. On its southeastern borders rise the eternally snow-capped mountain ranges of the southern Altai and Tian Shan whose summits tower to a height of 5,000 meters above sea level. The climate is

sharp, continental and dry. The Irtysh, Ural and Syr-Darya flow through the Republic, but all these rivers are only partly navigable.

This is a land with rich natural resources. Copper, polymetallic ores, gold, coal, oil, phosphorites, salt and other minerals are found here.

However, before the Revolution in 1918 the whole of this region was the most backward, economically undeveloped district of tsarist Russia.

The Kazakh people lived in abject poverty and were practically 100 per cent illiterate.

In 1920 a new era began in the history of the Kazakh people. As a result of the victorious socialist Revolution in Russia, the Kazakhs began to create their own State. November of the present year will mark the 25th anniversary of the establishment of Soviet rule in Kazakhstan, and in 1936 the Kazakh SSR was founded as an equal member of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Since the Revolution this rich territory has changed beyond recognition. The land was given to the Kazakh peasantry. Large State grain, cotton and livestock

farms were formed, as well as a great number of collective farms.

The soil, intersected by an ever growing network of irrigation canals and lovingly cultivated by the peasants, began to yield an abundance of wheat, cotton and rice.

The cultivation of sugar beet and tobacco and various oil-bearing crops was commenced. Orchards famous for their fruit throughout the Soviet Union were planted over large areas.

The Karaganda coal basin, the third in size in the Soviet Union, was created here and this region offers rich possibilities for further development. Hundreds of newly discovered deposits of mineral ores are already being mined.

Not so long ago, in 1926, only 22.8 per cent of the population here could read or write. By 1936 a total of 76.8 per cent were literate, including 90 per cent of the male population.

Before the Revolution there were no institutions of higher learning in Kazakhstan, whose population was practically nomad, now there are more than 20 of them and an Academy of Sciences, over 30 scientific research institutions and 22 museums, while several hundred newspapers are being published in the national language.

Kazakhstan has its own literature, theater and music. The art of the Kazakh people has found general recognition among the peoples of the USSR.

During the Great Patriotic War the Kazakh people took a great part in the general war effort. Many Kazakh soldiers won the glorious title Hero of the Soviet Union, many won orders and medals. There were not a few Kazakhs who, having traveled the long road of war, were with the Soviet units that entered Berlin.

Kazakhstan is preparing to celebrate the 25th anniversary of its independence. Jambul Jabaev did not live to see this happy day.

But in one of his wonderful songs he sang, "One hundred years have passed over my head and my soul rejoices as I watch the happy youth of my grandchildren."

Village Sculptors in USSR

By D. Stonov

Ivan Stulov, the founder of six cooperatives of village sculptors, is an indefatigable craftsman. He is still a member of all six cooperatives and regularly spends a month or more working in each with his apprentices. Then he returns to Moscow, where he lives.

Ivan Stulov began carving in his early boyhood. He was born and bred in Bogorodsk, a small town in the Gorky Region which from time immemorial was famous for its wood-carvers. For many years Stulov was a wood-carver himself. But the more adept he became in the art, the more he yearned for a more durable and beautiful material.

His search led him to the Barnukov cave near the town, where he discovered

enormous deposits of anhydrite. He was attracted by the color and quality of the stone. Long ago the villagers used to make household utensils from anhydrite—that he knew—but he wanted the stone for artistic objects and he soon found that it came to life in his hands.

Eager to perfect his art, Stulov went to study in Moscow. He returned to Bogorodsk and his cave, a qualified master. From here he sent his works to a Moscow exhibition of arts and handicrafts and thus became known.

His workmanship attracted the local youth. Many really gifted boys and girls under his tutelage were soon handling large monoliths of anhydrite with professional skill.

The Secret of the Gestapo Room

By a Soviet Correspondent in Berlin

Long before the war Himmler, as chief of the German Police and Gestapo, concluded oral and written agreements with the police of thirteen countries. The then chiefs of police in Belgium, Holland, Finland, Sweden, Italy, Yugoslavia, Portugal, Spain, Hungary, Brazil, Greece, Japan and Poland agreed to cooperate with him in persecuting anti-fascists.

This cooperation was conducted under the label of the International Police Commission, the headquarters of which were in Germany. It was actually a branch of the Gestapo.

I have seen for myself what it meant in practice. In May this year I was taken to room No. 322 on the fourth floor of the main Gestapo building at No. 8 Prinz Albrecht Strasse. There I examined files relating to anti-Nazis the world over. Here were dossiers about Germans and Frenchmen, Italians and Swedes, Spaniards and Poles, Hungarians and Belgians.

They related not only to people who had visited German territory on one or another occasion, but even to many who had never set foot in Germany. Anyone who was at all prominent in progressive, democratic movements could be certain of an entry in the Gestapo files.

I pulled out the dossier of a woman from Marseilles, Jeanne B. The Gestapo had recorded that she was active in the working-class movement in France, that she had fought with the International Brigade in Spain, that she was here and there and elsewhere at such and such a time.

Where did the Gestapo get their facts? From the police of France and Spain, of course.

A memo about an Austrian, Gerhard S., contained the note: "Is recorded in the secret files of the Swiss police as a foreigner for whom entrance into Switzerland is forbidden." How did the Gestapo know? Naturally, the Swiss police told them.

The Gestapo files were packed with information such as their agents could never have garnered by their own unaided efforts.

Himmler's so-called International Po-

lice Commission had its own radio station which systematically broadcast information about those sought by the Gestapo beyond the German frontiers. The countries linked to the commission picked up the broadcast information and acted on it as the Gestapo required.

In June, 1943, Sweden set up a radio which picked up the broadcasts from Germany. Through this radio station the Swedish police received information from Berlin about certain persons and demands for their arrest, which were fulfilled.

Before the Swedish Parliament, the Swedish minister Erlander attempted to deny the existence of this radio station. Now, under the pressure of irrefutable evidence he has been forced to announce through the Swedish Telegraph Agency that his denial was incorrect.

Erlander has revealed that the Swedish police did in fact receive radio transmissions from the Berlin police until April, 1945. This instance illustrates the closeness of the ties that existed between the Gestapo and the police of other countries,

including the neutrals.

In 1941, at the instance of the Gestapo, the Swedish police persecuted members of the International Seamen's Union who were trying to hold their own against the many German spies who felt themselves at home in Swedish ports.

An exceedingly ugly picture was revealed during the trial of two German spies, Linden and Paulson. It seems that key Nazi agents even penetrated the Swedish police service. Paulson was a government official in the political department. It was his job to supervise the activities of foreigners in Sweden.

Such a man as Paulson was able to worm himself into his position because the chief of the Swedish police was friendly towards Himmler and the Gestapo.

From the example of Sweden we can judge how deeply the disease of Nazism has penetrated. The peoples of the world are deeply interested in rooting out forever the friends, accomplices and hirelings of the Gestapo.

Professor Transplants Hearts

By Sergei Rostov

Professor Sinitzin, of Gorky Medical Institute, has succeeded in transplanting a frog's heart, and removing the heart of the host.

The frogs with transplanted hearts lived for over six months, and were indistinguishable from the control frogs. In the spring of last year they went through the usual breeding cycle, and spawned. In the summer the experimental frogs and a large number of the control frogs died from some unknown cause. Examination revealed no change in the heart or other internal organs. Only three frogs survived the summer.

In the autumn of 1944 Professor Sinitzin transplanted hearts into the bodies of these three frogs. The behavior of all the frogs is exactly the same. There are no visible signs of the operation, as the professor inserted the hearts through the frogs' mouths.

The hearts of cold-blooded animals differ in structure from those of warm-blooded animals. They are also at a lower stage of development.

Having succeeded with his frogs, Professor Sinitzin began experiments on warm blooded animals, cats, dogs and rabbits, with their more complex heart structure. First he grafted the second heart on to the neck of the experimental animal, and joined the right ventricle to the blood circulatory system. Then he grafted both ventricles to the circulatory system. Both experiments succeeded.

The professor reports that the animals are doing well, and that their own hearts are still working normally. After the operation the subject does not suffer at all from shortness of breath, spasms or excitability. The grafted heart continues working at its own natural rhythm, which is usually more clearly defined than that of the host's own heart.

Soviet Cinema Today and Tomorrow

By Ivan Bolshakov

Soviet cinematographers during the war have contributed no little effort to the cause of final victory.

As the Soviet land passes to a new era of peaceful construction, Soviet cinema art is confronted with fresh and responsible tasks. Our new productions must depict the heroism of the Patriotic War of the Soviet people who won an unprecedented victory.

Our new films will be devoted to that generation which fought so valiantly that peace might reign on earth.

The organizer and guiding spirit of the Soviet struggle against fascist Germany was Joseph Stalin. It was with his name on their lips that our fighting men went into battle.

It was his name that inspired such heroines and heroes as Zoya Kosmodem'yanskaya and Alexander Morozov, Lisa Chaikina and Konstantin Gastello. His name inspired millions of working people in the rear: workers, collective farmers and intellectuals. His name has become the symbol of our victory. That is why we shall seek to portray the beloved image of our greatest man and Army leader.

Work has long since been launched on the restoration of our ruined cities, industrial centers and collective farms. We shall produce films about the people employed on the vast restoration front.

Our program will include films about outstanding scientists and artists, their achievements and discoveries. An important place will belong to historical films about the past of Soviet peoples, of fraternal Slav nations and their concerted struggle against the German-fascist invaders.

Comedies and musical films, too, will receive careful attention. Our people are experiencing a period of great elation and therefore require humor and clever satire.

Our cinematography must extend the production of color films, for which all the requisite conditions are now at hand.

Our growing production plan calls for growing numbers of regisseurs and actors. A number of gifted regisseurs distinguished themselves during the war. New cinema personnel must be trained for independent work in the future.

A special "Theater of the Cinema Actor" was organized last year to serve as an experimental laboratory to raise the level of Soviet cinema acting.

This theater will eventually enable us to carry on with our own actors without resorting to the services of those from the legitimate stage. Simultaneously engaged in film and theatrical productions, such actors are not always able to reckon with the requirements and interests of cinema production.

The more vividly to present the ideas of our times, a bold search for new artistic forms is necessary in each sphere of the cinema, be it that of regisseur, actor, dramatist, cameraman, composer or artist. Only by constantly improving our productions can we create such films as shall be added to the classic works of Soviet cinema.

An important role in the development of Soviet cinematography devolves upon our fraternal national Republics, each of which has its own gifted artists as is attested by the newly completed films, *Takhir and Zukhra*, *Arshin Mal Allan*, *Abai*, *Semetei*, *Son of Manas*, and others. Assisted during the war by regisseurs, cameramen and actors of the Central Studios in evacuation, the studios of the national Republics acquired additional skill and today possess up-to-date equipment.

Among the many organizational and production problems confronting Soviet cinema at present, there is the immediate task of extending the great Mosfilm Studios. The output of these studios in the next two or three years will reach 40 full-length films annually. This project naturally will entail the training of new personnel, actors and technicians.

The Cinematography Committee last year organized the special Stereocinema Studios, which, in addition to producing

stereofilms, were also to conduct research in this sphere of cinematography and produce all the necessary equipment.

The personnel of these studios are now striving to pass from experiments to practical application of their experiences to enable, not thousands, but millions of Soviet people to view the results of their work.

The production plan of Soviet cinematography this year is far more varied and is being more rapidly realized this year than hitherto. The end of the Second World War has opened a new era for the cinema of the Soviet land.

Young Experts for the Arctic

Several meteorologists and aerologists, graduates of the Leningrad Courses for Arctic Workers, are on their way to wintering stations in the North. One group has left for the eastern part of the Arctic Region via Vladivostok, another has gone to Archangelsk, whence it will sail to the western and central parts of the Region as soon as navigation opens; while a third group, which left Leningrad recently will go via Irkutsk and Tixie Bay to wintering stations on the shore of the Laptev Sea.

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November 7-Anniversary of the Revolution Marks the Gains of 28 Years

By E. Genkina
D.Sc. of History

During the Soviet-German war there was one very colorful poster that was extremely popular throughout the Soviet Union. It showed an elderly Russian worker in civilian clothes carrying a rifle and with him a young Red Army soldier wearing a steel helmet and carrying a Tommy gun. The caption was one simple phrase, but one which was well understood by everybody in the Soviet Union—*We Will Defend the Gains of October.*

"The socialist system which was engendered by the October Revolution imbued our people and our Army with great and invincible strength," said Stalin in his speech on the occasion of the 27th Anniversary of the Revolution. The Soviet people link up with the date of the October Revolution all those great victories and political, social and economic gains which have opened the way to a new life.

In February, 1917, autocracy was overthrown in Russia. Power passed into the hands of the bourgeois Provisional Government. The Soviets

(Councils) of Workers and Soldiers Deputies, which during the first months of the Revolution were controlled by middle class parties, handed over the State power to the bourgeoisie. In actual fact, at that time, dual power was exercised in the country—that of the Provisional Government and that of the Soviets.

On the third (sixteenth) of April Lenin arrived in Petrograd. In the speech which he delivered from the turret of an armored car, Lenin called on the masses to struggle for victory of the Socialist Revolution.

Lenin advanced a plan for the transition

from a bourgeois democratic revolution to a socialist revolution—from a Parliamentary to a Soviet Republic. Lenin did not call for a rebellion against the Provisional Government, which at that time enjoyed the confidence of the Soviets, he did not demand its overthrow, but by means of explanatory work and election campaigns strove to attain a majority in the Soviets, change their policy and through the Soviets change the composition and politics of the Government. This was the line of policy designed to develop the Revolution peacefully.

In Petrograd, in July, there was a mass demonstration of workers and soldiers. The demonstrators demanded of the Soviets that they take power into their own hands, make a break with the bourgeoisie and pursue an active peace policy. Notwithstanding the peaceful nature of the demonstration, reactionary military units were sent against them. The streets of Petrograd flowed with the blood of workers and soldiers. The Bolshevik Party was outlawed and



STORMING THE PALACE—This painting by artist V. Kuznetsov shows workers, soldiers, and sailors storming the Winter Palace of the Tsars in 1917

driven underground and Bolshevik newspapers were banned.

The dual power ended in favor of the



Painting by V. Kheostenko

LENIN'S RETURN—This painting depicts his arrival at Petrograd from abroad

bourgeoisie, for the full power passed into the hands of the Provisional Government while the Soviets, led by middle class parties, developed into an appendage of the Provisional Government. The peaceful period of the Revolution had come to an end.

In the countryside the peasants were fighting for the transfer of the landowners' estates to them, and the Provisional Government sent punitive expeditions against them—suppressed the peasant movement by the use of armed force. The urban workers were fighting for improved working conditions and for control over industry, and the factory owners organized lockouts, closed their factories and turned the workers out into the streets. Many nationalities of Russia were striving for equal rights and for national emancipation, but the Provisional Government maintained the former regimes in distant provinces by force.

The people as a whole wanted a democratic peace and an immediate end to the war, but the Provisional Government hypocritically called on them to fight the war to the end and at the same time prepared to hand over the town of Petrograd to the Germans. The people wanted an economic revival of the country and the

conversion of Russia into a mighty, free and independent state. Instead, ruin increased, the economy collapsed, prices rose, there was famine and the dependence of Russia on foreign powers increased with every day the Provisional Government remained at the helm.

The forces of counterrevolution gathered and armed themselves. The counterrevolutionary conspiracy of General Kornilov was prepared. The Provisional Government was supported by the biggest foreign powers. However, millions of workers, peasants and soldiers followed the Bolsheviks.

Ever increasing masses of people joined the struggle. After the defeat of the Kornilov rebellion, Lenin was able to say with confidence, "We have behind us the majority of the working class, the advance guard of the people, who are capable of attracting the masses; behind us are the majority of the people. . . ."

The struggle against Kornilov brought new life to the wilting Soviets of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies. The influence of the Bolsheviks in the Soviets became greater than ever. Lenin analyzed the tremendous movements amongst them, and relying on the support of the masses put forward the slogan of armed uprising.

Greater masses of people took part in the October Revolution than in any other revolution in history. The Revolution really aroused millions of people to the struggle, to take part in the making of history, it drew into the movement the "lowest of the low," those sections of the people that formerly had been crushed and oppressed. The October Revolution developed the forces of the people and showed what people are capable of when once they have snapped the chains of slavery.

The enemies of the Revolution thoroughly and carefully prepared both the attack and the false resistance. They had power and arms in their hands, they were helped by many foreign countries. All this, however, collapsed under the pressure of millions of people. Not only Petrograd and Moscow, not only the country's most important industrial regions followed the Bolsheviks, but the whole of huge Russia, all her towns and villages prepared for the October storm.

Every instruction issued by the Bolshevik headquarters at Smolny Institute in Petrograd in those October days was taken up and faithfully obeyed by the masses.

"We have the strength of mass organization that can conquer everything," said Lenin during the October days.

The millions of people who followed him acted like a single gigantic army of a huge country, acted in accordance with a single plan and under a single united leadership. The Revolution, in which greater masses of people participated than in any other revolution in history, was at the same time the best organized.

Everything that should and could insure victory was done. Throughout the country there were Regional Councils of Soviets whose chief motto was "All Power to the Soviets."

Lenin and Stalin pondered carefully over all questions concerning the organization of victory. They produced the plans of battle and the plans of victory. Of extreme importance was the question of selecting the right moment for the uprising, and also the question of planning the uprising. Lenin considered that it was essential to get ahead of the counterrevolution and assume the offensive. "Procrastination is Death!" Lenin said constantly in the days that preceded the October Revolution. The Revolution Headquarters Staff was organized under the command of Stalin, and the forces to direct the action of the struggling masses were distributed.

The 24th of October (November 6), in the early morning after the Junkers had smashed up the *Pravda* print shop, Stalin gave the signal for the insurrection to begin. By evening of that day the armed workers and soldiers had seized important strategic points—the central telegraph office, all bridges across the Neva and local post and telegraph offices. On October 24 (November 6) Lenin arrived at the Smolny Institute during the night and took over the leadership of the insurrection.

By the morning of October 25 (November 7), after the insurgents had seized all railway stations, the state bank and central telephone exchange, it became clear that the insurrection had been successful. The Revolutionary cruiser *Aurora*, with the thunder of her guns

directed against the Winter Palace in which the Provisional Government had its headquarters, announced the beginning of a new era—the era of the Great Socialist Revolution. On October 25 the Bolsheviks issued their appeal "to the citizens of Russia" in which they said that the Provisional Government had been overthrown and that State power was in the hands of the Soviets.

"The cause for which the people fought," said the appeal, "the immediate proposal of a democratic peace, the cancellation of the landlords' right to the land, workers' control over industry and the establishment of a Soviet Government has been achieved." At 2:35 P.M. in the afternoon on October 25, the meeting of the Petrograd Soviet began. The meeting greeted Lenin's appearance with a stormy ovation.

"The Workers' and Peasants' Revolution, about the necessity of which the Bolsheviks have been talking all the time, has been accomplished," said Lenin.

"From now on we enter a new phase of the history of Russia," Lenin's prophetic words rang through the silent hall, "and the present third Russian Revolution must, in the final analysis, lead to the victory of Socialism."

Lenin announced the program of the Revolution at the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets which opened in the

Smolny Institute at 10:45 P.M., the 25th of October. At this time the fighting for the Winter Palace where the last ministers of the Provisional Government were in hiding was still going on. At two o'clock in the night, the Winter Palace was captured by the insurgents. The morning of the 26th, the Congress of Soviets issued an appeal: "Workers, Soldiers and Peasants! Relying on the victorious uprising of workers and the garrison of Petrograd, the Congress takes the State power into its own hands," said the proclamation.

On the night of the 26th the Congress adopted the now historical "Decree on Peace and Land" proposed by Lenin. From that time on all the land belonging to the landlords, monasteries and the family of Romanov tsars passed into the hands of the working people for their free use. The Congress appealed to the governments and peoples of all countries to put an end to the war. The Soviet Government, the Council of People's Commissars, was formed. Lenin was appointed Chairman of the Council and Stalin was appointed People's Commissar for the Affairs of Nationalities.

Lenin very aptly called the period which followed the October victory, "the period of the triumphal march of Soviet power from end to end of a tremendous country."

Following on the heels of Petrograd, Soviet power was established in Moscow and in the most important industrial centers of the country. The mighty waves of the October Revolution in October and November of 1917 rolled across Siberia, the Far East and Central Asia.

The astonishing rapidity with which the October victory spread over the huge expanses of Russia is the best possible evidence of the correctness with which Lenin and Stalin appraised the feelings of the masses on the eve of the Revolution when they assumed that the majority of the working people were in favor of a socialist revolution, in favor of Soviet power. The first days after the October victory confirmed the tremendous strength of the offensive, the unity of will and action of the revolutionary people of Russia who had risen in the struggle for their liberation.

The workers and soldiers of Petrograd and Tashkent, Moscow and Baku, Minsk and Vladivostok, Lugansk and Ekaterinburg, Ivanovo-Voznesensk and Krasnoyarsk were united in one single front, inspired by the same enthusiasm, at one and the same time fighting for one and the same aim. The peasantry of Russia arose under the leadership of the working class, established Soviet power, and in fulfilment of the decree on land seized the land of the landlords. The forces of the working people united in one common effort in all regions, the non-Russian provinces and the industrial centers of this great country.

On the national question the activity of the Soviet Government was based on the principle of equality and the sovereignty of each people of Russia.

In a special declaration issued by the Soviet Government, "Declaration of the Rights of the Peoples of Russia," it was established that the free development of the peoples of Russia and their complete equality are law.

The "Declaration of the Rights of the Working and Exploited People," passed by the Third All-Russian Congress of the Soviets, declared that "The Soviet Russian Republic is founded on the basis of a free union of free nations as the Federation of the Soviet National Republics." The declaration stated further that the main task of Soviet power was the aboli-



Painting by G. Pavlovsky

STALIN IN THE FIELD—The Generalissimo, then a young revolutionary leader, is shown in this painting addressing the ragged troops of the Revolution

tion of all forms of the exploitation of man by man, the complete abolition of the division of society into classes and the establishment of an organized socialist society.

Private ownership of land was abolished. All land was declared the property of all working people. In the interests of securing full power for the working masses and of doing away with any possibility of the reestablishment of the power of exploiters, the arming of workers and the formation of the Red Army were made subjects of decrees.

The Declaration of the Rights of the Working and Exploited Peoples was the foundation of the Constitution of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic.

The October Revolution led to the complete economic and political emancipation of the peoples of Russia. It insured the victory of the ideology of friendship among the peoples in the multi-national Soviet State. It established a new social system, Socialism. It gave the land to the peasants and the factories to the workers.

The October Revolution saved the peoples of Russia from enslavement and the loss of State independence. The October Revolution made Russia a mighty independent power.

The great October Revolution opened up before all the peoples of Russia a new path of development, brought a new and happy way of life to millions of people and ushered in a new epoch in the history of the country.

The October Revolution not only built up a new economic and political system, it trained and created new people, Soviet people, free, bold, energetic and filled with unbounded love for their country.

The gains that resulted from the October Revolution were recognized and are today still more widely recognized by all progressive mankind. The whole world knows that in saving world civilization from the brown plague of fascism an important part was played by the fact that 28 years ago, November 7, 1917, thanks to the energy and willpower of the Russian people and the genius of their leaders, Lenin and Stalin, the huge country was directed onto a new path of development.

USSR HEALS WAR WOUNDS



REBUILDING THEIR HOMES—These women are among those who are working to repair and reconstruct the houses of Stalingrad, their home city



MOTORS HUM AGAIN—At the Stalingrad Tractor Works, production has begun on the implements so necessary for reconstruction on the farms



AT THE DNEIPER DAM—Work is going forward in rebuilding the great Dnieper Hydro Station, much of which was reduced to rubble during the war

Lenin and Stalin, Organizers of Socialism

By Professor Vladimir Berestnov



GENERALISSIMO STALIN

The Soviet State arose as a result of the Socialist Revolution in October 1917. The major decisive weapon of that Revolution, a mighty force in abolishing the old state apparatus that oppressed the working people and brought into being a new form of state power, was Soviet power.

Vladimir Lenin considered the establishment of the Soviet State to be the most important of all great historical reforms. In place of the century-old types of state representing the exploiting rule of the minority, a new type of state, the Soviets of Workers, Peasants and Red Army Deputies was set up; a State which is the embodiment of rule of the majority.

This State has its prehistory in the activities of the Paris Commune of 1871; in the work of the Soviets during the first Russian Revolution of 1905-1907 and during the second Russian Revolution of February 1917.

On the basis of the historical experience gained by the Revolutionary classes themselves, Lenin put forward Soviet power as the State form of dictatorship of the proletariat. This wonderful dis-

covery of a new state form was justified by the fact that the Soviets as organs of genuine democracy were the decisive political factor that enabled millions of people to take part in building up the State.

The Workers' and Peasants' Government—the Council of People's Commissars—set up by the victorious Revolution, was headed by Lenin. Together with him in the Government was his comrade-in-arms, Stalin, who headed the People's Commissariat of Nationalities, a state body never before known in history.

From the very beginning of the Revolution Lenin and Stalin built up the new State on the basis of equality and friendship of peoples, on the basis of voluntary alliance. Lenin and Stalin drew up the "Declaration of the Rights of the Peoples of Russia," which proclaimed the advent of a new era in relations between peoples, an era of equality, fraternal trust and friendship.

The old oppressors' law of divide and rule was replaced by the new law uniting all working people by unbreakable bonds of their own vital interests.

"Our Union, our new State," said Lenin, "is firmer than the rule of force which unites by lies and iron . . ." This new multi-national State based on the equality and friendship of peoples, passed safely through severest trials and grew and became tempered in these trials.

In building up the new State, the genius of Lenin and his closest collaborator, Stalin, stands out very clearly. Political wisdom, farsightedness, unbending will and courage were combined in them with a profound knowledge of the people, their needs and their secret aspirations, with profound faith in the people and in their creative abilities.

Lenin and Stalin strove to inculcate the Soviet people with a feeling of confidence in their own strength, to direct the initiative of the masses toward building up new forms of life; they sought new methods of organizing the masses and correlated the experiences of the masses.

They said that the new social system will not be built up by orders from above,



V. I. LENIN

and that the system of bureaucratic red tape is alien to socialism.

"Living creative socialism is the creation of the masses of the people themselves."

All organs of the Soviet State were organized with the direct participation of Lenin and Stalin. Under the guidance of Lenin and Stalin the Workers' and Peasants' Red Army was formed for the defense of the young Soviet Republic. This was an army of a new type, an army of the people, an army capable of producing new organs of the Soviet State life that were to replace the former state apparatus of oppression.

Lenin put forward and gave the basis to the principles for the structure of the new Soviet courts of justice which he regarded as organs for the improvement of the public and for inflicting punishment on the enemies of the Revolution.

The police and the gendarmerie apparatus was completely abolished. During the first days of the Revolution the Workers' and Peasants' militia was organized as the organ of Soviet power entrusted with the maintenance of Revolutionary order, the protection and defense of the prop-

erty of the people and the interests of the people.

While directing the destruction of the old state apparatus and establishing the new, Lenin and Stalin demanded that everything good created by the development of bourgeois culture should be preserved, used and improved.

They attached great importance to the reorganization of schools, publishing houses, libraries and health services as important fields of State life.

The first Soviet Constitution drawn up by Lenin and Stalin was adopted in 1918. This was the first constitution to give legal form to the victory of the Socialist Revolution and the establishment of the first Soviet Socialist State in history.

The Constitution proclaimed and gave legal force to Soviet democracy for an overwhelming majority of the population and insured real freedom and political rights to the working people.

The new form of Socialist State life was given legal expression in the Constitution of 1918. That of 1924 (adopted after the formation of the USSR) insured the fulfillment of the tasks involved in the building of Socialism and insured that the working class should play the leading role in this work. Tremendous work in the development of the non-Russian constituent republics led to their union in

one Federative State of the USSR. The foundation of the USSR was a great victory for the national policy of Lenin and Stalin. It brought about greater mutual support and greater mutual assistance, especially on the part of the great Russian people—first among equals of the single family of the peoples of the USSR.

After the death of Lenin his great successor, Stalin, directed the work of building and strengthening the Soviet State. In the path that had been pointed out by Lenin, Stalin led the Soviet people to the victory of Socialism, to the consolidation and development of the might of the Soviet State, to the further development of Soviet democracy, to the fulfillment of plans for the industrialization of the country and the collectivization of agriculture.

Under the leadership of Stalin, the initiator of the great plan for the industrialization of the country, the Soviet people carried out their gigantic Five-Year Plans ahead of schedule and converted the Soviet Union into a mighty industrial power.

The Soviet Union carried through a tremendous program for the collectivization of agriculture, which turned the tiny peasant holdings into the world's largest mechanized farms. Industry and agriculture, the whole economy of the country

are of one type—Socialist. Socialist reconstruction of the whole national economy made radical changes in the social structure and in relations of the classes of the USSR, thus bringing about the further development of the Soviet State.

On the initiative of Stalin, the new Constitution of the USSR was drawn up and adopted in 1936; in this Constitution are recorded the great victories of socialism and the definite rights and duties of citizens according to developed socialist democracy.

The new Constitution marked the transition of the Soviet Union to the new phase of its development period in which the building of socialism will be completed and the gradual transition to Communism effected. It was an act of indictment against fascism, and moral support for all fighters against fascist barbarity. The Soviet people unanimously named the Constitution after the man who formulated it—Stalin.

Under the Stalin Constitution the moral and political unity of the Soviet people became still stronger. It reflected all the greatness and might of the Soviet State which had become a tremendous factor in the historical development of the world.

When Hitler's hordes treacherously invaded the Soviet State, the Soviet people met them bravely. There was great love for their country in the hearts of the Soviet people and profound faith in the State that had been built up by Lenin and Stalin. In their memories they retained the figure of Lenin. When Stalin called on the sons of our country to fight heroically, he said:

"The spirit of the great Lenin and his victorious banner now inspire us in this Patriotic War just as they did 23 years ago."

In the name of the liberty and independence of our country, in the name of the noble and lofty aims of the just war of liberation fought by the Soviet people together with other freedom-loving nations, we destroyed German-fascist armies and brought peace to the liberated peoples of Europe, brought them independence and help in their struggle for triumph of justice and progress.



LENIN AND RED GUARD—The artist here has painted Lenin conferring with men of the Revolutionary Red Guard on tactics of the Revolution

Democracy Born of a Great Revolution

By Professor Andrei Denisov

The truly democratic nature of the Soviet system is expressed in the fact that large masses of people take a direct part in State and economic affairs. "Soviet power," said the founder of the Soviet State, Vladimir Lenin, in 1918, "is the machinery—the machinery for the masses to begin at once to learn to govern the State and to organize production on a national scale."

In the Soviet Union millions of people take a direct part in the administration of the State. Soviet democracy—this new type of popular government unprecedented in history—released the labor, energy, enterprise and creative capacities of the broadest masses of people.

Soviet democracy does not merely state the formal rights of its citizens, but stresses the questions of guarantees for the exercise of these rights. The foundation of Soviet democracy is a system of society in which the instruments and means of production belong to all working people.

In the Soviet Union the exploitation of man by man has been abolished. The land, its mineral deposits, forests, factories, mills, mines, banks, railways and means of communication—all belong to the Soviet State; in other words they are all the possession of the entire people.

Both State property and cooperative and collective farm property serve not the purpose of enriching individual persons at the expense of others, but the interests of the people.

Equal Rights Insured

The State guarantees equal and real rights for all citizens. These rights are written into the Constitution of the USSR, which accords to all citizens broad democratic rights in all spheres of economic, State, social, political and cultural life.

The State guarantees the equal right to all to work, rest and leisure; to education, material security in old age as well as in case of sickness or loss of capacity to work—rights that elevate and protect the



THE KREMLIN—These buildings, once the citadel of the oppressive tsarist government, now serve as the seat of the Soviet Government

dignity of man. It guarantees equal rights to men and women, equal rights to all nationalities and races, equal rights to all citizens to take part in elections to all bodies of Soviet authority.

The Stalin Constitution accords citizens the right to unite in trade unions, cooperative organizations, cultural societies, etc. It guarantees freedom of speech, freedom of assembly, freedom of the press, freedom of public meeting, demonstrations and street processions, and inviolability of persons and homes.

The right to work is insured by a planned national economy, the steady growth of the productive forces of society, elimination of the possibility of economic crises, and the abolition of unemployment. The right to rest and leisure is insured by legislative reduction of the working day, the institution of annual vacations with full pay for workers and employees, the provision of a wide network of sanatoriums, rest homes, clubs and Palaces of Culture for the accommodation of workers, peasants and professionals.

The vast expenditures of the State for

social insurance provides the means for putting into effect the right of citizens to material maintenance in old age and also in case of sickness or the loss of capacity to work. Last year the expenditures of the State on social insurance amounted to 4,000,000,000 rubles. This year they will amount to over 5,000,000,000 rubles. In addition, the State spends enormous sums on free medical aid to the working people. In 1944 the appropriations for medical services provided for in the budget amounted to 10,200,000,000 rubles, and in the 1945 budget these appropriations amount to about 13,000,000,000 rubles. Large sums are spent by the State on the payment of pensions and allowances. This year's State budget provides for the expenditure of 17,700,000,000 rubles on social maintenance.

The right of the Soviet people to an education is insured by universal compulsory elementary education with instruction conducted in native languages and by the existence of a wide network of schools, courses in vocational high schools, colleges and universities.

Soviet democracy implies not only



THEIR OWN LAND—Buryat collective farmers gather to read the Government act which transfers land to the collective farms in endless free tenure

equal rights but equal duties for all citizens. It is the duty of every citizen of the USSR to observe the laws of the Soviet State, to safeguard and strengthen the property of the people, its freedom and independence against all enemy encroachments. Citizens have equal duty to work according to their abilities, and the equal right to receive from society in accordance with the quantity and quality of the work performed. Not property status, not national origin, not sex, but the personal abilities and personal labor of each citizen determine his position in Soviet society.

Active Democracy

Soviet democracy is not passive, but active. It is a creative democracy. The masses of the people do not confine themselves merely to electing their representatives. They take an active part themselves in the administration of the State.

History knows no more popular and democratic form of government than the Soviets. They are elected by the entire population of the USSR, by all citizens who have reached the age of 18 irrespective of nationality or race, religion, education, residence, social origin, property status or past activity. The elections of Deputies to all Soviets are conducted on

the basis of universal equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

The following figures show how the Soviet people use their right to elect Deputies. In the elections of Deputies to the First Supreme Soviet of the USSR, 91 million citizens took part, or 96.8 per cent of all eligible voters. In elections to the Supreme Soviet of the Russian SFSR, 99.3 per cent of all voters took part.

Millions of representatives of the people have been elected to bodies of Government authority—the Soviets. The number of Deputies in Village Soviets is 1,060,746; in the Settlement of Soviets, 39,000; in District Soviets, 140,158; in Town Soviets, 151,822; in Regional and Territorial Soviets, 9,311; in Supreme Soviets of Autonomous Areas and Union Republics, 6,852 and in the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, 1,338. At least half a million Deputies in the various Soviets are women.

The administration of the State in the Soviet Union is in the hands of really the best representatives of workers, peasants and the intelligentsia who have won the people's confidence by their activity for the country's good. The democratic Soviet system insures the rapid political and cultural development of public-spirited citizens. Ferapont Golovaty, who

is now known to the entire country, was an ordinary collective farmer a few years ago. Now he is Assistant Chairman of the famed Stakhanovetz collective farm in Saratov Region. In the trying days when the enemy was nearing the Volga, Golovaty's initiative gave rise to a powerful popular movement. Millions of people contributed their savings to provide better armaments for the Red Army. Golovaty's own contributions bought two planes for the Red Army. Ferapont Golovaty recently was nominated and confirmed as a member of the Central Election Committee in connection with the forthcoming elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

Praskovya Angelina, a modest village girl, became an expert tractor driver and her record achievements in farm work with the aid of the tractor gained her fame throughout the country. She was elected to the First Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

The Great October Revolution put an end to national and race oppression in Russia which formerly was the prison of nations. The Soviet Government achieved practical equality of nations and races. As a result of the economic, political, and cultural assistance provided by the Russian people, all nationalities of the Soviet Union have become really free and have developed their economy and culture.

One of the striking expressions of Soviet democracy is the constant strengthening of friendship among the peoples of the Soviet Union. The Soviet democratic system has devised new forms of national statehood (Union Republics, Autonomous Republics, Autonomous Regions and Nationality Areas). Soviet democracy has wrought a profound change in all national republics and regions.

The Soviet system has opened for the peoples of Russia the road to a life of prosperity and culture, has enlisted large masses in active social and State activity, and has developed and strengthened their love for their country, uniting them into an unbreakable family. Therein lies the great service of Soviet democracy.

USSR Mighty Military Power

By Colonel Ivan Krupenin

The Twenty-Eighth Anniversary of the great October Socialist Revolution is an important festival for the peoples of the Soviet Union. The blood of the best sons of the Soviet people, spilled in the course of four years' titanic struggle against the bestial forces of the most reactionary imperialist system of evil and rapine, fascism, has earned our people a life of constructive creative labor, and at the same time has saved the civilized world from ruin.

War is the severest of all tests to which the strength of a state can be put. It is a test of the vitality of the power established in that state. The Soviet people passed this test magnificently. They defended their country against the enemy. In the history of the Russian State there have been periods when it seemed that it must go under. But the Russian people arose in all their might and defeated the enemy by feats that have long been sung in Russian epics—the byliny.

The Russian people, for example, threw off the yoke of the Tartars and prevented the advance of the nomad tribes to the west. Together with other Slav peoples, they smashed the Teutonic Order. On Russian soil, the famous eighteenth-century Swedish General King Charles XII was defeated. On the fields of Russia the mighty armies of Napoleon met their doom. The 1941 invasion of the Soviet Union by aggressor armies, fully mobilized and having behind them experience in the conduct of modern warfare, was greater and more dangerous than any of the former invasions experienced by Russians in the course of their history.

Germany entered the Second World War more powerfully armed than in 1914. The Hitlerites succeeding in building up a strong, technically equipped army, and in poisoning the minds of millions of Germans with their misanthropic ideology, their race theories, and their bestial nationalism.

Taking advantage of the favorable situation—the possibility of prosecuting the war on the Eastern Front alone—the Germans hurled 170 divisions, 80 per cent

of all their forces, against the Red Army. For three years the whole world watched with bated breath the gigantic duel between the Soviet Union and Hitlerite Germany. The Soviet people and their Red Army won. The Hitlerite state and its Wehrmacht collapsed under the blows of the Red Army and the armies of the Allies. The victory was a complete one. On May 8, 1945, the German armed forces surrendered unconditionally. Less than four months later, Germany's last ally, Japanese fascism, laid down its arms.

Victory did not come of its own accord. Colossal effort on the part of the whole people and the entire fighting forces of the Soviet Union was necessary.

All the advantages of the Soviet system, acquired as a result of the October Revolution, were reflected in the Red Army and the Soviet people, who in the course of the war successfully came through all trials and demonstrated their great strength and the superiority of their system over the German military system.

The Red Army proved able to master new technical means of warfare and to use them effectively. According to the

Soviet doctrine of war, artillery occupies an important place in the equipment of the Red Army. The Red Army artillery began the Second World War strong qualitatively and quantitatively. The Soviet 76 mm field gun, adopted in 1939, the howitzers adopted in 1938, and the heavy artillery adopted in 1937 and 1938 proved excellent weapons. They were superior to German ordnance of similar type right up to the end of the war.

The same may be said of long range artillery. All these types of artillery were adopted by the Red Army before the war began. In the course of the war, constant improvements were made in the armor-piercing qualities of our shells, and in lightening the weight of the field artillery which accompanies infantry. In mortars, the Red Army in the course of the war showed its superiority over the Germans.

New-type bombthrowing machines and rocket guns played an important role during the Second World War. A number of types of shells were developed during the war—cumulative, armor-piercing, etc. Perfected firing methods were de-



MILITARY MIGHT—These tanks, shown moving toward Red Square for a May Day parade, formed part of the great military machine which conquered the Axis

veloped for anti-aircraft artillery. Before the war Soviet industry built up the necessary base to supply ordnance; this enabled the Red Army to increase the number of guns in use during the war despite the great losses that were suffered.

At the beginning of 1942, there were from forty to fifty guns to a kilometer at the front. In operations during 1943, this number increased to 250; and in 1944 and 1945, there were between 400 and 500 guns per kilometer at the front. As a general rule, every offensive operation was conducted with a preponderance of Soviet artillery over German. Qualitative and quantitative superiority of Soviet guns made up for temporary German superiority in tanks and aircraft during the early stages of the war.

Soviet socialist industry also made possible the application of progressive military doctrine to the use of tanks. The Soviet heavy assault tank T-34, also used for maneuvering, is qualitatively superior to German tanks. Rearming of their forces with heavy tanks, in the course of the war, no longer changed the situation to the advantage of the Germans. The excellent qualities of Soviet tanks, and the fighting abilities of our armored and motorized forces, made them major forces used in enveloping operations for the encirclement of the enemy.

The process of development which took place in technical equipment of the Red Army was seen most clearly in its aircraft. At the beginning of the war, the Germans had numerical superiority in the air. At that time, Soviet air forces were being supplied with new types of machines. During the war, Soviet air forces developed to a level which gave absolute superiority in the air during the decisive phase of the war.

Soviet socialist economy, therefore, provided the Red Army with first-class weapons of war, and the Soviet military system proved its ability to use these weapons to good effect.

Experience gained in all wars has shown that one of the deciding factors is the morale of the army. Lenin and Stalin, founders of the Soviet State, teach us that the morale of the Army depends on the nature of the war: on whether or not the objects to be achieved are close to the whole people and can be understood by them and by the officers and men of the army, and whether they reflect the interests of the people.

The Red Army never has conducted unjust wars and never will. In the Patriotic War against German aggression and Japanese imperialism, the Army was inspired by the noble and lofty aims of an army of liberation. That is why the

Red Army produced thousands of heroes and heroines and why every Soviet soldier was prepared to go to his death for the sake of his country.

Soviet strategy solved the problem of planning forces and resources of the country to ensure constantly growing strength in various operations. Stalin's strategy also solved the problem of co-operation between various groups of armies. The gigantic offensive of 1944 along the whole front from the White to the Black Sea was united in one single strategic plan by his Supreme Command. It pinned down the enemy by depriving him of any possibility of effective countermaneuver. The history of warfare has nothing like this to show.

In the art of conducting operations the Red Army solved in brilliant style the problem of operative maneuvers for the purpose of encircling and destroying large strategical groups of the enemy's forces. The Red Army showed its ability to repeat the lesson of Cannae under the most varied circumstances.

The Red Army also demonstrated some brilliant examples in the sphere of tactics. In the course of the fighting, officers of all grades succeeded in mastering the highest form of tactics—that of movement. The co-operation of all branches of the Army effecting tactical breaches of the enemy's line added to skill in maneuvering, enabled the Red Army to effect each operation as one decisive whole.

The practical nature of the strategic tasks set, and the fact that they were in accordance with the forces and equipment available, ensued complete unity of strategic tactics and operations.

The historical victories of the Red Army in the Second World War are indivisibly bound up with the name of Generalissimo Stalin. The foundation for these victories was laid many years ago when the genius of Stalin showed the way in which Soviet Russia could be developed into a great power.

This way was industrialization of the country, and collectivization of farming.

The genius of Stalin, his indomitable will and organizational ability, mobilized all forces of the country and the efforts of millions of Soviet people for the defeat of Hitler Germany and Japan.



ALLIES—An American Naval officer embraces a Red Army man as news comes of Germany's capitulation. Happy crowds of civilians rejoice with them

Health of the People Under Socialism

By G. Miterev

Since the establishment of Soviet rule in Russia, radical changes have taken place in the public health services. Formerly the shortage of doctors and the expensive nature of medical aid forced broad masses of the population to resort to home-made measures.

Nowadays every patient is entitled to qualified medical treatment in hospitals, polyclinics, and at home, entirely free of charge. Thanks to the efforts of the Soviet Government in this direction, epidemics have become unknown things in this country.

As compared with 1913, the number of persons suffering from tuberculosis decreased 2.5 times. Appropriations for public health services amounted to only 128,000,000 rubles in the budget of tsarist Russia. The Soviet Government assigns huge sums to this purpose, as for instance, 12,000,000,000 rubles in 1941 and 14,500,000,000 rubles in 1945.

A wideflung network of outpatients' departments, polyclinics, clinics specializing in the treatment of one disease, and other medical institutions have sprung up throughout the country. Every industrial enterprise, every mine, has its own first-aid posts. All medical institutions are fitted with up-to-date equipment and staffed with qualified doctors of various specialties.

Eminent specialists and professors may always be called in for consultation by doctors. In cases where illness is difficult to diagnose or in case a sudden change for the worse takes place in the condition of the patient, a consultation of several physicians is called in the polyclinic to decide on necessary treatment.

As has already been stated above, the whole of this assistance, including sana-

torium treatment, is accorded the population entirely free of charge.

In tsarist Russia not more than ten per cent of the women, even those living in large towns in the provinces, were



SMALL SOVIET CITIZEN—This child and his mother are among the millions whose health is guarded

in a position to obtain qualified medical aid in confinement.

In villages, matters were still worse. In the Soviet Union special importance is attached to the protection of women's health. In 1941, the maternity homes of the USSR had 142,000 beds, including 66,000 in rural localities. In 1913, tsarist Russia boasted only 6,800 beds in maternity homes. Today the network of maternity homes is so wideflung that cases of confinement without the assist-

ance of a qualified obstetrician are practically unknown.

In order to ensure that both mother and child are kept under constant observation by specialists, prenatal and postnatal consultation centers exist everywhere. Special State aid is provided for women for a certain period before and after confinement, and mothers of large families receive permanent financial aid from the State and enjoy a number of other privileges.

The work of health resorts and sanatoriums has also been organized on new scientific lines. Only the rich were in a position to enjoy the few health resorts of tsarist Russia. Under Soviet rule, the wonderful palaces of the Crimea and the Caucasus have been turned into sanatoriums and rest homes for the people. In addition, many new large sanatoriums equipped with up-to-date apparatus have been built.

Preventive measures hold a central place in the attention of the public health services. Great improvement has taken place in labor protection devices, and a much greater control of sanitary conditions in cities and villages in all food enterprises is being enforced. All this has helped bring about radical improvement in the

health of the population. In addition to vaccination, which is compulsory for the population, tens of millions of inoculations are made every year against various infectious diseases. As a result of these measures, mortality in the USSR has been halved and infant mortality reduced by more than half.

Soviet medical science has enriched the world with most important discoveries, particularly in the field of surgi-

(Continued on page 16)

Progress of Science Since the Revolution

By Academician S. I. Vavilov

President of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR

The Academy of Sciences, founded in 1725, has been closely bound up with the history of Russian science and education since that time. Despite difficulties in the way of the development of science in pre-Revolutionary Russia, the Academy in the persons of its best representatives was always the center of Russian science which preserved progressive traditions and never lost touch with the practical requirements of life.

The October Revolution broke down the barrier between science and the people, brought the scientists still closer to life and opened up incomparably wider horizons for scientific activities. Science is the foundation of activities of the Soviet State, and scientists play an important part in planning the national economy and culture.

The history of the Academy of Sciences in the Soviet period of its existence is closely bound up with the names of the great leaders of the people — Vladimir Lenin and Joseph Stalin — who always displayed exceptional interest in the growth and development of the Academy. In 1918 Lenin personally compiled the draft plan for the scientific and technological work which shows the tremendous scope of the tasks which the Soviet Government entrusted to the Academy. Thanks to the efforts made by Lenin, the Academy retained its staff of scientists during the difficult period for the young Soviet Republic from 1918 to 1921, and it was during this period that competent personnel began to work on the reorganization of its laboratories and research institutes.

In 1925, at the time of the 200th Anniversary of its foundation, the Russian Academy was renamed the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. This transformation made the Academy the real headquarters of Soviet science, preserving and developing all that was best in creative scientific work of progressive Russian scientists. Almost all spheres of human knowledge came within the orbit of the

Academy's activities and, in addition to purely theoretical science, considerable study of applied sciences was undertaken.

The Soviet State made adequate provision for development of the Academy's work. Its budget increased from year to year and by 1940, the last prewar year, reached the huge figure of 176,912,000 rubles. By the first of January, 1941, the Academy consisted of five Honorary Members, 119 Members (in 1917 there were 45) and 182 Corresponding Members. The total number of workers employed by the Academy reached 10,000. Up to 1917 the Academy consisted of three departments and a very small number of research institutes. In 1940 there were eight departments of the Academy with 76 research institutions and a number of other scientific bodies. The Academy opened a number of affiliates in constituent republics of the Union. In 1929 the Academy instituted postgraduate courses to enable students to read for

Master's and Doctor's degrees: by January 1, 1945, there were 1,504 postgraduate students in the Academy's institutions.

The Academy of Sciences of the USSR has made important contributions to the world of science. Soviet mathematicians produced works of outstanding importance, especially in the field of differential equations, constructive theory of functions, analytical theory of numbers and the theory of probability. The work of Soviet physicists on low temperatures, cosmic rays, semiconductors, radio and optics is universally recognized. Soviet chemists achieved important results in organic synthesis, the kinetic of chemical reactions, catalysis, surface phenomena, etc.

Especially great are the successes attained by Soviet scientists in studying the production forces of the country.

During the past 25 years the Academy has organized over 500 expeditions staffed by scientists working in various branches.



ACADEMY OF SCIENCES—This building, formerly the Neskuchny Palace, now houses the Presidium of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR in Moscow

Almost all chemical elements have been found within the territory of the USSR. The world's largest deposits of potassium salts have been discovered and deposits of nickel, manganese, cobalt compounds, apatite, bauxite and tin have been surveyed.

Thanks to the work of Academician Ivan Pavlov and his school, Soviet physiology advanced to one of the first places in the world of science. Important contributions to the world of science were made by Alexei Krylov and Sergei Chaplygin in fields of shipbuilding theory and aerodynamics. Representatives of the humanities in the Academy of Sciences published works of great importance on the theory of language dialectology, orientology, history of Russia and Western Europe, the history of world diplomacy, international and Russian law and questions of economics.

The Academy is closely connected with schools of higher learning. A large number of the Members and Corresponding Members of the Academy are professors of colleges in Moscow, Leningrad and other cities; many of them direct research work in various branches of the national economy. The Academy has become the guiding center for a whole network of scientific, technical and sometimes even industrial institutions. The Academy had to undertake the honorable duty of directing numerous scientific and technical conferences, meetings, etc.

The role of the Academy as the headquarters of Soviet science was seen with especial clarity during the Soviet-German war. The knowledge, effort and even the lives of members of the Academy were devoted to the cause of victory. From the very outbreak of the war the Academy became more closely connected with the Red Army, industry and agriculture than ever before; the Academy lined up with all the research institutions of the USSR. A large number of commissions were set up on which some of the leading scientists were employed to work on special wartime subjects and for consultative purposes. The Academy institutes designed new types of weapons, found substitutes for liquid fuels, proposed new methods of combating the enemy's weapons, searched for new wound treatments.



THE ACADEMY MEETS—Scientists specializing in all fields meet at a session of the Academy, shortly after victory, to plan new work and progress

During the war the Soviet Government took every possible measure to preserve the Academy's scientific institutions. They were evacuated to the East in 1941 and there continued their work. In 1943 the Academy returned to Moscow and was enlarged by the election of 36 new Members and 58 new Corresponding Members.

During the war years the Academy organized a number of new research institutes and established two new affiliates in the Kirghiz Republic and western Siberia, as well as new Academy bases in the Komi Republic and in the Far East.

It was also during the war that the Armenian, Azerbaijan and Uzbek affiliates of the Academy grew into national academies of those republics. The Georgian Academy of Sciences was organized somewhat earlier, in 1941, and still earlier the Ukrainian and Byelorussian Academies of Sciences were formed. The establishment of independent national Academies of Sciences in constituent republics of the Union is a great victory for the national policy of the Soviet Government and is a result of training contingents of scientists in the non-Russian Republics by the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

In June 1945, the Academy celebrated

its 220th Anniversary. The Academy Jubilee developed into a real festival of Soviet science, a festival of the Soviet people. The Jubilee Session of the Academy was the first international congress of scientists since the war and it was attended by leading scientists from Great Britain, the United States, France, Belgium, Yugoslavia and other countries.

The Academy of Sciences has a very extensive field of activity before it in the postwar period. Departments and institutes of the Academy are now busy drawing up their plan of research work for 1946.

The new State Five-Year Plan provides first and foremost for the rebuilding of towns, railways and the economy that was wrecked by the German invaders. The Academy of Sciences must play a very important part together with industrial and other research institutions, in putting this Plan into effect. We have every reason to believe that the people who proved capable of defeating a strong enemy, who showed the world uncommon endurance and the ability to mobilize, will now be able to effect progress in science and culture at a still more rapid rate. An honorable and responsible part of this task falls to the lot of the Academy of Sciences.

October's Historical Significance

By Professor I. Mintz

Corresponding Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR

The Anniversary of the October Revolution always has been a festival for the peoples of the Soviet Union and for all progressive mankind. Never before, however, has the significance of the October Revolution been expressed with such clarity as today when the Soviet Union is seen by the eyes of the whole world as the liberator of the peoples from the fascist plague. The admiring glances of millions and millions of people are turned toward the Soviet Union, which bore the major burden of the war against predatory German imperialism on its own shoulders.

The significance of the October Socialist Revolution is primarily in the fact that it has shown the world the most progressive and the most democratic state system.

That generation is still alive which remembers old Russia, so brilliantly described by the poet Nekrassov.

*"You are poor, you are wealthy,
"You are strong, you are helpless,
"Oh, Mother Russia!"*

A little more than a quarter century

has passed since the Revolution and the epoch the poet described has been cast back into the past. The Russian people have inscribed many glorious victories in humanity's book of fate. It has not fallen to the lot of any other country to save Europe so often from the invasions of barbarians.

Old tsarist Russia often suffered disaster. Suffice it to recall the Crimean War of 1853-56, or the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-05. Russia was beaten, as Joseph Stalin pointed out, because of her backwardness—state, industrial, agricultural, cultural and military backwardness.

The tsarist government, relying on the support of the landlords, strove to retain the remnants of serfdom as long as possible; this was a factor that greatly hindered the development of Russia and was the cause of her backwardness. Despite the fact that she owned colossal internal resources, huge tracts of land with numerous and talented population and had mineral wealth of fabulous value, tsarist Russia could not overcome the weakness and impotence of the country.

Tsarism, during the last decades of its existence, doomed Russia more and more to the role of a semi-colonial country dependent on foreign powers. The army of tsarist Russia was not developed up to modern standards technically for the simple reason that the country did not have the industries to equip its army. Tsarism collected tremendous taxes from the people but still could not equip its army on modern lines.

The dependence on foreign countries could only be overcome by developing industry at a more rapid rate. Tsarism tried to encourage the building of railways and iron and steel plants, but still Russian industry did not develop sufficiently to overtake Western Europe. The tsarist government again and again turned to other governments, took loans from them which naturally only served to increase its dependence on foreign capitalists. The people of Russia had an extra burden on their shoulders, the payment of interest on enslaving foreign loans.

During the last decades of the existence of tsarism, the country became still more dependent on foreign capital, and the economic backwardness of Russia as compared with Western European powers was more sharply defined. The rottenness of autocracy came to the fore very forcibly during the First World War when Russia suffered defeat and paid dearly for her backwardness.

The coming to power of the bourgeois Provisional Government in February 1917 did not help. Its short existence only served to sharpen all contradictions. Under the bourgeois Provisional Government the foreign imperialists became absolutely shameless. They interfered in the internal affairs of the country. They insisted on the organization of an offensive at the front, although the Russian army was obviously not in condition to fight. Kerensky, a pitiful toy in the hands of all-powerful bankers, in June 1917 sent Russian regiments forward to slaughter and defeat.

The cynical behavior of the imperialists did not remain unknown to the



EQUALITY—Once oppressed nationalities have equal rights in the USSR. Here, students of the far North go to school at Khabarovsk on the Tatar Strait

masses of people; the Bolsheviks boldly and openly exposed the foreign masters of the bourgeois Provisional Government and proved that the policy of this government would convert Russia into a colony of the imperialist powers. Indignation against these unceremonious masters grew among the people.

The country placed its fate in the hands of the most revolutionary class in modern society—the working class—for the transition to a higher form of production, for the purpose of raising the whole country to a much higher level of economic development.

Having secured the transition of power to the people, the Bolsheviks first set about overcoming the economic backwardness of the country. The Great October Socialist Revolution changed the anti-popular government, destroyed the backward state structure and set up in its place the Soviet system, a system that is based on a firm alliance between workers and peasants.

Generations of people dreamed of establishing a system in which there would be no exploitation of man by man, the best representatives of the people have given their lives for it, and now it has become a reality.

Soviet power, led by the Bolshevik Party, granted democratic rights to the people and abolished national inequality in the country. The economic and cultural backwardness which the oppressed peoples inherited from tsarism was overcome with the aid of the great Russian people.

Soviet power opened up wide vistas for application of the creative efforts of the people. All the nations of Russia gathered around the Bolshevik Party and Soviet power in the struggle against the enemies of the country. The mutual distrust of the peoples one for another became a thing of the past and was replaced by the friendship of equal nations—a friendship which became the mighty source of the strength of the Soviet State.

The great proletarian Revolution provided all the necessary conditions to overcome the backwardness of Russia. Soviet power removed the threat that the working people of the country would be-



THE HARVEST—Collective farms, under the Soviet system, have greatly increased the productivity of land once poorly worked in tiny sharecropped plots



THE FACTORY—Workers like Lydia Anachenok of the Latvian Dantsinger Textile Mills take pride in the products their work produces. She is a shock worker

come the slaves of imperialist states. The Soviet State during the past 28 years has achieved technical and economic independence. During the period of the Stalin Five-Year Plans a powerful socialist industry was built up. In places where foreign capitalists once turned the blood and sweat of the workers into money there are now huge indus-

trial giants of socialist industry in which the free creative labor of the builders of Communism reigns supreme.

Soviet power overcame the agricultural backwardness of the country. Many millions of peasants have been freed from arduous toil on tiny parcels of land. Huge collective farms have grown up and have

(Continued on page 16)

Health of the People

(Continued from page 11)

cal treatment of tuberculosis and cancer. More than 200 medical scientific research institutes function in the country. Their work is headed by members of the All-Union Academy of Medical Sciences, which includes the most outstanding medical practitioners.

The State system of public health protection in the USSR ensured to the Red Army the necessary aid in routing Hitler's war machine. The whole of the Soviet land, its Army, and its people in the rear knew no epidemics throughout the war, if we exclude the territories temporarily occupied by the Hitlerites. More than 73 per cent of those wounded returned to the ranks. These two facts are sufficient to illustrate how well the public health services are organized in the Soviet Union.

In conclusion it is necessary to give a short outline of the vast damage inflicted upon medical institutions of the USSR by the war. The invaders wrecked and looted 6,000 hospitals, 33,000 polyclinics, special clinics and outpatients' departments, and destroyed 60 factories and plants of the chemical, pharmaceutical and medical instruments industries.

Numerous health resorts of the Crimea and the Caucasus suffered particularly heavily. Hitlerites ruined 976 sanatoriums, and 656 rest homes to which several million persons came annually for treatment and recreation. All that which was wrecked and destroyed by Hitlerites will demand great efforts and expenditure of many million rubles. The Fourth Five-Year Plan of 1946-1950, now being drawn up for development of the national economy calls both for restoration of that which was destroyed and for further enlargement and perfection of the public health services in the USSR.

Heroes Star in Film

Thrice Heroes of the Soviet Union Major Ivan Kozhedub and Colonel Alexander Pokryshkin, famous ace pilots of the Second World War who shot down 62 and 60 German planes respectively, are starred in the new film, *Actions of Fighter Aviation*, which will demonstrate the original air combat technique evolved by the two hero fliers.

(Continued from page 15)

been equipped with modern machinery.

The victory of Soviet power in October, 1917, opened up the possibilities for great cultural progress. During the period of the Stalin Five-Year Plans the country underwent a cultural revolution, illiteracy was abolished compulsory universal elementary education was introduced, and Soviet intellectuals from among the various nationalities of the country were trained on a large scale.

The Great October Revolution provided the possibility of overcoming the military backwardness of the country. From the very first days after the establishment of Soviet power Lenin and Stalin set to work to organize the fighting forces of the Soviet Republic. Lessons to be drawn from history show that the labor and energy of generations must go into the organization of an army. Soviet power, however, carried it through in an extremely short historical period.

Soviet power did not confine itself to retaining the best heroic traditions of the Russian people. Soviet power built up a new Army from the sons of the people, an Army that selflessly and unflinchingly defended the socialist system, the interests of the people, their liberty and independence; Soviet power provided its Army with first-class technical equipment. It was the peoples of the Soviet Union that created an Army whose soldiers, with their Allies, smashed the Hitler war machine and the army of Japanese imperialism.

The Great October Revolution showed what strength people can gain when they are led by a party that has been tried and tested, that maintains iron discipline and stands on the firm foundation of the Marxist-Leninist theory, such as the Party of Lenin and Stalin. It was this party alone that exposed the ruinous roads along which the people were being pressed by bankrupt parties and groups, enemies of the people. By a correct policy that is profoundly one of the people, the Bolshevik Party won the complete confidence of millions of working people of our country who placed their fate in its hands; the Party showed the people the one true path for liberation of the country from colonial slavery and boldly led them along that path. The Party of Lenin

and Stalin organized and led the assault on the old regime. The Bolsheviks led the country throughout the difficult years of construction which converted Russia into a rich and powerful country. The Party of Lenin and Stalin during the Soviet-German war was the inspirer and organizer of Soviet victories over the German invaders.

The significance of the October Revolution and its achievements were seen with particular force during the Soviet-German war. Socialist economy passed successfully through the test and showed the great vitality it possesses. During the most difficult moments, when a considerable part of the European countries betrayed by their governments were groaning under the heel of the Hitlerite bandits, when those of little faith no longer believed that there were soldiers to be found capable of standing up to the fascist barbarians, the Soviet State born of the October Revolution did not surrender but withstood and smashed the enemies of mankind.

Soviet patriotism based on the harmonious combination of national traditions and common interests of the working people of the Soviet Union showed its great and invincible strength.

Millions of people outside the Soviet Union who formerly believed the slander of parties hostile to the Soviet Union, are now convinced by their own experience of the role of liberation played by the State that arose out of the Socialist Revolution.

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Information Bulletin

(Issued Three Times Weekly)

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Washington, D. C., November 13, 1945



Order of the Day to the Red Army

*Order of the Day of People's Commissar of Defense of the USSR
No. 75: Moscow, November 7, 1945*

Comrades Red Army men, sergeants, officers and generals, today the peoples of our Country are celebrating the Twenty-Eighth Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution. For the first time after four years of ferocious war against fascist bandits we are meeting on our national holiday under conditions of peace. Six months ago by the joint efforts of the Red Army and the Armies of our Allies—the United States of America and Great Britain—Hitlerite Germany was crushed and then the Japanese aggressor was routed. Our just cause triumphed. The Second World War ended in a great victory for the United Nations. We may rightly take pride in the fact that a decisive part in winning the victory belongs to the Soviet Union. The biggest contribution to the cause of the defeat of the fascist invaders was made by our Soviet people. It proved by deeds that it is a mighty people and that its Army is an advanced modern army. The source

of our inexhaustible strength was the Great October Socialist Revolution and the Soviet system it established.

Were it not for the October Socialist Revolution and its great achievements our country could have fallen prey to foreign invaders. In the Great Patriotic War our Motherland suffered heavy losses, but she emerged from it even stronger and steeled. As a result of the war, the union of workers, peasants and intellectuals grew stronger. The friendship of peoples of our country was strengthened. The Soviet people rallied even more closely around the Party of the Bolsheviks. Our Socialist economy, in spite of the grave damage inflicted upon it by the German invaders, preserved its vital force and unlimited possibilities for further development.

In international relations the Soviet Union has occupied a worthy place befitting it. The democratic masses in other countries see in our country a re-

liable bulwark of peace in the whole world, and in the Red Army they see an Army of friendship among peoples which respects their freedom and independence. Now that victory over the enemy has been won, the principal task of freedom-loving peoples is to consolidate victory and to insure an actually stable and lasting peace. In the days of the Great Patriotic War the interests of the front, the tasks of utter defeat of the enemy, were foremost for the Soviet State. Now it is the tasks of economic and cultural construction that have risen before us in all their magnitude. The Soviet people are to carry out the new Five-Year Plan of development and rehabilitation of the national economy, to attain a further unfolding of the country's material and spiritual forces, and thus to strengthen even more the military and economic might of our Motherland.

New tasks have arisen now before the Red Army—the victor Army. History



Radiophoto

MILITARY PARADE ON RED SQUARE in Moscow, November 7, 1945, the 28th Anniversary of the Great October Revolution

knows quite a few examples of victorious armies losing their former glory just because they grew conceited and stopped learning. Our Armed Forces could not escape the same danger were we to rest on our laurels and take it into our heads that we victors need not learn anything from anyone. In the Red Army there can be no place for giddiness from success. The entire Red Army must study and study again, persistently mastering the most precious combat experience of the Great Patriotic War. This is the main thing now.

During the war numerous officer cadres grew up in the Red Army, boundlessly loyal to the Socialist Motherland, ardently loving their profession, having rich practical experience. Now under peacetime conditions all Red Army officers

must work daily, widening their military, political, and cultural horizon, persistently studying the military art.

Red Army Soldiers! In the future, too, be true sentries of our Socialist Motherland! Tirelessly perfect your military and political training, strengthen your military discipline, raise even higher the morale of our Army! Soviet Soldiers beyond the borders of your native land! Vigilantly, with honour and dignity, guard the state interests of our Country. Soldiers demobilized from the Red Army, discharge in an exemplary way your patriotic duty in civilian work. Be in the first ranks in industry and in agriculture, take an active part in our Country's public and political life.

Comrades Red Army men, sergeants, officers and generals, I greet and con-

gratulate you upon the 28th Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution. To mark the national holiday, I order:

Today, November 7th, a salute of 20 artillery salvos shall be fired in the capital of our Motherland, Moscow in the capitals of the Union Republics and in the cities of Leningrad, Stalingrad, Sevastopol and Odessa.

Long live and prosper our mighty Soviet Motherland!

Long live the great Soviet people, the victor people!

Long live the Red Army!

(Signed)

Deputy People's Commissar of Defence of the USSR, Marshal of the Soviet Union Vassilevsky

Order of the Day to the Red Navy

Order of the Day of People's Commissar of the Navy of the USSR

No. 460; Moscow, November 7, 1945

Comrades Red Navy men, petty officers, officers, generals, and admirals. Our Country meets the national holiday—the 28th Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution—under conditions of peace, won as the result of victory over German-fascist and Japanese invaders. The Red Army and Navy of the Soviet Union, jointly with the Armed Forces of our Allies, smashed Hitlerite Germany and then imperialist Japan. A decisive part in this historical victory was played by the Armed Forces of the USSR.

Our Country has been saved from the menace of German invasion in the west and of Japanese aggression in the east. The victories of the Soviet people, of its Red Army and Navy, are due to the might of the Soviet system born in the Great October Socialist Revolution, to the inviolable friendship of the peoples of our Country, to the wise leadership of the Party of Lenin and Stalin. Having stood with credit and glory the stern trials of war the Soviet State grew even mightier. In the fire of war, the moral and political unity of our people grew tempered and strong, the political consciousness of the working masses rose, and they rallied even closer around the Party and the Soviet Government.

The Soviet people have again started peaceful constructive work to strengthen further the military and economic might of our Country—the reliable bulwark of general peace and security among nations. In the years of the Great Patriotic War, the Navy of the Soviet Union was the true companion-in-arms of the Red Army. In furious battles for any country's freedom and independence, our Navy grew stronger and steeled, gained combat experience of modern war, and proved that it is capable of accomplishing its tasks in defending the state interests of our Motherland. Combat achievements of the Navy in the Patriotic War should not give rise to complacency and conceit. If Navy cadres rest on their achievements and cease stubbornly training and perfecting their skill, then the Navy will not be able to cope with tasks facing it at present.

Our people display constant concern for its Navy, is giving and will give us new warships, new combat equipment and armaments. Our people want to see our Navy stronger and mightier. Our great leader, Comrade Stalin, demands that the Navy tirelessly train and perfect cadres of seamen, that it master the combat experience of the Patriotic War, and

raise even higher the standard of Navy training, discipline, and organization in our ranks. The main task of the entire Navy personnel now is steadfastly to carry out these demands of Comrade Stalin. Only thus shall we discharge our duty to the Government and the people.

Comrades Navy men, sacredly guard the State interests of our Motherland!

Beyond the borders of our native country be vigilant, guard the honor and dignity of the Soviet soldier as the apple of your eye.

Comrades Navy men, petty officers, officers, generals and admirals, I congratulate you upon the 28th Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

Glory to the heroic Red Army and Navy which upheld the achievements of the Great October Socialist Revolution and won victory over the enemy!

Long live our Soviet Government!

Long live the Communist Party (Bolsheviks) of the Soviet Union—inspiration and organizer of our victories!

Long live the leader of the Soviet people, the strategist of genius, Generalissimo of the Soviet Union—Great Stalin!

(Signed)

People's Commissar of Navy of USSR, Fleet Admiral Kuznetsov

Republics Set Up Election Commissions

By Petrov

Following the formation of the Central Election Commission for the coming elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR next February, the setting up of election commissions has begun in all sixteen Union Republics. As distinct from the Central Commission with headquarters in Moscow which supervises the observance of electoral law over the entire territory of the USSR, the functions of the Republican Commissions which are located in their respective capitals are limited to the elections to the Soviet of Nationalities, one of the two chambers of the Soviet Parliament.

The Soviet two-chamber parliamentary system differs from parliamentary systems in other countries. One house of the Soviet Parliament—the Soviet of the Union—is elected on the basis of equal representation, namely: one deputy for every 300,000 inhabitants, and represents the general interest of the entire population regardless of nationality.

The second chamber, the Soviet of Nationalities, which has the same rights as the Soviet of the Union, is formed on a different basis. Although it too is elected by the country as a whole, constituencies are laid out with a view to giving the Union Republic 25 seats, Autonomous Republic, eleven; Autonomous Region, five; and national area, one. The purpose of this chamber is to act as a supreme body, reflecting the specific national interests of different peoples inhabiting the Soviet Union.

This principle reflects the very essence of the Soviet national policy. In the Soviet of Nationalities the vast Russian Federation with a population of some 110 million has no more votes than, say, Lithuania, whose population before the war did not exceed three million, or the Karelo-Finnish Republic which has approximately one-half million inhabitants.

At the same time all Autonomous Republics, Autonomous Regions or national areas, regardless of population, have an equal number of votes respectively.

The electoral law provides for the formation of commissions for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities in all Union

and Autonomous Republics, Autonomous Regions and national areas. According to Article 40 of "Regulations Governing Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR" these election commissions are to be composed of representatives of the trade unions, cooperatives, the Communist Party, and youth organizations, as well as cultural, technical and scientific societies and other public organizations and societies of working people registered in accordance with the procedure established by law. The same article grants the right of nominating candidates for election to commissions at meetings of factory and office workers, at enterprises of servicemen in Army units, farmers in collective farms, villages and volosts and workers and other employees at state farms.

This right is now being widely exercised by the various organizations who are nominating their candidates and by Republican Election Commissions. In the Ukraine, for example, candidates have been nominated by trade unions and Communist Party organizations, at mass meetings of workers, farmers, office employees and scientists.

Among the nominees are Praskovya Angelina and Anna Bidnenko—two women whose names are famed throughout the land. Angelina is especially popular among all tractor drivers for she was the first Soviet woman to drive a tractor 15 years ago. Since then she has trained more than 100 tractor drivers and has led the women's tractor brigade on one of the country's biggest state farms. Angelina's career has been quite spectacular. She is a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, was awarded the Order of Lenin, the Order of the Red Banner of Labor and has won the Gold Medal at the All-Union Agricultural Exhibition. Anna Bidnenko, the other farm woman, is a member of one of the farms at Kiev Region. Her record potato crops have brought her fame. Anna Bidnenko is a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Ukraine and has been decorated with the Order of Lenin.

Other candidates for the Ukrainian Election Commission include twice Hero of the Soviet Union, Major General Sidor Kovpak, a famous partisan; Ivan Korobov, one of the oldest blast furnace men in the country and head of a famous family of metallurgists; Hero of Socialist Labor Alexander Polkussai, celebrated locomotive engineer and Ivan Ishchenko, scientist.

People of all possible professions figure on the lists of candidates for the Republican Election Commissions. In Lithuania, for example, candidates include a farm woman, a professor, a schoolteacher, an old trade union functionary, two Communist Party leaders and one representative from the Young Communist League. A foundry worker, a proctor of Tartu University, a famous writer, and several trade unionists were nominated in Estonia. Among the candidates nominated by the people of Uzbekistan are the Vice-President of the Republican Academy of Sciences, a famous Uzbek artist, a textile worker and several farmers. The Azerbaijan list includes a drill foreman, a woman collective farmer, noted for her cotton picking records, a poet, an Academician and a major general.

Correspondents report that the meetings where candidates are nominated are attended by thousands. Malik Rakhmatulleva, from Tashkent textile mill was nominated by a meeting of 4,500 workers, technicians, and engineers. Candidate Alfred Koort, proctor at Tartu University, was discussed at a general meeting attended by the entire faculty and student body. In Vitebsk, Byelorussia, large meetings of local cooperatives nominated one of their comrades, a woman worker named Yefrosinya Kazakova, as their candidate.

Plant Resumes Work

The country's largest boiler plant in the Ukraine has started building powerful boilers for power stations. This plant had been gravely damaged by the German invaders. All the factory blocks were blown up, machinery destroyed.

Soviet Industry Serves Veterans

By L. Irin

The veterans' program of the Kaganovich ball bearing plant at Moscow, which serves 215 disabled former servicemen, is typical of that of Soviet industrial plants. About 60 per cent of the veterans worked in the plant before the war. The others, men who can follow their normal



AT HIS STUDIES—This wounded veteran learns about zoology.

occupations, were sent there by the local department of social maintenance. Thirty-seven of the plant's former workers are pensioners suffering from serious wounds in the lungs or abdomen, blindness, or the loss of two or three limbs.

About 40 out of a total of 166 of the normally employed veterans are engineers, technicians and shop foremen. The remainder are turners, electricians, tool setters, milling machinists, storeroom hands, etc.

During the past 18 months, 24 of the disabled ex-servicemen unable to follow their prewar trades have been taught new ones. Foreman Leonov of the tool shop was a first-class mechanic in a foundry before the war. The wound which affected his spine would not allow him to spend eight hours a day standing at a

bench, but the nimble fingers of the skilled mechanic soon learned to repair precision instruments, a job at which the operator sits. In a month he could work without supervision, and in a year he reached such a high degree of skill at his new job he was made foreman when a vacancy occurred.

Another prewar mechanic, Yeliseyev, was also unable to return to his old job. He spent six months in the plant's own school and is now doing maintenance work on the big hammers and presses in the forge, earning as he himself says more than he did before the war. I noted the colors of the Distinguished Labor Medal among his row of medal ribbons. This he told me proudly is his latest award; his excellent work helped the shop fulfil its plan.

"Is there any difference between your pay and those who have not been disabled?" I asked him.

"No," answered Yeliseyev. "In fact we are really better off because we have our Government pension in addition."

The plant management makes every possible provision to enable the disabled men to work in comfort.

The factory has a special commission engaged in finding suitable work for war veterans. The head of the commission, Ivan Karpov, himself an ex-serviceman, told me that only twice in two years had he cause to object to war veterans being given unsuitable work; in both cases the men were immediately transferred to different jobs.

Karpov took me to the dining room for war veterans which the Kaganovich plant maintains. Three meals a day are provided for those needing a special diet, the extra provisions com-

ing from the plant's own farm. In the plant's 11 dining rooms tables are reserved for former soldiers, who get special service. In the Kaganovich plant's stores are counters serving former soldiers only.

Other services provided for disabled war veterans are additional rations, clothing and manufactured goods, and passes to the plant's rest home and sanatoriums. The commission has large funds provided by the plant administration and trade union committee to be used for grants to ex-servicemen, usually to those seriously injured and unable to work yet.

One interesting case concerns a blind ex-soldier named Lomovitsky to whom a larger grant than usual was made. Lomovitsky, who was second in command of a partisan detachment, lost his sight when he went to a German officers' cafe in a small Byelorussian town to place a mine under the table to blow the German officers sky high and at the same time get the signal for a partisan attack on the cafe and the German garrison. Lomovitsky placed his mine safely and was about to leave when he was caught. He dragged the table toward him, the mine went off, and he was buried under the debris with about a dozen German officers. When he was rescued some hours later by his comrades he was blind in both



ART STUDIO—These wounded men are learning sculpture. The man at the right, a partisan, suffered 13 wounds

eyes and his face was badly burned.

On learning Lomovitsky had musical talent and had long dreamed of becoming an accordion player, the commission bought him an instrument and sent him to music school. He is now in the third year at school and will soon graduate as a professional accordion player.

An increase of 2,000,000,000 rubles on

social insurance expenditure provided by this year's budget is to a large extent made up of war bonuses and pensions. The amount of the pension depends on the disability of the recipient. Other expenditures from this fund provide for further treatment and cure of the convalescing wounded and their training or re-training in trades to suit them.

In addition to State financial and medical aid for the wounded, all Soviet industrial establishments and public bodies are working to insure that the suffering of those disabled in defense of their country is reduced to the minimum and that they are given every opportunity to regain their places as useful members of society.

Bank Structure of the USSR

The basis of the present banking and currency mechanism of the Soviet Union was laid at the end of 1921, when the State Bank of the USSR was founded and authorized to issue banknotes. By a separate law passed at the same time, the new bank of issue was endowed with the monopoly right to acquire both home-produced and imported gold, as well as other currency metals and foreign currency.

The foundation of the State Bank was the first step toward the reform of the currency, which was completed in 1924, when, in addition to banknotes of comparatively large denominations (the lowest being 10 rubles), treasury notes of smaller denominations were introduced. Both forms of currency circulated freely and were exchangeable at par, and both were legal tender. Subsequently, when the currency had been definitely stabilized, the State Bank took over the treasury issue, maintaining the regulation cover for the joint issue. The State Bank thus became the sole repository of currency reserves and the responsible regulator of the entire currency system.

Once the currency had been firmly stabilized, it became possible to proceed to introduce a more effectual organization of short-term and long-term credit. Of the two, short-term credit was the more important problem to tackle, for on its solution the regulation of the production process and to a large extent the stability of the currency depended.

In the first ten years or so of its existence, the State Bank was only one of the banks engaged in economic financing. There were other smaller banks which had been especially formed to finance specific branches of industry. Furthermore, in addition to bank loans, there was a sys-

tem of financing by bills of exchange drawn by one business concern on another. The existence of this system naturally interfered with the utilization of the banks as instruments of rigid control over the financial activities of business organizations.

Accordingly, in 1930, steps were taken to reform the whole credit system. The reform was based upon two underlying principles: (1) All short-term financing was an exclusive prerogative of the State Bank, and (2) bills of exchange were abolished and no business firm had the right to grant credit to another. All short-term financing thus became bank financing, concentrated in the State Bank, of which all the business organizations in the country became the direct clients. The other banks were converted into exclusively long-term financing institutions.

Simultaneously there was begun the gigantic undertaking of reconstructing the working capital of business enterprises. Its effect was to set limits to bank financing. Every enterprise was assigned definite working funds essential for the fulfillment of its production program. These funds formed part of its assets and were at its full disposal and management. They were originally provided out of the State budget or out of the accumulated profits of the given enterprise, or from both sources. And it is from either or both of these sources that further working capital is provided when the production program of an enterprise is increased.

But although producing enterprises now had sufficient working capital to insure normal operation, nevertheless the need for funds arises which they are unable to meet, and which it would be

inexpedient for them to meet, out of their working capital. This applies chiefly to expenses involved in purely seasonal production processes, or in the accumulation of seasonal stocks of raw material, fuel, semi-manufactures and the like. These sporadic and purely seasonal expenses are financed by the State Bank, thus obviating the freezing of capital which would result if working funds were maintained at a level sufficient to cover seasonal demands.

Furthermore, the State Bank finances producing enterprises to the full value of finished goods between the time they leave the factory to the time they are delivered and paid for. Thus working funds are not tied up while the goods are in transit.

Lastly, the Bank comes to the aid of a producing enterprise when, as a result of deviations from the production program by which the level of working capital was determined, or from other causes not depending on the client (transport difficulties, for example), working capital proves inadequate. If the deviations from the production program, however, are due to the fault of the enterprise, the Bank refuses to supply additional credit, and the financial difficulties of the enterprise become the object of investigation by the competent Government authorities.

As bank loans are provided on the basis of an analysis of the borrower's financial and economic position, they have become one of the most valuable and effective forms of control by the Government over the activities of State enterprises.

But there are branches of industry whose production processes are not subject to seasonal fluctuation—or vary only

to an insignificant degree. This would render them practically immune from the control of the Bank. As many of these branches—machine building, for example—are of great importance to the country's economy, an experiment was recently made in reconstructing the working capital of these non-seasonal industries. A certain part of their working capital is contributed by the Bank, in the form of repayable, or revolving credits. Whenever a particular enterprise is constrained to utilize any portion of this part of its working capital it automatically comes under the control of the Bank.

The conditions under which the Bank grants loans are not governed by hard and fast rules, but are based upon a review of the general conditions prevailing in the given branch of industry. As interest rates in a planned economy do not play the role of a regulator of credit, they remain stable at one level year after year, thus guaranteeing the stability of the credit system and the profits of the bank. These rates at present vary between two per cent and four per cent, depending on the nature of the loans.

The State Bank finances the economy of the country to an amount of many billions of rubles annually. The funds for this purpose are chiefly derived from the free resources of the economy itself, which all flow into the Bank as the sole bank of settlement in the country. Every producing enterprise and business organization is obliged to maintain its cash balances with the State Bank and to make all payments, with the exception of minor sums, through the Bank. Enormous funds are thus constantly flowing into the bank, leaving a huge and constantly growing aggregate deposit on account.

The economic nature of these deposits should be noted: they consist of the cash resources of the enterprises and organizations of the national economy. Their earnings and profits, as we have mentioned in another place, go into the State budget.

The chief item of the State Bank's resources consists, of course, of the deposits on the accounts of producing enterprises, business organizations, collective farms, etc. But another item of no inconsiderable dimensions is the account of the State budget, which in times of peace, besides the usual cash reserve, is swollen

by the large excess of revenue over expenditure.

These resources of the State Bank are further supplemented by the Bank's own funds, which are derived from budget assignments and from its own profits, part of which are paid into the budget, while part remains with the Bank.

Like every bank of issue, the State Bank has another source of funds in the note issue. Its revenue from this source, which depends on the growth of the currency in circulation, is determined not by the Plan for Financing the National Economy, but by what is known as the Bank's Cash Plan. This plan is based upon an estimate of the dynamics of cash transactions, as determined chiefly by retail trade, the wages fund, tax payments, savings, etc., from which the currency policy to be pursued is deduced. The currency in circulation is accordingly expanded, contracted, or left stable. The State Bank's Credit Plan receives revenue from currency issues as a corollary of the Cash Plan. If the sum should prove inadequate to balance the Credit Plan, the budget, that chief fountainhead of financing of a Socialist economy, comes to the rescue.

The State Bank is responsible for the proper drawing up of the Cash Plan, and by virtue of this it is the regulator and

guardian of the internal currency of the country.

The position with regard to foreign exchange rates of the Soviet currency unit was simplified by the laws of 1926 and 1928, which prohibited the import and export of Soviet money. In 1936 fixed exchange rates of the ruble were established in respect to the principal foreign currencies. In 1938 the ratio of one U. S. dollar to five rubles, thirty kopeks was laid down as the basis of these fixed rates.

It should be noted, however, that these fixed rates are chiefly intended for the purpose of internal accounting of foreign trade operations, as, for example, when a Soviet industrial enterprise, having received machines or other goods purchased abroad, has to record the transaction in its books in Soviet currency.

In the multiform transactions with the outside world, on the other hand, it is the practice to conduct all operations in foreign currency. All accounting with foreign countries is conducted through the State Bank, which, through its bank correspondents abroad effects settlement with foreign clients in foreign currency, while conducting accounts in Soviet currency at the fixed rates of exchange with its Soviet clients—the organizations which exercise the monopoly of foreign trade.



INDUSTRY IS SERVED—Much of the work of the State Bank is financing industry.

Alexei Krylov, Great Scientist, Dies

By Boris Yuriev

*Lieutenant General of Red Army Forces
Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR*

With the death in Leningrad on October 26 of Alexei Krylov, mathematician and engineer, Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, Hero of Socialist Labor and Stalin Prize Winner, Soviet and world science suffered a severe loss. He died in his 83rd year after having devoted more than 60 years to science. He was the first foreigner to be awarded the gold medal of the Royal Institution of Naval Architects, in London (1898).

While still a lad at the St. Petersburg Naval School, which he had entered in 1877, Krylov showed his talents as a mathematician and his fondness for naval architecture. Upon his graduation from the Naval School, Krylov was appointed to the compass department of the Chief Hydrographical Board where under the direction of Professor I. de Collonge he wrote the first of his scientific papers to be printed, "Computing Divisions of the Compass Deflection Grid." Shortly after this Alexei Krylov entered the shipbuilding department of the Naval Academy to complete his education. On graduation he was retained at the Academy as director of practical studies in mathematics. Later at the Academy he delivered a series of lectures on naval construction.

On January 1, 1900, Professor Krylov, then a man of experience in the theory and practice of shipbuilding, was put in charge of an experimental basin at Kronstadt. Here he met Vice Admiral Stepan Makarov, who was commandant of the port and military governor of Kronstadt. Krylov showed lively interest in Makarov's work on the theory of unsinkability; this work inspired him to carry out a number of researches. As the director of the experimental basin, Krylov, in consultation with Makarov, was able to carry out full-sized experiments with ships that were convincing in their demonstration of the correctness and the shortcomings of the theories.

During the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, Vice Admiral Makarov perished on board the cruiser *Petropavlovsk*, which sank after striking a mine. The



ALEXEI KRYLOV

ship turned turtle and not a man of the crew was saved. The *Petropavlovsk* catastrophe confirmed the correctness of Krylov's views on faults in the design of battleships. His notes on the subject brought about a complete change in naval architecture.

In 1908, Alexei Krylov became the chief shipbuilder in Russia. He was given the very difficult task of rebuilding the ships of the line for the Russian Navy. Krylov had to review and confirm all the details of the structure of the vessels and their armament. Many of the vessels built under his supervision earned fame in fighting against the German-fascist invaders of our country during the Second World War.

Krylov's work on theoretical and applied science was accompanied by pedagogical activities. On his initiative the Polytechnical Institute with a shipbuilding faculty was opened in St. Petersburg; Krylov was a permanent staff professor of the Naval Academy and conducted courses in a number of other schools of

higher learning. In the shipyards and on board ships and in research institutions, Krylov's pupils are continuing and developing his work. Among his pupils are Academician Pozdiunin and Professor Shimansky, Corresponding Member of the Academy.

Alexei Krylov published over 250 scientific papers. His works on vibration oscillation, in the pitching of ships, ballistics theory and methods of mathematical approximation all made for progress in the theory of shipbuilding and served to make the Red Navy stronger and more reliable in battle.

The old scientist was also well known in the Soviet Union as the translator of Isaac Newton and of Gauss. A number of his scientific papers dealt with theoretical mathematics and approximate calculations. A feature which was characteristic of his writings was the application of pure mathematics to technological problems.

His many pupils and colleagues feel great sorrow on the death of their master and promise to continue in the traditions established by this great scientist and patriot.

Restoration in Stalingrad

The decree of the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR on the development of the Volga—Akhtuba lowland in which Stalingrad is located, is being carried out effectively.

Along with the restoration of houses and factories, the Stalingradites quickly started individual and collective Victory gardens. In 1943 there were 1,500 gardeners in Stalingrad, now there are 82,000. Besides, the citizens now have tens of thousands of cows, sheep and goats for their personal use.

A net of irrigation ditches is being restored around the city on an area of over 2,200 acres. Within the next few years the heroic city will again be surrounded by a ring of orchards, parks and gardens.

THE ZOOLOGICAL INSTITUTE

By Academician E. Pavlovsky

Director of the Institute

The study of living nature, especially of the animal kingdom represented in our country, has been one of the main functions of the Academy since its foundation. At first, interest was shown only in strange creatures. The Academic Museum—Peter I's *Kunstammer*—received chiefly rare specimens.

A department of the animal kingdom was later set up in the Museum, where a constantly increasing collection of Russian fauna were kept. Various types were brought in by expeditions from distant parts of the country: the Amur Region, Kamchatka, Sakhalin and the Caucasus.

In 1832 the Zoological Museum was founded with the collection from the Zoological Department of the Academic Museum and a research department was instituted. The exhibit rooms became very popular, and in some years were visited by as many as 120,000 people.

In 1931 the Museum was converted into the Zoological Institute, now the largest research organization in the country studying the fauna of the Soviet Union and contiguous countries.

The studies undertaken of the classification, ecology and history of the origin

and evolution of animal life, are based on the Institute's rich collection. The Entomological Department, for example, has an array of over seven million insects. Of exceptional importance are the European and Asiatic fauna, assembled by Professor N. M. Knipovich, an honorary member of the Academy's Sadka and other expeditions. The Institute possesses a stuffed mammoth, the skeleton of an extinct sea-cow, and like rarities.

Extensive work has been done in the field of the animal kingdom of our country, with special progress made during Soviet times. Exhaustive monographs published on useful and harmful animals, have played an important part in the development of the national economy.

The Zoological Institute contributed to the solution of such problems as local parasitology, the natural media of transmissible and parasitic diseases, and spring and summer encephalitis. The scientists participated in the formulation of the theory of the biological productivity of water deposits, and in the investigation of the fauna of formerly unstudied districts of the Soviet Union.

An important series of monographs, "The Fauna of Russia and Contiguous Countries," is being published; some 20 volumes have appeared on fish, amphibians, reptiles, birds, mammals, insects, scorpions and other land and sea animals.

After the October Revolution the work of the Institute followed a new course. Planned research work was introduced, concentrating on larger problems, such as the industrial exploitation of Soviet fauna and the development of special species. Expeditions were fitted out to study the natural life of remote parts of the USSR.

During the Patriotic War the Institute did special work. Methods were developed for obtaining the sterilized larvae of flies used to accelerate the healing of wounds. The activities of blood-sucking insects and the conditions under which they attack man, as well as methods for combating the menace, were studied.

During the Institute's period of evacuation, in Tajikistan, it made a detailed study of the fauna of that country. Scarcely investigated in the past, it is now better known than that of any of the other Central Asian Republics. Three expeditions were sent to classify the parasitic fauna of Iran.

Donets Region Being Rehabilitated

In the two years since the liberation of the Stalino Region, the Government has invested 3 billion rubles in rehabilitation, the greater part for industry.

Already 1,200,000 square meters of Government-owned living space and 730,000 square meters of privately-owned dwellings have been restored or rebuilt. Street car traffic has been resumed in several towns of the region.

The regional center—the town of Stalino—rises again from the ruins, and life is coming back to the cities of Artemovsk, Kramatorsk, Slavyansk, Makeevka, Mariupol and Gorlovka. The restoration of the drama theater is nearing completion in Artemovsk and its architecture will be considerably finer than before the war. The sanatorium in Slavyansk will shortly be opened. The

huge Palace of Culture is being restored in Makeevka. Everywhere there is renewal.

The builders have set themselves to improving the plans for the cities and towns. The motto is: "Every restored house must be better than it was before the war." Hundreds of thousands of residents have offered their services. Since the liberation of the region, the population has put in a total of two million workdays and expects to put in another two million in 1945. Extensive use is made of the rich local resources in the production of building materials. To supply Stalino Region there are now 34 brick kilns, four concrete and seven alabaster plants, as well as cement mills and other factories, which in the near future can even send building materials to other Ukrainian regions.

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Reparations—Part of an Effective Plan for Destroying Germany's War Potential

By K. Gofman

The question of German reparations, which is the subject of so much discussion in the world press, stands out more and more as one of the key problems on which depends not only the speed with which the Nazi-ravaged European countries will be restored, but also the establishment of a foundation for a firm and lasting peace in Europe.

As outlined in the decisions of the Berlin Conference, the reparations plan provides for a number of concrete measures covering the removal of industrial equipment and other items from all occupied zones of Germany regarded as one economic unit.

This reparations plan, as well as measures for the economic disarmament of Germany as outlined in the Tripartite Berlin Conference, reflects the desire of the Allied Powers to avoid the mistakes that were made after the First World War when Germany preserved her war and economic potential. This time it was decided to do away with Germany's war potential and thus prevent her from preparing for new acts of aggression.

The aim—consolidation of peace—by which the Allied Powers are guided is as clear as the means set forth for its attainment by the Tripartite Berlin Conference. Nevertheless some newspapers representing the interests of certain industrial and financial groups are trying to confuse the issue. Ignoring the lessons of the past they are criticizing the present reparations program of the Allied Powers in an effort to persuade the general public that to carry out this plan would disorganize European economy.

Their purpose in giving an incorrect and distorted idea of the essence of the Allied reparations plan is to preserve the war potential of Germany. Hence the demand for a revision of the Berlin decisions. To back up these demands some critics of the reparations plan falsely claim that it is an attempt to de-industrialize Germany and turn her into an agrarian country.

As a matter of fact—and this was especially emphasized in the Berlin decisions—what is in the question is the elimination of German war industry and not of those branches of industry necessary to satisfy the requirements of the German people. This means that Germany will continue to produce for home and foreign markets, although everything she produces will be exclusively of a peaceful nature. This is imperative in the interests of preserving peace in Europe and is undoubtedly in the interests of all nations, including the German. It is quite obvious that the reorganization of German economy along these lines would not disturb the "economic equilibrium" in Europe but, on the contrary, would facilitate the development of the productive forces in all countries.

Role of Cartels

The prospect of losing their German business associates, however, does not appeal to the arms manufacturers united in international cartels and to the banks that finance them. It is a well known fact that it was the international cartels and monopolist groups that helped to revive German war firms after the First World War. With the help of international

banking firms the Germans used reparations deliveries to receive credits for the restoration of German industry.

It is evidently the interests of these monopolist groups the *London Times* had in mind when, deploring what it felt to be excess removal of equipment from Germany and the dismantling of German war plants, it stated that the present policy of reparations from Germany was like sawing off the branch on which you are seated.

Indeed, the concentration on a world scale of war industry and the promotion of its development is the branch on which international monopolies are seated. This is quite clear from the whole story of the development of the I. G. Farbenindustrie after the First World War. For international monopolies the restoration of the German economy consists primarily in restoring the economic and political conditions favoring the production and increase of armaments which is the source of their enormous profits.

The nations of the world, however, are interested in seeing to it that the branch on which the German war concerns have been seated to date should be sawed off properly whether the international producers and traders in arms like it or not. This is the will of the people which was taken into account by the Tripartite Berlin Conference when it adopted the effective reparations plan that must be carried out.

It is characteristic that the German militarists, including those being held for trial as major war criminals, have not lost hope of resuming their old imperialistic

(Continued on page 2)

The October Revolution and Soviet Science

By Academician Alexander Baikov

Hero of Socialist Labor and Stalin Prize Winner

The greatest joy in a scientist's life is to find the opportunity to carry out important experiments, even those that at first sight seem impossible of completion, and to receive the full support of the state for this purpose.

In order to perfect outstanding discoveries or inventions, a scientist often requires years in which to labor without apparent results. Russian scientists had no such support before 1917, before the October Revolution. As an old scientific worker I well remember the conditions under which scientists worked in those days.

The budget of the Academy was so small that when, for example, the great physiologist Ivan Pavlov was elected a member of the Academy, he had only one man working in his laboratory with him.

Dmitry Chernov, the great Russian metallurgist, carried out all his experiments in a factory laboratory and workshops.

The October Revolution gave scien-

Reparations

(Continued from page 1)

game. When Schacht was interviewed by an Associated Press correspondent, this financial acrobat of the Third Reich who had succeeded in obtaining large sums of foreign capital to finance German armaments, told the correspondent that all existing industrial equipment would be required to restore Germany. On the very eve of the trial of those who inspired and organized the brigand war launched by German imperialism are thinking of but one thing, namely, how to begin all over again.

In order to prevent the Hitlerite remnants and their accomplices from putting their plans for new military adventures into effect, it is essential to carry out all the decisions of the Berlin Conference on the demilitarization of Germany, her economic disarmament and the destruction of her war potential without delay.

tists that possibility of introducing innovation without which scientific progress is impossible. The Soviet State, even during the difficult years of the young Republic in 1918-1921, proved able to help the Academy of Sciences reorganize its laboratories and research institutions.

The budget of the Academy grew from year to year and reached an exceptionally high figure in 1925 when the Russian Academy of Sciences was renamed the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. The Soviet Government built a special township at Koltushi, near Leningrad, for the further development of Ivan Pavlov's theories.

The Institute of Physical Problems was built in Moscow in accordance with a design by Academician Peter Kapitza. This Institute uses the Kapitza expansion turbine to produce liquid oxygen in tremendous quantities.

I would also like to mention my own experience as a metallurgist and chemist. I had long been interested in the commercial exploitation of iron ore on the Kerch Peninsula. It was only under Soviet power, however, that I was able to get anything like a large-scale development in this iron field. The Kerch iron and steel industry will play an important part in the further development of the national economy of the Soviet Union.

Another benefit which the scientists of Russia gained from the Revolution is that what we call "complex work." The planned character of Soviet science enables us to equip expeditions containing scientists working in the most diverse fields and whose activities are concentrated on the solution of one central problem approached from different aspects: hence the term "complex."

Experience in War

We scientists greatly appreciated this advantage during the Soviet-German war when the Academy Commission for the Mobilization of the resources of the Urals achieved important results in an extremely short time and did much to make vic-

tory possible. During the past 25 years the Academy of Sciences has equipped 500 of these complex expeditions. The results have been wonderful; the resources of the country, her raw materials for industry and food have been multiplied many times over.

The October Revolution brought the joys of collective labor to the scientists. In pre-Revolutionary Russia I had talented pupils and my own school of metallurgists, but under Soviet power the scope of the work of my school has been extended beyond anything I dreamed of before.

In my Leningrad laboratory, which was destroyed by the German bandits during the war, I directed the work of a large group of young scientists, metallurgists and chemists, and with them solved a number of important problems.

Science and the People

I consider one of the greatest achievements of the Soviet system to be the removal of barriers between people and science. Before the victory of the October Revolution in Russia only the most talented of them could engage in scientific work under anything like happy circumstances on account of class and national restrictions that were imposed.

The Soviet State removed all these restrictions and the higher schools are now open to the people and are attended by about 600,000 young men and women. This is a whole army of talented young people from whom we obtain annual reinforcements for science.

My best wishes are with the October Revolution on the occasion of its 28th Anniversary.

The Revolution opened up entirely new vistas to us scientists.

It gave us great joy in seeing our hypotheses and plans put into action; it gave us the opportunity of serving the interests of the great Soviet people with our work, the people who have played an outstanding role in the defeat of German and Japanese fascism.

Russian People in the Struggle for Democracy

By M. Nechkina

Doctor of Historical Sciences, Professor of Moscow University

Comparatively little is known abroad about modern Russia and still less about her history. Yet, for an understanding of the present, a knowledge of the past is indispensable. In a certain measure, the Russians themselves were responsible for this inadequate knowledge. Their own affairs engrossed them and they were disinclined to talk about themselves. Amused by foreigners' mistakes, they were more likely to enjoy their discomfiture than shed light on them.

Nikolai Muraviev, an officer who entered Paris with the Russian Army in 1814, is a typical example; he frightened the Parisians with tales of a long Russian winter that lasted all year round, told them that in the month of May the peasants had to plow snow with a wooden plow to which a bear was harnessed and that the seed was sown in the harrowed snow. The Parisians were horrified, which delighted the Russian officer. This story is told by Muraviev in his memoirs.

Turning these yellowed leaves the reader may smile, but at the same time wonder if some of the descendants of those Parisians survived and have given out as the truth about Russia the joke played by that Russian officer a hundred years ago.

A conscious struggle for democracy in their country has been waged by the Russians for more than a century and a half. They paid for their persistence with their blood. The long road they trod was marked by imprisonment, banishment to Siberia and the gallows.

A Democratic Book

In 1790, at the time of the French Revolution, the Empress Catherine II was shown a book entitled *A Journey from St. Petersburg to Moscow* by an unknown author. The autocrat found that this inoffensively named work was full of democratic ideas, propounded by an author who threw the force of passionate conviction into his exposure of inhumanity, of despotism and of serfdom. That all men are born equal was an unpalatable truth of which the aristocratic owner of hundreds of serf peasants had

no wish to be reminded. The unknown author had written a democratic book on the toilers of Russia.

The book seller was placed under arrest and the name of the writer became known: Alexander Radischev, a gentleman by birth, a customs official of not very high standing. He was thrown into prison, subjected to long and tormenting interrogation and finally banished to Siberia as a worse rebel than Pugachev, as the Empress expressed it.

Seed Is Sown

Nevertheless, the seed sown by Radischev fell on receptive soil and the first democratic ideas took root and threw out their young shoots. Russia had no revolutionary third estate or bourgeoisie at that time. The people who formed the social movement in its first phase, who demanded radical reforms in the constitution and the abolition of serfdom, came from the nobility. The best of these were instrumental in the awakening of the people.

The culmination came on December 14, 1825, in the great Square of the Senate in St. Petersburg, where armed regiments gathered under the command of the conspirators. It was the first armed uprising against autocracy. The leader had in his possession a manifesto on the abolition of serfdom and the convening of a constituent assembly. The insurrectionists demanded a constitution.

Tsar Nicholas I gave orders for the troops to open fire. The uprising was suppressed. About a hundred dead lay in the snow of the Senate Place, others were arrested and taken to the Winter Palace.

The men who took part in this December rising were known as Decembrists. The constitutions that they drew up were not modeled on those of the West. Though they were thoroughly well acquainted with Western parliamentarism they sought out new forms. Decembrist Novikov's preliminary draft of the constitution has not survived to us; we only know that it was republican. Pavel

Pestel, who was his friend and to a certain extent a pupil, drew up another which was republican, founded on the idea of general equality.

He held that "In France and England the constitutions were merely screens and did not prevent the ministry in England and the kings of France from doing as they wished." He wanted to find new forms that would satisfy the main striving of the present age. This, in his opinion, lay in the struggle between the masses of people and aristocracy of every kind, whether based on riches or on hereditary privilege.

In July, 1826, the five Decembrist leaders died on the gallows. One of them, Novikov, was the author of the constitution from which the quotation comes, "*His life was not laid down in vain.*"

The Russian masses were awakened; democratic ideas spread to ever-widening circles. The people who propagated these ideas were from various walks of life and not as formerly from the aristocracy alone.

If we were permitted to enter for a moment the study of the writer who had perhaps the greatest influence over the youthful minds of the age, we would see a bespectacled young man stooping over a pile of manuscripts or galley proofs on his desk. Nikolai Chernyshevsky, who was the son of a priest, worked on a contemporary magazine read by all thoughtful people in Russia in 1850-1860. His articles constituted the political program of the younger generation.

This great Russian who had fought for democracy did not stop with the formal equality of citizens at the polls. He had a deeper understanding of the democratic idea of equality. He dreamed of doing away with all forms of oppression of man by man. His conception of a free and joyous socialist society is given in the "dreams" of his heroine Vera Pavlovna in the famous novel *The Vital Question*.

One wet spring day in May, 1864, a

huge crowd of over 5,000 gathered in St. Petersburg Square, the center of which was occupied by a wooden platform on which towered a black post with chains. By command of Tsar Alexander II, the Russian democrat and scholar Chernyshevsky was to be executed.

The hangmen led him to the scaffold, read the sentence, removed his hat and made him kneel down. A black board inscribed with the words "State Criminal" was then placed about his neck. At that moment a woman in the throng flung a bunch of flowers onto the scaffold. It served as a signal; flowers were showered on the prisoner from all sides. The Russians transformed the scheduled execution into a triumph by the great democrat. The executioners hurried him into a prison van. But the path he went was strewn with flowers. He was banished to the most out-of-the-way parts of Siberia.

Lenin Continues Struggle

Lenin, who continued the struggle for democracy, raised it to a higher level and placed it upon truly scientific foundations. In eradicating the oppression of man by man and in wresting the means of production from private owners, Lenin brought to realization the dreams of the widest masses of the working people for the establishment of a true democracy.

The right to take part in making history is fully enjoyed by the people in that democracy for which Lenin fought.

The maker of history must possess not only the formal right to elect and be elected. He must also have the means for exercising his right of changing life for the better. In October, 1917, the Russian people began to put into practice that lofty democracy wherein the deepest-lying strata of toiling people are raised to become the makers of history. This was the theme upon which Lenin wrote at the time of the Great October Revolution.

Stalin's Role

Stalin continued Lenin's works. The Stalin Constitution is the full expression of the hopes and striving of the working people. It has given the citizens of this

Blueprints for One Hundred Towns

By I. Irin

Russian architects have held their first postwar conference in Moscow. For five days they discussed the rebuilding of the millions of houses and thousands of cultural relics that lie in ruins in those parts of the Russian Federation that were occupied by the Germans.

The Soviet Union's best architects are all on the job, and good results may be expected in a short time. V. Shakvarikov, head of the architectural commission of the Russian SFSR, told the conference that general reconstruction projects for one hundred towns are being drawn up this year.

Blueprints for the new Stalingrad, Orel and Novgorod have already been approved. Those for Rostov, Smolensk, Sevastapol, Novorossiisk, Voronezh, Kursk, Bryansk, Krasnodar and Kalinin, as well as for a number of towns in the Urals and Siberia, will be complete by December.

N. Bylinkin, of the Academy of Architecture, expressed the view of the majority when he argued that one and two-story houses should be the rule for small and medium-sized towns, and three to five story buildings for larger cities.

V. Barurov then got up and warned the

conference not to think in terms of blocks. The block as the nucleus of a modern city was outdated. A lively discussion ensued. Some proposed what they called the "micro-district." Others championed the "super-block." Town-planning ideas from Britain and the United States were analyzed.

Everyone agreed that, whatever plan was adopted, there were certain essentials that must in all cases be fulfilled. The child must not have to cross busy roads on his way to school. The housewife should not have more than a ten minute walk to the shopping center. The youngsters should have a sports ground within easy reach of their own doorsteps. And, for the older people, there ought to be a shady little park or a pleasant cafe no more than five minutes away, where they could meet their friends or spend a quarter of an hour reading in the fresh air.

Alexei Shchusev gave an address on the creative tasks facing the Soviet architect. "We must make use of the wealth of form provided by Russian architecture during the past thousand years," he said "and we must also strive to create original values."

country not only equal rights at the polls; it also provides them with the means of exercising these rights and doing away with the oppression of man by man.

It has given man the right to work—one of the most precious rights a man can have. In the Soviet Union this is no mere formal right on paper, it is a reality. There is no unemployment here. The head of any organization will tell you how ready he is to take on new workers.

I know of an experienced fitter who was demobilized and returned from the Army with three orders and two medals. While he was still enjoying his month's leave by going to the park and the circus with his little son, two factory directors quarrelled because each wanted to engage him.

The Constitution also gives all citizens the right to rest.

The right to education is the most splendid of the rights. The Russian people's passion for learning is a national characteristic. The whole country is avid and persevering in the acquisition of knowledge. This right and the opportunity for enjoying it has been insured us by the Stalin Constitution.

In the struggle with mankind's bitterest enemy—fascism—the Russians defended their own Soviet democratic State and with their Allies saved the cause of mankind.

The Russian forms of democracy have their source in the country's history; they were not thrust upon the people but were evolved and won by them. The dream that people cherished for centuries—the dream of freedom from oppression—has become a reality. The found for the problem of democracy, a solution that satisfies the widest masses

Significance of World Trade Union Federation

From NEW TIMES, No. 10

The World Federation of Trade Unions was founded at the congress in Paris which ended October 8. This is a major event in the life of the working class of all countries.

An organization has been formed which embraces the trade unions of nearly the whole world—those of the Soviet Union and those of the capitalist countries; those of the industrially developed powers and those of colonial peoples. International unity has been achieved among trade union bodies embracing the workers of diverse nationalities, races, political convictions and religious creeds. This unity is based on the platform of the common struggle against fascism and war, of the common struggle for the democratic rights of the working people, for their economic and social demands and for their vital and pressing interests.

International trade union unity was possible because the workers of the organizations and their leaders had learned the fundamental lesson of those severe trials which nations have gone through. This lesson is that division in the forces of the working class, disunity in its ranks, only play into the hands of its enemies.

The constitution of the World Federation is based upon a broad, yet clearly defined, foundation. It provides the new organization with every opportunity to perform useful work. Its chief function will be to work for the realization internationally, and in each country separately, of a program of direct working class demands in various political, economic and social fields.

Public Support

There can be no doubt but that the World Federation in its activities on behalf of democracy and social progress will deserve and receive the support not only of workers' organizations but the broad democratic public all over the world. The more purposeful, consistent and energetic its activities are, the sooner will this new organization acquire influence and authority which it is entitled to claim as an organization representing the most progressive, the most numerous and the most productive class in modern society.

Many obstacles have stood in the way of the creation of the World Federation. Much stagnant conservatism and many outworn prejudices, as well as the direct counteraction of the foes of international trade union unity, had to be overcome. The fact that the good will and desire for the unification of the working class won the day against all opposing forces is a good omen.

The World Federation of Trade Unions will have to tackle its job in complex political and economic conditions of the postwar period. The defeat of Hitler Germany—the most atrocious reactionary force of modern times—and the destruction of such seats of world reaction and obscurantism as the fascist Axis powers brought about a radical change in the relative strength of reaction and democracy in the international arena. The Soviet Union—the most consistent champion of the liberty of nations and friendship among nations—emerged from the unparalleled trials of war more powerful and more strongly steeled than ever. In other democratic countries the war revealed what sources of strength are inherent in the working class and the kindred laboring sections of the population.

Reaction's Role

However, it would be a profound mistake to believe the servants of reaction regard their cause as lost and are willing to leave the stage. On the contrary, every day brings new evidence that the champions of reaction are extremely active and are coming out more and more openly. They are seeking ways and means of foisting the whole burden of the economic consequences of the devastating war on the shoulders of the toiling people, on the working class. Again the specter of unemployment is haunting millions of working class families in the capitalist countries. Again the brazen adventurers who have learned nothing are coming forward, literally on the morrow of a ruinous war, calling for new wars.

Representatives of the selfish interests of the reactionary classes and groups are weaving new intrigues against the welfare and happiness of the peoples.

They are brewing in their laboratories new and countless misfortunes for the masses. They are striving to save fascism from destruction, to rescue the war criminals and to help them evade the reckoning. They are out to perpetuate the preserves of fascist barbarism in Spain, Portugal and Argentina. They are forcibly and artificially creating and maintaining anti-popular regimes in a number of countries. They are putting ever new obstacles in the way of the emancipation of colonial and dependent countries. They are striving to rob the working class of the democratic rights and economic gains which it has won in decades of stubborn and self-sacrificing struggle.

Political Aspect

The union of the forces of the working class on a world scale should broaden its opportunities of thwarting the machinations of reaction. The World Federation of Trade Unions is designed to unite and multiply the forces of the working class in defense of its rights and interests against the attacks of reaction. Hence, the obvious unsoundness of the distinction between economics and politics which was drawn by some speakers at the Paris congress.

There is no question but that the chief function of every trade union organization, the World Federation not excepted, is to champion the vital economic interests and demands of the working class. However, in actual fact there is no Chinese wall dividing the economic and political interests of the working class. The attacks on the workers' standard of living are accompanied by offensive reaction in the political arena.

The economic demands of the workers cannot therefore be satisfactorily furthered unless their forces are mobilized to combat the machinations of reaction and to defend the democratic rights of the laboring masses. This is most strikingly evidenced in the case of the colonial countries.

At the Paris congress the delegates from the colonial trade unions spoke of the intolerable working and living condi-

(Continued on page 6)

Designing the Perfect Cinema

By Oleg Leonidov

The USSR is to have more and better moving-picture houses. The Soviet Government Cinematography Committee has just held a competition for architects, who were invited to submit plans for the perfect theater, to seat between five and six hundred people.

There was plenty of variety in the designs—the kind of cinema that suits a town near the Arctic Circle is not the type for a central Asiatic village. The committee will make a present of the prize designs to the districts for which they are most suitable. The most distant places are receiving first consideration. A theater with 200 seats has just been built on Tyuleni Island, in the Caspian Sea, for the fishermen and their families. Kokand, in the Central Asiatic Ferghana Region, now has a children's cinema with 500 seats—the first of its kind in the Uzbek Republic.

A really magnificent cinema has replaced the one the Germans destroyed in Velikiye Luki. The people of Nikolayev are to have one costing two and a half million rubles. Quite a crop of cinema houses of the "intimate" sort, seating only about 300, is springing up at Chelyabinsk to serve the numerous workers' settlements. The prospect of a good variety of film entertainment—altogether, a dozen new cinemas are to go up this year—is so attractive to the factory workers that they are putting in hours of voluntary overtime to hurry up the completion of the buildings.

* * *

The Soviet public has a tremendous appetite for films. Typical is the Volga city of Kuibyshev, where bookings total something like five million a year.

Five of the Kuibyshev cinemas are exclusively for children. During the inter-

vals concerts are given by pupils from the music schools or members of young people's amateur art circles..

One of the most popular picture houses in Moscow is the Art Cinema, famous for the excellence of its sound equipment. The film is by no means the only attraction the management has to offer the patrons. The audience is often invited to meet film stars, directors and authors. When *Ivan the Terrible* was showing, Sergei Eisenstein and the leading actors came along to a kind of "at home" for film fans.

Another of Moscow's *de luxe* cinemas is the Central, which gives seven shows a day, catering to 6,000 people. The Uran specializes in musical programs before the film show.

The largest in the capital, the Udarnik, has 15,000 patrons a day, and runs regular matinees for children. Over 130,000 boys and girls last month were shown some of the finest new films from Soviet studios, and made the acquaintance of war heroes, writers, scientists and artists.

* * *

A red banner is awarded each year by the Trade Union of Film-Photo Workers to the most progressive cinema in the Moscow Region. This spring the Coliseum took the prize for the third time running. Its cultural-educational work—lectures by war heroes, scientists, artists and technicians, exhibitions, concerts and so on—is exceptionally good.

The Government Cinematography Committee awards a banner each year to the best cinema house in the USSR. The winner is invariably the Moscow Metropole, which has fascinating exhibitions linked with the film of the week.

The Challenge Banner of the cinema administration of the Moscow Soviet is at the Tagansky Cinema. It is an acknowledgment of a remarkable feat—without canceling a single performance, the staff renovated and re-equipped the theater, installed a fine new screen and laid out a garden with flower beds and fruit trees around the building.

Trade Union Federation

(Continued from page 5)

tions and appalling poverty of the working people due to their utter downtroddenness and absence of all democratic liberties.

The overwhelming majority of the speakers at the congress rightly pointed out that the fight against war, for a lasting peace, and for the eradication of fascism is just as urgent a task and one immediately affecting the vital interests of the working class as the defense of its direct economic demands. And the clauses in the World Federation's constitution which outline its tasks in this field were adopted by the congress unanimously.

The strength of the World Federation lies in its unity. The basis of that strength is the affiliation of Soviet trade unions which embrace 27 million workers in a socialist country; of so influential a federation of American workers as the C. I. O.; the British trade unions, and the French Confederation General du Travail. Without the close cooperation of these bodies, which are capable of rallying around them

the trade unions of all other countries, the World Federation would have been inconceivable.

Opposition Inevitable

It is therefore inevitable that the enemies of the working class will endeavor to undermine it, to split and destroy it from within. Quite perceptible attempts in this direction are already being made now in the very first stage of the World Federation's existence. These attempts must be countered by a firm and purposeful will to unify the organized workers.

The working class of all countries is anxious to make the World Federation of Trade Unions an able force in defense of its vital interests. It does not want the fight against fascism to remain a pious wish, and a world without war a splendid but unattainable dream. It is consciously striving to make the World Federation a truly effective weapon in the fight for the just and pressing demands of the workers.

Artists Design Toys

By Tikhon Sorokin

In the Soviet Union the art of toy-making is closely bound up with the development of folk art. This gives it originality and tradition.

During the last two decades, professional artists have devoted themselves enthusiastically to the production of toys. Artists are connected with toy workshops and special experimental toyshops.

This work continued during the Patriotic War. Achievements of artists in toy design during the war are reflected in an exhibition contest organized recently by the Moscow Museum of Arts and Toys.

The new toy creations of N. Leman, varied, striking in form and brilliant in color, received much attention. They are widely used by the top artel factory at Zagorsk near Moscow, which produces machine-made toys.

The folk-tale toys of E. Kacherina, an



MRS. REYNARD

experienced worker at a Vologda toy artel, are beloved by Soviet children. Her toy *Mrs. Reynard* is executed with gentle humor and emotion.

Folk toys executed in the modern tradition form much of the work of the artist E. Belyakova. Her *Little Town* won a prize at the exhibition.

Two women artists, M. William and E. Borisova, are doing very fine work in toy designs based on folk-tale characters. Their dolls are stuffed and soft and captivate children.

T. Hirshberg specializes in animal toys of composition. Her bulldog, donkey and horse, for instance, are both amusing and full of motion.

Many of the artists displayed toys on military themes or other subjects drawn from the war. Belyakova's wooden sailor



HITLER IN EFFIGY

dolls were popular among Soviet children.

The artists Tolstaya, Borisova and William have created models for the puppet theater, caricaturing Hitler and his satellites.

These puppets were used during the war in anti-fascist plays and lampooning dramatic sketches. Toy-making, like all else, was turned to patriotic use.

BETTER COTTON, RICE AND GRAPES

During the war the Cotton Research Institute of Azerbaijan considerably improved the American cotton plant cultivated in the Republic. New varieties developed by the scientists are distinguished by their high yield and the length and quality of their fiber.

The Azerbaijan Experimental Rice Station has developed a number of new varieties which demand much less water for growing than the existing varieties, and have a 40 per cent higher yield. The Viticulture Scientific Institute has new early grapes, ripening a month ahead of the standard varieties.



WITCH, RUSSIAN STYLE

Coal Miners' Union Sanatorium

I have spent a few days in Mariupol, a lovely seaside town on the Azov Sea, and visited the sanatorium of the Donbas coalminers' union which is located there. From the huge windows of the fine building there are splendid views of the sea.

The great majority of the vacationers are accommodated in the sanatorium free of charge. Only those whose earnings are unusually high pay 300 rubles for one month, which is estimated to be a third of the actual cost. The deficiency is made up from the social insurance fund of the miners' union.

The coalminers' sanatorium was built in 1939 and had run for about a year before the war. When the Germans came to Mariupol they wrecked the place; trade union representatives who visited it after the area was liberated found only ruins.

Now the institution has been completely restored. Its splendid lawns, the vivid flower beds in the spacious grounds, are a source of delight. Near the main

Paper Mills Operating

The paper industry is one of those Soviet industries which suffered most heavily at the hands of the German-fascist invaders, who occupied over one-half of the Soviet paper and cellulose mills of the Karelo-Finnish Republic, the Ukraine, Byelorussia, Kaluga Province, and those near Leningrad.

Seventeen paper machines were launched by the beginning of this year in the restored plants. The mills near Leningrad are operating normally and those in the Ukraine, the Karelo-Finnish Republic, Byelorussia, Kaluga Province and elsewhere are on partial schedules.

The program for this year has been considerably increased. One of the largest paper and cellulose mills in the Union, situated on the Sayss River, will function this year. Four plants will be restored in the Ukraine and several in Byelorussia. In all, 38 paper machines will resume production this year.

building there are shady orchards where visitors love to linger.

The medical offices are equipped with all the most modern apparatus. Large, well-appointed bedrooms are flooded with sunshine.

From the time of arrival, every guest is under the care of a doctor who prescribes the individual regime necessary. If necessary, visitors are provided with special supplementary rations of fats, meat, sugar and other foods of high caloric value. All this is provided by the State.

The sanatorium obtains fresh vegetables, milk, eggs and butter from the neighboring farm owned by the Stalino collieries. The chefs of the establishment are famous for their skill, and the menu is varied and highly attractive. In the visitors' book—in which, as usual in the Soviet Union, guests are encouraged to write their frank opinion as to the quality of accommodation—I found very few unflattering remarks about the food.

Among the first party to visit the place since its restoration, I found people working in all mining trades—operators of coal-cutting machines, timber men and tunnellers from the coal mines of the Stalino, Voroshilovgrad and Rostov Regions. They were of all ages, from youths to veterans.

On the lawn I encountered a party of elderly miners. Among them was Joseph Kurilenko, a 63-year-old coal-hewer, Yefim Kambolin, a 56-year-old pit-prop-fer, and Yevsei Yagodin, a 70-year-old tunneller. All these veterans had spent from 30 to 40 years of their lives working in the mines.

Before the war, they had already ceased work to enjoy their pensions. But after the liberation of the Ukraine, thousands of fresh workers came to the mines who needed training, and so these old miners came back to the pits, to lend a hand and show the newcomers how the various jobs should be done. For two years they had been working hard, and now, at the first opportunity, the collieries had sent

their oldest workers to this seashore resort for rest and recuperation.

Often on the lawn youngsters would gather around the old fellows and listen to their stories of the old days.

But they are not all old people in this miners' palace of health and leisure. I saw some who belong to the middle generation—there is a group of them, for instance, sitting at four tables playing chess in the sanatorium tournament. Among the players are men who came to work in the mines at the time of the Five-Year Plans; their ages range from 30 to 40. These men are the backbone of the mining population.

Walking down to the beach, I met the people of the younger generation of miners: boys and girls of 17 or 18. They were enjoying sun baths or swimming in the sea. These youths spend practically all their time on the beach, reveling in the sea air and sunshine. Except when the gong sounds for a meal—then they stream back to the building.

All three generations of Soviet miners have been laboring arduously and selflessly during the war, helping their country to attain victory. Now they are resting, acquiring new strength, so that they may return to their creative tasks.

Information Bulletin

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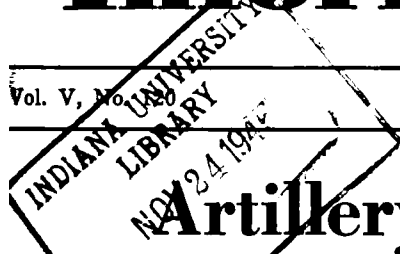
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Artillery Day in the Soviet Union

By Lieutenant General Ignati Prochko

Artillery Day in the Soviet Union was instituted by direction of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR exactly one year ago when fierce battles still raged against the German-fascist army. The celebration day was marked for November 19, the day the routing of the German army began near Stalingrad in 1942.

On November 19, 1944, Generalissimo Stalin, Supreme Commander-in-Chief of the Red Army, referred to the Soviet artillery as the chief striking force of the Red Army. The Soviet artillery has earned praise for the part played in defeating the German-fascist army.

This year the Soviet people and the Red Army will again mark the outstanding service of the Soviet artillerymen and their homeland. This year Artillery Day will be celebrated in peacetime conditions. Guns no longer thunder on fields of action. The Red Army is no longer pitted against the bitter and cruel foe who tried to enslave the Soviet people.

Decisive in Victory

The Red Army, together with the Armies of its Allies, defeated the armed forces of Nazi Germany and forced her to capitulate. The fascist army which overran Europe and threatened to conquer the world exists no more. Japanese military might has also been crushed. The German fascists were beaten in the West and the Japanese imperialists in the East.

The Red Army bore the main burden for four years of struggle against the German-fascist army. In this bitter campaign Soviet artillery played a significant part. In defense it was the shield against which all of the assaults of the Nazi army broke up; and in attack, it

was the hammer under whose blows the most powerful German defenses collapsed.

The Soviet people and the Red Army are proud of their powerful, numerous, and well-equipped artillery units which gave such a magnificent display in the war against the Hitler aggressor.

Artillery Near Leningrad

The Soviet people will never forget their first and most arduous period in the struggle against the Nazi demon. In this initial phase of war, the German High Command disposed numerous tank divisions and the Luftwaffe enjoyed absolute superiority in the sky.

Carried away by their first successes, the German hordes rolled on to Leningrad, Moscow, and Odessa. But they received such a hammering from the Soviet artillery that soon they were weakened and their offensive spirit was knocked out of them.

The devastating fire of Soviet guns near Leningrad pinned the Germans to the ground, forced them into the trenches and for two and one-half years inflicted casualties the enemy could never replace. Infuriated by failure, the Germans tried to break the resistance of the many defenders of Leningrad by barbarous shelling of the city. But Soviet gunners put up such a splendid fight against the German artillery that all of their efforts ended in nothing.

The Germans suffered their first heavy defeat near Moscow in the autumn of 1941. In this rout of the enemy, the Soviet artillery played a decisive part. Stubborn battles between German tank divisions and the Soviet artillery ended in victory for the Russian gunners.

More than 1,500 tanks—13 tank

divisions—attacking Moscow were destroyed on the outskirts of the capital; and the majority were lost as a result of artillery fire. The remainder had to beat a hasty retreat pursued by the fire of Soviet guns.

The first Artillery Guard Regiments were born on the Moscow battlefields. As the war progressed, they became more numerous and proved a powerful force on the whole extensive Soviet-German front.

After the defeat of the German tank divisions on their approaches to Moscow, the German High Command made several other attempts to gain victory with the aid of tanks. Such attempts were undertaken near Stalingrad in the summer and autumn of 1942, during the German summer offensive launched from Orel and Belgorod in 1943, during the fighting in the Balkans in the autumn of 1944, during the engagement in the Budapest area in the spring of 1945, and on many other occasions.

Repelled German Tanks

German tanks were used in force on some sectors. From 200 to 300 and at times even more tanks were thrown into action, but never could the Germans achieve a decisive success.

All tank attacks were repelled by the fire of Soviet guns.

The German High Command could not overcome the Soviet gunfire, even when they let loose their powerful and super-powerful Tigers and King Tigers and self-propelled Ferdinand guns.

By the summer of 1944, the Germans had lost 70,000 of their tanks on the Soviet-German front. During the last phases of the war, another few thousand were added to this number. Those losses

came as a result of the power of Soviet artillery.

Soviet artillery displayed an even greater fire-power during the Red Army offensive operations. Every attack began with a break-through of the German front and Soviet gunners had the final say in the matter.

The annihilation of 22 German divisions near Stalingrad, which brought about a radical change in the war situation, was accomplished with the aid of unprecedented gunfire.

Thousands of Soviet guns were in action. German fortifications were breached. The enemy's battle materiel was converted into a pile of twisted metal; and trenches and fields were strewn with thousands upon thousands of German dead. Such was the deadly effect of the Soviet guns.

After Stalingrad, the Red Army held the initiative until the final rout of Hitler Germany.

One can hardly overrate the part played by the Soviet artillery in those

operations. The Red Army artillery crushed the German defense zones on the Mius and Molochnaya Rivers; it helped Soviet troops to force the territory along the Dnieper throughout its length. Under the hammer blows of Soviet guns fell the powerful German strongholds on Perekop and Sivash and the German-Finnish works on the Karelian Isthmus. Fire of Soviet guns laid waste the durable German fortifications on the borders of East Prussia and destroyed formidable forts at Koenigsberg.

Soviet guns paved the way for troops on the Vistula and Oder. The German strong points before Budapest, Breslau and Poznan could not stand up against Soviet gunfire. In the operation against Berlin, 22,000 guns and mortars bombarded the enemy positions.

Characteristic of Soviet offensive operations is the fact that they were always launched in great operational depth and always ended in the defeat of strong enemy forces. In many instances, strong enemy groups were encircled and an-

nihilated, as was the case near Korsun-Shevchenkivsky; before Bobruisk during the Jassy-Kishinev operation; before Budapest, Southeast Berlin and other places.

In all of the above mentioned instances, Red Army artillery barrages prepared breaches in the enemy defenses, enabling infantry and tanks to break through to open ground.

The Soviet artillery was not only the means of combating German tanks—it also inflicted irretrievable casualties on the manpower of the German army. No wonder, therefore, that German prisoners, soldiers, officers and generals invariably expressed their fear of Soviet gunfire.

The Soviet artillery was a deadly menace to the Nazi invaders not only because of its numerical power and fine equipment. This branch of service owes its victories also to the able cadres it possessed. The bravery, stubbornness and skill of the Soviet artillerymen was noted on many occasions in Orders of the Day by Generalissimo Stalin.



IN THE KHARKOV AREA—This self-propelled gun, commanded by Lieutenant Rusanov, shattered many tanks, including several German Tigers

Members of the Electoral Committee— Rank and File Soviet People

On October 18 Soviet papers began printing the names of the candidates nominated to the Central Electoral Committee. The Central Electoral Committee is headed by Vasili Kuznetsov, Chairman of the All-Union Central Committee of Trade Unions. On October 20, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR endorsed the list of candidates of the Central Electoral Committee composed of 15 members. This list includes the best men and women of this country who have displayed their supreme patriotism and loyalty by their activities at the front and rear. Here are some of them:

* * *

Ferapont Golovaty, a collective farmer.

Ferapont Golovaty was nominated as a candidate to the Central Electoral Committee by the toiling people of the Tabunovo Village Soviet, Saratov Region. In the most critical days of the war,

when the enemy approached the banks of the Volga, Ferapont Golovaty, like the true patriot he is, gave his savings to the defense of the country. His initiative led to the development of a patriotic movement for the creation of a defense fund which eventually amounted to billions of rubles.

* * *

Taisia Shuvandina, a textile worker.

Taisia Shuvandina was recommended by the textile workers of Ivanovo. She was the first to operate 20 looms simultaneously. The Government bestowed the Order of Lenin on the woman patriot.

* * *

Nina Pilaeva, a collective farm chairman.

The famous flax growers of the collective farm "Krasny Putilovets," Kalinin Region, initiators of last year's All-Union competition for record harvests, nomi-

nated Nina Pilaeva as their candidate. A fine organizer of collective farming, Pilaeva made her farm the best in the district in the past three and one-half years.

* * *

Klavdia Abushenko, a trade union worker.

Klavdia Abushenko was advanced to the Central Electoral Committee by the State farm trade union workers of Byelorussia. Klavdia Abushenko is a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Byelorussian SSR. Until 1928 she worked on a collective farm and for some years was employed at the Vitebsk hosiery factory. After the liberation of Byelorussia, Abushenko became the chairman of the organization bureau of the Byelorussian committee of State farms trade union.

* * *

Alexander Pokryshkin, thrice Hero of the Soviet Union.

Alexander Pokryshkin was nominated by the Central Council of the Aviation Aid Society of which he was a member. At one time the famed Soviet pilot attended classes of one of the glider circles and later took a flying course at the Krasnodar Aero Club. The Soviet pilot ace particularly distinguished himself in the war. He began as a lieutenant and finished as a colonel in command of a division. Alexander Pokryshkin made over 600 operational flights and knocked out 60 enemy aircraft.

* * *

Alexei Shatilin, a furnace foreman.

Alexei Shatilin was nominated to the Central Electoral Committee by the workers and employees of the Stalin Magnitogorsk iron and steel works. Shatilin, who started as an ordinary furnaceman, did some extraordinarily good work both before and during the war.

SCULPTORS WORK IN COOPERATIVES

It was at the foot of the Barnukov cave that the Gorky cooperative of stone-carvers—the first of the six sculptors' cooperatives now famous throughout the USSR—came into being.

When it was well on its feet, Stulov started a search for new deposits of anhydrite and new apprentices. He got more young people together and very soon initiated four new cooperatives in the Molotov Region, and one in the Kuibyshev Region.

There followed years of training and hard work. Gradually the carved stone objects made by Stulov and his boys attracted the attention of handicraft dealers. Finally they appeared at an Art Exhibition in Moscow.

Some of them were illustrations to Krylov's fables and Pushkin's tales. Others

were devoted to subjects of labor, war, hunting and ordinary life: a she-bear taking her cubs for a stroll, a Molotov steel-welder in a picturesque hat, a scout keeping vigil with his dog, a Red Army man convoying a group of war prisoners, all carved in stone.

"Most of the stone-cutters in our cooperatives are young country boys and girls," says Ivan Stulov. "Many of them begin carving at the age of eight or nine. Most of the exhibits at the Moscow Arts Exhibition were the work of these young people who are already skilled craftsmen. One of the best, for example, is 15-year-old Ivan Nikitin of the Molotov cooperative.

"All of them were my pupils. Now they are independent craftsmen and have their own pupils. Our cooperatives are growing and with them grows our folk art."

The Soviet State

First of two articles on the SOVIET STATE, by Academician A. Y. Vysbinsky

The Soviet State is 28 years old. Born in the storms of the Great October Socialist Revolution, the Soviet State has experienced many trials in the course of 28 years, the grimmest and most difficult of which were undoubtedly the years of war against rapacious Hitler Germany.

The USSR emerged successfully from this great trial, thereby proving the great vitality of the Soviet system and the unconquerable might of socialism.

What is more, the mighty Soviet State has been shown to liberty-loving peoples of the world as a decisive force in defeating the reactionary fascist powers of darkness; as the power that, with its Allies, saved world civilization from the fascist pogrom-mongers; and as a liberator of the peoples.

The state as an institution, from the very beginning of its existence in history was and remains the strongest, mightiest means of executing the will of its ruling class, of subordinating other classes to that will, and of suppressing their resistance.

In this respect any state is only a reflection of the production relations dominating in society; a weapon for their defense and protection. The state stands guard over the interests of its ruling classes, and over the political and social relations that are of benefit to them.

Lenin's Teaching

Lenin teaches us that "The major problem of any revolution is that of state power." The success or failure of the proletarian revolution depends on how this question of organization of the state power is solved, on the system, forms of activity, and methods adopted. This means that for the success of the revolution, for the successful development of new social relations born of revolution, it is not only necessary to defeat enemies but also to organize the building of a new state to arm the revolution and to form an army capable of defending the revolutionary gains of the people.

Lenin emphasized very strongly the

tremendous importance of the proletarian state for the success of the socialist revolution, the necessity for the working class to make use of the state for social and political emancipation of the working people and in the abolition of national oppression. Lenin taught us how and by what means the working class in alliance with the peasantry could and should use the state for the benefit of the people.

Distortions Exposed

Lenin purged the teachings of Marx and Engels from petty bourgeois distortions added by opportunists; exposed sweet-sounding Menshevik nonsense about the calm and smooth development of bourgeois society into socialism—nonsense to the effect that it is not in the fires of battle, not in overcoming social contradictions by means of revolutionary struggle, but in reconciling and smoothing out class contradictions that the socialist transformation of the state is to be effected.

Lenin developed the teachings of Marx and Engels on the state, especially on the important question of smashing the bourgeois state apparatus and of utilizing the state for the purposes and interests of the proletariat.

He made clear the inner content of proletarian dictatorship and of proletarian democracy, showing their mutual connections and their unity.

In considering forms of the proletarian state, Lenin discovered Soviet power as a state form of dictatorship of the proletariat.

Experience gained in the Revolution of 1905 and events of the First World War placed before the working class questions of the form of the state they would use to accomplish their historic aims. Lenin provided an answer to this question, and his answer was a discovery of real genius in the theory and history of the state. The Republic of Soviets was a new type of state, and it is to Lenin that we owe this great discovery.

Lenin and Stalin called the Soviet power a new form of state organization

which differs on principle from all bourgeois, democratic, and parliamentary forms. At the Seventh Congress of the Russian Communist Party (Bolsheviks) and in other statements which he made, Lenin spoke of Soviet power as a new type of state.

In his lectures at Sverdlov Institute in 1924, Stalin gave an exhaustive characterization of the specific features of the new type of state which is not adapted "to the task of exploiting and oppressing working people, but to that of their complete emancipation from all forms of oppression and exploitation, to the tasks of the dictatorship of the proletariat."

Lenin and Stalin teach us that the Soviet State is "the only form capable of insuring the most painless transition to socialism."

The Soviet State, as we now see, really was a major weapon in the socialist transformation of our society, a major and decisive factor in the successful building of socialism, and the organization of new socialist social relations.

The Soviet Power

In his article, "Present Tasks of the Soviet Power", Lenin wrote of the world historical importance of Soviet power as the organizational form of dictatorship of the proletariat, the dictatorship of the most progressive class in modern society.

Lenin said that the proletariat as the progressive class, in accomplishing its dictatorship, raises "tens and tens of millions of working and exploited people to a new democracy, to independent participation in the government of the state and they by their own experience learned to see their most reliable leader in the disciplined and conscious vanguard of the proletariat."

In the character and specific features of the Soviet system of state control is to be seen that which is new in principle and is effected by the combination of dictatorship and democracy in its full and developed form.

Socialist democracy is characteris-

And Soviet Democracy

first and foremost, by the fact that it makes possible the activity of Soviets, organizations that embrace the greatest number of working people.

Through the Soviets, the masses participate in the building of the new state and in its government. The Soviet State is a real State of the people. The whole system of State structure, legislation and control, is built up in such a way that in it the common will of the people is forged.

"Proletarian democracy," wrote Lenin, "one form of which is Soviet power, effected the extension and development of democracy unparalleled in the world, in particular for the gigantic majority of the people, for the exploited and working people."

This is the most important specific feature of the Soviet State, whose democracy has been tested in practice and proved, for in the USSR it is not the minority, not the "elite" representatives of the rich classes, but the real masses, the overwhelming majority of working people, who themselves built up their new way of life and who by their own experience solve the most difficult problems of socialist organization.

Socialist democracy provides the necessary conditions for the maximum development of the revolutionary energy, initiative and creative abilities of the masses in their struggle for the destruction of the old system and in the struggle for the new socialist system.

Socialist democracy is not only the democratic electoral system; it is not only the universal right to elect and to be elected to organs of state power; it is not merely the definite sum total of civic rights and duties.

System of Relations

It is a form of state activity, a system of relations between different state organs and public organizations, a system of relations between citizens and the state.

Socialist democracy is also expressed in the actual guarantee of democratic rights and liberties, in the place which the people, citizens, classes occupy in our society.

The Soviet system is the cradle of new classes. Classes such as these have never been known in history before. Our working class and our collective farmers are in their social nature new classes, as is also the new Soviet intelligentsia, whose character has been formed by new socialist social relations.

Soviet society in its structure and in its material and spiritual qualities differs in principle from forms of society which have grown up in other countries.

Socialist democracy is a particular method of state structure and control, a special method of organization of the state, and of social relations. The Soviet State is a step forward for the whole of mankind. The Soviet State may be compared with the most perfect modern machine that has advanced far beyond the first primitive steam-engines.

Without Crises

The Soviet State is without any internal contradictions, crises, unemployment, or similar phenomena typical of bourgeois states.

The creative work of the organs of the Soviet State and of the masses of people participating in work of those organs, finds expression in the fact that they serve to simplify the growth of new social relations by clearing the soil of the debris of the old society, and affording help in overcoming inherited prejudices and remnants of petty bourgeois psychology in the consciousness of the people.

The theory of the State propounded by Lenin and Stalin was confirmed by the subsequent course of events, by the whole development of the Soviet Socialist State structures, which finds its real expression in the Stalin Constitution, the Constitution of victorious Socialism.

The Stalin Constitution is the highest expression of Soviet democracy, and guarantees the widest masses of the people the possibility of participating in the government of the State, in legislation, judicial and executive power, and in employment of all the wealth and achievements of the country for their own benefit—guarantees it not only in legal form

but in actual fact; that is, by literally all material resources and riches of the country.

The Stalin Constitution gives legislative embodiment to complete legal equality and sovereignty of the peoples of the USSR; unconditional recognition of equal rights and equal obligations to their country and their State for all nationalities of the USSR.

Specific Qualities

It was precisely these specific qualities of the Soviet State that insured the victory of Socialism in the USSR. These specific qualities are to be seen:

1. In the economic structure of the Soviet Union as an economic organization based on common socialist property—the foundation of the Soviet system.

2. In the political structure of the Soviet Union as a socialist federation based on the great principles of political equality, fraternity, and indivisible friendship of the peoples united in the National Republics.

3. In the cultural structure of the Soviet Union, which facilitates cultural and political growth of many millions of people on an unprecedented scale, and the training of a huge contingent of intellectuals from amongst the people, who have acquired the maximum of scientific and technical knowledge.

4. In the moral and political aspect of the Soviet man—the man of the new Socialist epoch, brought up in the spirit of the new principles of socialist morality, Soviet patriotism, loyalty and love for the socialist homeland.

5. In the mighty organizing and transforming role of the great Bolshevik Party of Lenin and Stalin which has been tempered in struggle and has taught the people to struggle and to conquer—has led the people from victory to victory.

In these supreme qualities of Soviet power, in the lofty moral and political qualities of the Soviet people, lie the major reasons for the socialist successes of the Soviet Union, which has become a mighty world power.

These qualities, from time immemorial

(Continued on page 2)

Work of Soviet Historians for 28 Years

By V. Volgin

During the past 28 years the historians of the Soviet Union have studied all phases of the history of our country, raising a number of new problems and finding new solutions for old ones. The problems that chiefly occupied the attention of Soviet historians are those of the genesis of the different nationalities inhabiting our country, the creation of markets, the formation of a Russian national state and questions of finance capital and military feudal imperialism in Russia.

Soviet historians have analyzed the history of the popular mass movements of the people—in particular, the peasant movements, the history of the working class and workers movement, the history of the Bolshevik Party, the revolutions of 1905 and 1917, the Civil War and the history of diplomacy.

Attention should be drawn, in the first place, to the work connected with the history of the Kiev Rus carried out chiefly by Academician B. D. Grekov. The Academician's great scientific merit lies in his explanation of the social-economic structure of the Kiev Rus and the international significance of the Kiev State. B. D. Grekov has done much to help us understand the nature of the transition period from the clan system to the feudal, or so-called prefeudal period in the history of the Eastern Slavs. By a careful study of his materials, Academician Grekov came to the conclusion that the Eastern Slavs had passed straight to the feudal system without having passed through slavery.

In connection with the history of Russian feudalism and the formation of the Russian national state, we should mark Academician T. Y. Vipper's book on *Ivan the Terrible* which has already passed into its third edition. This book and a small work by S. V. Bakhrushin, a Corresponding Member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, throw a new light on the positive role played by Ivan the Terrible in creating a centralized state and note the progressive importance of his activities.

The beginning of the nineteenth century and the Patriotic War of 1812 form the themes of works by Academician E.

V. Tarle (*Napoleon*), A. A. Predtechensky (*On the Influence of the Continental Blockade on Russian Industry*), M. V. Nechkina and others.

Revolutionary History

Large-scale research was also carried out by Soviet historians on the history of the revolutionary movement in tsarist Russia, the history of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), and the history of the Great October Socialist Revolution. An example of Marxist research of this type is *The History of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks)*. A comprehensive work has been compiled by a group of historians under the guidance of I. Mintz under the title *History of the Civil War* and has already been edited. Up to the present two volumes of history have been published covering the period up to November, 1917, as well as a number of selections, (*Documents of the Great Proletarian Revolution and Documents of the Heroic Defense of Tsaritsyn in 1918*).

In 1942 a group of historians commenced to collect material on the history of the Great Patriotic War. The commission organized to compile a chronicle of the war has done a great deal of work: a vast amount of material has been collected and classified on the history of separate phases of the war; the history of the partisan movement, the people's guard, Guards units, biographies of Heroes of the Soviet Union, etc.

One of the outstanding features of Soviet historical research is the study of the history of the different peoples inhabiting the USSR, which is proceeding on a growing scale with each succeeding year.

History of Ukraine

In 1943 the Academy of Sciences of the Ukrainian SSR published the first volume of *A General Course in the History of the Ukraine* edited by N. N. Petrovsky.

Soviet historical science has developed on a large scale in the republics of the Transcaucasus—Georgia, Armenia and

Azerbaijan. The works of Academicians N. Y. Marr, I. A. Djavakhashvili, S. N. Djanashia and Y. A. Manandyan are of primary scientific importance.

The Archives of the USSR contain an exceptionally large collection of unclassified materials on the history of international relations of both Russia and the USSR. Part of this material had been published after the October Revolution. In the prewar years interest in this work grew and the first volume of *The History of Diplomacy*, edited by V. P. Potemkin, was published; in it considerable attention was devoted to the history of Russian diplomacy and very valuable comments were made on certain periods of history. The second and third volumes of this publication were prepared for publication during the war. Academician E. V. Tarle is also working in this direction and has published a book on the Crimean War. He is now engaged in research on the foreign policy at the time of Catherine the Great.

The history of war and the art of warfare has drawn considerable attention lately.

Of particular interest in the field of history of the ancient Orient are the works of Soviet historians devoted to the question of the social-economic system of the lands of the ancient Orient. Academician V. V. Struve has published a theory on the slave-owning nature of ancient Oriental communities.

Of great scientific value are the works of Soviet scholars on the ancient history of the Transcaucasian lands that form part of the Soviet Union. Academician N. Y. Marr and I. A. Orbeli initiated the study of Chaldean inscriptions before the Revolution and valuable research in this direction also has been made by Academician I. I. Meshchaninov.

The history of Egypt also has been thoroughly studied by Soviet historians, the leading part in this being taken lately by Academician V. V. Struve whose numerous works deal with the most varied problems of Egyptian history.

An important place in the works of

(Continued on page 7)

New Plants for Old in the USSR

Recently Tsitsin has developed a promising variety of perennial rye by crossing cultivated rye with couch grass.

The crossing of wheat with wild-growing varieties of *elimus* (*giganteus* and *arenarius*), which is impervious to heat, cold and drought, opens up entirely new prospects for the semi-desert regions of the Soviet Union.

A. Krasniuk has crossed cultivated rye with a wild-growing grain plant to produce a hybrid that is biologically adapted to conditions of drought and frost, and yields a good harvest in poor soils and bad climates. Moreover, this hybrid serves as a perennial fodder crop.

A. E. Derzhavin has produced a perennial wheat, yielding both grain and hay, by crossing cultivated wheat with wild-growing perennial rye. The wheat-rye

hybrids are impervious to fungus diseases.

Derzhavin has provided Soviet farmers with another useful hybrid which grows profusely in semi-arid, sandy soils, producing fresh, succulent fodder when the pastures are dried up. This he did by crossing cultivated annual sorghum with wild perennial sorghum.

A. Yablokov, working in another field, has crossed the aspen and the Turkestan pyramidal poplar. The result is the pyramidal aspen, with all the advantages but without the drawbacks of the parent trees.

The aspen provides good wood for building, and for making matches, plywood and cellulose; but it grows slowly, and suffers badly from heart rot. The poplar grows quickly, and also produces good timber.

Another of Yablokov's successes was

the crossing of the Turkestan poplar with the white or silver poplar. The white or silver poplar stands up to heavy frosts, and does well in the North. The hybrid grows very rapidly, and is impervious to frost or drought.

The same scientist has crossed the wild hazel, common in the USSR, with one of the better sorts of subtropical hazel from Barcelona. The nuts of our own wild hazel are very nutritious, while the bush itself serves to hold the soil and prevent erosion. The hybrid has the advantage of being impervious to frost; the nut has a high albumin and fat content.

By crossing the Jerusalem artichoke with the sunflower, B. Schibrya has produced an entirely new plant. He has combined the perenniality and tubers of the artichoke with the high harvest yield and big oily seeds of the sunflower.

Many years of experimentation have now given Soviet farmers a tall, heavily foliated hybrid which produces green silage at the rate of 28 tons per acre. The stalk has a high sugar content (17 per cent when green, and about 53 per cent when dried). A type of molasses similar to that obtained from sorghum can be got from this stalk.

Work of Historians

(Continued from page 6)

Soviet historians engaged in the study of antiquity is taken by research into the ancient history of the Black Sea coastal regions and the Caucasus. Here much credit is due to Academician S. A. Zhebelev, who perished in Leningrad during the blockade. His work, *The Last Persian and Scythian Uprising on the Bosphorus*, is a brilliant example of a truly scientific and at the same time original interpretation of the known text. In his research Zhebelev proves that the uprising in question was not a court revolution but a rebellion of slaves against slave owners. This discovery throws a new light upon the social history of the Greek cities situated on the shores of the Black Sea.

Soviet scholars have contributed many valuable pages to the history of the Middle Ages, particularly to the social-economic history and the history of the agrarian relations of those times. Continuing the line of research connected with the names of Pavel Vinogradov, Petroshevsky and Savin, E. A. Kosminsky has given a valuable picture of an English village of the thirteenth century; A. D. Udaltsev has published research on the agrarian history of the Carolingian

Flanders; N. P. Gratsiansky on the history of the burgundy villages in the tenth and eleventh centuries.

Other problems forming the subject of Soviet historians' research are those connected with the ethnogenesis of the Slavs; the social-economic system of the Slav peoples in the early Middle Ages; relations between the Slavs and the Byzantine Empire; and the formation of the Slav states.

Modern History

In the field of modern history Soviet historians have chiefly centered their attention on the history of the greatest bourgeois revolution, the French Revolution in the eighteenth century, and on its preparatory period. Two large collective works represent the results of the labors of Soviet historians in this direction. One of these, devoted to the history of the revolution of 1789-1794 and edited by Academicians V. P. Volgin and E. V. Tarle has already been published, while the second—the pre-revolutionary years, 1763-1788—has been prepared for printing.

The compilation of these comprehensive works would have been impossible

but for the large amount of separate research into the history of England and France in the eighteenth century that preceded it. In particular, great popularity has been gained by the works of the Soviet scholars E. A. Kosminsky, V. M. Lavrovsky, S. I. Arkhangelsky, V. E. Semenov and others on the agrarian history of England. Academician Volgin has concentrated on the history of the social and political movements in France on the eve of the Revolution.

Soviet scientists also have accomplished much in the field of archaeology and ethnography.

During the grim war years our historians participated in the general war effort to rout the enemies of human culture. The victorious conclusion of the war permits them to return to their interrupted research and also to commence analysis of the new problems of the history of human society.

Care of the Blind in the USSR

By Yevgenia Augustinovich

In the Soviet Union, to be blind is not to be cut off from the social and productive life of the community. Through the Society for the Blind, founded in 1922 on the initiative of a group of blind people living in Moscow, the State attends to the everyday needs of the handicapped and finds work for them.

A person afflicted suddenly with blindness usually goes through a phase of deep despair. At this stage help comes from members of the Society for the Blind. They visit him; they introduce him to other blind people who have already adapted themselves to their new conditions of life; they find out his tastes, desires and abilities; they prove to him that he is not helpless, and they get him a job.

The annual income of the Society for the Blind is close on 20,000,000 rubles, it has set aside nearly 7,000,000 rubles for cultural work. It also collaborates with the public health authorities in measures for the prevention of blindness.

More than 10,000 blind persons have been placed in jobs by the Society. Some are skilled metal-workers—drill, press and turret lathe operators, fitters and assembly hands. Many make felt boots, inner soles, mattresses, furniture, stockings, scarves, skirts and blouses, baskets, wicker furniture, mats, rope and stationery. The plastics industry employs quite a number.

There are jobs the blind can do on the State and collective farms.

Skills of the Blind

A blind man can produce fine parts on a turning lathe with marvelous skill. His senses of hearing and touch are so highly developed that he can judge the slightest deviation by sound alone, and test the precision of his work by touch alone. The successes of the blind in this field have been so striking that Soviet authorities are considering turning over the whole "Emos" electric motor plant to them.

Blind people who prefer to work at home are well provided for. Machines are set up in their homes, raw material is delivered, and finished products are collected.

During tsarist times only eight blind people in Russia received a university education. In Soviet times hundreds of blind persons have graduated from institutes of higher learning. More than 750 members of the Society for the Blind, most of whom lost their sight while on war service, are now studying in teachers' colleges, law schools and universities. They receive higher grants than sighted students. Each blind person has the services of a seeing secretary who reads aloud to him.

What do they do with their knowledge, once they have been graduated? I need

only mention Professor Pontrygin, one of our most famous mathematicians, who lost his sight when very young, and the well-known lawyer Tsekhladze, a famous figure in the Moscow courts.

Two Music Schools

In Moscow alone there are two music schools for blind persons. In fact, there is a great wealth of musical talent among the blind, and the Society for the Blind does its utmost to develop it. Nearly 500 persons who lost their sight in the war against Hitler Germany are studying music under the Society's auspices.

Blind adults also take part in amateur theatricals.

Training of Children

Boys and girls receive a complete secondary education in the Institute for Blind Children. They attend vocational training classes while at school.

A large circulating library for the blind in Moscow is stocked with a rich variety of works in Braille, including classics and contemporary fiction.

Sightless persons who are unable to work receive maintenance allowances from the Society for the Blind. Appropriations this year under this heading exceed 3,000,000 rubles.

The rehabilitation budget for this year alone totals 4,000,000 rubles.

Soviet State

(Continued from page 5)

characteristic of Russians, have been increased a hundredfold during these 28 years of proletarian revolution.

They were first tempered during the Civil War in the north, south, east and west of our country. They became stronger during the period of the New Economic Policy, when petty bourgeois upsurge threatened to obliterate the still weak foundations of the new social relations based on the principles of socialism.

They grew into a mighty creative force during the period of the Stalin Five-Year

Plans, when under the hammer blows of the ever-growing youthful energy of millions of people engaged in the great task of building up a new society, remnants of former backwardness and stagnation in the fields of economics and cultural life began to collapse and to give place to the new.

These qualities became apparent with unprecedented strength during the years of the Great Patriotic War, which showed the superiority of the new Soviet people—knights, Titans of courage, heroism, valor, and honor.

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Finding Funds for the Five-Year Plans

By Professor S. Turetsky

The devastating effects on Russia of the First World War and of succeeding foreign armed intervention and the Civil War were such that in 1920, industrial output dropped to only 14 per cent of the 1913 level.

Rehabilitation demanded enormous funds. When this task had eventually been accomplished and the 1913 level of industrial output recovered, the Soviet Government set out to build up a heavy industry which would be capable of providing machinery for the reconstruction of every branch of economy, with the ideas:

First, of mechanizing and lightening labor to the utmost and raising the standard of living of the people;

Second, of strengthening the economic basis of national defense;

Third, of rendering the Soviet Union economically independent.

* * *

This, of course, necessitated the investment of incomparably greater funds than were required for rehabilitation.

The methods by which the Soviet Union obtained funds for these purposes differed radically from the methods of capital accumulation known in the history of capi-

talist countries, where heavy industry was built up either with the help of big foreign loans or by means of indemnities extorted from weaker countries, as in the case of Germany, whose industrial development was based on five billion marks indemnity which she exacted from France after the Franco-Prussian War.

The latter method is abhorrent to the very character of the Soviet system. As to foreign loans, these were not available to the Soviet Union, as the capitalist countries were virtually subjecting it to a financial blockade.

Under these circumstances, the country



ON GUARD—The Five-Year Plans strengthened the economic bases of the national defenses of the Soviet Union. A Red Navy man of the Northern Fleet on solitary sentry duty at a coastal battery guarding the Soviet Trans-Arctic areas through which pass the convoys from the United States and Great Britain

could rely only upon its own resources for the funds it needed.

The chief methods employed were the systematic increase of the productivity of labor and stringent retrenchment of all expenditures. In this way, without the help of foreign loans, and at the same time preserving the economic independence of the country, the Soviet Government was able to find the enormous funds needed for reconstruction and for building up heavy industry.

In the years 1925 and 1926, it was able, merely by reducing costs of production in industry, to find an additional two billion rubles, an immense sum for that period; and in the succeeding three years—1927 to 1929—to secure another seven billion rubles by the same means.

In the fiscal year of 1929-1930, five billion rubles were invested in industry, as compared with one billion rubles in the year 1926-27.

First Five-Year Plans

In the period of the First Five-Year Plan, 1928-1932, sixty billion rubles were invested in building factories, mines, power plants, collective and State farms, housing, and the like. More than 1,500 new mills and factories were put into operation during this period, while many thousands of old plants were expanded and enlarged.

From a backward agrarian country, the Soviet Union had now become an advanced industrial country.

Economic development in the period of the Second Five-Year Plan, 1933 to 1937, was considerably greater than during the period of the first Plan. Technical reconstruction of the entire economy of the country was completed.

Huge Funds Needed

This had necessitated gigantic funds. Capital investments during this period totalled 137.5 billion rubles, or more than double the total in the First Five-Year Plan. About half this sum was expended on industrial development.

By 1937, industrial output was 2.2 times greater than in 1932, and eight times greater than in 1913. Aggregate agricultural output increased half as much

again in the period of the Second Five-Year Plan.

The Third Five-Year Plan, 1938 to 1942, envisaged a total capital investment of 181 billion rubles, or more than three times the investment under the First Five-Year Plan.

These investments were designed still further to strengthen the economic might and the defenses of the Soviet Union and further to raise the material and cultural standard of the people.

How effectively this was being accomplished is indicated by the results of the first three years of the Plan, 1938-1940, prior to the outbreak of the war. During this period 108 billion rubles were invested in industrial expansion and 2,900 new mills, factories, mines, power stations, and other plants were put into operation.

The average annual increase in industrial output in these three years was equivalent to 14 billion rubles, as compared with an average of 10.5 billion rubles in the Second Five-Year Plan, and five billion rubles in the first.

Agriculture, transport, trade, and other branches of the national economy developed with like rapidity. The increase of the national income in the period of 1937-

1940 was more than equivalent to the total national income of Russia in 1913.

Third Plan Interrupted

The third Five-Year Plan, whose fulfillment was proceeding so successfully, was interrupted in June, 1941, by the Nazi invasion of the Soviet Union.

But the sums invested under the Five-Year Plans had now converted the Soviet Union into a mighty industrial power which was not only able to withstand the assault of Hitler's armored hordes, but to play a major role in the defeat of Nazi Germany. When the Soviet Union entered the war against Japan, the Red Army's mighty blows in the Far East accelerated the defeat of that aggressor and the termination of the Second World War.

The people of the Soviet Union have now returned to their peaceful constructive labors. By decision of the Government, the fourth Five-Year Plan is being compiled. In the five-year period beginning with 1946, regions devastated by German occupation are to be completely rehabilitated and the national economy is to be reconstructed, so that by 1950 output will considerably exceed that of the last prewar year.



AT WORK—The Five-Year Plans built Soviet industry and brought it to the high efficiency which during the war made it a bulwark of defense

Red Army Prepares for Election

By Colonel G. Barandov

The Soviet people are busily engaged in preparing for the forthcoming elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, fixed to take place in February, 1946.

Red Army units are likewise preparing for the great event. Army papers feature articles concerning election activities in the units, and work is carried on to explain to the men their rights and the full meaning of the campaign.

In conformity with the Soviet Constitution, all organs of power, from the Supreme Soviet to the Village Soviets, are elected by universal direct election, conducted on the basis of equal suffrage by secret ballot. All citizens who have reached the age of eighteen have the right to vote.

No discrimination is made because of race, nationality, religion, educational or residential status, social origin, property status, or past activities. Only the insane and persons who have been convicted by a court of law and whose sentences include deprivation of electoral rights are not permitted to vote.

The Red Army man enjoys equal rights with all other citizens of the USSR. The Constitution declares service in the Red Army to be the honorable duty of the Soviet citizen and defense of the Motherland his sacred duty.

The people, the Government, and the Red Army constitute three parts of one whole. They are not only one in social composition; they are one in their aims, tasks and interests. In the Soviet Union, the man in the greatcoat is afforded trust, love and respect.

The Red Army is the offspring and pride of the Soviet people. The will of the people is law for the Soviet soldier. The Red Army soldier knows no greater disgrace than to fail in the hopes and trust of the Soviet people.

The love of the Soviet people for their Red Army, their pride in the growth and successes of the of the Red Army, became even more marked in the years of war against the Nazi invaders.

The Soviet Government provides every possible facility for Red Army men to exercise their electoral rights.

Special election precincts are established in Army units. This enables every soldier and officer to avail himself of his electoral right. The Soviet Government also has made provision for units on service outside the country. An edict of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, dated October 14, 1945, established that a special election precincts be set up in those units for each 100,000 voters. Each precinct has a right to elect one deputy to the Soviet of the Union and one to the Soviet of Nationalities.

Wide-scale informative campaigns carried out in Army units show that no effort is spared to make each soldier completely familiar with the Constitution, the electoral system, and voting procedure.

In the last election, Army men played an active part. Many Red Army representatives were elected to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, the Supreme Soviets of the Union Republics, and to local Soviets.

The coming elections will be another expression of the triumph of Soviet democracy, and fresh evidence of the grow-

ing union of the Red Army and the people.

The Red Army is preparing for the elections to the Supreme Soviet with the proud feeling that it is an equal member of the great and mighty Soviet country.



ARMY MAN VOTES—This picture, taken in 1937, shows N. Yakushin voting



A POLLING PLACE—Red Army men wait their turn to vote in the 1941 elections at the ward of a unit stationed in the Estonian SSR

The Soviet State and Soviet Democracy

Part II—concludes two articles on the SOVIET STATE by Academician A. Y. Vysbinsky.

History has never seen such a great example of courage as that displayed in the gigantic battles against the German-fascist bandits by the peoples of the Soviet Union led by the great Russian people.

* * *

The peoples of the Soviet Union owe their lofty moral and political qualities to the new Soviet system, to the organization of social and, first and foremost, of economic relations resting on the firm foundations of socialist property and principles of socialist economy. On this foundation Soviet culture with all its creative might was formed and developed. Under the conditions of Soviet society new people have been trained who have taken from the old culture everything that is good and valuable, everything that was created in the course of many centuries of the history of our people and their forbears.

The fine historical legacy in the spiritual wealth of Russian culture was not only preserved during the stormy years of the Revolution, but was multiplied many times over. The workers and peasants of the old Russian empire who took state power into their own hands 28 years ago acquired this culture, know its strength and its significance, its might and its greatness and placed it at the service of the new tasks of the epoch. They insured such an influential role for all cultural gains and achievements in all spheres of the economic and political life of the country as had never before fallen to the lot of culture.

The Soviet State arose as a result of a harmonious combination of masterly scientific prognosis and the revolutionary activity of the progressive forces of society. The Soviet State bases its politics on profound scientific fundamentals; it is guided by Leninism, the highest achievement of Russian and world culture, the most advanced ideology of the present day.

Referring to such ideas, Stalin said, "There are new and advanced ideas and theories which serve the interests of the

advanced forces of society. Their significance lies in the fact that they facilitate the development and progress of society; and their significance is the greater the more accurately they reflect the methods of development of the material life of society. New social ideas and theories arise only after the development of the material life of society has set new tasks before society."

Stalin emphasizes further that "arising out of the new tasks set by the development of the material life of society, new social ideas and theories force their way through to become the possession of the masses who mobilize and organize them against the moribund forces of society and thus facilitate the overthrow of these forces which hamper the development of the material life of society."

It is not difficult to appreciate the great significance which progressive ideas and theories have when they are possessed by people whose practical activities put their ideas into effect. Under these circumstances the high moral and political qualities of the people who are building up a new way of life developed to a still greater extent.

In his well known paper, *Dialectical and Historical Materialism*, Stalin spoke of the tremendous role of the new social ideas, the new political institutions, the new political powers which render the old production relations useless; "Out of the conflict between the new production forces and the old relations of production," he wrote, "out of the new economic demands of society there arise new social ideas; new ideas to organize and mobilize the masses; the masses have become welded into a new political army to create a new revolutionary power and to make use of it to abolish by force the old system of relations of production and firmly to establish a new system. The spontaneous process of development yields place to the conscious action of men; peaceful development to violent upheaval, evolution to revolution."

The development of the Soviet State and Soviet society during the 28 years that have elapsed since the Great October Revolution is a fine example of the success that may be achieved when,

as Stalin said, "The spontaneous process of development yields place to the conscious action of men."

* * *

The Bolshevik Party and the Soviet Government headed by Lenin and Stalin determined the direction to be taken by the policy of the Soviet State. With their masterly foresightedness and penetrating they showed the line to be followed raising before the Soviet people the curtain hiding the future and showing the course of events for many future years.

The main trend of Soviet politics during the first days of Soviet power was subordinated to the solution of the problem of transforming our country from a backward, economically and technically weak land, into a land of highly developed industry equipped with modern machines—a land of high modern culture.

The great program of socialist industrialization and collectivization of agriculture found expression in the historical Stalin Five-Year Plans which led to the victory of socialism in our country and prepared the Soviet people so that they were able to meet the oncoming threat of war in a worthy manner.

The spirit of creative effort and boundless energy, persistence and business ability, of research and resourcefulness, of organization and discipline—a living expression of socialist democracy—reigns in all spheres of State, economic and cultural life in the USSR. Thanks to this our State was able to catch up in five years and overcome with magical swiftness decades and centuries of backwardness inherited from the past.

The work went forward at high speed, never lagging for a single day despite all attempts on the part of enemies of socialism to interrupt it, despite the attempts of those who had broken away from our society—Mensheviks, Social Revolutionaries, Trotskyites, Zinovievites, Bukharinists and similar traitors—to check the victorious advance of our country and destroy the construction of the socialist society that had been begun. They did not succeed. Our work was crowned with complete success. O

country and our people, all liberty-loving peoples owe this to the great Stalin.

The basis of all work on the organization of a socialist society in our country is the socialist plan developed in complete accordance with the only really scientific method — the Marxist-Leninist-Stalinist method of dialectical materialism.

Stalin developed the Marxist-Leninist theory of the socialist state, showed its new qualities and specific features that are exceptionally important at the present historical stage. In the sphere of theory and practice of the Soviet Socialist State, as in all other branches of Soviet science and Soviet construction, we can see, said Molotov, "The guiding and inspiring will of our great Bolshevik Party and its leader, Comrade Stalin."

On the basis of the experience of the Soviets in the USSR, Stalin developed the theory of the socialist state in the period of transition from socialism to communism. Stalin's theory of the socialist state opens up a new epoch in the history of Marxist-Leninist science of development of society.

* * *

"War is the test of all economic and organizational forces of every nation," wrote Lenin. This is a great truth. Its strength and significance are confirmed by the years of grim trial in which we were at war with Hitler Germany. Our country passed this test in a manner worthy of the greatest recognition and respect and demonstrated the whole might of her spiritual and material wealth.

There is no longer any doubt that Soviet power and the Soviet State, built up by the Communist Party under the leadership of Lenin and Stalin until it has become a mighty power, was the source of the Soviet Union's victory in the struggle against a strong and cruel foe who made an attempt against the liberty and independence of the Soviet people and the Soviet country.

The USSR, having traversed its long path of economic, political and cultural development under the leadership of Lenin, and after the death of Lenin under Stalin's leadership, stood up to the onslaught of the fascist hordes and did not waver but stood firm. With an iron hand

the USSR stemmed the advance of the enemy, turned back his monstrous war machine which had crushed unhindered the countries of continental western Europe, smashed him and raised the banner of victory over Berlin.

Our victories show the strength of the people and the other peoples of the USSR, the advantages possessed by the Soviet State system.

"The experience of war proved that the Soviet system is not only the best system for organizing the economic and cultural development of the country in a period of peaceful construction, but also the best system for mobilizing all the forces of the people to resist an enemy in wartime." (Stalin.)

We saw the nature of this worthiness and these advantages which have their roots in the very nature of the Soviet system. This explains why the USSR under the difficult conditions obtaining during the first period of the war was able to overcome these temporary difficulties and insure itself success in the further development of the war.

Without fear of mistake, one may say why the Soviet Union is invincible. The reason is to be found in the might of the Soviet State, in the inexhaustible creative forces of the peoples of the USSR, in their unity and lofty moral and political qualities, their boundless loyalty and love for their Socialist homeland. The reason is to be found in the very structure of the land of the Soviets where commonly owned socialist property reigns as the supreme basis of all Soviet economy. The reason is to be found in the friendship of the Soviet peoples, in the indivisible alliance of workers and farmers, strengthened by an alliance of Soviet intelligentsia with these classes. The reason is to be found in the fact that in political leadership the decisive role in the State is played by the great Communist Party of Lenin and Stalin.

* * *

There can be no doubt that together with the internal consolidation of the Soviet State the country's international relations have grown and are still growing stronger—its authority and influence in its relations with other democratic states. During the war years the Soviet

Union's international connections were raised to a new and higher level.

In foreign politics the Soviet Union relies on the growing economic and cultural strength, the moral and political unity of Soviet society, the friendship of the peoples of our country and on our Red Army and Red Navy.

The Soviet State possesses considerable authority in international relations. High appreciation is placed on the heroic efforts of the Soviet people in the struggle with Hitler Germany and bandit Japan—the enemies of all freedom-loving nations.

The war is over. The country is returning to a peacetime life, is undertaking the solution of new problems connected with peacetime construction.

Among these talks, one of the most important is the transition to normal conditions of legislative activity which was to some extent interrupted during the grim years of war. The solution of this problem made necessary the general elections to the Soviet Parliament, the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, elections that will proceed in accordance with the most democratic constitution in the world—the Stalin Constitution.

The significance of the Stalin Constitution is very great, for it treats, as Stalin said, of the real victory of the peoples of the USSR, a victory of world historical importance, "testifying to the fact that what millions of honest people in capitalist countries have dreamed of and still dream of has already been realized in the USSR." In 1936, Stalin said that the new Constitution would be a moral help "and real support to all those who are today fighting fascist barbarism." This statement was made five years before fascist-Germany's treacherous attack on the USSR. The years of war against the Hitlerite bandits who attacked the USSR proved how correct and trustworthy were the splendid statutes of the Stalin Constitution, an indictment against fascism, proclaiming the fact that socialism and democracy are invincible.

Our people are preparing for the great event—the elections to the Supreme Soviet in accordance with the Stalin Constitution. The elections will be carried out in accordance with the Election Law published on October 11 this year. This

law was drawn up in complete accordance with the Stalin Constitution and is in itself a new document of Soviet Socialist democracy.

Citizens of the great, invincible Soviet power experience feelings of national pride in the growth of influence of the USSR in the modern development of society.

In a solid body they will go to the forthcoming elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, a nation-wide festival of socialist democracy, unwavering in their faith in the greatness of the ideas of Socialism, and with an unbending will to achieve further new successes for their mighty country.

Under the leadership of the great Stalin, under the banner of the Stalin Constitution, we shall achieve new victories for the glory of our homeland—the bulwark of peace, progress and the security of peoples.

Folk Singer in Moscow

Tamara Khanum, well-known folk singer and dancer, is appearing in Moscow with great success. This actress has a repertory of 1,500 songs and dances of more than 30 nationalities.

She performs every song or dance in the costume and language of the respective nationality of its origin.

After Moscow, Tamara Khanum will tour Bulgaria, Rumania, Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia. Only recently she returned from a tour of the southwestern USSR, where she added Moldavian folk lore to her repertory.

Tamara Khanum is prominent not only in art, but in public life as well. She is a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Uzbek Republic, and is active in the present preparations for the election campaign in the USSR.

Besides, she is a good mother. Her two daughters have also taken up art. The younger one is a talented dancer. The other is studying painting in Moscow, and is making very good progress.

Although the war is over, Tamara Khanum, who performed at many fronts and in the Baltic and Black Sea Fleets, still frequently appears before Red Army audiences.

EHRENBURG TELLS OF SLOVENIA

One British journalist wrote recently that "Marshal Tito is the strongest in the backward districts of Yugoslavia. Wherever the population has tasted civilization it loathes the existing regime and expects aid from the West."

How emphatically Slovenia has given the lie to this slander!

Now in Slovenia, this progressive European country, you will not find a single party, faction or group which opposes the People's Front. The sentiments of the people are so clear that in most parishes Catholic priests violated church discipline and refused to announce the Bishops' anti-Government message.

Old men living in the Slovenian mountains are the last illiterate persons in Slovenia. Ninety-eight per cent of the population can read and write. Slovenia has a population of 1,100,000 only, yet this little country has 700 elementary and 50 secondary schools, and a total newspaper circulation of 500,000—i.e., one copy per two residents, children included.

Seventy per cent of the villages have electricity. The country is covered with a dense net of good roads. There are numerous sanatoria and children's rest homes in the country.

At first glance it might seem that Slovenia is a Germanized country. The Hapsburg empire tried to Germanize Slovenia through schools, barracks, jails and corruption, but Slovenia survived.

Then Hitler appeared on the stage. The fascists resolved to destroy Slovenia once and for good. They proclaimed this advanced nation nonexistent. The greater part of Slovenia was annexed to Germany, and the smaller part, including Ljubljana, was given away by Hitler as a present to the Duce.

The Germans burned all the Slovenian books in a country where the people did more reading than anywhere in Europe.

Hundreds of highlanders perished daily in the mountains in the struggle for liberty. Guerrillas tirelessly fought the invaders.

I had a chance to watch touching processions in different villages: People were transferring the remains of dead heroes

from the mountains. This took place on the eve of the Catholic holiday of All Saints.

The crowds, like an avalanche, were streaming down the mountain—soldiers, winegrowers, shepherds, old men, school-children—carrying flags and bright autumn flowers. Black-bordered flags of mourning flew over the houses. Church bells tolled away and long guerrilla songs rang through the valleys.

Here one can see how great was the toll taken of the little Slovenian nation in this war. Here one can appraise her proud and faithful soul. Slovenians stand out for their industry and vigor.

I visited Jesenica, the biggest Yugoslav iron and steel center. Nearly 50 per cent of the blast furnaces are operating here.

Thirty thousand children from Bosnia are now taking a rest in Slovenia and the Slovenians have received them as if they were their own.

It would be a mistake to think that Slovenia is rich now. She was thoroughly plundered by the invaders. But even poor Slovenia becomes rich when her help is needed. More than 100,000 children from Bosnia will come during the year to Slovenia—a country with a population of slightly more than one million. I believe nothing need be added to this.

Slovenia defended herself, but the Slovenians say, "We shall have no rest until we know that all our brethren are free."

When a Slovenian hears the word "Trieste", his face darkens and he grows silent.

The worth of a nation can not be gauged by simple arithmetic. There was a nation of seventy millions which demonstrated its spiritual and moral worthlessness.

The little Slovenian nation has great culture, a high degree of intelligence, and a big heart. This nation cannot reconcile itself to the idea that the destiny of her brethren across the border be decided without her or against her. If one is to speak of places, the place of the brave Slovenians is at the victor's table.

The Deputy—A Public Servant

By Sheker Ermagambetova

I am one of the 58 women on whom the Kazakh people have placed their highest trust by electing them deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the Republic.

Whoever is familiar with the history of the Kazakh people knows the position of the Kazakh woman under tsarism. She was condemned to a life of drudgery in the kitchen, childbearing, absolute obedience to the head of the family, and submission to the laws of a feudal patriarchal society.

Until the establishment of Soviet power, polygamy, marriage by purchase, and giving young girls in marriage were legal practices under the influence of Islam.

In pre-Revolutionary Kazakhstan, there was not a single woman doctor, not a single woman teacher.

In Soviet Kazakhstan, any resistance to the liberation of women is punishable by law. The Constitution of the Kazakh SSR gave woman equal rights with man in the Republic's State, economic, and cultural life. Kazakh women hold responsible posts in the State apparatus. Women doctors, engineers, school teachers, and agronomists are no longer unusual in contemporary Kazakhstan.

One of the most important rights of the Kazakh woman, which was first accorded her by the Soviet Constitution, is the right to participate in elections and to be elected to all organs of power. The Constitution of our Republic sets no limitations of any kind. Elections are conducted on the basis of universal equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

Author Is Elected

It was only thanks to such a democratic system of elections that I, an average Kazakh woman, could be elected to the highest organ of State power in the Republic.

At the elections to the Supreme Soviet of the Kazakh SSR, which were held in June, 1938, my candidacy was put for-

ward by a Communist and non-party bloc of the Yanikurgan election area, Kzsil-Orda Region.

Voters in this area knew me well in view of the fact that all my social activity had been carried on in this part of the country.

They not only knew all about me, they also knew my family, for in these very places my father, a cattleman, had once led a nomad life.

Until 1928, I was a housewife. My own general educational level kept pace with my children's. I was 26 when I began to study at a special school in the city of Kzsil-Orda.

After completing the course of study, I was appointed director of a children's home in Nurilsk District. It was work that I liked; for questions of woman, her life and work, had long interested me.

However, the desire to continue my education forced me to give up my work for three years so that I might study at a higher educational institution.

In 1935, I was entrusted with executive work on a regional scale. For more than two years I was head of the Women's Section in the region. This was a period of exceptionally rapid growth of the Republic's economy.

A Growing Economy

Industrial establishments sprang up like mushrooms; collective farms were strengthened; machine tractor stations were stocked with thousands of new complex agricultural machines. People were needed to operate the machines. Among the functions of the Women's Sections were, first: drawing women into industrial and agricultural production and the organization of schools to raise the technical and general educational level of new workers; and, second: the creation of conditions for labor that would give women maximum freedom from housework cares.

To this end we organized public dining rooms, kindergartens, nurseries, playgrounds, children's health and consultation centers, milk kitchens, etc.

This work took me through all the villages and collective farms in the region, and everywhere I found plenty to do. I remember being held up an especially long time in Yanikurgansk District, which played an important role in the Region's economy.

I was touched by the confidence placed in me when, in 1938, I was elected Chairman of the Executive Committee of the District Soviet of Deputies, and a few months later, Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Kazakh SSR.

In July, 1938, at the first session of the Supreme Soviet of the Republic, I was elected Assistant Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet.

It became necessary to go to the Republic's capital, Alma-Ata. However, despite many State affairs which keep me busy in the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, I maintain the very closest contact with my voters.

Contact With Voters

As part of my duties, I had occasion to be in six regions of the Republic in the past year and a half.

I can mention three basic forms of contact with the voters. First and most important: my visits to the election area. At large meetings of collective farmers, workers, intelligentsia, and housewives I make reports showing how the mandate of the voters is being realized, after which the voters state their opinions and proposals.

Sometimes it happens that a point in the mandate is pointed out as having been ineffectively carried out. In such cases I try to regulate the question with the local bodies, and sometimes, should the matter require the attention of the

organs of the Republic, I look into it immediately on my return to the capital.

This direct contact with the voters gives me my orientation on general state problems.

Examples of Work

During one of my trips to the election area, my attention was struck by the fact that a number of schools required further repair if the school year was to open in normal condition.

Essential building materials were difficult to obtain, so on my return to Alma-Ata, I got in touch with a number of Commissariats. Materials were assigned and the schools opened in normal condition.

Here is another example: in the dry condition of Yanikurgan District, irrigation plays a decisive role in agriculture. The collective farmers decided to build a complex irrigation system, designed to increase the crop yields and to improve the wellbeing of the collective farm masses.

They turned to me for help. It was an

undertaking that required long and painstaking work. I saw to it that technical supervision was made available; I obtained the necessary building materials; visited the place in order to solve a number of economic and organizational questions. The launching of the irrigation system had a very favorable effect on the district's economy.

Correspondence

Important Contact

Another form of contact with the voters, realized in periods between trips to the area is my correspondence. My daily mail is made up of letters from housewives, collective farmers, teachers, servicemen's wives, executives of district organizations, etc.

Some of the letters are of social significance, as for example, about the training of teaching personnel, the progress of agricultural work in the district, the opening of children's playgrounds, road-building. Another group of the letters consists of personal requests. During the war numbers of letters from the families

of fighting men was extremely large. With my assistance many fighting men found their families, who had been evacuated to our Republic from war zones.

Many of these families were given important material assistance: they were provided with cows, living quarters, shoes, clothing, etc.

The third form of contact is to receive voters who come to Alma-Ata about some matter. They consider it their duty to pay me a visit and I am always glad to see them.

Twice in each ten days, as Assistant Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, I am ready to see any citizen without exception. However, my electors can come to see me on any day.

That is how I understand my duties as a deputy, for does not our Constitution teach us that the people's choice is the servant of the people?

185th Anniversary Celebrated

The operatives of Ordnance Plant No. 235 of the People's Commissariat of Armament have addressed a letter to Stalin in which they report that by the end of the war the plant had built its 52,000th gun.

The plant, one of the oldest in the Urals, has just celebrated its 185th anniversary.

Broadcasts While You Work

The "music while you work" idea, which became popular in many countries during the war, is a favorite with Soviet workers.

Though the Soviet factory worker likes music, however, he does not want to listen to music and nothing else. His lively mind is interested in a thousand topics, and he is always curious to know the latest news.

In Soviet factories, therefore, it has become a case of "music, lectures, and news while you work."

Much of the program planning is done on the spot in the factories by trade union committees. Most large factories have a loudspeaker system. Others have sound trucks. Some have both.

One factory, near Moscow, uses a sound truck. It goes on tour to hostels, hospitals, other factories, and often goes out to entertain nearby peat-cutters at their rather lonely job.

Shop superintendents and chairman of

union committees use the van to address the workers. Prominent Stakhanovites and other workers with a message for their fellows describe their methods of work.

Every other day, at this factory, a radio newspaper is broadcast over the factory broadcasting system. The "local" stories deal with factory life. The leading editorial deals with the most important question of the day. Extracts from the local and national press are given.

Sometimes an amateur concert by the more artistically talented workers is produced and broadcast. In a single month, more than 90 lectures were broadcast.

Doctors talked on how to keep fit; agronomists brought a breath of the country-side and told the city-dwellers how to plant and care for gardens; shop officials told of the steps being taken to overfulfill the quota, and so on. An expert builder told of the best ways to do minor house repairs.

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Information Bulletin

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Washington, D. C., November 24, 1945

USSR Election Regulations

Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on the Holding of Elections to the Supreme Soviet:

In connection with the termination of the war and the expiration of the powers of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR of the First Convocation, in accordance with Article 72 of the "Regulations on Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR," which lays down that the date of elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR must be announced not later than two months before the elections, and that the elections are to be carried out on a non-working day, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has decreed:

To appoint elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for Sunday, February 10, 1946.

Signed: M. KALININ,
Chairman of Presidium, Supreme Soviet of USSR
A. GORKIN,
Secretary of Presidium, Supreme Soviet of USSR

Moscow, Kremlin, October 5, 1945

Regulations Governing Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, Approved by Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, October 11, 1945

Chapter I—Electoral System

ARTICLE 1.—In conformity with Article 134 of the Constitution of the USSR, deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR are chosen by the electors on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

ARTICLE 2.—In conformity with Article 135 of the Constitution of the USSR, elections of deputies are universal: all citizens of the USSR who have reached the age of 18, irrespective of race or nationality, sex, religion, educational and residential qualifications, social origin, property status or past activities, have the right to vote in the election of deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, with the exception of the insane and persons convicted by a court of law whose sentences include deprivation of electoral rights,

ARTICLE 3.—Any citizen of the USSR who has reached the age of 23, irrespective of race or nationality, sex, religion, educational and residential qualifications, social origin, property status or past activities, may be elected deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 4.—In conformity with Article 136 of the Constitution of the USSR, elections of deputies are equal: each citizen has one vote: all citizens participate in elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on an equal footing.

ARTICLE 5.—In conformity with Article 137 of the Constitution of the USSR, women have the right to elect and be elected to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on equal terms with men.

ARTICLE 6.—In conformity with Article 138 of the Constitution of the USSR,

citizens serving in the Red Army have the right to elect and be elected to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on equal terms with all other citizens.

ARTICLE 7.—In conformity with Article 139 of the Constitution of the USSR, elections of deputies are direct: deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR are elected by the citizens by direct vote.

ARTICLE 8.—In conformity with Article 140 of the Constitution of the USSR, voting at elections of deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is secret.

ARTICLE 9.—Persons residing on the territory of the USSR who are not citizens of the USSR, but are citizens or subjects of foreign states, do not have the right to participate in elections or be elected to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 10.—In conformity with Article 141 of the Constitution of the USSR, candidates for election to the Supreme

Soviet of the USSR are nominated according to electoral areas.

ARTICLE 11.—The expenses of elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR are covered by the state.

Chapter II—Voters' Lists

ARTICLE 12.—All citizens who have the right to vote and reside (permanently or temporarily) on the territory of the given Soviet at the time of the compilation of the lists, and who will have reached the age of 18 by election day, are entered in the voters' list.

ARTICLE 13.—No elector may be entered in more than one voters' list.

ARTICLE 14.—Not to be entered in the voters' lists are persons deprived of electoral rights by a court of law throughout the entire period of deprivation of electoral rights stipulated in the sentence of the court, as well as persons judged, in keeping with the procedure established by law, to be insane.

ARTICLE 15.—The voters' lists are compiled in cities by the executive committees of the city Soviets of Working People's Deputies; in cities subdivided into districts, by the executive committees of the district Soviets; in townships, by the executive committees of the township Soviets, and in rural localities, by the executive committees of rural (stanitsa, village, hamlet, kishlak, aul) or volost Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

ARTICLE 16.—Lists of voters serving in military units or formations are to be signed by the commanding officer. All other servicemen are entered in the voters' lists at their place of residence by the respective executive committees of Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

ARTICLE 17.—Voters' lists are compiled for each election precinct in keeping with the form approved by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, in alphabetical order and showing family name, first name, patronymic, age and place of residence of the elector, and signed by the chairman and secretary of the executive committee of the Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

ARTICLE 18.—The executive committee of the Soviet of Working People's Deputies is to post the voters' lists in public or give the electors an opportunity to see the lists at the premises of the Soviet or the election precinct 30 days before the elections.

ARTICLE 19.—The original voters' lists are to be kept by the corresponding Soviet of Working People's Deputies or military unit or formation.

ARTICLE 20.—If an elector changes his place of residence after the voters' list has been published and before election day, the respective executive committee of the Soviet of Working People's Deputies issues him a "Certificate of the Right to Vote" on a form approved by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and enters his departure in the voters' list; at the new place of residence (permanent or temporary) the elector is entered in a voters' list upon presentation of the "Certificate of the Right to Vote" as well as his identification papers.

ARTICLE 21.—Complaints concerning errors in a voters' list (omission or deletion of a voter's name, misspelling of family name, first name or patronymic, incorrect inclusion of persons deprived of electoral rights) are to be entered with the executive committee of the Soviet of Working People's Deputies that has made the list public; the latter is obliged to consider each complaint concerning an error in a voters' list within three days' time.

ARTICLE 22.—After considering a complaint concerning an error in a voters' list, the executive committee of the Soviet of Working People's Deputies is obliged either to make the necessary corrections in the voters' list, or to give the complainant a written explanation why his complaint was rejected.

ARTICLE 23.—In case of disagreement with the decision of the executive committee of the Soviet of Working People's Deputies regarding an error in a voters' list, the complainant may appeal to a People's Court, which is obliged to hear the complaint within three days' time at an open court session, summoning the complainant and a representative of the executive committee of the Soviet, and announce its decision at once to both the complainant and the executive committee of the Soviet. The decision of the People's Court is final.

Chapter III—Electoral Areas for Election to the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities

ARTICLE 24.—In conformity with Article 34 of the Constitution of the USSR, the Soviet of the Union is elected by the citizens of the USSR according to electoral areas set up on the basis of 300,000 population to each area. Each electoral area for elections to the Soviet of the Union elects one deputy.

ARTICLE 25.—in conformity with Ar-

ticle 35 of the Constitution of the USSR, the Soviet of Nationalities is elected by the citizens of the USSR according to Union and Autonomous Republics, Autonomous Regions and national areas.

Electoral areas for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities are set up on the following basis: 25 areas in each Union Republic, 11 areas in each Autonomous Republic, 5 areas in each Autonomous

Region and one electoral area in each national area. Each electoral area for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities elects one deputy.

ARTICLE 26.—The electoral areas for elections to the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities are set up by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

The list of electoral areas for elections to the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet

of Nationalities is made public by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the

USSR no later than two months before the day of the elections.

Chapter IV—Election Precincts

ARTICLE 27.—The territory of towns and districts which enter into electoral areas are divided into election precincts common for elections to the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities, where the ballots are to be cast and the votes counted.

ARTICLE 28.—The formation of election precincts is done in cities by the executive committees of the city Soviets of Working People's Deputies; in cities subdivided into districts, by the executive committees of the district Soviets of Working People's Deputies; in rural localities by executive committees of district and uyezd Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

Election precincts are to be formed not later than 45 days prior to the date of elections.

ARTICLE 29.—In towns, industrial settlements and also villages and on the territories of rural Soviets with a population of more than 2,000, election precincts are formed on the basis of one election precinct for every 1,500 to 3,000 inhabitants.

ARTICLE 30.—The territory of a rural Soviet which counts no more than 2,000 inhabitants comprises as a rule one election precinct; a separate election precinct is formed in each stanitsa, village, kishlak, or aul which has more than 500 but not above 2,000 inhabitants. Separate election precincts may be formed in settlements or groups of settlements which have fewer than 500 but not less than 300 inhabitants, in cases where the distance from such settlements to the central election precinct exceeds ten kilometres.

ARTICLE 31.—In remote northern and eastern districts where small settlements prevail, it is permitted to form election precincts with a total population not less than 100.

In the national areas of the North and also in mountain and nomad districts, election precincts may be formed with a population less than 100, but not fewer than 50 inhabitants.

ARTICLE 32.—Military units and formations comprise separate election pre-

cinets with not fewer than 50 and not more than 3,000 electors, each of which enters into the electoral area of the locality where the unit or army formation is stationed.

ARTICLE 33.—Election precincts may be formed on vessels having not fewer than 25 electors which are sailing on the day of the elections, such precincts entering into the electoral area of the locality where the vessel is registered.

ARTICLE 34.—Separate election precincts are formed at hospitals, maternity homes, sanatoriums and invalid homes having not less than 50 electors.

At hospitals having several wings, election precincts may be formed in separate wings which have not less than 50 electors.

ARTICLE 35.—Election precincts are formed in long-distance trains en route during the day of elections to receive ballots from voters who have a "Certificate of the Right to Vote."

Chapter V—Election Commissions

ARTICLE 36.—The Central Election Commission for elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is formed of representatives of trade union organizations of workers and other employees, cooperative organizations, Communist Party organizations, youth organizations, cultural, technical and scientific societies and other public organizations and societies of the working people registered in accordance with the procedure established by law, as well as of meetings of workers and other employees in enterprises, servicemen in army units, meetings of peasants in collective farms, villages and volosts, and of workers and other employees of state farms.

ARTICLE 37.—The Central Election Commission is to consist of a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary and 12 mem-

bers, and is to be approved by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR not later than 55 days prior to the date of elections.

ARTICLE 38.—The Central Election Commission:

(a) sees to the undeviating fulfillment of the Regulations Governing the Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR in the course of the elections over the entire territory of the USSR;

(b) considers complaints regarding incorrect actions of election commissions and passes final decisions on such complaints;

(c) establishes samples of ballot boxes, the form and color of ballots, the form of the records of the area election commissions on the registration of candidates, the form for recording the count of votes,

the form of the certificate of election and sample seals for election commissions;

(d) registers the deputies elected to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR;

(e) turns over to the mandate commissions of the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities all documents pertaining to the elections.

ARTICLE 39.—Election commissions of the Union and Autonomous Republics, Autonomous Regions and national areas for elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, are formed in each Union and Autonomous Republic, Autonomous Region and national area.

ARTICLE 40.—The commissions for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities are formed of representatives of trade union organizations of workers and other

employees, cooperative organizations, Communist Party organizations, youth organizations, cultural, technical and scientific societies and other public organizations and societies of the working people, registered in accordance with the procedures established by law, as well as of meetings of workers and other employees in enterprises, of servicemen in army units, meetings of peasants in collective farms, villages and volosts and workers, and other employees of state farms.

ARTICLE 41.—Election commissions in Union and Autonomous Republics, Autonomous Regions and national areas for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities are to consist of a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary and 6 to 10 members, and are to be approved by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviets of the Union and Autonomous Republics and the executive committees of the Soviets of the Working People's Deputies in the Autonomous Regions and national areas not later than 50 days prior to the date of elections.

ARTICLE 42.—An election commission of a Union or Autonomous Republic, Autonomous Region or national area for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities:

(a) sees to the undeviating fulfillment of the Regulations Governing the Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR in the course of the elections to the Soviet of Nationalities on the territory of the republic, autonomous region or national area;

(b) considers complaints regarding incorrect actions of commissions for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities.

ARTICLE 43.—An area election commission is formed in each electoral area for elections to the Soviet of the Union.

ARTICLE 44.—The area commissions for elections to the Soviet of the Union are formed of representatives of trade union organizations of workers and other employees, cooperative organizations, Communist Party organizations, youth organizations, cultural, technical and scientific societies and other public organizations and societies of working people, registered in accordance with the procedure established by law, as well as of meetings of workers and other employees

in enterprises, servicemen in army units, meetings of peasants in collective farms, villages and volosts, and workers and other employees of state farms.

ARTICLE 45.—Area commissions for elections to the Soviet of the Union are to consist of a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary and eight members, and are approved in republics which are subdivided into territories and regions by the executive committees of the territorial and regional Soviets of Working People's Deputies; in republics which are not subdivided into territories and regions, by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviets of the republics not later than 50 days prior to the date of elections.

ARTICLE 46.—The area commission for elections to the Soviet of the Union:

(a) sees to the undeviating fulfillment of the Regulations Governing the Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR in the course of the elections to the Soviet of the Union on the territory of its electoral area;

(b) considers complaints regarding incorrect actions of precinct election commissions and passes decisions on such complaints;

(c) sees to the timely formation of election precincts by the respective executive committees of the Soviets of Working People's Deputies;

(d) sees to the timely compilation of voters' lists and their publication;

(e) registers the candidates for deputies nominated in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution of the USSR and the Regulations Governing the Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR;

(f) provides the precinct election commissions with ballots of the established form for voting in the elections to the Soviet of the Union;

(g) counts the votes and establishes the results of the elections in the area;

(h) issues the elected deputy a certificate on election;

(i) presents to the Central Election Commission all documents pertaining to the elections.

ARTICLE 47.—An area commission for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities is

to be formed in each electoral area for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities

ARTICLE 48.—Area commissions for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities are formed of representatives of trade union organizations of workers and other employees, cooperative organizations, Communist Party organizations, youth organizations, cultural, technical and scientific societies and other public organizations and societies of working people registered in accordance with the procedures established by law, as well as of meetings of workers and other employees in enterprises, servicemen in army units, meetings of peasants in collective farms, village and volosts, and workers and other employees of state farms.

ARTICLE 49.—Area commissions for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities are to consist of a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary and eight members and are to be approved by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviets of the Union and Autonomous Republics and the executive committees of the Soviets of Working People's Deputies of the Autonomous Regions and national areas not later than 50 days prior to the date of elections.

ARTICLE 50.—The area commission for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities:

(a) sees to the undeviating fulfillment of the Regulations Governing the Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR in the course of the elections to the Soviet of Nationalities in the territory of its electoral area;

(b) considers complaints regarding incorrect actions of the precinct election commissions and passes decisions on such complaints;

(c) sees to the timely formation of election precincts by the respective executive committees of Soviets of Working People's Deputies;

(d) sees to the timely compilation of voters' lists and their publication;

(e) registers the candidates for deputies nominated in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution of the USSR and the Regulations Governing the Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

(f) provides the precinct election commissions with ballots of the established

form for voting in the elections to the Soviet of Nationalities;

(g) counts the votes and establishes the results of the elections in the area;

(h) issues to the elected deputy a certificate on his election;

(i) presents the documents pertaining to the elections to the respective commission for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities of the Union and Autonomous Republic or to the commission for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities of the Autonomous Region or national area.

ARTICLE 52.—Precinct election commissions are to consist of a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary and four to eight members and in election precincts with a population of less than 300, of a chairman, secretary and one to three members, and are approved in cities by the executive committees of the city Soviets of Working People's Deputies; in cities subdivided into districts, by the executive committees of the district Soviets; in rural localities, by executive committees of the district or uyezd Soviets, not later than 40 days prior to the date of elections.

ARTICLE 53.—The Precinct Election Commission:

(a) accepts statements regarding errors in a voters' list and submits them for the consideration of the executive committee of the Soviet which made the list public;

(b) receives the ballots in the election precinct;

(c) counts the votes cast for each candidate for deputy;

(d) turns over the documents pertaining to the elections to the respective area commission for elections to the Soviet of the Union and the area commis-

sion for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities.

ARTICLE 54.—Meetings of the Central Election Commission, commissions for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities in the Union and Autonomous Republics, Autonomous Regions and national areas, area commissions for elections to the Soviet of the Union and area commissions for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities, as well as of precinct election commissions are valid when attended by more than half of the members of the commission.

ARTICLE 55.—Election commissions decide all questions by a simple majority vote; in case of a tie, the chairman has the decisive vote.

ARTICLE 56.—The Central Election Commission, commissions for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities in the Union the Autonomous Republics, the Autonomous Regions and national areas, area commissions for elections to the Soviet of the Union, area commissions for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities and precinct election commissions have their seal in accordance with the sample established by the Central Election Commission.

ARTICLE 51.—Precinct election commissions are formed of representatives of trade union organizations of workers and other employees, cooperative organizations, Communist Party organizations, youth organizations, cultural, technical and scientific societies and other public organizations and societies of the working people, registered in accordance with the procedure established by law, as well as of meetings of workers and other employees in enterprises, servicemen in army units, meetings of peasants in collective farms, villages and volosts and workers and other employees of state farms.

Chapter VI—Procedure for Nominating Candidates to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR

ARTICLE 57.—In conformity with Article 141 of the Constitution of the USSR the right to nominate candidates for deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is granted to public organizations and societies of the working people; Communist Party organizations, trade unions, cooperatives, youth organizations and cultural societies.

ARTICLE 58.—The right to nominate candidates is exercised both by the central bodies of the public organizations and societies of the working people and their republic, territorial, regional, uyezd and district bodies, as well as by general meetings of workers and other employees in enterprises, of servicemen in army units, general meetings of peasants in the collective farms, villages and volosts and of workers and other employees of state farms.

ARTICLE 59.—A candidate for deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR can stand for election in one electoral area only.

ARTICLE 60.—Candidates for deputy cannot be members of area commissions for the elections to the Soviet of the Union or the Soviet of Nationalities, or of precinct election commissions of the electoral area in which they are nominated.

ARTICLE 61.—The public organization or society of the working people nominating a candidate for deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR must submit the following documents to the area election commission:

(a) minutes of the meeting at which the candidate was nominated, signed by members of the Presidium and giving their place of residence, the name of

the organization nominated the candidate, the place, time and number of participants in the meeting at which the candidate was nominated; the minutes must give the family name, first name and patronymic of the candidate for deputy, his age, place of residence, party affiliation and occupation;

(b) a statement by the candidate for deputy, giving his consent to stand for election in the given electoral area for the organization that has nominated him.

ARTICLE 62.—All public organizations and societies of the working people who nominate candidates for deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR must register the candidates not later than 30 days before the elections either in the area commission for elections to the Soviet of the Union or the area commission for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities.

ARTICLE 63.—The area commissions for elections to the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities must register all candidates for deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR nominated by public organizations and societies of the working people in accordance with the procedure laid down in the Constitution of the USSR and the Regulations Governing Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 64.—The family name, first name and patronymic, age, occupation and party affiliation of each registered candidate for deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and the name of the public organization nominating him are to be published by the respective area commission for elections to the Soviet of the Union or the Soviet of Nationalities not later than 25 days before the elections.

ARTICLE 71.—Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR are held on one and the same day throughout the whole of the USSR.

ARTICLE 72.—The date of the elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is announced by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR not later than two months before the elections. Elections are to be held on a non-working day.

ARTICLE 73.—The date and place of polling is published or otherwise made known to the electors by the precinct election commission each day for 20 days before the elections.

ARTICLE 74.—The voters cast their ballots from 6 a.m. until 12 midnight, local time, on the day of the elections.

ARTICLE 75.—At 6 a.m. on election day the chairman of the precinct election commission, in the presence of its members, examines the ballot boxes and checks the voters' list compiled in due form, after which he closes and seals the ballot boxes with the seal of the commission and invites the voters to cast their votes.

ARTICLE 76.—The election premises

ARTICLE 65.—All registered candidates for deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR must be entered on the ballot.

ARTICLE 66.—Refusal on the part of the area commission for elections to the Soviet of the Union to register a candidate for deputy may be appealed within two days to the Central Election Commission, whose decision is final.

ARTICLE 67.—Refusal of the area commission for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities to register a candidate may be appealed within two days to the Election Commission of the Union or Autonomous Republic, Autonomous Region or national area, and the latter's decision, to the Central Election Commission. The decision of the Central Election Commission is final.

Chapter VII—Voting Procedure

must have a special room for filling in the ballots, to which no one, including the members of the precinct election commission, is admitted besides the voters; rooms in which more than one voter is admitted at a time must have as many partitions or screens as the number of electors admitted simultaneously.

ARTICLE 77.—Each elector votes in person at the polling premises. The electors drop the ballots into ballot boxes.

ARTICLE 78.—Upon arrival at the polling premises, the voter presents to the secretary or other authorized member of the precinct election commission his passport, collective farm membership card, trade union card or any other identification paper and after checking against the voters' list is given ballots of the established form.

ARTICLE 79.—In the room set aside for marking the ballots, the voter leaves on each ballot the name of the candidate for whom he is voting and strikes out the names of the others; then he takes his ballots to the room where the precinct election commission sits and drops his ballot into the ballot box.

ARTICLE 68.—The area commissions for elections to the Soviet of the Union or the Soviet of Nationalities must print the ballot and distribute them to all precinct election commissions not later than 15 days prior to the elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 69.—The ballots are to be printed according to the form established by the Central Election Commission in the language of the population of the given election area and in quantities sufficient to supply all voters.

ARTICLE 70. — Every organization which nominates a candidate registered in the area election commission as well as every citizen of the USSR is guaranteed the right to campaign without interference for this candidate at meetings, in the press and by any other means in accordance with Article 125 of the Constitution of the USSR.

ARTICLE 80.—Voters who owing to illiteracy or some physical disability are unable to mark the ballots themselves may invite into the room where the ballots are marked any other voter to mark the ballots for them.

ARTICLE 81.—No canvassing is permitted on the election premises during the voting.

ARTICLE 82.—Persons who come to the election premises with a Certificate of the Right to Vote, in accordance with Article 20 of the present Regulations Governing the Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, are added to the voters' list by the precinct election commission, whose chairman and secretary affix their signatures to the voters' list.

ARTICLE 83.—The chairman of the precinct election commission is responsible for the maintenance of order in the election premises and his instructions are binding on everyone on the premises.

ARTICLE 84.—At midnight on election day the chairman of the precinct election commission declares the balloting ended and the commission proceeds to open the ballot boxes.

Chapter VIII—Establishing Electoral Returns

ARTICLE 85.—Representatives of public organizations and societies of the working people specially authorized for the purpose as well as representatives of the press have the right to be present during the counting of the votes by the precinct election commission.

ARTICLE 86.—Upon opening the ballot boxes, the precinct election commission checks the number of ballots against the number of persons issued ballots according to the voters' list and enters the figure in the records.

ARTICLE 87.—The chairman of the precinct election commission announces to all the members of the precinct election commission the results of the voting in each ballot.

ARTICLE 88.—Ballots in which more than one candidate have been left, as well as ballots that do not conform to regulations, are considered invalid.

ARTICLE 89.—Any doubts as to the validity of a ballot are settled by a vote of the precinct election commission, which is entered in the records.

ARTICLE 90.—The counting of votes cast for each candidate for deputy and the recording of the election returns is done separately for the elections to the Soviet of the Union and the elections to the Soviet of Nationalities.

ARTICLE 91.—The precinct election commission draws up a record of the voting in three copies according to regulations, and the precinct election commissions situated on the territory of Autonomous Republics, Autonomous Regions or national areas, in four copies, signed by all the members of the precinct election commission, the signatures of the chairman and secretary being obligatory.

ARTICLE 92.—The record of the voting drawn up by the precinct election commission must state the following:

(a) the time the voting began and ended;

(b) the total number of voters on the voters' list;

(c) the number of voters who received ballots;

(d) the number of voters who took part in the voting, separately for the elections to the Soviet of the Union and for the elections to the Soviet of Nationalities;

(e) the number of ballots declared invalid, separately for the elections to the Soviet of the Union and to the Soviet of Nationalities;

(f) the number of ballots in which the names of all the candidates were struck off, separately for the elections to the Soviet of the Union and to the Soviet of Nationalities;

(g) results of the counting of the votes for each candidate separately;

(h) brief summary of statements and complaints submitted to the precinct election commission, and decisions adopted by the commission.

ARTICLE 93.—After the votes have been counted and the record drawn up, the chairman of the precinct election commission announces the results of the voting to the meeting of the commission.

ARTICLE 94.—One copy of the record of the voting drawn up by the precinct election commission is sent by messenger to the area commission for elections to the Soviet of the Union within 24 hours; the second copy of the record of the voting drawn up by the precinct election commission is sent by messenger within 24 hours to the area commission for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities.

ARTICLE 95.—All the ballots, valid and invalid, for the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities must be sealed separately with the seal of the precinct election commission and together with the last copy of the record of the voting and the seal are submitted by the chairman of the precinct election commission for safe keeping: in cities, to the executive committees of the city Soviets of Working People's Deputies, and in cities subdivided into districts, to the executive committees of the district Soviets; in rural localities, to the executive committees of the district or uyezd Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

ARTICLE 96.—The executive committees of the Soviets of Working People's Deputies are charged with the duty of keeping the ballots pending instructions from the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 97.—Representatives of public organizations and societies of the working people specially authorized for the purpose, as well as representatives of the press, have the right to be present during the counting of the votes by the area election commission.

ARTICLE 98.—The area election commission counts the votes on the basis of the records submitted by the precinct election commissions, and ascertains the number of votes cast for each candidate for deputy.

ARTICLE 99.—The area commission for elections to the Soviet of the Union and the area commission for the elections to the Soviet of Nationalities from the Union republic draw up a record of the voting in two copies, while the area commission for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities from the Autonomous Republic, Autonomous Region or national area draws up a record of the voting in three copies, signed by all the members of the area election commissions, the signatures of the chairman and secretary being obligatory.

ARTICLE 100.—The record of the voting drawn up by the area election commission must state the following:

(a) the number of precinct election commissions in the area;

(b) the number of precinct election commissions which have submitted records of the voting;

(c) the total number of voters in the area;

(d) the number of voters who received ballots;

(e) the number of voters who took part in the voting;

(f) the number of ballots declared invalid;

(g) the number of ballots in which the names of all candidates are struck out;

(h) the number of votes cast for each candidate for deputy;

(i) brief summary of the statements and complaints submitted to the area election commission, and the decisions adopted by the area election commission.

ARTICLE 101.—After the record is signed, the chairman of the area election commission announces the results of the elections to the meeting of the commission.

ARTICLE 102.—The candidate for deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR who receives the absolute majority of votes, i.e., more than half of all the votes cast in the area and declared valid, is considered elected.

ARTICLE 103.—The chairman of the area election commission issues the elected candidate for deputy a certificate on his election as deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 104.—Not later than 24 hours after the final counting of the votes, the chairman of the area commission for elections to the Soviet of the Unions and also the chairman of the area commission for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities must send the first copy of the record in a sealed envelope

by messenger to the Central Election Commission of the Union Republic, Autonomous Republic, Autonomous Region or national area for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities.

ARTICLE 105.—If none of the candidates receives the absolute majority of votes, the respective area election commission makes a special note to this effect in the record and reports to the Central Election Commission and the election commission of the Union or Autonomous Republic, Autonomous Region or national area for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities, and at the same time announces the holding of a ballotage of the two candidates who have received the largest number of votes, and appoints a day for the ballotage not later than two weeks after the first round of the elections.

ARTICLE 106.—If the number of votes cast in an area is less than half the number of electors who have the right to vote in this area, the area commission for elections to the Soviet of the Union or the Soviet of Nationalities makes a note to that effect in the record and immediately reports to the Central Election Commission and to the commission for elections to the Soviet of Nationalities

from the Union or Autonomous Republic, Autonomous Region or national area. In this case the Central Election Commission appoints new elections not later than two weeks after the first elections.

ARTICLE 107.—The ballotage for candidates for deputy, as well as new elections to replace those declared invalid, are carried out according to the voters' lists drawn up for the first elections, and in full conformity with the present Regulations Governing Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 108.—In the event of a seat on the Supreme Soviet of the USSR becoming vacant, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR appoints the election of another deputy in the corresponding electoral area not later than two months after the seat has become vacant.

ARTICLE 109.—Any person who attempts by violence, deception, intimidation or bribery to prevent a citizen of the USSR from freely exercising his right to elect and be elected to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is to be punished by a term of imprisonment of up to two years.

ARTICLE 110.—Any official of a Soviet or member of an election commission who forges election documents or deliberately miscounts the votes is to be punished by a term of imprisonment of up to three years.

BOOKS TO BE PUBLISHED

The Editorial Board of the State Publishing House for Literature has discussed the draft of the three-year plan of publication of Russian classic literature, the literature of the non-Russian nationalities of the USSR and foreign literature. Twice as many books will be published in 1946 as in 1945, while in the future, the publication of literature will steadily grow by 30 per cent yearly.

The most important part of the plan is the publication of the collected works of Russian classics in many volumes—Pushkin, Gogol, Turgenev, Ostrovsky; also foreign authors—Flaubert, Stendhal, Balzac, France, Merimee, Goethe, Walter Scott, Thackeray and others; the collected works of modern writers—Sholokhov, Alexei Tolstoy, Serafimovich, Veresaevy and others.

The Editorial Board also discussed the 1946 publication plan which provides for about 300 books, to be issued in editions ranging from 10,000 to one-quarter million copies. Nearly half of these books will be productions of Russian classic literature.

The plan for foreign literature contains 48 books, among them volumes of the collected works of Heine, Hugo, Dickens, Zola, Maupassant and Shakespeare, and one-volume editions of Flaubert and Wells, etc.

The *Decameron*, *Illaid*, *Manon Lescaut* and selected poems by Ronsard will be issued in deluxe editions.

Books of modern foreign writers include those of Priestley, O'Casey, Sinclair, and Aragon.

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Molotov's November 6 Speech

The speech delivered by V. M. Molotov, Deputy Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR, on November 6, 1945, at a special meeting of the Moscow Soviet in the Kremlin convened to celebrate the 28th Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

Comrades! After several years of a hard war we are today celebrating the 28th Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution under conditions of peace and a glorious victory over fascism. We have left behind four years of war against Hitlerite Germany, which had ravaged our country and the whole of Europe, and also the war in the East against aggressive Japan, in which we had to join in the autumn of this year.

In an heroic struggle, in which the Soviet people played a part of decisive importance, peace has been won for the peoples of the entire world, and the main hotbeds of world fascism and world aggression, both in the West and in the East, have been crushed. Now we have the opportunity of returning to peaceful labor so as to consolidate our victory.

As Comrade Stalin said: "Our Soviet

I. The Second World War and the Soviet Union

The Germans invaded our country in the belief that the suddenness of their



V. M. Molotov

people have given unstintingly of their strength and their labor for the sake of victory. We have lived through hard years. But now each one of us can say: We have won. From now on we can consider our country saved from the threat of German invasion in the West and of Japanese invasion in the East. The long-awaited peace has come for the nations of the world."

bandit attack would guarantee them success. Not in Germany alone, but also

in other countries many people thought that the Soviet Union would not hold out for long, and that in a few weeks, or at any rate in a few months, Germany would smash the USSR and Hitler would celebrate victory. After the comparatively easy successes of the Hitlerites in western Europe many believed this to be inevitable.

This conclusion was reached, in the first place, by those who in general did not recognize the "legitimate nature" of the October Revolution in Russia, and also by those who proved incapable of understanding the truly popular nature of the Soviet State created by our Revolution.

The German invasion of the Soviet Union was also a great test for our friend abroad, who with sinking hearts followed the exceptional hardships experienced by our country in the first phase of the war.

Strength That Never Failed

Despite the suddenness of the attack, the Soviet Union stayed on its feet. The material damage and deep wounds inflicted on it in the early part of the war failed to undermine its physical and spiritual strength.

The Red Army proved capable of reorganizing and recovering from the first blows. The Soviet people strained its forces and ensured a shattering rebuff to the enemy. Everyone remembers the

time when our Army switched from the defensive to the offensive, at first on isolated sectors and then all along the front.

The interests of self-defense necessitated the formation of a united anti-Hitler front of democratic states, big and small. It is universally known that the Anglo-Soviet-American coalition effectively accomplished its historical task of organizing the joint struggle of the democratic countries against Hitlerism. It is also well known that the opening of the Second Front in Western Europe, when Germany was caught in a vise between two fronts, made the position of German fascism hopeless. At the same time, it should not be forgotten that the radical turn in the situation on the Soviet-German front occurred fully one year before the opening of the Second Front, when the Hitlerite troops started rolling back in disgrace before the Red Army's powerful and ever-growing onslaught.

No Resemblance to Tsarist Power

Thus the State created by the October Revolution succeeded not only in defending itself from fascist attack, but also in launching an offensive in order to put an end to the principal hotbed of fascism and aggression. It then became plain to everyone that the Soviet system bears no resemblance to the decrepit tsarist power of the times of the First World War. Thus it became evident that the Soviet State could defend itself with credit, and withstand the gravest trials ever known in the country's history.

Hitlerite Germany threatened not only the Soviet State. Even before they attacked the USSR, the German-fascists seized Norway, Belgium, Holland, France, Greece, and Yugoslavia. Among their allies were not only fascist Italy, but a number of other European countries which had concluded military alliances with Germany. Spain and certain other countries rendered Hitler semi-open support. The menace of Hitlerite attack loomed over Britain. Had the drive into the Soviet Union ended in success, the whole of Europe could have fallen under Hitler's heel.

Already the Hitlerites were praising to the skies the "new order" they proposed to institute in Europe. Fascist underlings, like the Quislings and Laval's of all

varieties, had already harnessed themselves to their German master's cart. Everywhere the domination of Hitlerism was established by destroying all democratic institutions and abolishing all the political rights of the working classes, while at the same time the Hitlerites plundered and squeezed the enslaved countries of all their material resources, the better to supply and arm their bandit fascist hordes.

Menace to Civilization

Their initial successes, when they invaded the Soviet Union, turned the Hitlerites' heads more than ever. They started talking even more frankly not only of their domination of Europe, but of their claim to dominate the world. Their dangerous plans—adventurist plans to establish the domination of the German race over the other nations of Europe, and not of Europe alone—were revealed to the whole world. The German-fascist theory of the domination of a "master race" over other nations classed as "inferior races" became a direct menace to the existence of European civilization.

In the countries invaded by the Hitlerite bands the peoples proved poorly prepared to offer a rebuff to the fascist invaders. Only gradually, thanks to the efforts of the finest patriot-democrats, did the democratic forces of resistance to the invaders begin to take shape and grow.

Red Army's Liberation Mission

But even in those countries where, as in Yugoslavia, the entire people supported the uprising against the invaders, forces were lacking to break the military might of Hitlerism. It was not until our Army swung into the offensive and started battering the German troops, having divested them of their halo of invincibility, that broad opportunities opened for the liberation of the peoples enslaved by German imperialism. Advancing to the West, the Red Army brought liberation to neighboring countries and other European nations. The Soviet Armies, together with the Allied Armies, now acted as the liberators of the European countries, including those countries which had broken their alliance with Germany and joined the ranks of the

nations fighting for the destruction of Hitlerism.

Thus the liberation of the European countries from Hitlerite oppression will go down in the history of our victorious Red Army as a glorious page.

Fascist Italy was the first to come in on Germany's side when she had unleashed war in Europe. At the time of the attack on the USSR, the governments of Rumania, Hungary and Finland, having concluded military alliances with Hitlerite Germany, plunged their countries into war against the Soviet Union. Bulgaria, with a government which at that time consisted of Hitlerite agents, also became Germany's ally. Thus, with some exceptions, those European countries where fascist regimes prevailed bound their destinies with those of Hitlerite Germany in the Second World War.

Germany's defeat, therefore, meant not only defeat for German fascism, it also resulted in the defeat of fascism in other European countries. Consequently, the significance of our victory should be appraised not only in the light of the defeat of German fascism, but also in the light of the military, moral and political defeat of fascism throughout Europe.

The War Against Japan

After the termination of the war in Europe, the Allied powers were faced with the task of crushing Japanese aggression in the East in order to speed up restoration of world peace. The Soviet Union could not hold itself aloof from this task, both because of mutual obligations existing between the USSR and its Allies, and because of the imperative demands of the interests of our security in the East.

All of us remember that in the past Japan more than once attacked our country, and that our State constantly faced the threat of Japanese invasion in the East. All this rendered inevitable the Soviet Union's entry into the war against Japan.

It is not difficult to see that, since the time when German fascism started suffering defeat after defeat on the Soviet-German front, the outcome of Japanese aggression in the East was also predetermined. Having finally come out against Japan, the Soviet Union accelerated her

defeat and so hastened the end of the war in the East. Following in the footsteps of Hitlerite Germany, Japan surrendered to the Allies.

Both German imperialism's plan to dominate Europe, and the claims of Japanese imperialism to dominate Asia have crumbled, although but recently both western and eastern fascists regarded those plans only as a stepping stone to world domination—showing by their own example how short-sighted and adventurous aggressive intentions of this kind are in our times.

The defeat of Japanese imperialism, the main hotbed of fascism and aggression in the East, and the liberation of China from the Japanese invaders are of enormous positive significance for the democratic development of the countries of Asia, and not of Asia alone. The interests of all the democratic countries demand that this victory be consolidated.

Execution of Surrender Terms

It is therefore natural that the Soviet Union should attach such great significance to negotiations between the Allies on the establishment of proper control by the principal Allied powers over the execution of the terms of Japan's surrender. Difficulties arising out of this problem have not as yet been eliminated. But the Soviet Union expresses confidence that all the peace-loving powers fully realize the necessity of consolidating victory over aggressive Japan, and of creating proper conditions for the cooperation of the Allied powers for this purpose.

Both Germany and Japan were forced to surrender unconditionally to the Allies. Thus the Anglo-Soviet-American coalition attained its goal. The people of our country realize with satisfaction that the Soviet Union has played a decisive part in bringing the Second World War to a victorious end in the interests of the democratic countries, and especially in crushing the most dangerous hotbed of fascism and aggression—Hitlerite Germany.

The Soviet people gave the name of Great Patriotic War to their war against Hitlerite Germany. Their example became a model for patriots in other lands in their fight for their countries' freedom

and independence. It is also well known that the Soviet people not only liberated our own country, but also fought heroically for the reestablishment of peace and freedom throughout Europe.

One year ago Comrade Stalin said:

II. Establishment of Peace Throughout the World and Interests of Peace-Loving Nations

The Second World War differed from the First World War in many respects, and in the first place in the scale on which the nations participated, and in the number of victims and the material damage caused by the war. Four-fifths of the population of the globe participated, in varying degrees, in this last world war. More than 110,000,000 persons were mobilized in both belligerent camps. It is practically impossible to name any country which was neutral in those years.

For allowing the Second World War to break out, that is, for failing to take timely measures against the aggressive forces of fascism, which unleashed this war of unparalleled scale, humanity paid an incalculable price in human lives and in the devastation of many states. War was imposed on our people, whose answer to invasion was the proclamation of a Great Patriotic War.

Hitlerite Germany attacked the Soviet Union not only with the aim of seizing our territory and destroying the Soviet State. Hitlerism proclaimed that its aim was the extermination of the Russian people and the Slavs in general. Until the time when the Russian people, as also the other peoples of the Soviet Union, completely re-formed their ranks in conformity with Stalin's call, "Everything for the front," and when they finally broke the backbone of the German Army, the brutal Hitlerites did not stop at anything in pursuit of their man-hating purposes in the territories they seized. To forget this would be a crime against the memory of millions of absolutely guiltless people who have perished, against their orphaned families, against the entire nation. Nor can we forget the enormous material damage inflicted on us by the German invaders and their allies in the many long months of their brigandage on Soviet territory.

The chief war criminals, before all

"It is now universally acknowledged that by their selfless struggle the Soviet people have saved the civilization of Europe from the fascist vandals. That is the great service rendered by the Soviet people to the history of mankind."

else, must be made to answer for this. The German-fascist invaders completely or partially demolished and burnt down 1,710 towns and more than 70,000 villages; burnt down or demolished over 6,000,000 buildings, and left nearly 25,000,000 people homeless. Among the demolished and most heavily damaged cities are the biggest industrial and cultural centers of our country, such as Stalingrad, Sevastopol, Leningrad, Kiev, Minsk, Odessa, Smolensk, Kharkov, Voronezh, Rostov-on-Don and many more.

Estimate of Losses

The Hitlerites demolished or damaged 31,850 industrial enterprises employing nearly 4,000,000 workers and office employees. They ruined and ransacked 98,000 collective farms, including most of the collective farms of the Ukraine and Byelorussia. They slaughtered or seized and carried away to Germany 7,000,000 horses, 17,000,000 head of cattle, and tens of millions of pigs and sheep.

The direct loss alone inflicted on our national economy and our citizens has been estimated by the Extraordinary State Committee at 679,000 million rubles at government prices. We cannot forget all this, and we must demand of the countries which unleashed the war that they at least partially indemnify the damage they caused. The justice of this desire of the Soviet people is undeniable. Nor should it be overlooked that the decisions of the Berlin Three Power Conference on reparations by Germany have not yet made satisfactory headway.

None of us, however, advocates a policy of revenge toward vanquished peoples. Comrade Stalin has pointed out more than once that the desire for revenge, like the desire for retribution for

grievances, is a poor counsellor in politics and in relations among peoples.

We should not be guided by desire for revenge, where the vanquished peoples are concerned, but should strive to hinder the outbreak of fresh aggression, and to place any new aggressor in a position of utmost isolation among the nations. It is not past wrongs that should guide our actions, but the interests of the maintenance of the peace and security of the nations in the postwar period.

Indisputably, for the sake of ensuring a stable peace the peace-loving nations must possess the necessary armed force. This refers, at any rate, to the countries which bear the main responsibility for ensuring peace. But the interests of safeguarding peace have nothing in common with the policy of an armaments race among the Great Powers, which is preached abroad by certain especially zealous partisans of imperialist policies.

Atomic Energy

In this connection one should mention the discovery of atomic energy and the Atomic Bomb, whose application in the war with Japan demonstrated its enormous destructive power. However, atomic energy has not as yet been tested for the purpose of preventing aggression or safeguarding peace.

On the other hand, there can at present be no such technical secrets of great importance as could remain the possession of any single country or any narrow group of countries. Therefore the discovery of atomic energy should encourage neither fancies concerning the utilization of this discovery in the international play of forces, nor a carefree attitude toward the future of the peace-loving nations.

There is also quite a lot of noise going on in connection with the creation of blocs and groups of states as a means of safeguarding certain interests in foreign relations. The Soviet Union has never belonged to groupings of powers aimed against other peace-loving countries. In the West, however, attempts of this kind were made repeatedly, as is well known.

The anti-Soviet nature of a number of such groups in the past is also well known. In any case, the history of blocs

and groupings of Western powers proves that they served not so much to curb aggressors, but rather, on the contrary, to encourage aggression, and aggression by Germany in the first place.

No Return to Prewar Relations

That is why the Soviet Union and other peace-loving states should not relax their vigilance in this respect. The re-establishment of peace throughout the world has by no means resulted, and could not result, in the reestablishment of the prewar situation in relations among countries. For some time to come Germany, Italy and Japan have dropped out of the list of great powers which set the tune in international life as a whole. This is as it should be for the period during which the Allies exercise united control over them—control aimed at preventing the revival of aggressiveness in these countries, but which does not hinder their development and progress as democratic, peace-loving states.

Of considerable significance for the future of Europe is also the fact that a number of fascist and semi-fascist states have taken the democratic road, and are now striving to establish friendly relations with the Allied states. It seems evident that the consolidation of democratic principles in those states should be supported, not obstructed.

One cannot fail to notice that in the camp of the Allied countries, too, the war has brought about no insignificant changes. There, as a rule, the reactionary forces have been to a considerable extent dislodged from their former positions, clearing the road for democratic parties, old and new.

In a number of European countries radical social reforms have been carried out, such as the abolition of the antiquated system of big landed estates, and the transfer of the land to the poor peasants, which undermines the former mainstay of the reactionary fascist forces and stimulates the growth of the democratic and socialist movement in those countries.

Hollow Contentions

Some states now place on the order of the day such important economic

reforms as the nationalization of big industry, the eight-hour working day, and so on, which lends a new spirit and confidence to the growing ranks of the democratic movement in Europe and outside of Europe. Some reactionary press organs try to ascribe these bold democratic reforms mainly to the increased influence of the Soviet Union. The hollowness of such contentions is obvious, as it is common knowledge that problems of this kind have been successfully solved in the progressive European countries before now.

This does not mean that the forces of fascism have been finally crushed, and need not be reckoned with any longer. All of you have read the Crimean declaration of the Three Powers on liberated Europe, saying: "The establishment of order in Europe and the rebuilding of national economic life must be achieved by processes which will enable the liberated peoples to destroy the last vestiges of nazism and fascism, and to create democratic institutions of their own choice."

Much still remains to be done to ensure the proper execution of the Crimean declaration. There is no doubt, however, that with all its negative consequences, the war against fascism, having ended in victory, has helped in many respects to clear the political atmosphere of Europe, and opened new roads for the regeneration and development of the anti-fascist forces as never before.

This situation undoubtedly meets the interests of the peace-loving states, and one should wish that realization of the necessity of "destroying the last vestiges of Nazism and Fascism" may take even firmer root among the European peoples.

The Soviet Union has always been true to the policy of strengthening normal relations between all peace-loving states. In the years of war the Soviet Union established friendly relations with Great Britain and the United States, with France and China, with Poland, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia, and now has long-term treaties with nearly all these countries of alliance and mutual assistance against any possible new aggression by the states which were the main aggressors in this last world war.

Anglo-Soviet-American Coalition

On our part, everything possible is being done to establish normal and good relations also with those other countries which discarded their policy of hostility and mistrust of the Soviet Union. The same purpose is also served by the development of trade and economic relations between our country and an ever-growing circle of foreign states. With them cultural relations, too, are being strengthened.

The Anglo-Soviet-American anti-Hitler coalition, formed during the war, is now undergoing a test of its strength. Will this coalition prove as strong and capable of joint decisions under new conditions, when more and more new problems of the post-war period are arising? The failure of the London Conference of Five Ministers was a certain warning in this respect.

But the Anglo-Soviet-American coalition encountered difficulties during the war, as well. However, the coalition of three Powers proved able to find, though not always at once, the correct solution of the immediate problem in the interests of the entire anti-Hitler coalition of large and small states—a solution that also took into account the need for further strengthening the cooperation of the great democratic powers.

United Nations' Organization

This year a new international organization, the "United Nations," has at last been founded. It has been set up on the initiative of the Anglo-Soviet-American coalition, which thereby assumes chief responsibility for the results of its future work.

It is clear to us that the "United Nations" organization should not resemble the League of Nations, which proved absolutely impotent in the matter of resistance to aggression and the organization of the forces of resistance to aggression once begun.

On the other hand, the new organization should not become the tool of any great power, since for any single power to claim a leading role in general world affairs is just as inconsistent as for it to claim world domination. Only the joint efforts of those powers which bore the burden of the war, and ensured the

victory of the democratic countries over fascism—only such cooperation can make for the success of the work of the new international organization for lasting peace.

For this, it is not enough to express good intentions. What has to be proved is one's ability to cooperate in this fashion, in the interests of all peace-loving states.

The Soviet Union has been and will be a bulwark protecting the peace and

security of the nations, and is ready to prove it by deeds, not words.

The glorious victories of our army will go down in the history of our country, and in world history, linked with the name of Generalissimo Stalin. Guided by Stalin, that great leader and organizer, we have now proceeded to peaceful construction, in order to attain the true blossoming of the forces of socialist society, and to justify the best hopes of our friends the world over.

III. Further Consolidation of the Soviet State and the Development of Soviet Democracy

The four years of war with Germany was a test for all the forces of the Soviet State. The Soviet Union passed this test with flying colors. The words of great, immortal Lenin again came true: "Never will that people be vanquished whose workers and peasants, in their majority, have realized, felt, and seen that they are defending their own Soviet power—the power of the working people; that they are defending a cause whose victory will secure for them and their children the possibility of enjoying all the blessings of culture; all the creations of human labor."

The Red Army emerged from the war covered with the glory of the victor. It has matured as an armed force, and grown even stronger in its Soviet fighting spirit.

Millions of people, so badly needed by the collective farms, mills and factories, and by our entire country, which has now addressed itself to the great task of securing a new upsurge of socialist construction, are now returning home to peaceful labor.

The Soviet people is now united around its Party as never before, and advances in organized ranks under the leadership of the Party of Lenin and Stalin. It was our great good fortune that in the hard years of war the Red Army and the Soviet people were led forward by the wise and tried leader of the Soviet Union—great Stalin.

Growth of Our Prestige

Everyone knows how greatly the international prestige of the USSR has grown. This became possible because of the

military, economic and political achievements of our country. One year ago Comrade Stalin expressed this in the following words: "Just as the Red Army achieved military victory over the fascist forces in its long and arduous single-handed struggle, so the workers in the Soviet rear won economic victory over the enemy in their lone fight against Hitler Germany and her associates."

Comrade Stalin also said: "It is not only military defeat that the Hitlerites have suffered in this war, but moral and political defeat as well. The war has demonstrated to everyone how greatly our country has grown and strengthened in a military-economic respect. The war has also shown to no less an extent how greatly the Soviet Union's moral and political prestige has increased in the eyes of other peoples. We experienced exceptional economic hardships in the early years of the war; nevertheless our country proved capable of supplying our heroic army with everything it needed, including first-rate armaments superior in quality to the enemy's weapons."

Enduring the privations and hardships of wartime, the Soviet people worked without folding their hands, and we must pay tribute to our workers in the rear, especially to the selfless Soviet women and young people, so boundlessly loyal to their Motherland. It was this which permitted us to maintain the living standard of our people in the difficult time of war.

Millions of sons of the working class were mobilized and fought at the front. Yet the mills and factories continued working, owing to the influx of new

cadres, especially from among the women and youth. Quite a few new factories, power stations, mines and railways were built during the war, mostly in the eastern districts of the country. Socialist emulation and new methods of raising labor productivity were invariably the main concern of the advanced workers and of the entire working class.

The trade unions and other workers' organizations carried on intensive organizational and educational work among the working masses. The workers, men and women alike, worked harder than before the war. Many difficulties were overcome as a result.

Collective Farmers' Effort

The collective farm peasantry demonstrated in war time its political consciousness and organization in agriculture, developed by the collective farm system. The peasants, men and women, have now perfectly realized the importance of socialist emulation on collective farms, and have done much to make up for the enormous damage inflicted on agriculture by the German invaders' temporary seizure of part of our country's territory.

All this enabled us to carry on through the war years with reliable grain stocks, and to supply the essential industrial enterprises with agricultural raw materials. It was not easy to cope with this task, especially if we recall that our Red Army consists chiefly of collective farmers.

Another factor which enabled us to cope with our war time tasks at the front and in the rear was that the Soviet intelligentsia did their duty to their Motherland. The war showed clearly what our intelligentsia has become under the Soviet system. One hears no more talk of the "old" and "new" intelligentsia. Life itself has eliminated this problem. The overwhelming majority of the intelligentsia honestly and effectively discharges its noble duty in organizing economic life, in training new cadres of specialists, in safeguarding the public health, and in raising the cultural level of the population. Today we may say with satisfaction that the Soviet intelligentsia are worthy of their people, and loyally serve their country.

Fraternal Unity

The friendship of the peoples of the Soviet Union has grown stronger during the war. Our multi-national state, with its different languages and varying modes of life, its varying culture and history, became even more united, and the Soviet peoples grew ever closer to each other.

No other multi-national state could have withstood the trials through which we passed during the war. Only our state, in which there is no place for the exploitation of man by man, in which there are no antagonistic classes, but instead workers, peasants and intellectuals, all equal citizens, administering both local affairs and the affairs of state—only such a state, and not the old Russia of nobles and merchants, could have withstood the German invasion in the hard years of 1941-42, smashed the reckless enemy with its own forces, thrown him out of its territory, and moreover rendered powerful assistance to other nations in their liberation from foreign enslavers.

Today in our country there are no oppressed or unequal peoples like those which only recently, under the tsarist regime, were of colonial or semi-colonial status. In the Soviet State the rights of every people to independence and free national development are recognized. All peoples are reared in the spirit of friendship and mutual respect. They are also reared to recognize the services of each people, in accordance with its efforts to develop its own national culture and to advance still further the Soviet State as a whole.

The activity of our countless trade union, industrial, cultural, sports and other workers' organizations, the creation of collective farms uniting many millions of Soviet peasants all over the vast territory of the Soviet Union, the steady growth of socialist emulation at mills and factories, on collective and state farms, in mines and on railways—all these manifestations of the flourishing of a real democracy of the people, such as we did not know in the old days, and which cannot exist in any other state, divided into classes of oppressors and oppressed, a thing which in our country was done away with long ago by Soviet power.

Victory of Soviet Democracy

The rapid progress of cultural life in our country, and the fact that our intelligentsia, the advanced and most cultured section of the people, have now merged with their people, so raising the moral and political unity of Soviet society to an even higher level—in all this one cannot fail to perceive a new advance of Soviet democracy, which inspires us with new hopes and confidence for our country's future.

The fact that the Soviets have ensured to all the peoples the steady progress of their national cultures, active care in fostering national talents, and growing friendship and fraternal mutual assistance among equal Soviet peoples, which was lacking in the old Russia, and which does not exist as yet in other countries, under either monarchist or republic regimes—all this bears witness to the all-conquering force of Soviet democracy, to its great significance for the truly progressive development of the peoples.

The mobilizing force of Soviet democracy and Soviet patriotism as a source of inspiration for heroic exploits was revealed with particular force during the war. The Soviet people are happy because, thanks to the October Revolution which saved our country from being reduced to the status of a second-rate state, the forces of the people, fettered by the regime of the nobility, bourgeoisie and big landowners, were set free and given unheard-of opportunities for development on the basis of the Soviet system. That is why our victory over fascism was also a great victory of Soviet democracy.

Red Army Abroad

In the course of the war, the Soviet people had to step far beyond the borders of their country. The strong resistance of fascism compelled our troops to enter a number of foreign states, to learn more about life in their towns and villages, and to enter western capitals such as Vienna, Budapest and Berlin.

In all those states, including those which yesterday sided with fascism, the Soviet people easily found a common language with the working classes and democratic circles. Naturally, one could

not expect that they would regard as their friends the enemies of yesterday, belonging to the camp of the servants of fascism and the upper circles of society which had been kept in their position by fascist regimes.

Acquaintance with the life of other nations will certainly be of benefit to our people, and will broaden their outlook. It is interesting, however, that the Soviet people return home with an even more ardent feeling of loyalty to their Motherland and the Soviet system.

The strength of the Soviet Government is its closeness to the people. Unlike parliamentary democracy, Soviet democracy is of a truly popular nature. Therefore the Soviet State, as a state of a new type, has tasks which are not inherent in states of the old type. Thus the duties of the Soviet State include the political education of the people in the spirit of safeguarding the interests of world peace, of establishing friendship and cooperation between peoples—which far from excluding, on the contrary calls for the exposure of all attempts to prepare new aggression and to regenerate fascism. This necessity should not be forgotten in the post-war years.

Under the Soviet Constitution it is a crime to preach hatred between races and nations, anti-semitism, and so on—just as it is not permitted in our press to exalt crime, robbery and violence against man. Such "restrictions" are as natural, under Soviet democracy, as the very opposite is natural, unfortunately, in some other countries. In some countries freedom of speech and of the press is still interpreted in such a way that the mercenaries of fascism do not have to don masks in order to carry on unbridled propaganda in the interests of aggression and fascism, even though the peoples in all quarters of the globe have already paid an enormous price in blood and hardship for the orgy of world aggression and fascism which they earlier allowed.

It is not every state that has enough strength to undertake the task of educating the people politically. When the fascist states tackled it, the only result was that they trampled on the spiritual life, culture and rights of the people.

The advantages of Soviet democracy

were proved by the Soviet Union during the war with particular vividness. The USSR passed through the fire of the war ordeal, and grew even stronger, as a genuine state of the people. As is generally known, in our country the Bolshevik Party bears a special responsibility for the political education of the people. It is in the first place to our great Party that we owe our achievements in this respect. That is why the Soviet people's words of gratitude and love for the leader of the Bolshevik Party—"Our teacher, our father and leader, Comrade Stalin"—are so full of meaning.

We are nearing the new elections to

IV. Transition to Peaceful Construction and Our New Tasks

Our country has switched over to peaceful construction. Great new tasks are facing all the people. Naturally, we shall devote the necessary attention also to the new territories which have become part of the USSR. As is well known, the enemy who invaded our country prevented us from giving due attention to the organization of the Western Ukraine and Western Byelorussia, which before the war had formed part of the Soviet Union for only a short time.

Now, by treaty with Poland, the new Soviet-Polish frontier has been established. As a result, all territories inhabited by Byelorussians have been finally reunited in one Soviet Byelorussia, which can advance with confidence along the road of free national development.

By virtue of the treaty with Czechoslovakia, as is known, the Transcarpathian Ukraine has also at last become part of our state, and now the Soviet Ukraine unites all the Ukrainian lands—an age-old dream of our Ukrainian brothers.

By treaty with Rumania, Soviet Moldavia now embraces all the territories inhabited by Moldavians, which affords them extensive opportunities for further national development.

Ice-Free Baltic Port

The western frontier of our country has likewise been extended by the inclusion of the Koenigsberg region in the Soviet Union, which gives us a good

the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. These general elections take place after all the trials experienced by the Soviet State in the Great Patriotic War. Our people will bring to the polls the wealth of political experience they have gained in those years, after pondering deeply the destinies of their country, and developments in Europe and the whole world. The Bolshevik Party, together with wide circles of active Soviet non-party citizens, is preparing for these elections, which it regards as a most important manifestation of Soviet democracy, and one more powerful means of rallying our people and further strengthening the Soviet State.

ice-free port on the Baltic Sea. In the Baltic area Soviet Lithuania, Soviet Latvia and Soviet Esthonia have been re-established.

Such are the contours of our present western frontier, which is of the greatest importance from the point of view of safeguarding the security of the Soviet Union.

In the northwest we have restored our frontier with Finland in conformity with the Soviet-Finnish Peace Treaty of 1940. Furthermore, the Pechenga (Petsamo) Territory, in the north, has been restored to the Soviet Union.

Lastly, as regards the Far East. Here the Soviet Union takes over South Sakhalin and the Kurile Islands, which is important for the security of the USSR in the East.

It remains to mention the restoration of the rights of our state to the railway in Manchuria, and to the Port Arthur and Dalny areas in the southern part of Manchuria.

All these areas, and also the area of our Porkkala-Udd naval base on Finnish territory, must receive proper attention from us, and in so far as they are new Soviet territories, will require the special attention of our state.

We must cope as soon as we can with our urgent tasks in Soviet territories which were temporarily occupied by the enemy armies. The Germans left behind them many ruined cities, thousands of ruined and plundered villages. Restora-

tion began everywhere in these parts immediately the invader was driven out, but as yet only a small part of the work has been done.

The Task of Reconstruction

The Soviet people, all the Soviet Republics, should bend their efforts to secure the early and complete economic and cultural rehabilitation of these districts.

The restoration of factories and mills, collective farms, machine-tractor stations and state farms, of schools and hospitals and dwellings—to give every urban and rural resident a home of his own for himself and his family—these are our urgent tasks.

Soviet institutions and trade unions, Party and Young Communist League organizations, also the collective farms and their organizations in the countryside should regard it as their chief duty to care for the men who did the fighting, and are now returning home from the army—to care, also, for the invalids, and for the orphaned families of Red Army soldiers. We must do everything in our power to cope effectively with this responsible task, and to heal the wounds of war at the earliest date. That is another urgent duty.

Right now, we must tackle the fundamental task of developing the national economy so that within a few years we may considerably surpass our pre-war standard of economic development, and ensure a considerable improvement in the living standard of the entire population.

That is the meaning of the recently published decision of the Party and the Government, on the drafting of a Five Year Plan for the rehabilitation and development of the national economy of the USSR, in the years 1946-50, and of the similar plan for the rehabilitation and development of railway transport.

Our people well know the power of the Stalin Five Year Plans which built up the might of our state, and ensured our victory. We need a new advance in heavy industry, in order to provide the country with more metal, coal, oil, locomotives, rolling-stock, tractors, agricultural machines and automobiles, vessels of various kinds, pow-

er stations and many other things.

The people of the towns and villages expect a considerable increase in the output of consumer goods, also an improved food supply. The task of satisfying the needs of the collective farms, and the requirements of agriculture, has become more urgent than ever. Our cultural requirements have grown and become more varied. Again, not for a moment can we forget our great duty to provide properly for the needs of the country's defense, the needs of the Red Army, the needs of the Navy.

We have no unemployment, and shall not have any. In our country everyone has work, for ours is a state of the working people. We must give more thought to the better organization of labor in industry, in agriculture, in transport and in all our institutions, so that the labor productivity of the Soviet citizen, and the quality of his work, may yield the best results.

In our day of advanced technology and the extensive application of science in industry, when it has even become possible to utilize atomic energy and other great technical discoveries, the utmost attention should be paid, in economic plans, to problems of technology, of raising the technological level of our industry, and of training highly skilled technical cadres.

We must keep abreast of the achievements of modern world technology in every branch of industry and the national economy, and secure conditions for an all-round advancement of Soviet science and technology.

"We Shall Have Atomic Energy Too"

The enemy interfered with our peaceful constructive work. But we shall catch up with everything as it should be, and will attain prosperity for our country. We shall have atomic energy too, and many other things.

So let us tackle these tasks with all our inexhaustible Bolshevik energy, with the mighty energy of Soviet people. Let us work as Comrade Stalin teaches us!

Lastly, about our tasks in foreign policy. The Soviet Union has always given first place to promoting peace and cooperation with other countries for the sake

of universal peace and the development of international business relations.

While we are living in a "system of states," and while the roots of fascism and imperialist aggression have not been finally extirpated, our vigilance in regard to possible new violators of peace should not slacken, and concern for the strengthening of cooperation between the peace-loving powers will continue to be our most important duty.

We have no more important task than that of consolidating our victory, which we won in staunch struggle, and which has opened the road to a new great advance for our country and for further raising of living standards of our people. Never before have we faced prospects of socialist construction on so vast a scale, or such opportunities for the growth of the strength of the Soviet Union. Our people are full of faith in their great cause, the cause of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

Long live the Soviet people, the victor people, and their Red Army and Navy!

Long live and prosper our great Motherland, the Motherland of the October Revolution!

Long live the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics!

Long live the Party of Lenin and Stalin—inspirer and organizer of our victories!

Long live the leader of the Soviet people—great Stalin!

Information Bulletin

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Kalinin is Decorated on 70th Birthday

IZVESTIA wrote editorially, November 20:

Today is the 70th birthday of Mikhail Kalinin—remarkable statesman of our country, faithful companion-in-arms of Lenin and Stalin, head of the supreme organ of the Soviet State.

The peoples of the Soviet Union greet Kalinin with sincere and profound respect as one of the outstanding organizers and builders of the Communist Party and the Soviet State, as a statesman of the Lenin and Stalin type, whose conscious life has been devoted to a revolutionary struggle for the interests of the workers and peasants within the ranks of the Party of Lenin and Stalin. His crystal pure personality, outstanding abilities, great life experience, his deep devotion to principles, place him among the leaders of the working class, among those fighters who together with Lenin and Stalin and under their leadership built the Bolshevik Party, led the working class to victory and laid the foundations of the Soviet State.

In March 1919 after the death of Yakov Sverdlov, the All-Russian Central Executive Committee of Soviets, on Lenin's proposal, unanimously elected Kalinin its president. After that, Kalinin began his immense work in creating and consolidating the might of our Soviet system. Our country grew and gained strength, the peoples of our Motherland united into the great Soviet Union, the functions of



MIKHAIL KALININ

the supreme organs of the State grew ever more varied and complicated, but invariably by the will of the Soviet people Kalinin was elected head of these organs. Since 1923 he has held office as President of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR, and since 1938 as President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. Mikhail Kalinin has been standing at the head of the Soviet Republic for more than 26 years.

In this capacity Kalinin has always

been the loyal executor of the will of the Party of Lenin and Stalin, the true and irreproachable servant of the people. By his work for the strengthening and elevating of the Soviet State, Kalinin has won the deep respect of the whole Bolshevik Party and the warm affection of the working people of our country. In one of his wonderful speeches, Kalinin gave a very brief and vivid formulation of the purpose of his whole life: "The history of my life," he said, "and essentially also the history of the working class, is that we have lived and fought under the leadership of Lenin and Stalin." Kalinin has won the trust, regard, and love of the Soviet people by the brilliant talent and broad statesmanship with which he carries out the program of the Communist Party.

Kalinin's speeches are always simple and penetrating, permeated with intelligence and deep thought, with broad understanding of the people and the tasks facing them. He directs the energy of the working masses into the channel of state interests. The Soviet people, the Party of the Bolsheviks, and our State, highly value Mikhail Kalinin's services to our country. The title of "Hero of Socialist Labor" has been conferred upon him. Now the country marks the 70th birthday of this remarkable statesman by awarding him the Order of Lenin.

The Battle of Mines

By G. Kolmanov

For some the war is not yet over. They constitute a vast army of several hundreds of thousands of men. Their theater of hostilities extends over an area of more than 1,500,000 square kilometers.

* * *

It is a queer sort of war. Only one army is fighting it; fighting against hundreds of millions of mines, shells and bombs planted in the soil all the way from the Volga to the frontiers of Poland, and from the shores of the Arctic Ocean to the mountains of the Caucasus.

The soldiers of this army began their campaign from east to west long ago. Armed with detection devices, they covered more than half the territory, 15 regions of the Ukraine and nine in Byelorussia, reaching the frontiers of Rumania in the south. But they are still at work deep inland, clearing the soil of the Leningrad Region, the marshes of Karelia and the floodlands of the Kuban.

The scale of this war is amazing. Five years ago no one would have believed that the battle of mines would assume such dimensions. Anyone who had estimated that it would take 10,000 mines to cover the defenses of one division would have sounded ridiculous. Not long ago when Sugar Cone Mountain in the North Caucasus was de-mined, from 10 to 20 German mines were found in every square meter, and since there was not enough room to have laid them out side by side, the Germans planted them in four layers.

Belt of Mines

Throughout hostilities the 3,000 kilometer front was protected by a solid belt of mines. When they retreated, the Germans added several more belts. Tens of millions of acres of land were turned into gigantic mine traps. This deadly layer cake stretched for hundreds of kilometers.

In the course of the offensive the engineering forces of the Red Army, numerous as they were, had time to do little more than clear a passage for advancing troops and to de-mine large towns, rail-

ways and industrial objectives of importance to the national economy as a whole. But what about the small towns lying off the main direction of the Soviet offensive, the villages and fields that were awaiting the plowman, the meadows for cattle, the forest that supplied the population with fuel?

The job was tackled first by the local population themselves—140,000 friends of the Army, volunteers from a defense preparedness society known as Osoaviakhim. This, indeed, is one of the most remarkable exploits accomplished by the Osoaviakhim people. Volunteers for the dangerous work of de-mining included not only young men under the mobilization age and old peasants, but 30,000 women of all ages as well.

"We had to issue orders strictly forbidding youths and girls under 17, as well as mothers, from taking part in the work," Colonel Joseph Savitsky, who has charge of all civilian de-mining operations, told me.

De-mining Starts

The first civilian de-mining team was formed in the winter of 1943 in Stalingrad at the height of the fighting. It was a spontaneous movement initiated by those Stalingrad inhabitants still remaining in town. When the city was finally cleared of the enemy these people set about de-mining the town.

Later on similar teams came into being everywhere the Germans had been and wherever there were branches of Osoaviakhim. The central council of the society, however, soon took matters in hand and made sure that all volunteers went through a short but thorough course of training under skilled officers before being allowed to do any de-mining work.

The success of the movement surpassed all expectations. According to the most moderate estimates, the civilian teams tested and made safe for habitation 100,000 small towns and villages, cleared 18,000 mine fields totalling approximately 20 million acres in area, and made

harmless 65 million lethal objects. Fifteen million of these were mines. The rest were shells that failed to explode, bombs, grenades, detonators and a vast number of German booby traps: mined toys, cigarette cases, matchboxes and accordions.

"Yet these figures represent only a fraction of the mine menace we have to combat," Colonel Savitsky said. "Don't forget our civilian teams only help the regular Red Army engineering units in this work."

Civilian Heroes

The Germans continued to improve their mines up to the last day of the war. Courage and strong nerves are musts for all applicants for civilian de-mining teams.

They have their heroes, too. Kozyrev, a 50-year-old collective farmer from the Rostov Region, took the sting out of 11,000 mines. Shevchenko, from Kiev, carried 13,000 unexploded artillery shells out of buildings. He has become expert at handling the winged bomb, a type that explodes very easily; sometimes the slightest movement of the soil is enough to set it off.

They stare death in the face every day, these intrepid people. Shevchenko had a nasty experience once. Inspecting a ruined building on the outskirts of one town, he crawled through a narrow aperture into a cellar to find it full of artillery shells connected with a detonator. He communicated his find to his chiefs and was given orders to blow up the lot. Shevchenko planted his charge and lit the fuse. He had five minutes to get away.

A Narrow Escape

At that moment, part of the cellar ceiling caved in blocking his exit. He rushed to the fuse but it was too late to put it out. He dropped face downward on the floor and waited for death. But it did not come. By some freak of fortune the falling debris had disconnected the fuse from the detonator.

The same evening Shevchenko was

down to the cellar again and blew up the shells. "Scorn for death," I suggested, but the Colonel frowned. "The sapper who scorns death would be dead the day after he began work, if he was not blown up in the first hour," he said drily.

Lassoing Bombs

A girl who hunts down winged bombs devised her own method of fighting them. She approaches them at a sliding gait without raising her feet off the ground, to avoid the slightest movement of air. Then she lassos the bomb and, retreating for about 20 meters, drops into a small trench from which she draws the lasso toward her. She has made several hundred such hunting sallies.

"Now that demobilization has started, you will surely be able to get enough men to replace the women," I remarked.

"Sure," he said with a wry smile, "you ought to hear what the girls have to say about it."

The Colonel has a very high opinion of the 30,000 girls on the civilian de-mining teams. As a matter of fact, he considers them even better than the men. They are more efficient, more careful and even more cool-headed, he declares. There are far fewer accidents among the women sappers than among the men. The Colonel has dozens of teams consisting of women and girls exclusively. They are especially numerous in Karelia.

"You mean to say they are braver than the men?"

"It is not so much a matter of bravery as caution and efficiency," he replied. "What is most important, they are less likely to take chances than men. And that is a very important quality for a sapper."

"None of these volunteer de-miners are paid for their work. In cases where the civilian command takes up de-mining as a full time job, the pay at their regular jobs continues."

Mines in Trees

It is much more difficult to find a mine than to render it harmless. A Osoaviakhim instructor who flew in recently from the north told me that a hundred mine fields planted by the Finns in swampy areas are now under water. In other cases, civilian de-miners who had cleared a



SAPPERS AT WORK—These are soldiers. They cleared the mines even in snowy weather. Civilians do not work in snow

forest tract found that they had to start all over again because mines had been planted in the tree tops as well.

Another German mine trap was discovered when three peasants began to saw up an old telegraph pole they had found lying in the road. They had not got very far when the pole blew up, killing them all. The civilian de-mining squad investigated and found that in some localities where partisans operated, the Germans had mined the telegraph poles to prevent telegraph and telephone communication from being cut. A hole had been drilled inside the pole and filled with explosives so that the pole would explode when sawed.

"But if this method was employed in one place, it might have been used everywhere. Would that mean the removing of millions of poles?"

"This was found unnecessary when the sappers discovered that every mined pole had two large copper nails on the very top, put there to warn German signalmen."

"The climate in the country seriously hampers the work of de-mining which has to cease as soon as the first snow falls."

"In that case," I wanted to know, "how long will it take before all the Soviet territory that was occupied by the Germans will be mine free?"

"Not more than a year," Colonel Savitsky assured me.

Social Insurance in the USSR

Basic material for the series of articles of which this is the first, is taken from "Social Insurance in the USSR," by Z. Mokhov.

CHAPTER I

Of all the untold riches of the Soviet Union, the greatest is its people.

Their health and happiness, their care in illness and age, the provision of pleasant surroundings for their leisure, their proper and healthful birth and care in infancy, are basic concerns of the Soviet State.

For all employed persons, these services are rendered through a self-administered and widespread system of social insurance. The administering agencies are the trade unions. The administering personnel are delegates elected from each shop, State farm or other working unit.

The workers contribute nothing from their wages for this social insurance. The funds are set aside from the accumulated earnings of factories, State farms and other enterprises.

When an American labor delegation visited Moscow in the autumn of 1927, Stalin told its members that the USSR was then spending more than 800,000,000 rubles per year for social insurance for the workers.

"It can be pointed out," Stalin said then, "that our workers in all branches of industry receive, in addition to their wage, a sum amounting to about one-third of their wages in the form of insurance benefits, welfare provisions, educational services, and so on."

A Decade's Progress

At that time, the Soviet Union was only ten years old. But in one short decade, it had restored the industry damaged by the First World War and the ensuing Civil War, and had embarked on the fulfillment of a great industrial reconstruction plan to reshape the country's economic life.

With the building of the country's inanimate resources went new care and concern for the great living resource—the people.

New, well-furnished housing projects, large spacious schools, parks, clubs, hospitals, rest homes and sanatoriums, kindergartens and creches, maternity centers and dietetic dining rooms, had been built and were functioning.

Even in those early days, the system of social insurance had developed together with the Soviet State. It had become a key factor in improving the condition of the working class.

By 1936, when the new Soviet Constitution was adopted after a nationwide discussion, the social insurance budget was 10 thousand million rubles, more than 12 times the amount mentioned by Stalin to the American delegation in 1927.

During the discussion of the Constitution, special emphasis was laid by many

workers, in their comment, on the social security provisions. Typical was the speech of Dmitri Akhtyrsky, a lathe operator in the diesel engine shop of one of the largest engineering plants in the country.

A Worker's Comment

Recalling the plight of the workers under tsarism, he contrasted it with their current benefits.

"Take any figure mentioned in the social insurance budget," he told his audience, "and you can't help seeing how it shows the great care and concern of our government for all workers, young and old. All of us know this care from the day when we are born to the day when we reach old age."



INFANCY—This child of the Buriat-Mongol Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic gets free medical care

"When a woman is about to become a mother she is looked after in special maternity centers, clinics and maternity homes.

"She is given a holiday at the expense of the social insurance fund. She is granted a special sum to help feed and clothe her baby. There are nurseries and kindergartens for the child. When it is older, there are free schools, technical schools and universities, everything to produce a strong, healthy and educated citizen.

"The Soviet citizen is guaranteed work in accordance with his inclinations and ability. He is guaranteed the right to work and recreation and is given every aid to lead a cultured life. He is free to go to rest homes, sanatoriums, health resorts, to visit our many clubs and palaces of culture."

No Rainy Days

"Our worker," he continued, "never has occasion to fear a rainy day.

"If he is ill, he is exempt from work and is paid from the social insurance fund. In addition, his medical treatment is free.

"Nor does he fear old age. He knows that old people are cared for. A large part of the social insurance fund is set aside for old-age and invalid pensions. The Soviet worker is guaranteed a quiet and fully secure old age. He has won this right and it is legally secured to him by our Constitution, together with his other rights."

Social insurance expenditures, which during the years from 1929 to 1932 amounted to 10.4 thousand million rubles, rose to 30.5 thousand million rubles spent during the five years from 1933 to 1937.

Increasing prosperity of the workers and of the country accounted for the sharp rise.

With increasing wages in the Soviet Union go increased social security funds on a proportionate basis. The greater the number of workers, the higher the total payroll, the more is set aside for these social benefits.

The average annual wage per insured worker was 860 rubles in 1929 and 3,820 rubles in 1939. Even more rapid was the growth of the total payroll. In 1929 the aggregate payroll for all



OLD AGE—This smiling pair know peace in their age. These pensioners are shown at an Odessa sanatorium

branches of industry was 9.3 thousand million rubles. In 1939, it had increased to 112 thousand million rubles. During the same ten years, the number of persons employed and thus insured increased from 10,392,000 to 29,200,000.

There have been great changes in the social insurance system since its inception. They reflect the growth of Soviet industry and the development of the socialist economy of the country.

Unemployment benefits have become a thing of the past, for there is no unemployment. But for several years following the Soviet Revolution they were a major item in the social insurance budget, and accounted for several hundred million rubles.

They were not restricted merely to monetary payments. Public works were conducted on a grand scale, and funds were used to re-train the unemployed so that they might work in skilled branches of industry where labor was needed.

The social insurance fund played an important part in financing these State-sponsored activities.

The end of 1930 marked the final elimination of unemployment in the USSR. The plan for the industrialization of the country and the modernization of its agriculture along collective lines had been successful. Unemployment, a bitter heritage of the past, was wiped out, and the country soon experienced a shortage of labor.

This led to changes, necessarily, in social insurance expenditures. Two major changes occurred.

First, the social insurance income increased sharply because of the number of workers employed and insured.

Second, social insurance expenditure decreased, since the major item of unemployment benefits was wiped out.

The funds thus released were used in the interest of the working class and of the country's development. The Soviet Union was in great need of skilled workers, technicians, engineers, agronomists, technologists, building workers, and similar experts.

Part of the social insurance funds, therefore, were used to help industrial and office workers to study in technical schools.

State social insurance funds were also widely used to finance housing construction. Vast numbers of new workers had come to industrial centers, and needed housing. Hundreds of millions of rubles were spent on the building of new modern houses. Hundreds of thousands of workers' families were provided with comfortable homes.

Still another part of the social insurance fund was allocated to public health. The improvement of public health was vital to the country's economic development, for it would save millions of working days in industry.

The social insurance fund was used to help build hundreds of up-to-date hospitals, which have played a large part in guarding the people against the spread of disease. Medical care in the Soviet Union is without charge to the patient.

Another Change

In later years, another change in the functions of the social insurance fund occurred.

Housing construction, public health and education expenditures became parts of the State budget proper, and social insurance funds were thereafter used exclusively to increase benefits and pensions for the workers, to build rest homes and sanatoriums, children's rest camps, week-end camps, and parks of culture and rest.

These benefits are available to all employed persons. There are no restrictions

as to age, sex, or wages received. Workers in lower pay brackets receive the same benefits as highly skilled, highly-paid workers.

Benefits are paid from the first day of illness or incapacity to work. There is no limit on the period during which benefits are paid; the law provides that insurance benefits should be paid from the first day of illness until the day of complete recovery or until the insured person is placed on the invalid pension list. Benefits are not reduced in cases of protracted illness or if the insured person is sent to a hospital.

Administrative Changes

The administration of the social insurance fund has also changed through the years.

In the years immediately following the Revolution, the social insurance fund was administered by a system of territorial bodies under the general direction of the social insurance department of the People's Commissariat of Labor. Locally the fund was controlled by city, district and provincial bodies. Workers applied to their local insurance departments for sick benefits, etc.

Later, insurance benefits were paid out directly at the factory by the local trade union committee. This was more convenient from the worker and made possible a greater measure of control over expenditures.

On the initiative of the Central Council of Trade Unions, special social insurance bodies were organized as an experiment. They served 11 key industries. Payment offices were opened in large factories, State farms and machine tractor stations. Their functions were directly controlled by the respective local trade union bodies.

The experiment was successful. The local trade union organizations, with their thorough knowledge of given factory conditions and of the needs of each worker, were able to make many improvements in the functioning of the system.

In 1933 the entire social insurance scheme was placed under trade union management. This put it in the hands of the largest mass organization of Soviet workers.

The trade unions, however, did not organize a large and complex special apparatus to deal with social insurance funds. This would have swallowed a large part of funds which otherwise could be used for social benefits.

Their aim was to build the social insurance administration on a democratic basis. They decided that the lower trade union units and the mass of workers must be enlisted to help run the social insurance fund.

Social insurance councils were set up in all factories under the trade union committees. These councils were elected by the workers in each factory. In the larger plants, shop councils were set up in addition.

These councils carry out the tasks incidental to the proper functioning of the social insurance system. In all their work they rely to a great extent on the numerous social insurance delegates elected by the workers in the shops and departments of the given factory.

Many Delegates

Before the war, there were more than two million such social insurance delegates. They have an active part in fixing the rates of benefit and in solving all questions connected with insurance. They see that the funds are properly used. Social insurance councils are, as a rule, the initiators and promoters of all plans for improving the welfare of their fellow workers.

Shipyard Restored

One of the country's largest shipyards, that in Nikolaev, which had been demolished by retreating Germans has been completely restored. Its open-hearth furnace department suffered particularly grave damage. The ceiling of this department had crumbled as a result of explosion. Heavy channel beams, together with crane guides and powerful cranes, sagged down for nearly three meters, and were displaced horizontally by 0.6 meters. Noteworthy is the fact that the job was done by fewer than 50 workers and took only 25 days. Maslov's method resulted in a great saving of labor and of 1,200,000 rubles.

N. Khmelyov—Famous Soviet Actor Dies

The Soviet theater world has been plunged into mourning by the sudden death at the age of 44 of People's Artist of the USSR Nikolai Khmelyov, one of the leading masters of the Soviet stage and head of the Moscow Art Theater since the death of Vladimir Nemirovich-Danchenko in 1943.

* * *

Besides being a brilliant actor, each of whose roles was a masterpiece in itself, and an inspired director whose productions have permanent value for theatrical art, Khmelyov was the consistent perpetuator and guardian of the best traditions of the Russian stage. His tremendous capacity for work combined with his organizational talent and personal integrity won undisputed authority among his fellow artists and made him, apart from his other qualities, the logical successor to Stanislavsky and Nemirovich-Danchenko as head of the theater they founded.

Khmelyov was the best of a Soviet generation of Art Theater actors. His acting was a happy combination of profound psychological treatment with vivid theatrical forms so that each role impressed the spectator as much by its sharp realism as by the richness of color and clarity of outline.

No one who had the good fortune to see his Alexei Karenin in the Art Theater's production of Leo Tolstoy's *Anna Karenina* could forget that dry, unemotional official, the "human machine" whose terrifying pedantry in spite of himself destroyed the sensitive soul and exalted nature of Anna Karenina. The external attributes of the role were created with such graphic perfection that one could almost blueprint it or describe it in a mathematical formula. But when Khmelyov's Karenin learned that Anna had been unfaithful to him, a curious change came over him. Outwardly he was the same as before, yet gradually one felt that he was broken, that some spring in the "human machine" had snapped, so that the external appearance of the man was merely a mask assumed by a human soul in torment. And hence it was no longer incongruous for Karenin to fall

on his knees before the dying Anna in the "reconciliation" scene and to give way to his emotions.

A superb actor, Khmelyov possessed the rare gift of conveying his objective attitude to the character he was impersonating without emerging from the role. This quality, for which every Soviet actor strives, was clearly evident in Khmelyov's interpretation of Karenin which, while an intensely human portrayal, nevertheless revealed his condemnatory attitude toward the man and the tsarist bureaucratic society he stood for. Khmelyov was awarded the Stalin Prize for that role.

The power of his talent was such that he did not fear to tackle roles that had been sanctified by tradition and to interpret them in a new and individual manner. It was in this spirit that he approached the role of Tsar Fyodor in the play *Tsar Fyodor Ivanovich*, which had been the star role of the great Ivan Moskvina for 40 years. To Moskvina's portrayal of the benevolent, eccentric tsar, Khmelyov added the cruel traits of a degenerate to the last of a long line of rulers, lending social purposefulness to the role.

Brilliant, too, was his impersonation

of Peklevanov, the Bolshevik, in Vsevolod Ivanov's play *Armored Train*. Incidentally, the role of a working man came naturally to Khmelyov, inasmuch as he was born and brought up in a worker's family in the factory settlement of Sormovo near the city of Gorky. His interpretation of the character of Peklevanov conveyed not only the spiritual strength of the man himself, but the force of the people behind him: Khmelyov's Peklevanov was a man of the common people, the symbol of new Soviet power. It was his close ties with the people that caused the actor to be elected deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Russian SFSR.

The range of Khmelyov's talent was vast: he played a great number of roles of the most varied natures. At the same time his gifts as a director enabled him to integrate the role he happened to be playing with other roles and with the performance as a whole.

Death cut Khmelyov off before he had reached the zenith of a brilliant career. The actor died at his post; he was taken ill in the middle of rehearsal. His death is a great loss to the Soviet theater and the Soviet playgoer.

ESTONIA REBUILDS

Working people of Estonia began to restore their industrial enterprises as soon as their Republic was liberated from German fascist invaders. The Kivil and Kokhtla mines, supplying fuel to factories and power stations, resumed operations in the first quarter of the current year. The Tunnel furnace and shale refinery in Kivil was restored by the beginning of May, 1945.

The latter enterprise turned out in four months more than 7,000 tons of shale grease.

Factories and railways of the Republic received from restored shale mines 353,000 tons of shale fuel.

Newly restored first and second machine-building plants, furniture factories, shipyards, glassworks, lumber mills, peat briquette kilns and a number of small

enterprises in six months yielded the Republic materials worth 96,000,000 rubles. One furniture factory which turned out goods to the value of 418,000 rubles produced 2,600 tables, 12,000 chairs and numerous other articles of furniture. A cellulose paper factory in the first half of the current year produced more than 4,000 tons of cellulose, 2,600 tons of paper and about 1,000 tons of cardboard.

A number of enterprises to be completed and to resume production by the end of 1945 include Narva Lumber Mills, Shale Chemical Works in Kutteiy, a cellulose paper factory in Kakhra, a second machine-building plant in Tallin and 25,000 spindles at the Baltic Textile Mills. Construction of new enterprises proceeds rapidly.

Notes on Soviet Life

Building of the first section of the Krasnyprofintern Engineering Works in Krasnoyarsk has been completed and has started operations. This enterprise will produce powerful trunk railway engines, cranes for metallurgy plants and other machines for industry.

★

In the third quarter of the current year the enterprises of the Peoples' Commissariat of the Textile Industry exceeded the second quarter's output of fabrics by 8,300 thousand. The output of cloth of high quality has been increased.

★

The prewar Krasnyproletary Engineering Works in Moscow produced 450 machine tools in a month. In September of this year, the output increased to 457, despite the fact that the plant now employs 1,000 fewer workers than in prewar times. This result has been achieved by improvement in production methods.

★

The shooting of a color film, *Unknown Urals*, has begun. This will be a popular scientific film describing the Ural's Geological History which will show the riches of these mountains. The film shows the Urals' mines and factories, and the famous and unique mineralogical reservation, together with the Kungur ice cave.

★

During the next five years the size of the Molotov Automobile Plant in Gorky is to increase 100 per cent. This will be the largest automobile plant in Europe and will employ more than 90,000 workers. It will produce about 300,000 trucks and passenger cars annually. An automobile will be completed every minute.

★

A powerful installation for the mass production of liquid oxygen has started work near Moscow. This installation, which will work by the turbine method, was designed by a Hero of Socialist Labor, P. Kapitsa, a member of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

The expedition of the Oil Institute, which returned from Bashkiria, has summed up its studies of the Devonian oil deposits in this area. "The prospecting work carried out in Bashkiria," said the head of the expedition, Professor Buyalov, "will form the basis for further tapping of the most ancient oil bearing strata discovered in wartime in the Volga regions and in the Urals.

Devonian oil is of great industrial importance. Each oil well yields no less than 200 to 300 tons of oil daily, whereas other oil wells yield not quite 100 to 120 tons. Devonian oil contains a great amount of paraffin and also a very high percentage of motor fuel and thus yields oil products of high quality.

★

The Victory Locomotive, a new type of railway engine designed and built at the Krasnyprofintern Engineering Works in Kolomenskoye arrived in Moscow on October 13th. The Victory Locomotive is capable of developing a speed of 80 kilometers per hour. Its capacity is 2,200 horsepower and its efficiency exceeds other freight locomotives by 12 and 15 per cent. The locomotive was built in record time.

★

In a special plane piloted by an expert on Chukotka, Mikhail Kalinin took off from Moscow to Anadyr on Chukotka for a flight over the eastern sector of the Arctic. He will deliver literature for the election campaign to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, fixed for February 10th, and will visit all the big settlements of the eastern sector of the Arctic during his flight, which will take 30 days.

★

All museums of all-Union importance have been returned to Moscow and Leningrad.

The State Tretyakov gallery and the State Museum of the Eastern Cultures have resumed their activities. The State Hermitage Museum in Leningrad and the Pushkin Fine Arts Museum in Moscow have been restored.

A great deal is being done in the country for the electrification of rural areas. At present, 781 rural hydro electric power stations are under construction. Already working are 178 hydro electric and 242 thermal power stations. Many agricultural enterprises consuming electricity have been connected to power plants of the People's Commissariat Electric Stations.

★

The number of pupils in schools of the People's Commissariat of Education of the RSFSR increased from 13,500 thousand in the 1944-45 school year to 15,100 thousand in 1945-46.

In Moscow the number of schools increased during the year by almost 100, from 431 in 1944-45 to 530 in 1945-46 and the number of pupils by 55,700.

★

The first train with the collection evacuated from the Museum Palaces of the Leningrad Suburbs has arrived in Leningrad. This cargo includes collection of ivory and amber objects, of old Russian porcelain, a collection of 18th Century watches and the personal collection of arms of Tsar Pavel, the First. Also there are genuine drawings and plans by famous architects of past centuries who had built palaces in Leningrad and its suburbs.

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Stakhanovites and the Post-War

By Petrov

Practically every day brings us news about previous records in labor productivity being exceeded by the workers in one industry or another.

Yesterday we heard that the steel men of the Magnitogorsk iron and steel works in the Urals had topped their daily quota by 1,000 tons; that the Butovka colliery in the Kuznetsk coal field had fulfilled its annual plan, and that in Zaporozhye a Ukraine bricklayer, Sokolov, laid over 19,000 bricks in 6 hours 20 minutes.

People like these—workers who, by improving work processes, greatly exceed existing standards of productivity—we call Stakhanovites, after the famous Donbas miner Alexei Stakhanov. Ten years ago Stakhanov set what was considered at that time an unprecedented record in coal mining. That record made Stakhanov the initiator of a mass movement among Soviet workers for raising the productivity of their labor.

Movement Begins

Two and one-half months after Stakhanov's record, on November 17, 1935, several thousand Stakhanovites listened to Stalin speak in the Great Hall of the Kremlin Palace. These 75 days had been sufficient for Stakhanov's initiative to find many followers in different parts of the country and in different branches of industry, transport and agriculture. On that November day, ten years ago, thousands of them convened in the Kremlin on an invitation from the government in order to tell what it was that spurred them on to smashing old standards and technological canons, and to outline some of the future prospects of the movement which Stalin called "irresistible."

The speech Stalin delivered on that

memorable occasion threw a light like a powerful searchlight on the beginning of the Stakhanov movement and pierced far ahead, revealing the course the development of the Soviet Union's economy would take in the future.

New Techniques

The Stakhanov movement marked a new higher stage in the development of emulation among Soviet workers. Its appearance was connected with the techniques in industry. By the inception of the movement, the middle of the second Five-Year Plan period, Soviet factories and mines had been equipped with new perfected machinery and other equipment. The mechanization of labor processes became a decisive factor in further progress.

New machines, the latest in modern industrial equipment, were now operated by workers, the vast majority of whom had been educated in general schools or had taken training courses in technical circles or in factory schools; cultured persons for whom precision and punctuality had become second nature and who knew the value of time. They were not burdened with the conservatism and stagnation of some of the engineers and business executives of the time, who were accustomed to follow blindly the technical specifications and outdated manuals.

Hence, it was not surprising that the Stakhanov movement should have met here and there with the resistance of industrial managers who were afraid of taking any technical risks. In spite of this resistance, the movement grew and spread. Every valuable invention, every new efficiency idea proposed by the workers could not but find its way into practice; after all, innovators have always enjoyed the support of the Soviet State.

The Stakhanov movement unquestionably could develop only on the foundation of a deep-going democracy, with the rank and file worker given every encouragement to blaze new trails. On the other hand, the Stakhanov movement as a manifestation of the creative force of the people, is distinctively a development of the Soviet Union where there are no crises and no unemployment, where the entire national income goes for the welfare of the people, and where increased individual productivity cannot mean fewer jobs.

Before the war Alexei Stakhanov told me of a conversation he had had with a member of a French miners' delegation visiting the USSR. The visiting miner had told him that he had tried to turn out more than the standard daily quota, but the attempt had evoked the indignation of his fellow workers for the simple reason that every extra ton of coal mined meant more unemployed miners.

"Future of Industry"

Ten years ago Stalin called the Stakhanov movement "the future of our industry." Today it is clear to everyone that the movement has exercised a great effect on technical progress in the Soviet Union's national economy. By raising productivity, Stakhanovites elevate industry, transport and agriculture to a higher plane. For Stakhanovite work is inseparably bound up with technical innovations, automatization and mechanization. Stakhanovite labor helped strengthen the military and economic might of the Soviet land to make the USSR a country prepared to repel enemy invasions.

Stalin's appraisal of the Stakhanov movement was fully borne out not only

before the war but during it, when millions of people strained every effort to produce as much as possible for the front, when workers strove to undertake the operation of as many machines at once as possible and tried to learn several trades, thus making it easier to replace the workers leaving for the Army. The creative initiative of the masses, aimed at the full utilization of fuel, raw materials and other supplies, produced rich fruit.

For instance, during the war, factories launched the production of a number of new types of armaments in a fraction of the time that formerly would have been needed. At the same time the number of workers who fulfilled their quotas by more than 200 per cent increased in the aircraft industry in 1944 to 23 per cent of the total; in the mortar industry to 21.5 per cent, etc. The production competition that developed among the workers brought many new heroes of labor to the fore.

Worker Honored

During the war the name of Dmitri Bosa, a Urals milling machine operator, figured on the list of Stalin Prize Winners with that of Alexander Yakovlev, renowned aircraft designer; the name of Alexander Chalkov, a Siberian steelmaker, with that of Academician Mikhail Pavlov. This was a concrete manifestation of the brilliant development of the Stakhanov movement foreseen by Stalin.

Not long ago we heard V. M. Molotov's report on the occasion of the 28th Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution delivered in the very hall where Stalin addressed the Stakhanovites ten years ago. We recalled what Stalin had said about the future of Soviet industry, when Molotov spoke of the coming development of the Soviet national economy, the growth in labor productivity, and the mastering of new summits of technical achievement.

The men who accumulated a wealth of rich labor experience during the Stalin Five-Year Plans, and in the course of the war, are now boldly tackling new problems. They do not blind themselves to the difficulties, nor do they hide the fact that to date they have managed to restore only a fraction of that which the

My Grandfather

By Anna Tolstaya-Popova

Thirty-five years ago, when the news came of Leo Tolstoy's death, it sent a pang through the heart of every Russian.

* * *

"Tolstoy is dead! Tolstoy is dead!" The people told each other; and for a moment their glances were turned inward and they felt their responsibility to their own conscience and to the whole world.

When I think of my grandfather, it is always against the background of Yasnaya Polyana, where he spent the years that were the most fruitful for his work, and when he was closest to his family—to the children who were born to him.

It was here that he occupied himself with teaching astronomy, music and the Greek and Hebrew languages; learned cobbling and shoe-making; tilled the land and cleared it of hares and foxes; and wrote books that have never been surpassed.

From a study of his great gifts and incredible vigor, his unquenchable thirst for learning, his habits of industry and passionate concentration, emerges a grand

German invaders so barbarously destroyed, or that much more still has to be accomplished.

Post-War Plan

After the First World War it took the main industrial countries of Europe from nine to eleven years to bring their industries up to the prewar level, although the extent of devastation that time was far less than what the Soviet national economy suffered from the Hitlerite invasion. The Soviet people have undertaken not only to complete repair of the war damage within the brief space of five years, but also to surpass the prewar level of the national economy.

One of the principal sources the Soviet economy will draw on for its advancement will be increased labor productivity. Thus, in the development of the postwar economy, the Stakhanov movement can again take the lead. We venture to predict that it will not be long before the land will ring with the names of new heroes of labor.

old writer whose works will be the subject of thought for generations. His search for the best paths in life, his all-conquering love and firm faith in good, were his motive power and guiding stars.

* * *

As I stand looking up into the tall ancient oak trees, I seem to see again the figure of my grandfather with his clear penetrating gaze that made one feel somehow awkward and ashamed, as if he saw depths into which we ourselves were afraid to glance. One sensed forceful thought in this glance. Sometimes we would try to distract him from his thoughts, or he himself would come down to the level of my childish interests, to laugh simply and kindly and joke with me, and would charm me with the caress of his smile.

Yasnaya Polyana was always full of people—our family and others. His understanding of life and his love drew people to him; his wisdom had an unending enchantment for them. He was forever striving ahead, as his thoughts strained into the future.

I saw how he suffered at the injustice of the tsarist regime. I saw that he drew people toward good.

Russia's defeat in the Russo-Japanese War caused him great suffering. When he read aloud Chekhov's story, *Little Deer*, tears came into his eyes and he handed the book to someone else, because his voice broke. I saw his long delicate finger on the place from which the reader had to continue. Then, when he was calm again, he took back the book and read on. I remember him as he used to sit, upright and neat, drinking tea.

* * *

When my Uncle Andryusha told an anecdote, taking off different characters, my grandfather went into peals of laughter. Sometimes in Moscow, I seem to hear that carefree laughter over the creak of the door at Yasnaya Polyana; in the crackling of twigs on a frosty night; the birds in the branches of the trees around his lonely grave. And I am happy that his memory is so deeply respected in the new Soviet Russia.

Social Insurance in the USSR

Basic material for the series of articles of which this is the first, is taken from SOCIAL INSURANCE IN THE USSR, by Z. Mokhov.

Chapter II

Soviet factory social insurance delegates can tell their own story of the management of the insurance funds.

Sekirova, a woman toolmaker and trade union official at the Compressor Engineering Works, is one such delegate. In talks over the factory radio, she often tells of her work as a delegate.

"Our government does not stint money to improve the workers' welfare," she said in one such talk, "but it is our duty to see that these enormous sums are spent usefully.

"That, in fact, is the job you gave me when you elected me social insurance delegate, and today I want to tell you how I have been fulfilling my task.

Care of Sick

"Most of my time and energy is given to caring for the needs of workers who are ill. Several of us, your social insurance delegates, take turns looking after ill persons.

"We do not call to visit them with empty hands. I always make a point of collecting their wages on time and of bringing them a few presents from friends or from the trade union committee.

"And it is not simply a courtesy visit. Where necessary I call the doctor, or go to the drug store for medicine, or read to them, or simply tell them what is going on at the factory. They appreciate these visits as evidence that their fellow workers think of them.

"Whenever special medical attention is required, I see to it that the patient is immediately placed in a hospital or clinic and I make a point of visiting him regularly. By these visits we see how our people are getting on, and we keep them in touch with happenings at the factory.

"Now let us take the case of a man who has been cured of his illness, but is not yet fit to work and must recuperate. We try to get him a place in a rest home or sanatorium. All his expenses there are



A NURSERY—These children of workers at the Central Irmino coal mine are cared for while parents work

paid out of the social insurance fund.

"Then there are our old, retired workers.

"I suppose all of you know Peterson, one of our oldest workers, an American who came to the USSR many years ago and worked in our plant for years. He has trained many a good worker.

Pensioned Workers

"Now he is no longer on the active list, but has a pension and lives in a home for old workers in the country. Despite the fact that the home is far away, one of our delegates visits Peterson every Sunday. He says that he never feels lonely.

"We take the same friendly interest in other old workers who have been pensioned. Though they no longer work in the factory, we never forget them and they feel that they are still part of our great family.

"In the canteen where most of you are listening to me there is a special dietetic section for 45 of our workers. All expenses of this special food are covered by the social insurance fund.

"Under the supervision of doctors paid from the social insurance fund, dietetic feeding has been successful in cutting the

number of workers on sick leave. We are going to extend this service to provide for 100 persons."

Social insurance delegates devote much of their time to activities which benefit mothers and children. The proper placing of children in nurseries and kindergartens is a major part of the work.

During the war, a special point was made of helping the children of men at the front. The children were placed in kindergartens or nurseries, and provided with warm clothing, books and school supplies.

Another important activity is the provision of rest and recreation for young people who entered factories during the war. Rest homes and holiday camps were established for them.

Delegate's Diary

Nadezhda Zhivodyorova, a social insurance delegate in a large steel mill, tells the story of her work in her diary, as follows:

July 5: Checked the first aid room to see that all the workers who had suffered from malaria were being given quinine treatment. Two had failed to appear. In the evening I spoke to them and explained

how necessary this treatment is. They promised to go tomorrow.

July 7: At 6 a.m. I was in the nursery to watch the mothers on the first shift bring in their children. I talked to the mothers and to the nursery personnel. There were no complaints.

July 8: Spent most of the morning in another nursery section. I discussed some complaints with the doctor, who promised that they would do something about them today.

July 10: Got the shop trade union committee to grant one of our sick working women a sum of money, and arranged for her two children to go to a summer camp.

July 14: Our labor protection inspector is sick and the trade union committee has asked me to look after his job until he returns to work.

July 16: Attended a lecture for social insurance delegates, and in the evening went to a meeting of the social insurance council. The doctor reported on our progress in reducing illness in the factory.

The results for the first half year are not at all bad, and in my own group, the number of persons on sick leave has fallen by two-thirds compared with the first half of last year. The council commended the good work being done by the factory clinic and noted that its personnel not only cared for the sick, but did much to improve sanitary conditions in the shops and housing estates."

The Soviet child has the right, protected by law, to be well born.

He has the right to healthful care throughout his childhood. His mother's rights as a Soviet citizen include the right to bear her child without financial or employment worries, secure in the knowledge that the best possible circumstances will surround her baby's birth and childhood.

Mother's Care

The care of mothers and children has always been of special concern to the Soviet State and to the Soviet trade unions, which administer social insurance for all working persons.

The stories of these two delegates are typical of many. The social insurance delegate is chosen by his fellow-workers from the best, most energetic and devoted men and women. He is the central figure and the backbone of the entire social insurance system. His position is one of great trust and he enjoys far-reaching rights.

Council Elected

The social insurance council is elected by the delegates to manage the funds at the disposal of the given factory and to direct all social insurance work. The council encourages the largest possible number of people to take part in social insurance activities and supervises their work to ensure maximum efficiency.

The council sets up sections, groups or brigades for the following work:

1. To combat disease and accidents.
2. To organize visits to the sick.
3. To control the work of medical institutions attached to the factory.
4. To place workers in sanatoriums and rest homes, and to organize dietetic feeding.
5. To supervise care of children.
6. Care of Pensioners.
7. Finance.

This organization varies with the size of the factory and the amount of work. In some cases several groups are merged.

In other cases, special groups are set up to deal with special jobs. For instance,

in the spring most social insurance councils set up a special group to organize summer camps and playgrounds for children. Near the end of the year, special committees are often appointed to draw up the next year's draft budget.

The workers active in social insurance are given special training. Special social insurance courses and seminars for them are financed from social insurance funds.

Studies in these courses are based not only on text books but also on analysis of factory experience. The use of examples from his own factory trains the new delegate to calculate pensions, sick benefits, and so forth.

Factory wall newspapers and periodical bulletins are also widely used to train the delegates. Groups of delegates visit exhibitions and museums to learn about new methods of labor protection, safety devices, factory hygiene and other related matters.

Social insurance delegates attend conferences and meetings periodically, and participate in sessions of the factory's social insurance council. They give reports to their electors, which popularize the work and attract new social insurance workers.

The trade unions annually give awards to the delegates who have rendered outstanding service during the year. The trade union press devotes much space to reports of social insurance delegates and particularly to accounts of outstanding achievement in this field.

CHAPTER III

Even in the early days of the Soviet Republic when the country was torn by the Civil War and suffering from foreign intervention, when the national economy was all but wrecked, new schools and child-care centers were built and maintained; additional food was provided for expectant and nursing mothers.

During the most recent great trial of the Soviet people, the invasion of the country by Nazi Germany, the Soviet government instituted new measures for the well-being of mothers and children as the number of working women increased. In those districts not actually under invasion, the number of country nurseries increased by 37 per cent; and

of urban nurseries, by 47 per cent. The number of children's homes was doubled.

In July, 1944, a law was passed providing for a vast program of new centers for the care of mothers and children, and for maximum extension of those existing

Women's Rights

The Constitution of the Soviet Union, which guarantees to women equal rights with men in all spheres of economic, state, cultural, social and political activities, also guarantees the opportunity to exercise those rights.

"The possibility of exercising these rights," says the Constitution, "is ensured

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

The social insurance budget is a major factor in helping her to implement her guaranteed rights. Large sums are appropriated annually for maternity benefits, for grants to nursing mothers and for the purchase of baby clothes. These funds are also used to organize and maintain various kinds of child care centers. Every pregnant woman is entitled to benefits from trade union and state funds long before she receives maternity leave.

Protection of Law

The Soviet law makes it a criminal offense to deny a pregnant woman employment or to lower her wages. All women, both those in manual work and those in white-collar fields, retain their jobs, and the right to return to them, while they are on maternity leave.

There are special laws regarding working mothers and working pregnant women.

Pregnant women may not be put on overtime work after the third month of pregnancy, even during war. After the fifth month pregnant women may not, without their consent, be sent on business trips to other cities. During the nursing period mothers may not be put on night work.

Nursing mothers are entitled to time off during working hours to feed their infants. The doctor of the district maternity consultation center has the right, supported by enforcing law, to require that a pregnant woman be given lighter work. Her pay may not be lowered.

Maternity Leave

During maternity leave, under the law, each woman receives full pay. It comes from the social insurance fund. Despite war production, the government during the war extended the term of leave to five weeks before childbirth and six weeks after. In some cases, post-confinement leave may be extended to eight weeks.

The leave is also extended by giving the annual vacation immediately after maternity leave.

After the child is born the mother is entitled to two money grants, in addition to the basic maternity grant. They are for the purchase of clothing, and for the purchase of food.

Child Benefits

These benefits have almost doubled since 1936. The sums are increased for twins or triplets. In the latter months of pregnancy and during the first four months of the child's life, the mother is also issued additional food under the rationing system.

There are many centers, under trade union control and financed by social insurance funds, for mothers and children. The centers include those for medical consultation; dietetic restaurants, nurseries, kindergartens, children's sanatoriums and camps.

"Milk Kitchens," providing special food for infants, serve fine food and make it unnecessary for the working mother to prepare the child's food.

If the mother is in a low-wage category, she may receive food from the milk kitchen for her child without charge. In other cases, the trade union committee may grant her money to pay for it.

In many factories, free or low-priced meals are provided for nursing mothers and pregnant women. If special diet is prescribed, the proper food is served at the factory restaurants. Often, on the doctor's recommendation, pregnant women and nursing mothers are sent to special rest homes, where they are cared for free of charge. Social insurance provides this service, too.

The social insurance delegates are active in all these services. They are, in effect, the enforcing agents of the whole system, with the labor protection inspectors.

At the consultation centers, which are primarily medical, systematic educational work is also conducted, to acquaint the mother with her rights and to teach her how to care for her child and herself. Many centers have legal departments to

detect and rectify any infringement of the mother's rights.

All industrial construction plans in the Soviet Union must provide for the building of nurseries, kindergartens, and mother and child rooms, sufficient to meet the needs of all women to be employed. Social insurance delegates check on the progress and quality of construction of these establishments.

After the child care centers are in operation, the delegates visit them to check on the care provided.

The social insurance council works closely with the local public health authorities, under whose jurisdiction nurseries come; and with the education authorities in charge of kindergartens.

The council periodically discusses the work of child care centers serving children of parents who work in the given factory, and receives reports from health and education authorities on them. Mothers are encouraged to take part in these discussions.

Summer Camps

In the summer, the trade unions, with public health and education authorities, organize camps, summer sanatoriums, and country homes for school children. The delegates participate in this work.

Each child is given a medical examination to determine what sort of vacation place is suited to his needs. Sickly children are sent to sanatoriums or to forest schools.

For children who stay in town, playgrounds, one-day rest homes, and country excursions are organized. In all this work, the social insurance delegate is the link between the family and the planning body.

Orphaned children, or children of parents who find themselves in temporary financial difficulties, are aided with funds from the social insurance budget.

Aid is also provided for the children of unmarried mothers who have financial difficulties. Widows and low-income mothers with three or more children are also aided in the maintenance of their children.

Factory committees often make grants to mothers with low incomes to pay for the expense of sending their children to all the various types of child-care centers.

The Soviet Union—Protagonist of Lasting Peace

From NEW TIMES, Number 11:

Born 28 years ago, the Soviet Union from the very first, proclaimed a fight for enduring peace as the fundamental aim of its foreign policy. This followed logically from its very nature as the first socialist country in the world. The working-class state, which had resolutely set out fundamentally to reconstruct the social and economic system and the cultural life of the vast country, could not but be interested in living in peace so as to be able to pursue its grand constructive program without interference from the outside.

* * *

But no sooner had the peaceful principles of Soviet foreign policy been proclaimed, than it became apparent that the battle for peace would be a long and difficult one. The Soviet State had to face the deep hostility of the surrounding world, repeated and stubborn attempts at armed intervention, and numerous encroachments, from without, upon its security. The love for peace of the Soviet Republic was put to many a test. Pacific intentions and declarations were not enough to ensure peace; it had to be fought for and defended. This put a great strain upon the moral and material resources of the young Soviet State.

The Soviet Union's efforts for enduring peace found a sympathetic response among all the progressive forces of the world. In safeguarding its own security, and in attempting to establish stable, peaceful relations with foreign states on a businesslike and strictly reciprocal basis, the Soviet Union unalterably pursued the policy which is in the interest of all peace-loving nations.

The consistency and rectitude of this policy won wide international recognition. The Soviet Union became the rallying center for all forces which actively championed the cause of peace and security for large and small nations. Friends of peace repeatedly remarked that the distinguishing feature of the Soviet policy of peace, as well as its outstanding merit, was its

sobriety and realism. It has always approached the problem of maintaining peace, concretely mindful of the actual forces which were threatening it and of what could and should be done to counteract them.

This has been reflected in the resolute purposefulness of all foreign policy measures of the Soviet Union; in its readiness to conclude international treaties and agreements designed to prevent war, or at least to localize possible conflicts. But the Soviet Union invariably demands that commitments arising out of such treaties and agreements should be scrupulously honored by all the signatories to them and should be of operative, not declaratory, character.

* * *

As we know, after World War I, an unsuccessful attempt was made to construct an international organization for the maintenance of a prolonged and even "eternal" peace. This organization was the League of Nations, an offspring of Versailles. The Versailles system, however, failed to ensure the necessary conditions for the elimination of German imperialist aggression; on the contrary, it actively promoted the rapid resurrection of the threat of war. For this system was bound up with anti-Soviet combinations and, hence, with the diversion of international forces which were capable of counteracting aggression. The League of Nations failed to stand the test of time and proved insolvent.

* * *

One of the chief reasons for the ignominious end of the League of Nations was its impotence organizationally. Built on a principle of purely formal equality of all of its members, and bereft of a real means of curbing a potential aggressor, the League of Nations, far from serving the cause of peace itself, repeatedly became the instrument in the hands of international politicians who were deliberately obstructing the fight against aggression.

The Soviet Union did not confine itself to criticizing the League of Nations and

its shortcomings. It repeatedly declared in favor of a positive program for the creation of a system of international cooperation—locally, or on a wider scale—which would make it possible to combat, not in words but in deeds, every violator of peace.

Unfortunately, the Soviet Union's initiative in this direction did not always, by far, meet with proper understanding and support. The disgrace of Munich is not forgotten by the nations. It required the stern lessons of war for the warnings and practical proposals of the Soviet Union to be appreciated, although belatedly, as they deserved.

* * *

When the evil forces of fascism unleashed the Second World War, the unprecedented struggle of freedom-loving nations against Germany and Japan revealed the leading role of the Soviet Union as a country which did not shrink from any sacrifice in order to annihilate completely the fascist beast of prey, thereby guaranteeing the enduring peace of nations.

The colossal significance of the victories of the Soviet Army is generally recognized. In the course of the war, the Soviet Union multiplied and consolidated its international ties. By treaties of alliance and agreements with Great Britain, the United States, China, France, Poland, Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia and other united nations, the Soviet people sealed a fellowship-in-arms with their Allies in the fight to vanquish the German and Japanese aggressors.

The Moscow Conference of the three Foreign Secretaries and the conferences of the heads of the governments of the three great democratic Powers in Teheran, Crimea and Berlin, demonstrated the solidarity of the Anglo-Soviet-American coalition in planning and successfully encompassing the defeat of the common enemy.

The Soviet Union repeatedly demonstrated its readiness and willingness to work hand-in-hand with its Allies in attaining a really lasting and just peace.

The Soviet Union actively cooperated at Dumbarton Oaks and San Francisco in laying the foundations of an effective organization for international security.

* * *

It would be a mistake to think that even in wartime the cooperation between the Soviet Union and the other freedom-loving countries was always attended by absolute identity of attitude and unanimity on all points. Both the social system and the ideology of the Soviet Socialist State differs materially from the states of its Allies.

Naturally, this could not fail at times to be the cause of divergencies on even important matters. It suffices to recall the question of a Second Front in Europe. But this did not prevent us in the end from finding a common ground with our Allies on the chief and most fundamental question of all, namely: the organization of victory over the Nazi and Japanese imperialists.

* * *

The world has entered the post-war phase. The task of defeating the armed forces of the aggressor is now superseded by the no less difficult task of completely eradicating German and Japanese imperialist aggression and guaranteeing enduring peace among nations. Mankind has a right to expect that the sacrifices made in the struggle against Hitlerism and its western and eastern imitators shall not have been in vain. Peace has been won, but it needs to be consolidated and protected.

This necessitates increased vigilance on the part of the united forces of democracy to guard against the machinations of the reactionaries and pro-fascists who are sowing the poisonous seeds of anti-Soviet calumny and who are striving to salvage the Nazi wreckage, to save the cadres of Japanese militarism, and to preserve for war an industrial base of imperialist aggression in the West and in the East.

* * *

The peace that has been won must be safeguarded. This is in the interest of the Soviet Union, a firm bulwark of universal peace and security, and in the interest of all other freedom-loving nations.

Repairing Dnieper Dam

By M. Andronov

In the spring of 1944, flood waters swamped the wreckage of the Dnieper power station, swirling and foaming unchecked for several months. In late summer the men arrived who would reharneß the river.

The water flows around a concrete dam stretching for three-quarters of a kilometer across the stream, and pours through the gap between the edge of the dam and the right bank into Forebay Reservoir, behind whose ferro-concrete walls lies the machinery of the power station.

The problem now was to prevent the water from flowing into Forebay Reservoir. It was first suggested that the engineers should bar the flow by building a timber coffer dam between the main dam and the right bank. The job would take 20,000 cubic meters of solid timber—and the Dnieper country is timberless. In those parts, particularly in the early days of reconstruction, every old plank was cherished and put to use, again and again.

New Idea

Innokenty Kandalov, the chief building engineer, did not think much of the proposal. Like most of the men who have been entrusted with the reconstruction of Dnieproges, he worked on the original power station. Later he built hydro-electric stations on the Svir River and in Central Asia.

His long experience suggested a new and simpler idea. The site was littered with hundreds of thousands of cubic yards of shattered ferro-concrete and tens of thousands of tons of mangled steel. Why not disentangle the debris and dump it, to-

gether with rock and sand, into the gap between the dam and the right bank, and thus deny the river access to the reservoir?

There was quite a dispute. Kandalov knew he was staking his reputation. It was, of course, audacious to suggest building a dam out of debris, with a foundation which was anything but watertight.

"Do you really expect to stem the force of one of the biggest rivers in the world, by this means?" asked the experts.

Dam Succeeds

Kandalov, conqueror of many rivers, expected to do precisely that. The dam would not be watertight, of course. But any water that filtered through the makeshift dam into Forebay Reservoir could be drained off through pipes.

Kandalov's proposal was at last accepted. Igor Podrutzky, Alexander Ivanov and Kirill Insterov suggested improvements. When the dam was completed, experts were astonished at the simplicity and effectiveness of the structure.

The reconstruction of Dnieproges is a kind of plastic surgery. Engineers operate on the mangled, lacerated structures, force liquid cement into the great fissures that formed in the 40-meter piers when the Germans blew them up, then bind the wounded piers with ferro-concrete girdles.



AT DNEIPER—Workmen begin the huge work of reconstructing Dnieper Dam, which during the war was seriously damaged

Radtophotos

A Coalfield in the Frozen North

by M. Lapin

Vorkuta, well beyond the Arctic Circle, almost as far north as the sixty-eighth parallel, has robbed Bogoslov Coalfield in the Urals of its proud boast of being the northernmost coalfield in the Soviet Union.

* * *

The new coalfield is situated in the basin of the Pechora River, one of the places which might well be termed "The Edge of Beyond."

On the east of the broad river basin, there are almost inaccessible North Ural Mountains. To the north, there is the Arctic Ocean. Everywhere, in whichever direction you look, there is endless swampy tundra.

In summer people cross this tundra swamp by jumping from hummock to hummock, while clouds of mosquitoes and midges accompany the traveler throughout the day.

Winter Frosts

In winter, fierce blizzards alternate with even fiercer frosts, which often reach 55 or 60 degrees below zero centigrade.

On rare occasions, the landscape is brightened by herds of reindeer which are driven from place to place by Nenets drivers, whose one means of transportation, winter and summer, is the low, light sledge.

Occasionally, one meets a lone hunter dressed in furs. Furbearing and game animals and birds abound throughout the region.

This is tundra such as we read of in our geography books. It has long been known that this part of the mainland contains coal. The local Nenets people have often called attention to the coal which breaks through the surface in outcrops on the rocky banks of the Pechora River and other places.

Geological research under arctic conditions is always fraught with difficulty and danger. The Academy of Sciences expedition, sent to the region in 1912, was overtaken by a terrific snowstorm, and half its members perished.

Intensive geological research began in the Soviet period. In the '20s and '30s,

geologists proved that coal deposits in the frozen North were very extensive.

Vorkuta in the Pechora Basin is now regarded as one of the biggest coalfields in the Soviet Union, containing 120,000,000,000 tons. The Donets Coal Basin, most highly developed in the country, contains about 90,000,000,000 tons, according to the statistics of the Seventeenth International Geological Congress, held in 1937.

Chemical analysis and experimental exploitation showed that the coal of Vorkuta was of high-calorie grade, was easy to coke, and was suitable for extensive use in iron smelting.

The workings at Vorkuta were opened in the early '30s, when there was already a big demand for its coal in view of the rapid economic development of the Far North.

The greatest difficulty was delivering the coal to the consumer. At first, the coal was sent by narrow-gauge railway some 70 miles to the navigable Ussa River, where it was loaded in barges at a specially built river port, and sent 500 kilometers upstream to the Pechora River and a further 1,000 kilometers to the Barents Sea.

The trouble with this route was that the Ussa is ice-locked eight or nine months a year. Usually, it is navigable by the middle of June, but local inhabitants tell of years when the ice did not melt all through the summer.

Difficulty Met

Even during the summer months, the constantly changing water level of this capricious river made navigation a matter of arduous toil. Further development of the coalfield depended on the provision of suitable transport.

This problem was solved in wartime by the building of 1,800 kilometers of railway lines connecting Vorkuta with the Soviet railway system. Building this railway across swampy land, through taiga, and over permanently frozen soil was effected during the most difficult years of the war.

The new railway opens up new vistas for development of the coalfield and for the town of Vorkuta.

"Old" Vorkuta, a coal town which grew up ten or eleven years ago beyond the 67th parallel, centers around the first mine that was sunk in the region. Here, in a log cabin, is housed a research station belonging to the Academy of Sciences, which maintains constant observation over the condition of the soil that lies within the permanently frozen region.

Across the river is the newer part of the town of Greater Vorkuta, where pit-head installations and huge dumps give the tundra the appearance of an old established coalfield. The newer Vorkuta mines are mechanized to a very considerable extent.

The population of Vorkuta already numbers tens of thousands of persons. The town consists of one and two-story log-built houses which are warm and comfortable. Despite the exotic nature of the Arctic tundra, this town is gradually beginning to resemble a community in the temperate zone.

As you walk along the streets of Vorkuta, you would scarcely believe that under your feet the subsoil is permanently frozen, and that on the surface there was nothing but swamp land four or five years ago.

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Information Bulletin

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Washington, D. C., December 4, 1945



December 5—Constitution Day

By N. Rychkov

Peoples Commissar of Justice of the USSR

The Soviet Union was called upon to stand the heaviest assault of the Nazi war machine and to make the greatest sacrifices in the common cause of the Allies. This gigantic struggle against fascist aggressors ended in a historic victory, the fruits of which must now be implemented by the allied nations in the interests of the peace of the world and the triumph of liberty and democracy.

The staunchness and endurance, the devotion and self-sacrifice displayed by the Soviet people at the front and in the rear, testify to the monolithic firmness and strength of the Soviet System. No one can doubt that it was thanks to this regime that the Soviet Union was able to muster the human and material resources of the country to withstand the frantic onslaught of the Nazi hordes and, in the end, to inflict a complete defeat upon them.

The strength of this system rests on the principles defined in the Constitution of the USSR, popularly known in the Soviet Union as the Stalin Constitution.

The underlying principles of this Constitution are that the people themselves are the masters of the country and the arbiters of its destinies, that exploitation of man by man is not tolerated and that the numerous nationalities of the Soviet Union are all equal members of one great commonwealth.

*From Painting by P. Vasiliev*

GENERALISSIMO STALIN

The Constitution, in its present form, was drafted by a commission headed by Joseph Stalin and was submitted to nationwide discussion on June 11, 1936. For six months the draft was scrutinized

and discussed, point by point and clause by clause, in every town and village and in every corner of the boundless expanses of the Soviet Union.

The draft was amended in accordance with the suggestions made in the course of the nationwide discussion and was introduced by Stalin at the Eighth Extraordinary Congress of the Soviets on December 5, 1936, and was adopted.

Thus, discussed and approved by the people, the Constitution is a genuine expression of the will and aspirations of the people, accepted by them as an instrument of their welfare and progress. Therein lies fundamentally the democratic character of every provision of the Constitution, which now informs and directs the life of the Soviet country.

On the basis of this Constitution, workers, peasants and intellectuals jointly and on an equal footing, elect the Soviets of Working People's Deputies by universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

Suffrage is enjoyed by all citizens of the USSR, without exception (including members of the Armed Forces and women) who have reached the age of 18, with the exception of insane persons and persons who have been convicted by a court law and whose sentences include deprivation of electoral rights. Suffrage equality is guaranteed by

the fact that no citizen is entitled to more than one vote.

With respect to the organization of Soviet society, the Constitution defines the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics as a socialist state of workers and peasants, in which all power belongs to the working people, of both town and country, as represented by the Soviets of Working People's Deputies, which constitute the political foundation of the USSR.

This definition proceeds from the fact that the overthrow of the power of landlords and capitalists and the establishment of the power of the Soviets, the elimination of the capitalist system of economy, the abrogation of private ownership of the means and instruments of production, and the abolition of the exploitation of man by man, has resulted in the disappearance of antagonistic classes in the USSR.

The economic foundation in the USSR is socialist enterprise and socialist ownership of the means and instruments of production, in the form of either State property (the possession of the whole people) or cooperative and collective farm property (property of collective farms or cooperative associations).

Article 10, of the Constitution, establishes and protects the right of citizens to personal ownership of their incomes from work and of their savings, irrespective of size; of their dwelling houses and subsidiary household economy; of articles of personal use and convenience and so forth, as well as the right to inherit personal property without any restriction.

Personal Property

Members of the collective farms, in addition to their basic income from the common collective farm enterprise, have for their personal use plots of land, and as their personal property a subsidiary establishment on this plot, a dwelling house, livestock, poultry and minor agricultural implements.

The Constitution (Article 9) permits small private enterprises of individual peasants and handicraftsmen, based on their personal labor and precluding the exploitation of the labor of others.

While proclaiming socialist property as fundamental, the Constitution protects the personal property of citizens and encourages the honest endeavor of every citizen to improve his material welfare.

Article 12 lays down the highly important principle that work is a duty and a matter of honor for every able-bodied citizen and that: "He who does not work, neither shall he eat." The principle applied is that of socialism: "From each according to his ability, to each according to his work."

The right to work is first in the list of fundamental rights of the citizens as defined in the Constitution. The struggle and ambition of centuries have at last found realization in the fundamental law of the Soviet State. Every citizen has the right to employment and to payment for his work in accordance with its quality and quantity. The Constitution does not merely declare this right, but enumerates the actual guarantees of it.

Facts show that this principle is honored in practice. Unemployment in the USSR is unknown; there is no one who cannot find application for his knowledge and abilities in accordance with his tastes and proclivities.

The economic life of the country, in accordance with the Constitution, is determined and directed by the national economic plan, which is compiled in harmony with the vital needs and interests of the people.

The most important rights of the citizen, in addition to the right to work, are: the right to rest and leisure; the right to maintenance in old age and in case of sickness and loss of working capacity; and the right to education.

As regards the organization of the State, the Constitution defines the USSR as a federal State, formed on the basis of voluntary association of the Soviet Socialist Republics having equal rights. The Union Republics, as they are called, are: the Russian, Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Azerbaijan, Georgian, Armenian, Turkmen, Uzbek, Tajik, Kazakh, Kirghiz, Karelo-Finnish, Moldavian, Lithuanian, Latvian and Estonian Republics.

Each Union Republic exercises state authority within its own boundaries, in-

dependently, in accordance with its own Constitution, and is a sovereign state, which, however, voluntarily limits its sovereignty by ceding some of its powers to the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. To every Union Republic is reserved the right freely to secede from the USSR. Its territory may not be altered without its consent. It may enter into relations with foreign states and maintain its own armed forces.

Political Rights

Every Soviet citizen, as a member of the vast collective body of working folk, has an all-round opportunity to develop his personality and to lead his own individual life. The Soviet State and society encourage and facilitate the manifestation of personal initiative in politics, economics, science, art and all other spheres of life. Whatever abilities and inclinations the citizen may have, he will find a field of application for them—on one condition, however, that they be not directed to the detriment of society or the rights of others.

In the Soviet State, the interests of society and the individual are harmonized and complement one another in all spheres of life.

The Constitution defines and protects the political rights of citizens, the inviolability of person and domicile, and the privacy of correspondence. It guarantees freedom of conscience. The church is separated from the State and the school from the church. Freedom of religious worship and freedom of anti-religious propaganda are equally recognized for all citizens.

The Constitution guarantees freedom of speech, press, assembly and mass meetings; of street processions and demonstrations; and the right of citizens to unite in public organizations.

The equality of the rights of the citizens of the USSR, irrespective of their nationality or race in all spheres of economic, state, cultural, social and political life is an indefeasible law. Women are accorded equal rights with men. All citizens are equal before the law and courts. Justice is administered by judges elected by the people. Violation of the rights of citizens, as well as the advocacy of racial or national exclusiveness or

harred and contempt, is punishable by law.

New Features

It will be seen that in the USSR, democracy possesses certain fundamentally new features not met with elsewhere. It is a Socialist democracy, a democracy of the broadest and most consistent type.

The substance and spirit of the Constitution of the USSR essentially reflect the Soviet principle of refusal to tolerate aggression in all manifestations. They reflect the Soviet Union's peaceableness and its readiness in conjunction with all democratic nations to promote peace all over the world with all means at the disposal of the great Socialist democracy.

Monument Planned

An imposing monument to the sailors of the Soviet Northern Fleet who gallantly defended Russia's gate to the ocean will shortly be erected in the extreme north—at the entrance of Kola Bay where during the war convoys with supplies from the United States to the Soviet Union ended their long journeys. The rocky islet of Salny has been chosen as the site for the 45-meter-tall monument which will be seen from afar, and will be not only a monument but also a lighthouse for ships.

Many eminent Soviet sculptors and architects participated in the competition for the design of this monument. Out of several dozen projects, the four best have been selected. The author of one of them—the well-known sculptor Manizer, shaped his design as a gigantic figure of a sailor whose feet will always be washed by the sea waves. In his upraised hand this giant will hold a lantern showing the way to ships.

The figure of a sailor scanning the sea also crowns another design proposed by a group of artists. A third design by sculptor Issaeva represents an obelisk with groups of statues at its foot. The fourth approved project proposed by a group of young sculptors and architects is shaped like three wave breakers rising on granite blocks and crowned with the figures of a seaman with a banner, a Naval flier and a sailor of a cutter crew.

Menuhin Concerts

By E. Grosheva

From IZVESTIYA, November 21, 1945

The concerts recently given by the eminent American Violinist Yehudi Menuhin in the Soviet capital constituted one of the highlights of the current season. Moscow residents gave an enthusiastic reception to the world-renowned virtuoso who had long had the desire to visit Russia, the birthplace of his parents.

From the very outset, his listeners were enthralled by the crystal clarity of his tone, his strict line of interpretation and impeccable precision and finesse. Menuhin does not so much attract by brilliance of virtuosity and effects of technique, as by his profound understanding of music. The Saint-Saen's *Rondo Capriccioso*, generally treated as a brilliant "showpiece" acquired classic austerity and restrained expression under Menuhin's bow.

Absolute purity of intonation, his facility of touch, and his wealth of colorful sound, marked Menuhin's expressive playing of the *Italian Belcanto*. He achieved almost vocal tone in Schubert's *Ave Maria*, which he rendered with penetration and severe simplicity. We were astounded by the rich quality of his tone in *Rumanian Dances*, by Bela Bartok.

Owing to Menuhin's outer restraint and academic manner of delivery, the listener does not grasp the full stature of this musician, until he has revealed his versatility in full. Therefore, the third concert, where he played three major works in his classic violin repertory, was the most revealing. Although the first movement of Beethoven's *Concerto* was treated in a somewhat subdued and calm manner in the *largo*, in the finale (especially in the middle passage of the rondo, where the violin and bassoon have such charming dialogue), Menuhin achieved supreme expression. Exceptionally suited to Menuhin's style, was perhaps the profoundly lyric Brahms's *Concerto* which is so rigid and precise in design. It was a rare treat to listen to two prominent violinists, Menuhin and D. Oistrakh of Moscow, render the *Bach Concerto* for two violins and orchestra. Menuhin had a superb partner in Pianist L. Oborin with whom he played the violin sonatas by Franck and Debussy. At the third concert, Menuhin played with the State Symphony Orchestra of the USSR, under the faultless leadership of A. Orlov.

Menuhin's concerts were indeed an aesthetic pleasure that will linger long in our memories. He promises to visit us again next autumn.

MENUHIN IN MOSCOW



Radiophoto

Social Security in the USSR

Basic material for the series of articles of which this is the third, and last, is taken from SOCIAL INSURANCE IN THE USSR, by Z. Mokhov.

CHAPTER IV

The Soviet worker has the right, guaranteed by the Constitution, to rest.

The former palaces of the tsars are rest homes for working people, as are many beautiful former estates of the nobility.

* * *

Great numbers of new sanatoriums and rest homes have been built by State organizations, public health authorities, and the trade unions.

Millions of rubles from the trade union administered social insurance funds have been spent on these establishments, on clubs, parks, the purchase of sports equipment and so forth.

Millions Aided

During the period from 1932 to 1937, approximately eight million persons went to rest homes at the expense of the social insurance fund. More than one million were sent to sanatoriums, and seven million to one-day rest homes. Many millions more used the parks, palaces of culture, and other recreational and cultural facilities run by the trade unions.

There are separate vacation homes and sanatoriums for the youth, for middle-aged workers, and for families who wish to spend their holidays together.

Workers in need of slight medical attention may go to so-called "night sanatoriums," where they get special food, rest, and treatment by specialists.

Each trade union has special rest homes and other holiday places for workers in its industry.

In 1933 the unions controlled 305 rest homes and 94 sanatoriums; in 1937 the figures were 621 and 216 respectively. Since that time, many more have been built, particularly in the resort country of the Crimea and the Caucasus, and in Siberia and Central Asia.

The trade unions devote much effort,

time, and funds to providing the pleasantest possible holidays for their members. This is a major field of work for Soviet trade unions.

The hundreds of thousands of persons using the holiday facilities annually, make their applications through their local trade union committees. Stakhanovites, shock workers and workers who have worked at the plant for a long time are given priority on reservations.

Applications for sanatorium treatment are passed by specialists of medical commissions, who decide which sanatorium will best meet the applicant's needs. These commissions study the case and the applicant's physical condition.

All workers are entitled to a paid vacation which ranges from a fortnight to a month, depending on the nature of their work, on age, and on seniority in the given plant.

Young workers, workers in trades potentially harmful to health, and some other categories get longer holidays.

The time spent at the rest home usually corresponds to the length of the vacation.

Workers on sick leave may go to rest homes, with expenses paid from the social insurance fund there. Their sick benefits, which continue throughout their illness, are not reduced because of this.

For these persons on sick leave, the time spent at the rest home is not counted as

part of the vacation to which they are entitled.

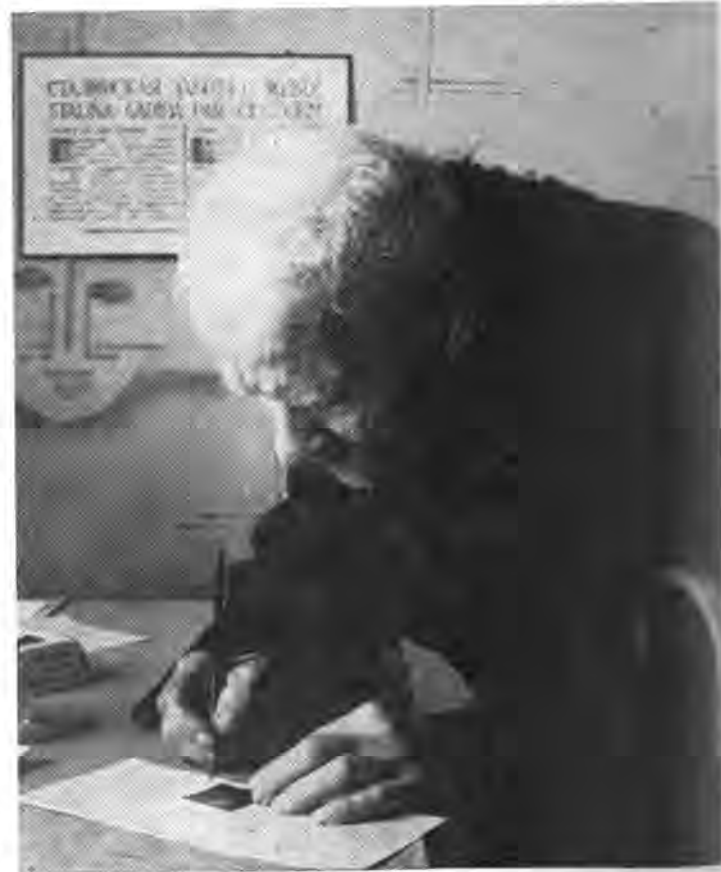
If workers do not take their vacations, they are entitled to vacation pay in addition to their regular pay.

Single Holidays

For one-day holidays, there are swimming pools, stadiums for games, skiing grounds, and so on. Each trade union organizes activities in these fields and has sufficient funds to offer interesting one-day recreation to its members.

Young workers are fond of hiking, climbing and traveling. In 1930, there were more than a million active sportsmen in the USSR. By the beginning of the war, the figure had grown to nearly ten million.

During the war, there were necessarily some changes and restrictions in



THE PENSION—Vassilii Belov receives his pension book at Social Maintenance Bureau at Riga

the rest and recreation program. It was a matter of life or death, to work more and rest less.

Holidays generally were suspended, and the trade unions, public health authorities, and social insurance delegates had to intensify their work of safeguarding the workers' health despite this.

Army Hospitals

Whenever it was noticed that a worker was becoming run down or tired, efforts were made to send him or her to a rest home, a night sanatorium, or to arrange for a special diet.

Priority was given to working mothers and young workers. The young workers constituted the only group for which holidays remained in force.

Many of the trade union rest homes and sanatoriums were used during the war as Red Army hospitals. The unions worked to provide them with maximum facilities. Most of the hospitals maintained their own farms to feed the wounded.

Where the Nazis occupied the country, trade union health resorts were razed to the ground by the Germans, and farm and hospital equipment was seized. The work of rebuilding these institutions is now proceeding.

CHAPTER V

The State Social Insurance Budget is often called "the budget of health."

* * *

If the Soviet worker is ill, his sick benefits are paid from this fund. The health-building activities financed from social insurance funds, some of which have been already described, have helped to raise public health to a high level.

The contrast with pre-Revolutionary conditions is sharp.

V. V. Veresaev, a physician and writer, published in 1902 his *Doctor's Diary*, which was translated into several languages.

He wrote: "Medicine is the science of curing people, or, at least, such is the definition given in the textbooks and taught in the universities. But in actual life medicine turns out to be the science of how to cure rich people.

"One day a laundress with eczema and



RESTING—C. I. Ivanova, 64-year old former domestic worker, lives on her pension at this home for the aged



THE HOLIDAY—These collective farmers are shown in the park of an Odessa sanatorium

a textile worker suffering from consumption came to me. I prescribed the usual ointments and pills, but with shame in my voice I told the laundress that she could cure her eczema by not wetting

her hands, and the textile worker that he could get rid of his consumption by avoiding dust-filled rooms. They only sighed in reply and, thanking me for the prescriptions, explained that they could

not change their work for they had no other means of livelihood.

"At such moments I felt a burning shame not only for my own impotence, but for the science which I served, for the meager means which it had given me."

Contrast Drawn

Thirty odd years later, Dr. Akhtyrsky, for 50 years a general practitioner in the industrial township of Moscow Province, wrote of his experiences before and after the Revolution.

Before the Revolution, he said, workers attempted to hide their illness for fear of discharge. They could not always do so and factory records often bore the notation, "dismissed because of illness."

After the Revolution, Dr. Akhtyrsky recounts, he was at last able to treat patients who were no longer afraid to tell of their pain. He worked in a modern hospital and had every assistance in stamping out disease in the factories.

All working people in the Soviet Union are entitled, through social insurance, to skillful medical treatment without charge, and thousands of medical institutions exist to safeguard their health.

An underlying principle of the Soviet health policy is to give maximum service to the workers at their work.

Each factory or other industrial unit has its own medical facilities, which vary with the size of the establishment.

But irrespective of the existence of special factory clinics, medical aid to the workers and their families is provided also by district clinics catering to the population of a given locality. In addition there are specialized institutions such as children's clinics and consultation centers (the latter for infants up to three years of age), women's consultation centers, tuberculosis and mental clinics.

The social insurance councils supervise, through their delegates, the work of the factory, district and general clinics.

So-called assistance councils are attached to each medical institution. They are made up of representatives of the medical profession, the municipal bodies, the health inspection department, and civic organizations.

Their work is to coordinate the work

of health institutions and the factory, particularly in relation to preventive medical measures.

They aid in drawing up plans for public health campaigns and in educating the workers on health measures.

These measures, designed to fight disease and industrial accidents, have an economic value as well as a humanitarian one. Many millions of rubles in sick-leave payments is saved, if disease decreases only one per cent. This money is thus released for the building of new health resorts, summer camps, and other services.

All preventive medical measures must depend on the cooperation of the workers, and particularly of the social insurance delegates and labor protection inspectors.

Their efforts are aimed at discovering the causes of sickness. For instance, skin diseases are common at some plants.

By examining the machines and seeing to it that the tools are properly sharpened, by examining the cotton waste used in the plant, and by treating the slightest scratch immediately, these ailments are reduced.

In the summer, the factory doctor and the social insurance delegates redouble their check on the kitchens and canteens, for during these months stomach disorders often increase. Dietetic feeding, already mentioned, is also an important part of preventive medicine in Soviet industry.

CHAPTER VI

During the siege of Leningrad, social insurance delegates at the "Rabochi" textile factory at Leningrad often walked half across the blacked-out city, after a long day's work, to visit the sick of the factory.

* * *

For at that factory, visiting ill workers is an old and carefully observed tradition. Even in the darkest days of the siege, it was maintained.

This was not merely a sentimental gesture. Many of the women of the plant were alone, their husbands at the front, their children evacuated, and, when ill, they needed friends.

When a woman worker was released

from a hospital during the siege, if her husband was at the front, the trade union would send someone to tidy her apartment, light a fire and prepare a meal for her. Another delegate would call for her at the hospital.

At Moscow and other cities, hospitals, on the initiative of the trade unions, have set up visiting-houskeeper service to aid sick women in caring for their houses and children.

Sick benefits, which are also paid if a worker must stay at home because of the illness of another member of his family, vary according to whether the recipient is a trade union member, and according to how long he has worked in the given plant.

Other conditions being equal, a trade union member receives twice the amount allowed to a non trade-unionist.

Benefit Amounts

In general, trade union members who have worked in the plant for six years get 100 per cent of their wages in sick benefits; from three to six years, they get 80 per cent; from two to three years they get 60 per cent; and for less than two years' continuous work, they get 50 per cent.

There are exceptions, however. Young workers less than 18 years of age are paid as though their seniority category were one group higher than it is.

Workers transferred from one factory to another, or who change jobs for health reasons, leave to study or to serve in the Red Army or workers who leave because of a change of residence, are not considered to have broken their employment records and lose none of their seniority standing. Service in the Red Army is counted in computing industrial seniority. During the war, evacuees and workers in territories occupied by the enemy were considered to have continuous work records, and their social insurance benefits continued.

Transfers Made

Wherever it is necessary, for reasons of health, to transfer a worker to lighter work, this is done. If the new work pays a lower rate, the difference is made up from the social insurance fund.

The social insurance physician is the

medical officer of the trade union and its adviser on all matters of health.

He does health educational work, consults with the physician in charge of treatment of workers, keeps factory health records, supervises diet in the factory, and so on, and has a great deal of authority in these matters.

CHAPTER VII

"Old age is no joy," runs an old Russian proverb. And, indeed, in tsarist days it was often a time of fear and hunger and frequently came prematurely.

* * *

Among the poor peasants, there were five times as many invalids as among the wealthier farmers. "The church porch and the beggar's basket" were the lot of the poor peasant in age.

The old and poor industrial worker generally had no choice but to go to the village and share the hard lot of the old peasant.

There is no fear of insecurity in age in the USSR.

Suleiman Stalsky, 75 year old national bard of Daghestan, wrote: "My country has no gray hairs. Millions, and not I alone, have found their youth once more."

The number of invalids among the aged has decreased substantially in recent years.

Pensioned Groups

Pensions in the USSR are paid, not only to the aged, but to other groups.

For the aged, all workers, regardless of the state of their health, get pensions of from 50 to 60 per cent of their earnings, provided they have worked a certain number of years.

Men get pensions at 60 if they have worked for 25 years; and women at 55 if they have worked for 20 years.

In occupations detrimental to health, pensions are paid at the age of 50 after 20 years' employment.

There are five categories of pensions besides old-age pensions. They are: invalid, dependants', long-service, personal, and Hero of Labor, pensions.

Invalid pensions vary from 33 to 70 per cent of wages, depending on the degree of disability and the work record, and in cases of industrial accidents or occupational disease may be 100 per cent.

Eligibility

The number of years' work-record required for an invalid pension varies with sex, age, and type of work. For instance, men between 22 and 25 years of age may have invalid pensions if they have been employed for four years, while women of the same age must have worked for only three.

Men between the ages of 35 and 40 are eligible for pensions if they have been employed for 10 years, and women if they have worked for seven years. For persons working underground in this age group, however, the period is six years. Lapses in employment do not break the work record, though workers employed continuously in one plant get slightly higher invalid pensions. Pensioners who continue to do part time work have certain privileges.

Long-service pensions are paid to medical workers in rural districts, and to agronomists and teachers, regardless of age or state of health, after 25 years' work. They are 50 per cent of the pensioner's average earnings.

Dependants' pensions go to persons who have lost their breadwinner. Heroes of Labor and others who have rendered special service to the country get increased pensions.

During the war many pensioners returned to work, but their pensions continued regardless of their earnings.

The pensioner is served not only through the trade unions, but by the People's Commissariat of Social Welfare and its local bodies. The agencies of this Commissariat serve the whole population, both insured and uninsured.

The work of the Commissariat is not limited simply to distributing funds allocated by the trade unions for pensioned workers, but has huge funds of its own, which come directly from the State budget. These funds maintain more

than 300 invalid homes, housing 33,000 invalids and aged persons whose expenses are covered entirely by the state. The Commissariat also has 360 industrial establishments, where old workers and invalids can work part time under healthful conditions.

With the Invalids' Cooperative Societies, the Commissariat maintains hundreds of medical institutions and a great number of mutual benefit societies.

Old and incapacitated workers who wish to continue work are given light jobs. By law, directors of factories and other institutions must find work for any partly incapacitated worker in their enterprise. This is an aid in recovery and in keeping up the morale of the crippled or incapacitated worker. Often such workers are transferred to farms. In determining what sort of work such workers should do, the social insurance council plays a leading part.

CHAPTER VIII

Social insurance always was a major demand of the Russian working class before the Revolution. Only with the Revolution itself was it achieved. The establishment of social insurance was one of the first legislative acts of the Soviet government.

* * *

The social insurance system has come through the ordeal of the war successfully. Today, as before the war, any worker in need of medical aid receives it without cost to him.

The social insurance system, on which so much of the people's welfare is based, can be considered one of the factors contributing to the magnificent morale of the Red Army during the war.

The Red Army man knew that his family would be cared for. The Red Army soldier knew what he was fighting for. He knew that the fate of his aged parents, of his family and small children, was being decided, that this war would decide the fate of all humanity.

All Soviet citizens, now that Nazism is defeated, are reconstructing their country on the basis of the gains of the October Revolution, of which social security is a vital one.

Achievements in Surgery

By Academician Sergei Yudin
Colonel, Red Army Medical Service

The aim of the modern surgeon is to combine the knowledge and latest experimental findings of the theoreticians and the observances, experience and skill of the clinical practitioner. While expertness in performance is important in any field of clinical medicine, it has a singular value to surgery.

The clinical department of the recently founded Academy of Medical Sciences of the USSR plans to undertake operations that are the peak of achievement in present-day surgery. Many of these will be daring applications of new technique. The first steps have already been taken by Soviet surgeons who in recent years have earned world-wide fame.

Who first dared to operate on the most delicate channels of the *medulla oblongata*, the lowest posterior part of the brain? Academician Nikolai Burdenko, who pioneered in this surgery, has successfully performed it time and again.

How many surgeons believed that cancer of the lower part of the esophagus could be removed by surgical intervention? Academician Andrei Savinykh, from Tomsk, showed it could be done and has since repeated the operation more than 100 times.

Consider the skillful procedure of transplanting the cornea of the eye, accomplished by Academician Vladimir Filatov. He has returned sight to hundreds of the stone-blind.

* * *

I, too, have been fortunate in having been able to make my contribution by installing an "artificial esophagus." Formerly, surgical interference in this part of the human organism failed. To date, hundreds of these operations have been effective.

It may be said that a medical skill is a gift with which only a few have been endowed. But it often happens that the unattainable becomes accessible—even to the many. This applies to surgery as well. Let the trail be blazed, let the first explorers reach the goal, and followers will be found.

In the course of the war, Soviet medicine amply demonstrated its stature before the entire world. Besides recent achievements, the great legacy left by Russian medical scientists of the past have been brought to the attention of Western Europe and America.

It was the Russian physician Preobrazhensky who, in advance of his foreign colleagues, laid the foundation for the

theory and practice of physical antiseptics. Scarcely known abroad is the dissertation by Preobrazhensky enumerating the results of his research in this field.

The internationally accepted standard for the diagnosis of peritonitis was proposed long before Blumberg by Doctor Shchetkin, of the Penza Hospital.

* * *

Most of the accepted methods of transplanting skin now in use were introduced in Russia. Academician Filatov, for example, is renowned not only for his cornea operation but also for his method of skin transplantation.

The admiration of the whole medical world was won by Academician Savinykh, who performed the operation for the removal of the stomach and esophagus on 260 patients. But a foreign journal did not even mention him in a recent discussion of the operation. Two such surgical removals done in the country where the journal is issued were described, but it was merely noted in passing that 260 had been performed elsewhere.

Medical science had a predominant role in the battle against fascism. Now we shall use our own experience and that of foreign medicine to return to normal as many of the wounded as possible.

Children Adopted

During the years of war, working peoples' families have undertaken to bring up more than 100,000 orphans. In Moscow more than 16,000 orphans are being thus brought up, and of this number, 2,156 children have been adopted.

Under existing regulations a child can be adopted only where there is documentary evidence showing that it has lost both parents. In other cases, children are handed over to guardians.

Particularly large numbers of orphans have been taken into families living in regions liberated from German occupation. For instance, 17,448 children are

being brought up by the working people of the Kursk Region; 19,474 in the Orel Region; 12,147 in the Smolensk Region; 14,648 in the Voronezh Region, and 8,921 in the Stalingrad Region.

The child is placed with the foster family after a preliminary investigation of the material and living conditions of the family which has expressed a desire to bring up the child. A system is maintained for checking regularly on the condition of the child. This is the job of the public education and public health authorities as well as voluntary public bodies.

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5

History's Morality—the Nuremberg Trial

By Ilya Ehrenburg

From IZVESTIA, December 1:

As you know, one of the "stars" of the Nuremberg trial, once the Fuehrer's "heir apparent," Rudolf Hess, is shamming insanity. He has chosen not megalomania (too late), nor vulgar imbecility (too distasteful), but loss of memory: amnesia seems to him to be the proper malady for the season. When Hess was shown a film of a Nazi parade in Nuremberg, the Fuehrer's deputy did not recognize himself. He underwent a thorough examination by experts, and this is the conclusion of prominent psychiatrists: the accused began to resort to this behavior as a means of defense under conditions in which he found himself in England; this behavior has now partly become habitual and will continue as long as he is threatened with punishment.

The experts report that Hess first "lost his memory" when he heard of the debacle of the German army at Stalingrad. So long as the Germans were conquering the world Hess remembered his titles and his income.

Fascism Forgets

He remembered that he could lose his memory only when the fascists began to suffer reverses. Later he tired of shamming as a sick man and "recovered." He "fell ill" again when the Red Army entered Germany. When he heard that the fighting had shifted to East Prussia, Hess decided to forget everything for good.

He is not alone in this desire: Von Ribbentrop recently stated that since he was an extremely nervous creature, he had been taking bromine and had lost his memory. When he heard Ribbentrop's

statement Hess could not repress an outburst of merriment. It amused him to have his idea plagiarized.

I am speaking of this not because I find interest in the tricks of this or that criminal. Hess' amnesia and Ribbentrop's partial amnesia seem profoundly symbolic to me: defeated fascism is pleading loss of memory. Ask any of the rank and file ruffians who murdered children and set fire to the cottages in Byelorussia what he did during the war; he will fervently reply: "I planted potatoes," or "I bred geese."

The war factory which happened to survive in smashed up Nuremberg is now producing cigarette cases with the inscription "Souvenir of the Nuremberg Trial." You may be sure that its manager does not remember that the factory was producing tanks not so long ago.

The malingerers are probably hoping that not only the criminals but the victims will be afflicted with a loss of memory. Hess and Ribbentrop would give much to make the peoples forget the horrible years. But the people remember everything, and page after page of the story of depravity, ferocity and malice is unfolding at Nuremberg.

Wherein lies the significance of the Nuremberg trial? Some court proceedings attract attention by their perplexity, contest of wits, elusiveness of evidence, or the personalities of the accused. Mankind passed its verdict on fascism long before the Nuremberg trial. For that matter the trial itself has become possible because peoples angered by the crimes of fascists have sworn to wipe out evil. We are listening to the chronicle of evil which we know by heart: it is written not in ink, but in blood—the blood of our dear and

near ones. We are listening to a book, the contents of which we know.

As for the personalities of the accused, what is there to be said about them? They are petty villains who have committed the greatest crimes. Each of them is psychologically and intellectually so insignificant that when you look at the dock you cannot help asking yourself: is it possible that these vicious and cowardly freaks have reduced Europe to ruins, have destroyed scores of millions of human lives?

Destruction Easy

It takes genius to do creative work. But the work of destruction requires no genius. A mere degenerate could kill Pushkin and a savage could burn Tolstoy's books. The men on trial at Nuremberg are spiritually and morally not above hundreds of thousands of their species. They are distinguished from rank and file fascists only by their greater greed, greater cruelty and concentrated malice.

Not just 20 bloodthirsty gangsters are sitting in the dock; fascism, its wolf ideology, its perfidy, its amorality, its conceit and its shabbiness are on trial.

People from all countries of the world have come to Nuremberg, not only to attend the exemplary punishment of the 20 criminals but also to unfold before nations a bloody scroll—a super story of unparalleled crime; they are here to save children from the return of the plague. We are looking at the ruins and dreaming of the cities of the future. We are seeing the masks of the infanticides and are thinking of cradles.

I do not know why the Hitlerites picked on Nuremberg: here they held their congresses, here marched the automatons with sub-machine guns who subsequently trampled out the gardens of

Europe. Some say that Nuremberg was a city of antiquities, and the fascists wanted to link up their doings with the history of the past conquests, if not with the Fuehrer's paintings. Others assert that Nuremberg was merely a railway hub with a sufficient number of hotels. I may add that Nuremberg was once known for its hangmen. The city had a museum of medieval tortures. Perhaps that was what attracted the attention of the twentieth century fiends.

The United Nations have chosen Nuremberg, or, rather, what was once Nuremberg, for the International Military Tribunal in order to try the criminals in the city where they prepared for their crimes.

The "Herrenvolk"

Goering is trying to sham nonchalance, to pretend that he does not understand why "he is being offended." He told reporters that he is "responsible only before the Germans." We will let Goering, as he contemplates the ruins of Nuremberg, recall that he had promised the Germans that not a single enemy bomb would drop on German cities. He and his colleagues may also recall the Fuehrer's words, "Only a German will carry a rifle in the future, but neither a Russian, Pole or Czech."

Before the building of the Tribunal stand Russian guardsmen with rifles. And representatives of the "herrenvolk," amid the ruins of Nuremberg, are serving coffee, shining shoes and whitewashing the walls of the Tribunal (this is easier than to whitewash themselves in the eyes of the world).

The accused do not seem too despondent. The atmosphere of the court has a reassuring effect on them: for they have been accustomed to their brand of "courts" where the doomed had to deal not with lawyers, but with butchers.

In the morning before the beginning of the proceedings the accused are engaged in lively conversation. Goering tries to entertain Doenitz. Rosenberg consults Frank. Papen instructs Baldur von Schirach. They are behaving as if nothing has happened, as if they have foregathered in the Fuehrer's anteroom and are discussing which country they are going to slaughter next. Then they are gripped by

fear. For no booty and decorations are awaiting them, but the gibbet. Immediately Ribbentrop grows 20 years older, Streicher begins to scratch himself nervously, and Rosenberg's chin droops. They are in a fever between illusory hopes of escape and animal fear.

None of them is thinking of the German people, and no former titles can conceal this one fact: before us are gangsters caught in the act, gangsters who for 12 years paraded as statesmen. Like any ordinary "fritz" taken prisoner, each of them is trying to put all the blame on the Fuehrer. Keitel, one of the pillars of the Third Reich, pretends to have been nothing but a common soldier who merely carried out orders, and von Ribbentrop insists that Hitler's diplomats are not responsible for Hitler's soldiers.

I am seeing them in the dock! I thought of this hour at Rzhev, near burning Bryansk, in Kiev, when I looked at Babi Yar, in Minsk and in Vilna. I am looking at them and I am recalling their deeds—the streets of Paris over which marched Keitel's soldiers, our girls run down by Sauckel, the grief of Poland where Frank held sway, and the ashes of the Ukraine and Byelorussia where Rosenberg raged.

Everyman to Judge

Are there just eight judges sitting in judgment? No. In the Nuremberg courtroom are my brothers and sisters, prisoners of war who were starved to death, children suffocated in murder vans, the shadows of Maidanek, Oswiecim, Treblinka, the blood of hostages, the ashes of Russian towns, and the black wounds of Leningrad. All humanity and Everyman are sitting in judgment.

There is a bas-relief in the courtroom: Adam and Eve. Perhaps it made the German thieves who were once tried here think of the original sin. The fiends who are now on trial do not need this sort of reminder; they know well enough what they were doing. No one beguiled them; it was they who beguiled millions of their countrymen. When Goering was asked what post he held in the Third Reich he began to count his titles on his fingers. He counted ten, grinned and said, "That is all." He did not forget to men-

tion that he had been "Chief of the Reich Forestry Department" and "President of the Reich's Hunting." But he did not mention the "Hermann Goering Werke."

This fat clown was involved in all the crimes of fascism—from applying the torch to the Reichstag to setting Europe on fire. When he was instructing fascist dupes to kill the defenseless, he said, "I take the entire responsibility upon myself." Now he has one desire, to escape responsibility. He is hoping that his attempts at affability will amaze, if not the world, then at least the journalists. He is flinging about smiles and sighs, just as he used to fling demolition bombs on peaceful cities. He is meekly chewing biscuits. Have we perhaps forgotten how efficiently he devoured Czechoslovakia? Did not he organize hunger in the countries which the Germans overran? Was it not he who battered upon Europe and stripped her naked?

Before the war he wrote an article titled, "The Art of Attacking." Now he keeps sending excited notes to his counsel: he is studying a new art, that of defending not Germany, but himself, for Hermann.

He was the author of the notorious "Green Folder," he wanted to turn Russia into a German colony. Now he is studying the shoulder straps on the uniforms of Soviet officers. This chieftain of fascist hordes was a paltry thief. In 1941, when the Germans were just beginning to pillage Europe, Goering boasted to Rosenberg, "I have the richest collection of paintings and sculptures." He designed cities to flames, but filled his home with paintings. He hanged girls but collected statues of nymphs. Despite prison fare, he is fat—a leech surfeited with blood. For him it will be necessary to prepare not a rope but a hawser.

Nazi "Conscience"

Hess was described by fascists as the "conscience of the Nazi Party." As if man without conscience could have conscience. During the proceedings Hess reads detective novels: he remembers everything too well, and he is reading stories of other people's crimes as a diversion from his own. As he looks at the Soviet flag next to the British, he probably recalls the

night in May and the leap to Scotland. He had expected to drink Russian vodka and smoke English cigarettes. Instead he has been brought to Nuremberg. Since there is nothing else left, he is playing the part of Rudolf the Forgetful.

Keitel in Court

Former Field Marshal Keitel is a typical bully with a square face and a square manner. He loyally served his Fuehrer and the German generals as they sat in Hitler's servant's room. Called Field Marshal "Lackeitel," he was not a mere lackey himself. He exterminated innocent people not because he was acting on orders, but because he was acting on his own inspiration. He drew up the plans of the treacherous attack on the Soviet Union—the Barbarossa Plan. It should be noted that, like the gangsters they were, the fascist chieftains used their own slang for their bloody works. The invasion of Russia was the "Barbarossa Plan," the seizure of Austria was the "Otto Plan," the seizure of Poland they called the "Himmler Affair," and the attack upon Gibraltar, which was being prepared with the aid of General Franco, was referred to as the "Felix Enterprise."

Keitel ordered Leningrad to be wiped off the face of the earth. He introduced the branding of Soviet prisoners of war. He pronounced that, "Human life is worth nothing in the East." He, however, values highly his own life. The murderer of millions would like to tarry on this earth, but the earth is opening up before him.

General Jodl is hardly behind Keitel. He also said that Russia had to be chastised with fire and lead. Now he is yawning nervously and hiding behind Keitel's broad back. But he will not be overlooked. It was seven years ago that Jodl began his upward climb in Nuremberg: here he drew up the plan for the seizure of Czechoslovakia. It is fitting that he should end in Nuremberg.

Joachim von Ribbentrop has forgotten all the refinements of the past. When he was a traveling salesman he resembled a crook; when he became a diplomat he resembled a traveling salesman. He was always late realizing his position. Now he is anticipating the near future: He is only a defendant for the present, but he



Cartoon by Y. Gans

NAZIS ON TRIAL—Here are the Hitlerite butchers, as the artist saw them facing justice at last in the dock at Nuremberg

already resembles a man who has been hanged. Occasionally, it is true, he comes back to life and tries to pass himself off as a diplomat. A naive effort, for he is too obviously a mere gangster. When he was preparing the seizure of Austria, Czechoslovakia and Poland he carried a crowbar and skeleton key beneath his tailcoat. He is the author of that rather frank statement, "Russia's grain and raw materials will suit us perfectly." He shall answer for that grain. Millions of witnesses are pointing their fingers at him—widows, orphans, the mothers who have lost their sons—all Russia.

Alfred Rosenberg was regarded by the fascists as an "expert on Russian affairs." He was a theorist of brigandage, the philosopher of pillage. A thief on a scale unparalleled in history, he philosophized, "In 20 or a hundred years, the Russians themselves will realize that Russia was to become Germany's living space." He looted wholesale and retail. He removed wheat from Russia, but he was not above stealing trifles. For example, he took care to have gold teeth pulled from the mouths

of Jews one or two hours before the "operation." ("Operations" stood for mass executions, in the language of the fascists.) He was Goering's rival; he also adored works of art. He set up a regular thief's business, "Rosenberg's Einsatzstab." He removed from the invaded countries books, paintings, and statues.

The gallery of the "aesthetes" may be enlarged to include some more specimens. The butcher of Poland, Hans Frank, a baldheaded, repulsive character, also filched a painting by Leonardo da Vinci. He said, "I cannot say how much this painting is worth, I am no connoisseur, and besides, prices for such things change; but it is certainly a valuable piece of property."

Profits of Death

Frank set up the notorious "death camps." He exterminated millions of Poles and Jews. He compiled an enthusiastic report about the destruction of the Warsaw ghetto and added that he had flooded the sewers in which survivors

(Continued on page 7)

A Caucasus Commonwealth of Nations

By Ilya Dubinsky

As far back as man remembers, Dagestan in the Caucasus has been famous for its livestock. Yet, in this field, too, the past quarter century witnessed tremendous progress. By the beginning of the war the number of horses on Dagestan farms had more than doubled since 1913 and the number of head of cattle had increased by 40 per cent. Tens of thousands of purebred cattle made their appearance, while the milk yield increased by half as much again, and the annual crop of wool doubled.

The mountains themselves dictate the two-pasture system of year-round grazing. Last autumn more than 1,500,000 sheep made the 450 kilometer trek from alpine meadows to winter pastures in the coastal plains along the Caspian.

The Shepherds

I spent one night with some shepherds I encountered near the watchtowers of Kodor pass. They were from the village of Chokh, I was told by the eldest, hook-nosed Omar Pakalov, as we sat around a blazing campfire. The village, he said, was quite near, "Only three nights' sleep outdoors, and on the fourth you will be our guest in the village."

From the once formidable fortress of Gunib, now hidden behind the buildings of a children's sanatorium, I had my first view of Chokh nestling in a natural amphitheater against the mountainside. "Chokh unvanquished," said my guide proudly as we surveyed the scene before us.

It was here, and this is but one episode in Chokh's long history, that the Persian Shah Nadir suffered defeat in 1742. Mountain annals tell us that for days the fight went on, the ranks of the hillsmen thinned, but when Nadir galloped to the battlefield at the head of a glittering suite, the numbers of defenders doubled and redoubled as women flung themselves into the fray to reinforce their husbands, fathers and brothers, and thus was decided the outcome of the battle.

One need not know the details of Chokh's history to see that its very location is unquestionably a key position for defense and to realize that it is the habita-

tion of people who do not submit to conquest.

Natural Fortress

The founders of the village did not lay its cornerstones amidst the river-front orchards along the Koisu, but clambered up the steep mountainside, protected on three sides by deep gorges, and there built their fortress homes of stone. The windows and terraces all face due south, toward Mecca, as is the case in all Moslem settlements.

Before the Soviet Revolution ushered in new times, the proud and independent mountaineers of Chokh were very poor. Men and youths were forced to leave home in search of work. That is how communities of Chokh stevedores came into being in all ports of the Black,

Azov, and Caspian Seas. Others of the people of Chokh worked in the Baku oil fields, mined coal in the Donbas or made a living as common laborers at Kharkov factories. No job was too hard for the men of Chokh as long as it was not herding sheep for the rich ranchers of their native parts. A mountaineer's dignity did not permit him to tend another man's flocks.

Today, too, there are Chokh communities outside their native Caucasus, but no longer are they bands

of exiles banished from home by want. This autumn the village gave a send-off to 29 of its youths and girls who were leaving to study in various institutes. University students are taking advantage of the new opportunities now open for mountain folk at the higher schools of Moscow, Rostov, Baku and other university cities of the USSR.

The word "village" is almost a misnomer when applied to Chokh today. If it were a little bigger it would be more appropriate to call it a town. It has a water works, an electric power station, a regular fire station and other public services. Thirteen teachers take care of the children's education. The public health services are represented by a hospital, outpatient clinic, maternity home and dispensary. A children's nursery and kindergarten has been opened. A House



A GIRL OF DAGESTAN—Dzhimia Angiyeva follows her people's tradition of fine horsemanship

of Culture has been built where local people may see the latest movies and hear visiting performers give concerts. Every home now has a radio.

War Years

When the war with Hitlerite Germany broke out, the men and women of Daghestan did their share. The men enlisted in the Army; many young women volunteered for the medical service, artillery or anti-aircraft defenses. All of which meant that the collective farms had far fewer hands than before. And, yet the Republic's agriculture, thanks to the combined cooperative effort of the farmers, not only weathered the storm of war but was able to forge ahead while the war was still going on.

Here are some indicative figures: Daghestan's cultivated area, which in 1940 amounted to 346,600 hectares and in 1943 declined to 336,000 hectares, rose to 353,400 hectares in 1944. This was 102 per cent of the 1940 level.

As for livestock raising during the war years, Dashamudin Mahomedov, the People's Commissar of Agriculture of the Republic, told me that the number of sheep increased by 23 per cent as compared with 1943; horses by 12 per cent, and herds of dairy and beef cattle by 15 per cent.

Women Active

This advance in agriculture is the more noteworthy because the boards of 70 of the biggest collective farms are now headed by women. Women are in charge of 150 livestock sections of the collective farms. Yet, it is only a comparatively short while ago that in this section strait-laced followers of old traditions would not think of sitting at the same table with women; and sons would leave home for the wars or wander for years in search of a livelihood without bidding farewell to their mothers because the touch of a woman's hands, her kisses and tears were something they had been taught to scorn.

When G. Abikh, a member of the Russian Academy of Sciences, reported in St. Petersburg 80 years ago on his trip to Daghestan, he had the following to say:

"That mountain country conceals in its depths far greater natural resources

than is commonly believed. I am certain that some day Daghestan will prosper." And he added, "That will happen when that social equilibrium is established whose absence today paralyzes the very best undertakings."

Prosperity came to this mountain country together with the Soviet system. The foundation of this well-being was the friendship among its peoples.

During the second Five-Year Plan period (1933 to 1937) capital investments in the construction of industrial enterprises increased six times over those of the previous Five-Year period, whereas for the USSR as a whole the increase in capital investments averaged 165 per cent. This was in keeping with the policy of the Soviet Government to eliminate the lag in the development of the former backwoods of tsarist Russia, now elevated to equal status with all other parts of the Soviet land.

Industry Grows

Oil, gas, chemical, metal-working, machine-building, coal, glass and building materials industries were built up in Daghestan. Textile, shoe and clothing factories went into operation. The Republic's splendid canned vegetables and fruits won a name for themselves all over the country. In the course of two Five-Year Plan periods the capacity of



STUDENT—This young man, shown learning how to handle farming machines, studies at Makhach Kala Agricultural Technicum

Daghestan's canneries increased eight times. Excellent caviar and sprats are also turned out here. Where the Sulak and the Samur Rivers, their turbulent energy spent in the mountains, make their leisurely way to the Caspian, Daghestan fishermen bring in good catches of sturgeon. This is a source of caviar. Sprats come from the fish cannery built in 1930 at Makhach Kala, the capital of the Republic. Other major developments here are wharves for fishing boats, a large cold storage and ice plant, a cannery and other enterprises of the fishing industry.

Fishing Industry

The fish wealth of the Caspian is tapped by the State fisheries and the fishermen's cooperatives. The latter may obtain either motor or sail boats, tackle and other

supplies from motorized fishing stations maintained by the State. The fisherman brings his catch to delivery stations where he is paid 70 per cent of the price of the fish in cash while the remaining 30 per cent is credited to the account of the fishing cooperative. This 30 per cent is used for rendering assistance to old fishermen and to those with large families, for the training of newcomers into the industry and for providing all kinds of cultural and educational services.

I finished my tour of Daghestan in Makhach Kala. This city was founded 90 years ago and was originally named Petroysk. The present name means "Fortress of Makhach" and was given to the city in honor of the leader of the revolutionary mountain folk of Daghestan.

The renaming meant more than just a change in names; it signified a change in the city's status and significance. No longer was it only a lookout to the incoming ship that watched for its port beacons through the night; now the whole Republic has turned to the city as its capital, and a beacon guiding the mountain peoples along the highroad of progress.

The builders of Daghestan's capital paved its streets and laid out squares and boulevards, set up water works and dug a sewer system. New houses were built and provided with gas and electricity; massive government buildings were raised and scientific institutes housed in new spacious premises.

Before the war I saw the city covered with scaffolding, as building was going on practically everywhere. During the war I saw its streets blocked by barricades and anti-tank obstacles and its crossroads guarded by pillboxes. Now again there are help wanted notices on the walls. There is no shortage of jobs for bricklayers, carpenters, painters and other building trades workers.

City's Future

On the eve of my departure from Makhach Kala, I visited a government building with the intention of getting a glimpse of what the future holds out for the Republic.

The head of Daghestan's government is Abdurakhman Daniyalov, an Avar by

nationality. Everyone in the Republic knows him. He was orphaned at 11, and at that early age he became a land worker in the mountains of Daghestan to support himself and his younger brother and sister. He got his upbringing in children's homes in Chokh, Gunib and Buinaksk.

His public career began with election to public posts in villages, followed by a minor position in the People's Commissariat of Education. From here he left for Moscow to study at the Hydrotechnical Institute. A talented student, he had the opportunity to remain there for post-graduate work, but the call of the mountains was too strong. He wanted to get back among his countrymen, to help them tap their water resources and to irrigate the arid valleys. His wide range of knowledge, irrepressible energy and rare ability to draw on folk wisdom and experience of generations, made for a brilliant career. At the age of 32 he found himself at the head of the government of the Daghestan Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic.

The Council of People's Commissars of Daghestan consists of 22 members. Fifteen of them are university graduates. The post of Vice-Chairman in charge of Cultural Development is held by Khieri Mahomedov who holds the academic degree of Candidate of Pedagogical Sciences. The Portfolio of Health is in the hands of Doctor Muslim Akhibashev who got his medical degree at Moscow University.

Three of the members of the government are Avars by nationality, five Kumyks, four Laks, two Lezghians and two Darghins.

In the office of the Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars, Daniyalov outlined for my benefit some of the plans for the Republic's future.

"Some observers on the sidelines may accuse us of violating the laws of development in leaping from the eighteenth to the twentieth century at one bound," he said. "We are indeed leaping, from primitive wooden plows to electric cultivators, and from primitive bonfires to electric cookers. Natural conditions, however, make it impossible for the mountain collective farms to use ordinary mechanization. The wide beam of the tractor plow and the combine are not suitable for steep hillsides or narrow

ledges of land on the brink of a precipice. What is practical, however, is the utilization of the small electric plow and the electric cultivator.

Electrification

"The mountain villages all have bath houses, but often enough they lack fuel in the sparsely wooded higher altitudes. Electricity is the solution to the problem. Hence, we plan to build in the mountains more than 130 small hydroelectric power stations, besides increasing the capacity of the existing Gergebil plant by two-thirds. The bulk of the farms that have joined the collectives are to be electrified.

"Electricity will plow and cultivate our soil, thresh our harvests, pump water from the gorges to mountainside villages, shear sheep and cut up silage, churn butter, dry fruit and perform a thousand and one other chores around the farm and home."

In Makhach Kala large local resources of natural gas will be used to generate electricity. A new heat and power station is to be built to meet the needs of the city's growing industry.

Among the building material plants to be built in different parts of the Republic is a large cement mill. A cannery is to be built in Kasumkent and a cold storage and ice plant in Derbent. Makhach Kala is scheduled to get an electric equipment plant as well as factories producing confectioneries and clothing. The construction of new buildings for the medical and pedagogical institutes, which was interrupted by the war, is to be resumed in the capital, and a House of Soviets, a huge stadium and a new theater are also to be built.

Daghestan builders are now working on a highway from Buinaksk to Tlokā to augment the road network reaching high up into the mountains, which was laid out during the past years. Plans already have been made for the construction of a speedway from Derbent to the Grozny Region, through the entire coastal strip.

The projects Daniyalov mentioned were only the salient ones, sure to be carried out during the coming five-year period, he stressed, pointing out that the Five-Year Plan has not been approved in its entirety as yet.

Trials

(Continued from page 3)

sought refuge. He never forgot to look after profits. He counted the pairs of trousers that had become his property after the annihilation of the ghetto and added, "Metal scrap may be extracted from beneath the ruins." Of course, he now blames everything on Himmler. He himself, you see, did not execute people, he merely "moved" people from ground into ground. He is modest . . . "I was merely an administrative dwarf." This dwarf devoured scores of thousands of people a day. In the courtroom he wears large, dark glasses. I have seen his eyes only once—the eyes of a trapped skunk.

Julius Streicher resembles an old toad. Millions of Jews of all European countries are on his conscience. He is shrugging his shoulders: what has he done? He killed no one. He only wanted to move the Jews to Palestine. But he was misunderstood. Why, he was the supporter of Herzl and the Zionists! One could hardly invent a lie more stupid, and one could hardly imagine a face more hideous. I should like to forget this toad when, like Frank and other criminals, he is "moved" into the ground.

Here is a stupid ruffian, Baldur von Schirach, incompetent versifier and organizer of the "Hitler Jugend." He has a bull's neck and blue-china eyes. Not so long ago he used to say, "We are all mortal, only Hitler is immortal." Now he is of a different opinion—he wants to live on. He described the Fuehrer's ideas as, "the ideas of a demigod." Now he says, "The Fuehrer's ideas were at times idiotic."

The Butchers

Here is an old Munich policeman—Wilhelm Frick with eyes like those of a fish. He was Minister of Home Affairs, and until 1943, Himmler was his subordinate.

Here is the butcher of the Netherlands—Seyss-Inquart, expert in taking hostages.

Here is the principal slave trader—red-haired Sauckel.

Here is the executioner of Czechoslovakia—Von Neurath. Hitler once told him, "You are a modern man, you are cold-blooded and will manage the

Czechs." Von Neurath indeed set out cold-bloodedly to murder the Czechs.

They were all "modern"; they strangled children without batting an eyelash. But their time is over. In 1937 Goering said that the Germans would wage a war "according to schedule," and that they would complete the seizure of foreign lands by 1945. He guessed the date but the results proved to be different. Not for nothing did the Red Army fight for four bitter years—it changed the German schedule, and in 1945 the supermen were seized by the scruff of their necks. Now they are sitting in the dock.

You feel the hot breath of history. The criminals will be hanged—conscience demands it. But it will be not only the fascists that will be condemned. Fascism, too, will be condemned. Those who fathered it and those who want to resurrect it—its precursors and its heirs will

be condemned. Too great are the sufferings the peoples have endured; their eyes are glued to Nuremberg.

Among them is an old Montenegrin woman whose children the Germans burned alive, and Gabriel Peris' friends, and that woman from Mariupol who told me that when the Germans undressed her little daughter the child had cried and said, "It is so cold, Uncle, I don't want to bathe." And the "Uncle" buried the child alive.

Among them is the widow of a Russian soldier and children from Lidice. All are among them, all my dear and near ones, all friends, all people with hearts, and all of them are saying: "Remove the fascists from the earth! Remove the miasma of fascism from souls and minds. Let there be stalks of grain and children and towns and verse, and let there be life! Death to death!"

Cultural Activities

New cultural activities have begun throughout the USSR. A branch of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR has opened in Kazan, capital of the Tatar ASSR, with institutes including Physico-technics, Chemistry and Biology, Languages, Literature and History. This branch of the Academy will facilitate the study and utilization of natural resources.

★

The State Literature Fund has sent 9,500,000 volumes of social, economic, fiction, scientific, technical, children's, educational and other literature to libraries in districts that had suffered from the German-fascist invaders.

★

A hydrological institute has been opened at Stalinabad in the Tajik SSR. The majority of students consist of Tajiks and Uzbeks.

★

A sanatorium for war invalids is being opened in the Gorky Region of the Russian SFSR.

Two State conservatories and several secondary music schools are functioning in the Lithuanian SSR. Vilnius Conservatory trains musicians in three faculties: piano and organ playing, vocal orchestral composition and choir conducting. The Conservatory has 180 students.

★

The Academy of Sciences of the Lithuanian Soviet Republic has established five new research institutes: Chemical, Geological and Geographical, Biological and Experimental Medicine, History and Ethnography.

★

Twenty thousand students of higher educational institutions have begun studies in Lvov. Many of them had spent the past four years on the fronts and in guerrilla detachments. The city now counts 11 higher educational institutions, including the State University bearing the name of the poet Ivan Franko, and the Ukraine's oldest polytechnical and medical institutes.

Arctic Farming

In the mountainous taiga—92% of the surrounding territory covered by forest—is the city of Irkutsk. The scene is grim and majestic. The villages clustered along the railway lines and the Angara, Lena, Ilim and other great rivers.

Here, in the zone of eternally-frozen soil, agriculture is confronted with every disadvantage—a short growing period; a dry summer; a region of eternal frost.

To cope with the climatic conditions and to develop special varieties that could withstand the rigorous environment, seed selection stations were set up. Administrative bodies and collective farms have worked for some time to build up their own seed stocks. By now the entire territory has been sown with "Siberian seed," as a result of the effort of the selection station, 16 district seed farms, State seed fields and 28 testing laboratories.

During the past few years a number of new varieties of grain, vegetable and industrial crop varieties have been produced—all highly useful to Siberia. "Udarnitsa" early wheat is proving fully a match for the former early-ripening champion "Sibirka," and "Tulunka" wheat is displaying superiority in certain features over the old "Balaganka."

New high-yield barley and oats are being grown more extensively. Hundreds of thousands of hectares have already been sown with the varieties of the Tuluna station, which is now working on several new types of perennial grass and potatoes. Hardy peas have been successful in Eastern Siberia. In the majority of the northern and wooded regions of Siberia the Canadian "Garnet" wheat has been most adaptable.

The raising of vegetable seed has progressed well on the collective and State farms of the region.

The Harvesting Campaign

Pravda writes editorially about the harvesting campaign: "In the Patriotic War, due to the collective farmers' effort, the Red Army never felt a food shortage. The collective farms and the State farms supplied the urban population with food, and industry with raw material.

General Djanelidze Decorated

By Lieutenant Colonel Zakhary Firsov

The highest Government award for outstanding civilian achievement, the title Hero of Socialist Labor, which confers the Gold Hammer and Sickle Medal and the Order of Lenin, has been awarded to Lieutenant General Justin Ivlianovich Djanelidze, Chief Surgeon of the Soviet Navy.

Since it was instituted, in 1940, the title has been awarded to 183 men and women, among them four medical scientists, Burdenko, Bogomolets, Abrikosov and Djanelidze. Lieutenant General Djanelidze, received the honor "for outstanding services in the development of Soviet surgery and for improving the organization of surgical aid in the fleets and flotillas of the Navy during the Patriotic War."

Justin Djanelidze was born in 1883 in the Georgian town of Kutaisi, and received his early education there. He then studied in the Kharkov Medical College, but soon went abroad and received a degree in medicine at the Geneva University in 1909. From there he went to Moscow and a year later passed the State medical examinations with honors. He subsequently took a Doctor of Science Degree in medicine at the Medical Academy in St. Petersburg. At the outbreak of the First World War the young surgeon was working in the clinic of the St. Petersburg Medical School for Women. All through the war, he held the post of Chief of the Ambulance Train. In 1921, Djanelidze was appointed a professor at the surgical clinic of the Leningrad First Medical College, where he has lectured for more than 20 years.

In 1939 that Djanelidze became Chief Surgeon of the Navy. He was already a prominent surgeon whose scientific authority was recognized. He has written 52 scientific works. One of the first to operate on the human heart, he is the author of a brilliant monograph, *Surgical Treatment for Wounds of the Heart*. After the publication of this work, operations of the heart became widely practiced.

But the most fruitful period of Djanelidze's scientific activity was in the Navy.

In his work, *Foreign Bodies of Firearm Origin in the Lungs and Pleura*, he pointed out the seriousness of chest-wound cases, of which 55 out of every hundred succumbed. Until recently, no uniform opinion existed among surgeons as to how to deal with foreign bodies in the thoracic cavity—whether they are to be surgically removed or not. Over 100 experiments with wounded sailors convinced Djanelidze that foreign bodies in the lungs or pleura must be removed by operation.

Djanelidze perfected the technique of skin-grafting, studied the system of operating on the large blood vessels, defined the procedure for dealing with the presence of bullets or splinters in the thoracic cavity and suggested a new method for thigh amputations. A piece of the thigh bone about five or six centimeters long is removed, and after suitable treatment it is grafted onto the thigh like a hammer head onto a handle. By means of an ingenious method of grafting, it adheres to the thigh so firmly that no supplementary means of holding it in place are required. The result is a much stronger stump with a fairly large supporting surface to which to attach the artificial limb.

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The Friendship of the Peoples— A Source of Soviet Strength

By I. Ranevsky

The Soviet Union emerged the victor from the hardest war known in the history of mankind. In four years of bitter fighting against a very strong enemy the Soviet Union has shown that it is a formidable power capable of withstanding the hardest military trials. This war revealed the tremendous vitality of the political and economic system of the Soviet Union.

The most important factor, decisive for the course and outcome of the war, was the friendship and unity of the Soviet peoples.

A multinational population was always considered a symptom of weakness in any state, tsarist Russia not excluded. In multinational states there was always one dominating nation, while the rights of the national minorities were restricted. Fomenting national discord, the incitement of one nationality against another—such were ordinarily the methods of administration practiced in multinational states; and a similar policy was pursued by the tsarist government of old Russia.

Soviet Principles

The Soviet Government came into power in October 1917 and proclaimed a national policy based on the following principles:

1. Equality and sovereignty of all peoples of Russia.
2. The right of all peoples to free self-determination, including the separation and formation of independent states.
3. The abolition of all and every national and national religious restriction.
4. Freedom of development for all national minorities and ethnic groups inhabiting the territory of Soviet Russia.

Consistently, the Soviet Government carried this declaration into effect. Lenin personally handed the representatives of the Finnish people the act in which Finland was declared an independent and sovereign state. Nevertheless, the mere granting of equal rights to all peoples inhabiting Soviet Russia was not enough to efface actual inequality. There was still economic and cultural inequality to be overcome, a very difficult task indeed.

At the time of the Great October Socialist Revolution, which placed state power in the hands of workers and peasants, the Russians were economically and culturally on a far higher level than the other peoples of the country. The Russian people had already made a vast contribution to the treasure store of world culture. They created remarkable material and spiritual treasures: rich literature, progressive science and splendid art.

In the course of the nineteenth century alone the Russian people gave the world such poets and writers as Pushkin, Gogol, Tolstoy, and Dostoyevsky; such brilliant composers as Glinka, Mussorgsky, Rimsky-Korsakov, Borodin and Tschai-kovsky; artists Surikov, Vasnetsov, Repin, Kramskoi and Serov; scientists Lobachevsky, Mendeleyev, Sechenov, Mechnikov and Pavlov.

The Russian people gave the world such great generals as Suvorov, who led the Russian troops across Europe—men who knew no defeat as Kutuzov, the conqueror of Napoleon, and others.

The Russians exerted a great cultural influence on all the peoples of the country. All the progressive achievements of these peoples were nurtured and inspired by the humanitarian ideas of Russian

literature, always free from haughtiness towards other peoples with a lower cultural level.

Russian progressive thought, inasmuch as it was reflected in literature and art, has always advocated humaneness and sympathy for the downtrodden and oppressed, regardless of national or racial distinction.

Russia Leads

Even during the times of tsardom, these qualities won the Russian people the sympathy of all the peoples inhabiting the Russian empire. The Russian people rightly occupied the leading place in the country's life. The progressive sections and the working people of Russia were the first to begin the revolutionary struggle against tsardom and the chauvinistic bourgeoisie. Precisely, from the midst of the Russian people came such remarkable representatives of the liberation movement as Chaadaev, Belinsky, Chernyshevsky, Dobrolyubov and Herzen—men who dedicated their lives wholly to the struggle for a new, free, cultured, democratic Russia.

When, under the leadership of Lenin and Stalin, this struggle was crowned by the victory of the Revolution in 1917, when the old regime was overthrown and replaced by the new government of working people, none of the peoples sought separation from the new Russia.

The masses of all nationalities expressed their will to form together with the Russian people the single state which now embraces the 16 Union Republics.

The population of the Soviet Union is made up of Russians, Ukrainians, Byelorussians, Letts, Estonians, Lithuanians, Uzbeks, Turmenians, Kirghiz, Tajiks,

Armenians, Georgians, Azerbaijanians, Tatars, Bashkirs and scores of other nationalities.

Today, too, the Russian people occupy the leading place in the country. Nevertheless, they are no longer a dominating nation, but the first among equals. All the peoples of the Soviet Union, down to the smallest nationality, enjoy equal rights. The Constitution of the USSR permits no national or racial restrictions. The fomenting of national discord is considered a crime in the USSR.

The Revolution opened before all the peoples of Russia opportunities for public and state activities. Local administrations were formed of people familiar with the language and life of the population. A vast chain of national schools, with instruction in various native languages, was opened to promote the education of national executives and statesmen. This was not confined to elementary and high schools.

Culture Preserved

Colleges, libraries, museums, theaters and clubs appeared in the national republics. Extreme care was taken to preserve the cultural heritage of every people. Many nationalities received their ABC's for the first time in their history. Books, newspapers and magazines are now being published in the languages of all the peoples of the USSR.

Of decisive significance for the elimination of economic inequality of the peoples was the industrialization policy. A vast construction program was launched by the Soviet Government in all the national republics. Energetic steps were taken to explore and tap their national wealth. A higher pace of economic development was secured to these republics to help them overcome their backwardness and attain the level of the most progressive ones. Whereas, in 1913, the gross output of large-scale industry for the whole USSR was 10.9 times greater than that of 1913, the corresponding increase for the Kazakh Republic during that period was 22.2 times; for Armenia, 22.3 times; Georgia, 26.4 times; Kirghizia, 160 times; and for the Tajik Republic 242 times!

Under Soviet power, petty farming in the countryside gave way to large-scale

mechanized and intensive agriculture.

Within ten to fifteen years the Soviet Union changed beyond recognition. It developed into a strong industrial power with a large-scale mechanized agriculture. The most remarkable result of these transformations was the disappearance of the actual inequality of the peoples. All peoples of the USSR, including the most backward nationalities of tsarist Russia, emerged on the highroad of culture and progress.

All Equal

The Brotherhood of the peoples of the Soviet Union has been welded and strengthened in this struggle for a new, bright, cultured and prosperous life. Freed from national and economic oppression all peoples, regardless of nationality or religion, received the opportunity for developing their talents and their abilities in any field of political, economic or cultural endeavor. The former mistrust and discord between the peoples was replaced by the strong moral and political unity which has become the distinguishing feature of Soviet society and the source of its invincible might.

All the peoples of the USSR feel that they are equal members of one great fra-

ternal family, the sons and daughters of their common motherland—the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. This same moral and political unity has become the source of that vigorous Soviet patriotism which during the war called to life mass heroism on the front and in the rear.

Having treacherously hurled its hordes against the Soviet Union, the Hitlerite clique was calculating on a split in the family of Soviet peoples. These calculations were doomed to shameful failure. The friendship of the Soviet peoples has been further tempered and strengthened in the flames of war, during which the whole Soviet country was transformed into a single military camp. All the peoples of the Soviet Union were represented by soldiers of the fighting and labor fronts.

In its struggle the Red Army was backed by the inexhaustible strength of the Soviet rear. The rear and the front were united and unwavering in their determination to smash the enemy, to destroy and oust him from the country. Victory was born of this unity and determination.

In peacetime, too, the unity and brotherhood of the peoples of the Soviet Union remain the source of the country's power.

A Riviera of the People

The south coast of the Crimea has long been famous throughout the Soviet Union as a health resort. It is protected by mountains on the north, is open to the south, has a soft, equable climate, rich vegetation and an abundance of sunshine.

As a legacy from tsarist Russia the coast has a number of royal palaces, villas and mansions. During the early years of Soviet power the palaces and the larger villas were turned into health resorts for the people. The Crimean coast became a favorite Soviet playground.

The destruction wrought in the Crimea during the war by the Germans makes it necessary to reconstruct the whole holiday coast and to build new health resorts. M. Ginsberg, of the Academy of Architecture, has been placed in charge of planning the work.

The central part of the coast—the Yalta, Alushta and Gurzuf sections, which

are well protected from winds and has a climate like that of the Mediterranean—will be reserved for medical institutions. The eastern and western stretches of the coast, with their invigorating climate, strong winds and steady sunshine, will be the preserves of holiday-makers.

The foothills, with their healthy climate, fresh sea breezes and woodland, are planned as health resorts for consumptives.

Beyond the sanatorium region the cultivated zone will begin—first grapes, then tobacco closer to the mountains. Still higher are vast forested parklands.

Lastly, there is a belt made impassable by avalanches and landslides, where it is planned to plant rubber-bearing plants which do not need good soil, but which aid in holding soil and preventing landslides. Thus, all of the territory of the Crimea will be usefully employed.

Day of Reckoning—the Nuremberg Trial

By Ilya Ehrenburg

The writer who is partial to the exotic might find many curious things in Nuremberg. I am living like many other journalists in a hotel where American officers and experts from the law courts have been put up. In the evening the bar is filled with a polyglot crowd drinking cocktails, while half-naked girls sing English songs with a marked German accent and "Aryans" of various genuses perform Negro dances.

The hotel itself looks luxurious, but there is no roof, the staircase is still piled with debris and ascent to the upper floors is a series of exercises in equilibrium. The city is no longer a city, but trolley cars are running among the ruins and souvenirs are sold in the few shops that remained standing after the bombardments.

Citizens try to give the impression that they take no interest in the trial, but the prosecutor refused to notify the counsel for defense of the arrival of witnesses for the prosecution, justifying this by the fact that Nuremberg was a hotbed of fascism.

Under the debris rats swarm, and among the rats are the "werewolves." The building in which the Tribunal is held has suffered damage, too. The courtroom is well furnished, but its long, frosty corridors are strewn with rubble.

The conduct of the defendants is perhaps the most exotic thing of all. Of course there was a time when Seyss-Inquart was a lawyer, but he was not thinking of Roman jurisprudence while he tortured Dutch hostages. Now, when he is brought before the courteous judges, the hangman has recollected law. Yes, the gangsters pretend now to be versed in law; their counsels refer to this or that article of the code.

The Defendants

When a letter exposing the criminals was read, the lawyer in the black gown rose to his feet and declared that if the writer of the letter had known it was to be made public, he would have written differently. It is easy enough to agree with that.



LIBERATION—Soviet scouts are greeted at Czestochow as the country is freed of Nazi armies.

Exotic is a term that might be applied to Frank, hangman of Poland, who, when he saw the films on the German concentration camps, began to wipe his eyes with his handkerchief, as though he did not know the reason why the cabbage flourished so luxuriantly in the gardens of Maidanek.

On hearing the order concerning the murder of Soviet war prisoners, Goering, to whom it must have sounded very familiar, looked nonplussed and remarked to Ribbentrop, "How dreadful."

I continue my tale of the fantastic.

Some of the most prominent psychiatrists in the world gave long consideration to the question of whether Hess was responsible for his actions; pages were

written about his pulse. Then, unexpectedly, Hess got up and declared that he was tired of acting like a madman.

The most monstrous depredations and the pettiest rascalities are interwoven. The question of the havoc wrought in Europe is interspersed with talk of whether Fritsche approved or disapproved, in confidential conversation, of some circular or other of Keitel's. The generals' counsels assert that the SA (Storm Troopers) are to blame for everything, whereupon the counsel for SA hastens to explain that the SA were lambs and that the SS (Elite Guard) were to blame for everything.

The moral baseness of the defendants stresses still more strongly the sinister

ineptitude of events to which neither heart nor reason can become reconciled. Thus, we learn that Goering, who ruined half of Europe, bargained over a tea service he once bought. Streicher, who was responsible for the death of millions of Jews, is an ignorant provincial with a criminal record: he was tried in this same city 20 years ago for the defloration of a child.

One of the witnesses, a general from the German intelligence, exposes Keitel as the person who ordered the death of Soviet war prisoners and British parachutists. You must not imagine that this German general's conscience troubles him. No, he hastens to explain, the intelligence officials were interested in live war prisoners.

When the question of the branding of Soviet war prisoners comes up, we hear an explanation by the author of the order, Field Marshal Keitel: this is a most unfortunate misunderstanding. It turns out that at the end of 1940, Keitel issued an order to kill General Weygand, then in the unoccupied zone of France. At that time, the Hitlerites did not know that Weygand presented no danger to them. Keitel protests: "No such order exists in the form of writing."

Ribbentrop assures us that in attacking Poland he had no intention of wronging people; he bore no ill will to any Polish Jew. Apparently, ashes and blood, gas chambers and tank ditches in which people were buried alive, are merely an "unfortunate misunderstanding."

Nazi Crimes

In Nuremberg we are not seeking the exotic, but justice. The trial is slow in unfolding. It is a trial of the whole of the Third Reich: in addition to a score of blackguards, the German army and the fascist system are brought to trial. That is why scandalous items are combined with history lessons at the sittings.

We learn that after conceiving the attack on Poland, the Germans acquired Polish military uniforms. We learn that long before the war the German intelligence maintained a gang of Ukrainian traitor wreckers. We learn that Ribbentrop studied the best way of instigating the Italians against the Yugoslavs. We learn that German military authorities

issued official orders to kill all "Bolshevik" prisoners.

The crimes of the Germans will provide material to talk about for months, and still the theme would not be exhausted. But apart from particular depredations, there is a general crime: Germany started the war for the purpose of conquering Europe. The defendants are anxious now to come out high and dry from the sea of blood. They declare that they cannot be judged because no German law exists forbidding them to attack other nations.

Clearly, no such law existed or could exist in Germany. There is a law for all honest nations and the verdict on the German aggressors will be contribution to international law: in the future, others will think things over before loading their bombers.

The executioners, Frank, Streicher, Frick, Neurath and Seyss-Inquart will continue to throw the blame on each other, or on the dead, up to the very end. Goering, Keitel and Jodl have resolved to deny the principal charge of aggression. It appears that they attacked simply in self-defense.

The seasoned Schacht listens attentively in this line of argument. He has never thrown anyone into a death wagon or even engaged in torture. He was only the financier of the robbers and hangmen. He does not disguise the fact, he admits proudly, that with the aid of a bogus organization, "Mefo," he collected 12 milliard marks for the arming of the Third Reich.

When the film *The Hitlerite's Atrocities* was shown at the trial, Schacht sat with his back to it, to show that this did not concern him. Nevertheless, he aided the Reichswehr to attack other states, and if the Hitlerite hangmen were enabled to murder Frenchmen, Poles and Russians, it was because Schacht kept them supplied with money for it. That is why one of the main threads of the trial is connected with the somewhat vague personality of Schacht.

He must not end his days quietly in an almshouse. Though he may have killed no one, and may not even have known of the existence of Maidanek, he is answerable for the death of many millions of people.

Can he turn his back to the ruins of Europe and say that this does not concern him?

So, let us lay light exotic things aside. Let us forget now the individual depredations. Let us look into the essence of all that took place. The malefactors at the bar are cynical. They did not act in a fit of passion, but deliberately and for a mercenary aim.

Essence of Crimes

By straining a point, *Mein Kampf* could be called literature. But the declarations that Hitler made before the Second World War cannot be called literature: "Our tasks can only be carried out by attack; questions can be settled only by the sword."

Keitel and Jodl translated the Fuehrer's words into the language of wedges, flanking maneuvers and pincers; Goering prepared the annihilation of hundreds of cities; Ribbentrop bore the cares of smoke screen declarations, negotiations and agreements, while the peaceable Schacht found the cash.

At the same time, Schacht knew perfectly well what Keitel was doing, while Ribbentrop, signing the usual non-aggression pacts and clinking champagne glasses, smiled and repeated to himself the Fuehrer's words, "We observe agreements only as long as they are expedient."

They had different names for preparations for aggression: the "Barbarossa Enterprise," the "Otto Plan." Sometimes the names were changed.

I could not restrain a smile when I learned that primarily the plan of attack on Russia was known to German generals simply as Fritz. They never suspected then the role that word was to play in the expulsion of the Germans from Russia. . . .

This, by the way, is not at all funny. No matter how they termed the attack on our country, whether it was the "restoration of the East," "Fritz" or "Barbarossa," for us it can only mean that Sunday morning, the ruins of cities and the graves of our kindred.

There was the "Grueue Plan," for the seizure of Czechoslovakia. There was the "Marita Plan" for the destruction of Yugoslavia. There were the "Shark" and "Harpoon" plans of attack on England.

They planned their attacks on the conveyor system: after congratulating their generals on France's capitulation, Hitler told them: "New tasks are awaiting you in the East."

Soviet Campaign

In August 1940, they were working out the details of the campaign against the Soviet Union. In April 1941, the German command was sending out circulars about the economic organization of Baku and Yaroslavl.

Admiral Raeder tells us that the Hitlerites had long intended to attack Russia, and once when Hitler was told that a beautiful sanatorium had been built in the Caucasus, he replied, "We will have to hurry up."

They were in a hurry to attack us because we had built a good sanatorium; because we had built new cities; because in 1941, we saw the first fruits of those trees which we had tended with such care, with such self-denial, with such love. That is why it is hard for me to tsk-tsk off the murderers. How can their wretched lives redeem what they have done?

The malingering Hess asserted that the International Tribunal was not competent to try him. At the beginning of the trial the judges gave an answer to the attempts of the defense to deny the Tribunal's competence.

I am not a lawyer, and the things I want to say have nothing to do with the articles of the code. I want to remind you once more of the simplest thing: each and all of us peoples of the Soviet Union and the peoples of other states who are aware of the baseness and cruelty of the invaders are competent to judge these criminals and the Reichswehr and the Reich and Schacht, the financier, and the whole fascist party. No one can deprive us of this right. We have entrusted it to eight judges because we believe that there will be no discrepancy between our indignation and the exact observance of all laws.

I have travelled a great deal about our country. This summer, I saw once again the ruins of Orel, lifeless Kreashchatik, disfigured Odessa, the wounds of Leningrad, Bryansk, Smolensk and Minsk. We understand each other without long speeches, and the names alone of the



Cartoon by Kukryniksi

NAZIS. The artist here has drawn Goering and Hess in the prisoner's dock, their day of reckoning come at last.

towns remind us of everything and make us live through it all again.

It was hard for me to find among my friends one family that did not feel the emptiness of an unoccupied place at the table on holidays. I knew young boys from the Institute of Literature who wrote good verse, the passionate and diffident verse of first youth. They perished. Perhaps a new Pushkin might have emerged from their mist. I cannot tell, but I do know that the mothers of these young people have the right to judge Keitel or Goering.

Right to Judge

I have that right, too, and all our people have that right. And we have the right to judge Schacht for the ruins of ancient Novgorod, for the hungry winter in Leningrad, for the graves, for the burnt down village of Vassilkovo or Petushki, for Olya or Tanya who were done to death by the Hitlerites in this same Nuremberg; for all our sleepless nights, for the anguish we suffered when letters did not arrive

from the front, and for the great grief of a mother when she read, "Died heroically . . . for his country."

And not we alone. When I was traveling, recently, through different countries, I saw the traces of the fascist invaders' black deeds everywhere. The living towns differed in appearance, but how closely the ruins resembled each other. I was in Montenegro, a poor country with bold, proud people. The largest town, Podgoritsa, is ruined.

Villages are deserted: the villagers either died in battle, or were done to death by the Germans. There is hunger and sorrow there: then are not the Montenegrins competent to judge the authors of the Marita Plan?

I went to my favorite square in Prague and saw that devastation that was once an ancient city hall. I met friends, but the Czech writer Vanchuri was not among them; he was shot by the Gestapo.

Bulgaria, Yugoslavia and Rumania are ragged and barefooted—who robbed them? Immaculate von Papen who never

forgets even now to keep a crisp handkerchief in his breastpocket; the precise Herr Schacht.

The fascists killed 600,000 Hungarian Jews. In Szeged I saw some of those who escaped. They had neither wives nor children, nor kindred—they were left desolate like lone trees in a forest that has been hacked down. Perhaps they are not competent to judge Streicher, Ribbentrop or Frank?

Slovenia has no books: the Germans burned them. Pleasant, simple-hearted Slovakia is laid waste. The wounds of once beautiful Budapest gape still; and I cannot forget the bronze statue of a girl that escaped destruction by some miracle among the ashes of old Buda. I remember, too, another statue of marble, that of the goddess of Peace, in the park at Pushkin. Bronze and marble . . . and how many living girls were killed? Their hair was shaved off before their execution and sent to German naval offices.

Victims Judge

Perhaps we are not competent to judge Raeder or Doenitz. In Yugoslavia there is a district called Lika; I should say here there used to be such a district. I met a woman from Lika; her seven children had all been killed by the fascists. I have just spoken of statues—this woman was a Niobe of flesh and blood. She is not here in Nuremberg; but she, too, would be competent to judge the criminals.

The competence of the International Tribunal was established by lawyers, and it is not for Hess, who has suddenly remembered everything—even the articles of the code—to argue with them.

There is another simple conclusion: the people are competent to judge murderers; this is the ABC of every code of laws.

The Germans ruined the sanatoriums, the children's homes and schools. They killed our children. Then we swore to fight for justice and win it though it cost the life of each of us.

The way to Nuremberg Tribunal led across the bodies of our kindred, through the blood of our children, from the ditch at Kerch, from the gallows at Volokolamsk, from the ashes of Istra. We have brought justice to that gloomy, grey house; and every man in the Red Army is competent to judge the criminals. This is the day of reckoning.

V. L. KOMAROV, SCIENTIST DIES



VLADIMIR KOMAROV

Death has robbed us of Vladimir Leonovich Komarov, one of the greatest men in modern natural history, dean of Soviet naturalists, eminent Russian explorer, President of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR for many years, and an outstanding public figure. A younger contemporary of Mendeleev, Sechenov, Pavlov and Timiryazov, Komarov was one of the greatest scientists of the Stalinist epoch.

Vladimir Komarov was born in Petersburg in 1869. In 1890 he entered Petersburg University and began a systematic accumulation of material for the further development of Darwinism. During his university years, Komarov formed the advanced social ideas which led him to the camp of the most revolutionary minded scientists of the century.

From 1895 on, Komarov did his remarkable research on the vegetation of the Far East. The first volume of his monumental work, *Flora of Manchuria*, was published in 1901.

The *Flora of Manchuria* became a classic offering, the basis for further work in this direction; and today, scientists speak of two distinct periods in the research of the flora of this territory—the "pre-Komarov" and the "Komarov" periods.

In 1902 Komarov established indisputable proof of the existence of an ancient icefield in the eastern part of the Sayan Mountains, thus confirming the

hypothesis of the eminent Russian geographer P. A. Kropotkin.

In 1905 Komarov undertook the capital research of the vegetation of China and Mongolia. This cycle of research brought Komarov to the theory of the "migration" of plants.

In 1908-09 Komarov wrote the three-volume work, *Flora of Kamchatka Peninsula*, which contained descriptions of 825 plant species, including 74 new species described for the first time.

The Great October Socialist Revolution marked the turning point in the creative work of Komarov. Freed from the limitations which fettered the work of any radically minded scientist, Komarov occupied the Chair of Botany at Petersburg University where he created the most important center of advanced botanical thought. Komarov became an eminent expert on the theory of the formation of the species. His *Teachings on Plant Species* has become the handbook of every Darwinist.

In 1914 Komarov was elected a Corresponding Member of the Academy of Sciences, and in 1920 he became a Member of the Academy. In 1930 he was elected Vice-President, and in 1936 President, of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

He was the initiator of highly important research in many branches of science, the organizer of expeditions, the founder of local branches of the Academy. A scientist of the great Stalinist epoch, he was an outstanding public figure, a deputy of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

During the war Komarov was one of the initiators and leaders of research connected with the mobilization of the resources of the country's eastern districts for the needs of defense. A sick man, yet he gave his strength unsparingly to practical work, to public addresses, to the leadership of the Academy's many institutions.

In the last months of his life, Komarov asked to be released from his duties as President of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, in view of his ill health.

A City Revives

By Alexei Covalev

The Soviet city of Novorossisk is situated on the Black Sea coast, surrounded by picturesque mountains. Its harbor has been famous since ancient times and ships of all countries have moored in its waters.

Like all other old cities of the USSR, Novorossisk has gone through two unequal periods in its history: centuries of provincial life in tsarist Russia and a quarter century of tempestuous and rapid development in the years of Soviet power. On the eve of the war, Novorossisk was an important port and vital industrial and trade center of the Soviet South. It was known for its cement works and first class grain elevators, its excellent resorts and famous champagnes. The cultural growth of the city kept abreast of its industrial development.

The city's secondary schools were attended by 1,500 children. Its pedagogical institute, industrial polytechnical school, agricultural school and art school were functioning. In the evening, the city was brightly illuminated and its theaters, cinemas and clubs were crowded.

War Comes

Then war broke out. On September 10, 1942, the vandals broke into and burned the city. That was a mournful and never-to-be-forgotten day for its people. The Germans did not succeed in capturing the entire city. Part of it, including the October cement works and surrounding territory, remained in the hands of the Soviet people. They barred further advance of the occupationists. A small group of valiant people concentrated on a piece of ground, half a kilometer in size, and kept the Germans from passing. This territory was known as Malaya Zemlya, or Little Land.

The struggle for the city did not cease during the whole of the 370 days that Novorossisk was occupied. The October plant, which formed the forward fringe of defense, became a miniature Stalin-grad.

In September 1943, Novorossisk was finally freed from captivity. On entering the liberated city, we looked upon a scene of utter devastation. Nothing remained of it but ashes and ruins. Of a population of 100,000, only one family, consisting of a woman, her children and the old grandmother, remained.

They were near death and starvation when we found them in a cellar on the outskirts of the city. Then we discovered the graves of hundreds of Soviet citizens who had been shot to death by the Germans.

We were overcome with grief, but life went on and demanded prompt and decisive action. The population began to return. For a whole year, they had suffered all sorts of hardships while hiding from the Germans in surrounding suburbs.

The losses inflicted on the city by the occupationists were estimated at 640 million rubles. At first, the city offered no dwelling space suitable for habitation. Since winter was drawing near, people began to close up gaping holes here and there and to repair roofs in order to shelter women and children. Meanwhile, the population grew hourly; and the difficulties of supplying them with the necessities of life kept mounting.

The problem of light was solved, at first, by small mobile engines which furnished flickering, temporary light. When the city's water supply was restored, it was no small victory. Network water mains, which had been damaged in many places by bombs and shells, were repaired by the combined efforts of the population and Red Army men.

Then we rehabilitated the radio network and the people could hear the news and music again. Now there was light and water. People were getting freshly baked bread, for one of the first things we did was to rebuild the bakery. The port, with its ruined power station and empty skeleton of cement works became a beehive of activity.

Veteran workers directed the repair work which went on under the open sky, in the frost and snow. Friendly hands were stretched out to us from all parts of the Soviet Union. Trainloads of material and provisions began to arrive. We were touched by the friendly aid of our American friends who sent 29 tons of clothing and footwear in those difficult days.

After Two Years

Two years have passed since the liberation of Novorossisk. During that period, its population has increased to 60,000 and its total dwelling space to 182,000 square meters. Eight schools were opened and 5,500 children resumed their studies. Picture houses, two clubs and a palace of culture were opened.

In 1944, special building organizations were moved into Novorossisk to restore the port, industrial enterprises and municipal economy. The grain elevator and the plant producing spare parts for farm machinery went into operation; and the cement works partially resumed operations. All this was accomplished through tremendous effort. The inhabitants voluntarily devoted 140,000 hours of their time to helping rebuild the city. Of course, comparatively little was achieved and we are hoping to do much more. By a special decree of the Soviet government, Novorossisk has been granted substantial monetary and material aid, as well as technical means for restoration work.

The project of the reconstruction of Novorossisk is headed by Academician Joffan, famous architect.

The city is rapidly being rehabilitated. It will not be long before the terrible traces of the German invasion are erased forever. But an obelisk, which is being erected in the center of the city in honor of the heroes who fell in fighting for Novorossisk, will always be a reminder to the coming generations of the courageous struggle waged for the freedom of the Soviet people.

Sporting Talk—*The Dynamo Team*

By Stander

The Dynamo soccer team is due to return home soon from its visit to Great Britain, after tying with the best eleven in Scotland. The Glasgow Rangers undoubtedly gave the Soviet team the hardest fight it had had in the course of its visit. The Scottish footballers had acquainted themselves with Dynamo's style and were able to counter it with a strong defense.

Fatigue due to the rapid succession of games, and the fact that two of its players, Solovyov and Trofimov, had to be replaced because of injuries sustained in a previous game, told on the Dynamo eleven who were unable to capitalize on the two-goal lead they scored in the first half.

The Dynamo team members enjoyed their stay in Britain and admired London.

"Houses like Leningrad's, streets like Moscow's", one member of the party commented. The friendliness of the people was often remarked.

The Players

Members of the team have many interests besides football. Vassily Kartsev, who plays right inside, is an enthusiastic chess player.

Mikhail Semichastny, the captain, is an engineer-planner, a building expert, and thought much during the British tour about Moscow building projects he is working on.

Mikhail Yakushin, the trainer, was anxious to return to the USSR for the opening of the ice-hockey season—for he is the best hockey center-forward in the USSR.

The most abstracted of the players during the tour was Sergei Solovyev, left forward, whose wife was expecting a baby soon. How could his thoughts be anywhere but in Moscow?

Everywhere the players were asked for autographs. The Dynamo badge, which each of them wore, served as a universal introduction. Britons bridged the gap of language to make their friendship plain wherever the Soviet players went.

Personally, I do not belong to the cate-

gory of fans who regard Dynamo as invincible and can talk of nothing else but the 19-9 score it chalked up in the four games it played in Britain. After all, we saw Dynamo beaten this past season on two occasions by the Red Army footballers, while a number of other teams gave them plenty of trouble.

For that matter, the Moscow Dynamo and all other Soviet soccer players are far from losing the ability to see their own shortcomings just because they performed well in Britain. They are aware of their strong points and weak spots. They know wherein lies the strength of the English and Scottish players; and they realize that they will do well in future international meets only if they keep on perfecting their game.

I will not err in claiming that Dynamo's success is the success of the Soviet school of soccer. Some say that there is a great affinity between the style of Dynamo and that of the Scottish players. Even the colors of the Glasgow Rangers and Dynamo are the same. These mere coincidences, however, give us no insight into the essence of Soviet soccer.

I have it on authority of Mikhail Yakushin, Dynamo's coach, that for virtuosity in handling the ball, technical skill and tricks, many British players are superior to the Dynamo eleven. What makes for the strength of Soviet soccer is its teamwork. The principle of collective play is the guiding one in Soviet soccer. A player must not only be good in general, he must be good for a particular team. This is the principle on which the teams are formed and trained.

A case in point is Kartsev who for a long time was just an ordinary player on the Locomotive Eleven. His abilities as a first class footballer were brought out only this season when he joined Dynamo.

A manager of a Soviet team is interested in getting players who fit in with the style and tactics developed by his team, as integral parts of it.

Soviet soccer knows no "stars" for whom other members of the team are expected to do hard work.

British sports commentators made a special point of the fact that Kartsev and Bobrov always ran back to help their halfbacks when Cardiff attacked. This is in line with another principle of Soviet soccer which demands that players carry a full load throughout the 90 minutes of the game and binds them to come to the aid of their teammates, under all circumstances. Each player feels responsible for the entire team.

Other Factors

If you add to this splendid physical training, stamina, quick orientation, the ability to adapt oneself to his opponent's tactics and an indomitable will to victory, you get an idea of what it was that enabled Dynamo to make up for some of its technical shortcomings.

There is no doubt that the performance of the Dynamo team in Britain has shown the Soviet school of soccer to be among the leading ones in the international arena.

Eight years ago M. I. Kalinin said that: "Soviet soccer players have to become the best in the world." Dynamo has done a good deal toward realization of this wish. In any case, the 19 goals they drove home on British fields may be regarded as sort of a gift to the Soviet president on the occasion of his recent 70th birthday.

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5

The Great Victory at Moscow

By Major General N. Taleksky

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The anniversary of the Red Army offensive which began in Moscow on December 6, 1941 has been celebrated. This was not only the first turning point in the course of the Soviet-German war but also in the course of the Second World War in general.

The Red Army had been withdrawing under the pressure of superior enemy forces and under these difficult conditions, stemmed the advance of the main storm troops of the German army in Moscow, itself assumed the offensive and struck the enemy a crushing blow.

Since then, four years have elapsed. The great battles of the Soviet-German war have ended, Hitler Germany has been laid low; imperialist Japan, Germany's last and strongest ally, surrendered unconditionally under the blows of the Red Army and Allied forces. The Soviet people are rebuilding the economy ruined by the war in regions that suffered German occupation, are building up a new way of life and are realizing the fruits of our great victory.

This victory was won by the unremitting labor of our people, the blood of our finest sons, by the fighting efficiency of the Red Army, the wise leadership of the Bolshevik party and the statesmanship and military genius of Stalin.

Path of Victory

We marched to victory by the long and tortuous way of war. On this path, the Battle of Moscow occupies an important place. This was our first brilliantly won battle; the first victory that was apparent to all; the first occasion on which the enemy missed fire; the first check to the hitherto all-conquering Ger-

man war machine; the collapse of the main political and strategic plan of Hitler and his general staff.

Moscow held an important place in Hitler's calculations and in his plans for "blitzkrieg." Germany's "Barbarossa Plan" for attack on the USSR, says that the capture of Moscow "means decisive political and economic success, and is, at the same time, the destruction of an important road junction."

The "Barbarossa Plan," made public at the Nuremberg trial of major war criminals, was drawn up in December, 1940. According to this plan, the enemy's major operations were to be developed north of Polessye. The German forces concentrated at this point with especially strong panzer and motorized formations, and were given the task of destroying the Soviet forces in Byelorussia.

After this, the strongest units of mechanized formations were to turn north and cooperate with the northern group of armies operating from East Prussia and in the general direction of Leningrad, to destroy Soviet forces in the Baltic Republics and to seize Leningrad and Kronstadt. The "Barbarossa Plan" stresses the point that only after these objectives had been seized should the attacking German Army be turned on Moscow. "Only sudden, swift destruction of resisting Russian forces can justify our attack on these two objectives simultaneously."

Today, it is difficult to say whether this plan contains more of Hitler's adventurism or of the German general staff's overconfidence, with its "patented means of achieving victory."

History has no such example of rapid and decisive collapse of battle plans as

the defeat of the Hitlerite armies in 1941. Although in past history, we find a number of instances of the collapse of war plans where "everything went smooth on paper, but pitfalls were forgotten," it is worthy of note that the authors of such plans have almost always been Germans. Weiroter and Pfuhl have gone down in history as the authors of plans that showed a greater lack of talent than any others ever compiled.

Germans Fail

Before the eyes of our generation, the notorious Schlieffen Plan was adopted by the Germans during the First World War, and submitted to a historical test. This plan was praised to the skies in German military literature, but was, in actual fact, built on a foundation of sand: brilliant schemes and decisive formulations could not compensate for the fact that it was not in accord with real military-political and military-economic conditions of war.

In the present war, the latest "patented means of achieving victory"—"blitzkrieg"—did not save German imperialism. These "patented means" proved impotent in the war with the Soviet Union. Nevertheless, conditions under which we fought, especially during the first phase of the war, were extremely difficult. The enemy threw tremendous forces into his offensive.

"The army," said the Barbarossa Plan, "must use all forces at its disposal, except those that are essential to defend occupied territory against unexpected eventualities. The chief task of the Luftwaffe is to employ huge forces in the eastern campaign and to cover the ground forces so that operations on the

ground will develop rapidly."

It will be remembered that the German hinterland was not subjected to the blows of the Allied ground forces until 1944, and that "the radical turn in the situation on the Soviet-German front came fully one year before the opening of the Second Front, when the Hitlerite troops disgracefully started rolling back before the powerful and ever growing Red Army onslaught." (Molotov.)

The Task

During the first phase of the war, Soviet strategy had to cope with a task of unparalleled difficulty. We had to preserve the power of resistance possessed by our units deployed in the frontier zone, until such times as mobilized Red Army formations could reach the front line. It was necessary to prevent the enemy from reaching the most important centers of the country—Moscow and Leningrad—toward which he was driving. At the same time, preparations had to be made for the solution of the main problem—the decisive defeat of the enemy.

During the early months of the war, the skillful features of Stalin's strategy became clear as it, step by step, consistently foiled German strategic plans. The Germans had expected that their first gigantic blow would sweep the Red Army from our western frontiers and open the way for the unhindered advance of the German troops into the interior of our country.

The ratio of forces was proving very unfavorable, and complicated. The operation of withdrawing our troops from the frontier zone and retaining a considerable number of formations in fighting shape was, in itself, a problem of great difficulty. This problem was solved successfully. The retreating Red Army, and newly mobilized formations that were brought up, formed an effective barrier for checking the further advance of the German armies.

The Supreme Command of the Red Army, therefore, effected important changes in the general situation at the very beginning of the campaign. Nevertheless, the Germans continued to follow their own plan: They considered that our

troops in Byelorussia had already been routed, and that the time had come to put into effect the second point in their plan of strategy—the capture of Leningrad.

According to the "Barbarossa Plan," the German command intended to turn the strongest part of their mechanized formations to the north toward Leningrad, after the operation in Byelorussia had come to an end. Hitler's plans, however, were thwarted by Stalin's strategy; the main German forces to the north of Polesye were forced into a long and difficult battle in Smolensk which had not been foreseen by the German plan.

In August, 1941, the Seventh German panzer division lost all of its tanks and 60 per cent of its manpower, in the battle of Smolensk. The German command withdrew its division from battle to reinforce it. The 20th German panzer division lost more than half of its tanks.

Stalin's wise strategy, the heroic resistance of the Red Army and the active character of its defensive operations consistently balked the plans of the German command. The self-sacrificing struggle of our troops in Byelorussia, in the Baltic Republics and at Smolensk weakened the blows which the enemy aimed at Moscow and Leningrad. The German command expected that the forces of their northern group of armies, the 16th and 18th, strengthened by the fourth panzer group and three divisions of the third panzer group, would be sufficient to take Leningrad.

Our Supreme Command, the Red Army, and the gallant Leningraders erected another impregnable barrier. The city was bravely defended and the Battle of Leningrad engaged strong enemy forces. A subsequent attempt of the enemy to effect a sudden, deep, enveloping movement around Tikhvin led, in the final analysis, to the defeat of the Tikhvin group of German armies.

The Barbarossa Plan failed; Leningrad stood firm. The Hitlerite staff, however, did not understand what had happened, as they were too deeply immersed in their own strategic plans and obviously overestimated their successes.

According to the German plan of attack, the drive on Moscow should have

followed the seizure of Leningrad and Kronstadt. When Germany hurled its heavy forces against Leningrad in order to capture it, the battle was proceeding at Smolensk, engaging the central group of German armies which was driving toward Moscow, north of Polesye. The enemy developed its efforts in two directions simultaneously, toward Moscow and Leningrad. This variation of plan was provided in the vent of "an unexpectedly rapid collapse of Russian forces of resistance."

Actually, there was no question of "collapse;" on the contrary, the resistance of the Red Army was constantly growing and had brought the German offensive in both strategic directions north of Polesye to a standstill.

In the Battle of Smolensk, one of the hardest fought of the whole war, our troops withstood the onslaught of the enemy and caused him heavy losses, which enabled us to gain about two months. All of this, naturally, had great effect on the course taken by the subsequent Battle of Moscow.

At the very beginning of this great patriotic battle, it could be seen that the main German strategic forces directed against the USSR were insufficient to win the war. The German command was forced to transfer its divisions from occupied countries in western Europe and from other sectors of the front.

Moscow Threatened

The details of the Battle of Moscow are already well known and we shall not deal with them here. The Germans developed a drive of tremendous strength, but they were met by the courageous resistance of our troops on well-built and deeply echeloned defensive positions, which the people of Moscow had labored selflessly to build.

Thanks to their overwhelming superiority in numbers, the Germans succeeded in reaching the distant approaches to Moscow. They did not, however, achieve their strategic objective: they did not defeat the Soviet troops near Moscow and occupy our capital.

The task which the Supreme Command of the Red Army placed before the troops on the western front, at the

time commanded by Army General G. K. Zhukov, was as follows: they were to exhaust the German storm troops, inflict the greatest possible losses, and prevent the Germans from seizing Moscow. This was a task that had to be carried out with the greatest possible economy of forces, in order to retain them for the subsequent crushing blow against the enemy.

On November 16, 1941, the Germans, having strengthened their storm troops with new formations and replaced their heavy losses, launched their second attack on Moscow. This battle reached a high point of intensity. On the flanks where the Germans had deployed their most powerful storm troops, they succeeded in getting even nearer to Moscow, but again the advance cost the enemy terrific losses. From October 20, when the plans and strength of the enemy were known, our Supreme Command began final preparations for a determined counter maneuver which was to bring about a radical change in the course of battle. Even earlier, large operative reserves had been brought up to Moscow. By December 1, troops on the western front had been strengthened by three fresh armies. Two of them were deployed on the right wing of the front and one on the left wing.

Reinforcements Arrive

At the moment of crisis in the Battle of Moscow, when the German storm troops had been considerably weakened by the stubborn resistance of the Red Army, the Soviet Supreme Command was able to effect a considerable increase in Red Army forces fighting in Moscow, by sending up fresh troops. This circumstance was the skilled maneuver which led to the defeat of the German flank groups and decided the outcome of the Battle of Moscow in our favor. Comrade Stalin, who had remained in Moscow all the time, gave constant guidance to the battle. The defeated enemy was thrown back from Moscow to positions on the rivers Lama, Ruza and upper reaches of the Oka, and later, during the Red Army's January offensive, was forced to retreat further westward.

What were the chief results and lessons to be learned from the Battle of

Moscow? What was its effect on the course of Soviet-German warfare?

The chief significance of our victory in the Battle of Moscow is that it led to a complete collapse of the main political and strategic plan of the enemy, the plan for the lightning defeat of the Red Army and the subjugation of the Soviet Union. The result was that our Army gained faith in its own strength, and was confident of the reality of its ability to crush the German invaders.

Offensive Begun

The defeat of the Germans at Moscow, which exposed the legend of invincibility of the German war machine, had tremendous effect on the international political situation. This victory made possible the consolidation of the forces of the United Nations. It created the possibility for the development of active anti-fascist struggle in the countries oppressed by Hitler Germany.

The victory of the Battle of Moscow is the high point in the titanic effort made by the Red Army in active defense. As the starting point of our first offensive campaign in the winter of 1941-42 it had a tremendous strategic influence on the whole subsequent course of the war. This was seen, first of all, in the reduction in scope of offensive operations that the enemy was able to undertake thereafter. The victory of the Red Army in Moscow took the strategic initiative away from the Germans for almost six months; and, although they were able to create difficult conditions on the southern sectors of our front in the summer of 1942, our defenses on the central and northern sectors remained intact. The Germans no longer had sufficient strength to shake our defenses on these sectors.

The Moscow battle is a brilliant example of the combination of the tremendous efforts on the part of the Army and the people for a solution of defense problems.

In response to an appeal issued by the Moscow Committee of the Communist Party, hundreds of thousands of Moscow people went out to build defenses.

"Thousands of housewives left their

children in the care of old people and went to the defense of Moscow," reports one divisional engineer. "Thousands of students left their classrooms to join the labor front. Here we saw mothers with their children and grandmothers with their grandchildren. Whole families were working together. Everybody wanted to do what he could to help defend his native city of Moscow; even those who had never held a shovel or pick before did from 120 to 150 per cent of their required quota and for two and three weeks did not leave the fortifications to go home."

The victory of Moscow showed the superior fighting qualities of our soldiers, their determination, self-sacrifice and courage. It must not be forgotten that at this time we did not have that abundance of equipment which we had during the latter part of the war; and the superiority in manpower was not very great.

Stalin's Genius

The victory at Moscow bears witness to the great strength of our State, which under conditions of unparalleled difficulty, was able to cope rapidly with a situation which in the words of Stalin, had at some moments been desperate.

At the same time, the Battle of Moscow was Stalin's school for Army leaders. It was an examination in the art of conducting operations; and our generals passed it with flying colors.

Our victory in the Battle of Moscow was a triumph for Stalin's strategic genius. With unusual foresight, great clarity and profundity, he made clear the socio-political, as well as strategic, nature of the war; he faultlessly recognized its basic factors, picking out those which were of decisive character. With great penetration, he laid bare the enemy's plans. With exceptional wisdom, Comrade Stalin laid down our general strategic line for the conduct of the war; he brought all the forces of the country into motion, put that line into effect and consistently, stage by stage, directed it.

Our victory at Moscow was the first important stage in the Red Army's path to victory. It is indivisibly bound up with the name of Stalin.

The Life of a Soviet Ballerina

By Olga Lepeshinskaya

Solo-Ballerina of the Moscow Bolshoi Theatre

It seems to me that the impulse to dance came to me as soon as I had learned to walk.

I was born a year before the Revolution and I did not have to fight for my happiness. Our fathers and grandfathers won the right to a happy life for us.

I am only one of many in our country. The representatives of my generation have won much greater fame in other fields—on construction sites, factories and plants, on the battlefields of the Great Patriotic War. The military exploits of our young people would fill a countless number of volumes.

I was born in the city of Kiev on September 28th; I was a plain, snub-nosed, tiny baby with a large, clearly defined birth-mark on my forehead in the shape of a five-cornered star (when my grandfather learned of the remarkable shape of this mark, he jokingly called me the forerunner of the revolution).

One evening, when my mother and sister went downstairs to have tea with a doctor and his family and to listen to music (the doctor's son played the violin well and his sister the piano), I crept out of bed, and to the sounds of the music I began to dance.

Later my mother told me that when they came upstairs they found a little figure in a wide, white nightgown moving slowly and rhythmically in unchildish self-oblivion and ecstasy. Then, for the first time my mother believed in the strength and vitality of the dance in the nature of her daughter. Our neighbor—the wife of the artist Fedorov—herself a former ballet dancer of the Bolshoi Theater, advised my parents to send me to a choreographic school.

The School

My joy was boundless. And coming to the class, I took hold for the first time of the wooden rail which since then has become my daily work-bench, at which the main figures of classic dancing are practiced.

The Moscow Choreographic School has always been a well-ordered organism

which provides the main cadres for the classic ballet of the Bolshoi Theater. From it came such stars as Ekaterina Geltzer, Vasily Tikhomirov, such excellent artistes as Vera Roslavleva, Alexandra Balashova, Victorina Krieger, Anna Fedorova, Vladimir Ryabtzev, Maria Reizen, Margarita Kandaurova, Anastasia Abramova, Lyubov Bank, Valentine Kudryavtseva, Nina Podgoretskaya.

From the very first year, the curriculum of this school includes in addition to the elements of classic dancing, music (piano), foreign language, the art of make-up and needlework. General educational subjects are taught in accordance with the program of the ordinary middle schools. The last three years are devoted to the study of special subjects: the history of the theatre, art, painting and general advanced subjects.

From the second class on, the children take part in real performances as part of their practical training. Theater-goers frequently see tiny gypsies or cupids on the stage of the Bolshoi Theater (the ballet *Don Quixote*), little mice or

Hop o'my Thumbs (the *Sleeping Beauty*). These roles are taken by children between the ages of 10-11 years, pupils of the choreographic school.

I remember my first appearance before the footlights. The performance was *The Queen of Spades*. In the ball scene, the children play the part of the cupids. Wearing short tunics, with arrows in their hands, they appear on the middle of the stage, run between the lines of the corps-de-ballet, execute a few simple pas, and then disappear behind the scenes. I was the first, the one appointed to lead the other little girls.

Childish Tragedy

I flew out onto the stage and was apparently so dazzled by the brilliant lights and the strangely-dressed people around me, that I began to run. I hit somebody in the stomach and fell flat in the middle of the stage, losing not only my arrow, but all self-control. Later, they found me in a dressing-room, sobbing my heart out. At home, I told my tragedy.

Leading Leningrad teachers—Chekrygin, Monakhov—joined our staff. Victor Semenov was appointed art director. A wonderful dancer (he had just left the stage at that time), a first-class teacher, a man of iron discipline, exacting and just, he became the heart of our school. We feared but loved and respected him. With the coming of Semenov, the entire system of teaching classic dances changed. Leningrad had long been famous for its ballet school. From the St. Petersburg ballet came dancers whose names were world famous—Anna Pavlova, Olga Preobrazhenskaya, Matilda Kszesinskaya, Tamara Karsavina, Mikhail Fokin, and many others.

To convey this system of experience to us, young dancers, to teach us the technique and fine art of this school, fell to the lot of Victor Semenov.

This was further facilitated by the arrival in Moscow of Marina Semenova—the wonderful Leningrad ballerina who taught our youth her brilliant technique, faultless form and severe, chaste



OLGA LEPESHINSKAYA

movement. It was also facilitated by the arrival of the excellent teachers from Leningrad.

The school flourished. Two years slipped by, and graduation time approached. We were standing at the "gates of the kingdom." A year before graduation, we began to rehearse Tchaikovsky's ballet *The Nut-Cracker* in school. The chief role of Princess Drazhe was given to me and my class-mate Galina Petrova.

The Debut

My first real role was that of Liza in *Vain Precautions*. The charming, ethereal figure of this mischievous girl attracted me greatly.

The old ballets are, undoubtedly, wonderful and a ballerina cannot be considered a master of her art if her repertoire does not include these classic works. But I think that the heart of each Soviet artiste holds the innermost wish to create the role of a character near to Soviet life, to the modern epoch.

I would like to speak of two modern ballets: *Svetlana*, and *Scarlet Sails*.

Svetlana, is the daughter of a forester, who lives with her father in the taiga near the frontier of our land. While her father is away, the enemy creeps up to her little hut. She enters into single combat with him, but the enemy conquers, as he is strong . . . the girl faints and the enemy, thinking her dead, runs away. *Svetlana*, however, recovers, rallies all her remaining strength and sets fire to her home, thus signalling to the border guards that the foe is near. The ballet ends in a glad dance—the meeting between *Svetlana* and the boy who loves her. The enemy is caught, the girl has done her duty.

I am deeply grateful to the producers for having given me the opportunity of showing the Soviet audience the figure of a girl whose nature is so near to the young Soviet generation.

Our latest production is Vladimir Yurovsky's ballet *Scarlet Sails*. The scenario is based on the novel of the same name by Alexander Grin. Although the action takes place in an imaginary country, the entire conception of the play, the struggle between good and evil, the triumph of joy and justice, make it har-



BALLET—Olga Lepeshinskaya on the stage of the Bolshoi Theater at Moscow

monious with the epoch. The ballet was staged during the war.

In the first days of the war, when the roar of German planes was heard in the air, when the first groups of orphans arrived from the Baltic Republics and Byelorussia, when our near and dear ones, our friends and comrades went off to the front, it seemed impossible to dance again.

At the Front

Once we were seeing a battalion off to the front, which included many young people of our district. Suddenly, somebody said: "Please, Comrade Lep-

eshinskaya, dance for us before we leave!" In my street dress, to the accompaniment of a concertina, I began to dance. I don't remember what I chose, I think it was a Caucasian dance. But I remember that soon I was no longer dancing solo—other artists joined me, the dance became a general one.

In August 1943 I toured the front. In a valley surrounded by high poplars, I danced for the men on the bare earth and although the dust flew up from under my dancing slippers, nothing mattered. Then we visited the flyers. Near the aerodrome a club had been formed

in a semi-wrecked house. Several rooms were more or less intact. We chose one for a "green-room". A tablet bearing the German inscription "Smoking Forbidden" still hung on the wall and it served as a footboard on which to rest our dancing slippers. With what pleasure I stamped it underfoot.

I have experienced much happiness in my 28 years of life.

I recall 1937. At the Kremlin, Mikhail Kalinin was waiting for us. He met us warmly and heartily—on that day he was to hand us our orders. Kalinin's voice seemed to come from very far away. He was congratulating us. Then he stretched out his hand and as you clasped it, the ground grew firm under your feet, and his words came very clearly: "Go on working, Lepeshinskaya, we shall always watch you with pleasure!"

In 1939, I was nominated as candidate for Deputy to the Moscow Soviet. It seemed easier to dance the whole of the *Sleeping Princess* twice running, than to make a speech at a meeting here and tell all about myself, about the happiness it gives one to serve the people.

In 1941, the Stalin Prize was first awarded to representatives of science and art. I was among those so honored.

Another important event in my life took place in October 1941. I was awarded the title of Honored Artiste of the Republic. To the troupe of the theater which at that time was in Kuibyshev, far from Moscow, at a time when it seemed that the theater and actors were not of supreme importance, the award of these titles brought deep joy and new strength.

The war is over. We are rejoicing in victory. The doors of our theaters stand wider open than ever, the lights flash, and triumphant music lauds the victory of the great ideas of justice, freedom and human happiness.

Red Star Decorated

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR has decorated the newspaper *Red Star* with the Order of the Red Banner, for its work in political education and in perfection of military training of Red Army personnel, and for preparing Red Army men, officers and generals for the complete rout of fascist Germany.

Soviet Children's Books

Soviet poet and author of children's books

By Samuel Marshak

In pre-Revolutionary Russia books for children came out in printings of usually three and never more than five thousand copies and were, therefore, accessible only to children of well-to-do urban parents. Now children's books can be obtained in the most out-of-the-way parts of the country, in villages and workers settlements, and millions of copies are in demand. I was told by publishers that 25,000 copies of a book would hardly suffice for Gorky Street in Moscow.

The founding of the big State Publishing House for Juvenile Literature was preceded by a very unusual questionnaire. Maxim Gorky, one of our great Russian writers, appealed to the children of the whole country through the medium of newspapers with the question: which books did they know and love, and what kind of new books did they look for from writers?

The thousands of replies that were sent to Gorky were written on scraps of ruled or squared paper, on leaves torn out of exercise books, and were sometimes supplemented by a drawing or a diagram. They expressed a variety of requirements; some demanded heroic stories, others amusing stories. Some asked for explanations of how metals and oil were formed; some wanted to know all about the life of a tiger, and others were interested in fish and the kind of bait needed for them. They also demanded information on how the earth was formed and everything that could be told them about planets.

Maxim Gorky replied to his young readers through *Pravda*, thanking them all for their letters.

"It is a very good thing," he said, "because now the Children's Publishing House knows what it has to do and you will soon have some very interesting books. A report was read on your letters at the Writers' Congress."

The publishing house was confronted with the task of giving a picture of the whole world.

We aim at giving our children the best of the world's literature as well as the

best of what is written here.

It is perhaps most difficult of all to collect or create a library for little ones. For by no means can every writer find his way to the heart and imagination of his reader, or rather listener.

But the few poets who have found their way have become great favorites with the children of town and country. Verses of Korney, Chukovsky, Sergei Mikhalkov and Agnes Barto are known by heart. Arkady Gaidar who fought and died heroically was one of the talented authors of school tales that appealed to the older reader. Leonid Panteleyev has written some stories both amusing and heroic. Leo Kassil is a very well known and experienced narrator. These writers know how to talk to Soviet children; they are their elder comrades, their talk is exciting and goes well.

In Gaidar's story, *Timur and His Team* he created a character who became the initiator and leader of a social movement among children and young people. The most touching thing about this was that millions of children believed in the actual existence of Timur and his team, and many of them wrote to him asking to be accepted on his team or be given advice and tasks to do.

Valentine Katayev, who is a writer of keen observation, has drawn in his novel, *Son of the Regiment*, the picture of a boy who was left an orphan and destitute and was adopted by a regiment at the front.

Many books of the type that popularize science among youthful readers have been written by Soviet authors. It would be more correct to call their work scientific literature than popular science. Milyin, one of those authors, was awarded a few years ago the American Book-of-the-Month Club prize for his book *Great Plan*, which is called in America the ABC of Soviet Russia. In the New York *Herald-Tribune* competition held last year his book *Fairy Tale Riddle*, written in cooperation with Elena Segal, won a prize. His books are translated into every language.

Industrial Crops Commissariat Formed

By P. Ivanov

A major development in Soviet agriculture is the formation of the People's Commissariat of Industrial Crops Cultivation of the USSR, by an edict of the Government dated November 11. The new Commissariat is to take charge of the production of cotton, sugar beet, flax, hemp, tobacco, tea, rubber-bearing plants and a number of other industrial plants as well as take over the leadership in sericulture. So far, these branches of agriculture have been the concern of the People's Commissariat of Agriculture.

The establishment of the new Commissariat is to be explained both by the increased scope of industrial crop cultivation in the USSR and by the significance attached to its further development.

Before the war the Soviet Union occupied third place in the world as a cotton producer, being topped only by the United States and India. For an average yield, however, the Soviet Union was second only to Egypt. It may be of interest to recall that the USSR's share in world cotton production rose from 3.9 per cent in 1929 to 10.3 per cent in 1937.

Soviet cotton-growing areas were already technically rather well equipped at that time. They were served by 480 machine and tractor stations operating more than 40,000 tractors, more than 12,000 improved seeders, over 10,000 cultivators and a large number of cotton-picking machines and other implements. Further strides were taken during the third Five-Year Plan period which began in 1938, and cotton growing continued to expand.

War Interrupts

The outbreak of war, however, disrupted the normal course of development undertaken in cotton cultivation. The collective farms of Central Asian republics were compelled to expend a good deal of effort to increase grain growing in order to eliminate the need to ship in grain from the central regions of the USSR. Less mineral fertilizers were available; there were less workers for the cotton fields; the number of tractors dwindled at the machine and tractor sta-

tions; and the collective farmers found themselves with less horses than they had before. All these factors could not but have effect on the cotton yield.

As soon as the war ended the restoration of cotton growing began to be pushed, and this year the collective farms of the Central Asian and Transcaucasian Republics have made substantial progress in boosting the yield of cotton. Many of these farms, and even whole districts, have already raised crops approximating the prewar level.

The task ahead now is not only to regain the prewar level. The program outlined for development of the Soviet Union's textile industry demands further increase in cotton production and it is this that forms one of the principal tasks of the new Industrial Crops Commissariat.

An enormous amount of work still lies ahead in the rehabilitation and further development of flax-growing and linen production. When war began the Soviet Union had 5,200,000 acres under flax as against 2,500,000 acres in 1913. This was nearly five times as much as all western European countries had all told.

Flax Increases

The gross harvest of flax fiber likewise grew greatly. Whereas old Russia obtained an annual average of 330,000 tons of flax fiber in the years 1909 to 1913, the Soviet Union raised its annual total to 560,000 tons by the eve of the war with Hitlerite Germany. Accounting for about 80 per cent of the world's total, the Soviet Union held the leading place as the producer of flax fiber.

It must be stressed that flax growing, too, was greatly advanced and modernized during the prewar Five-Year-Plan period. As many as 720 specialized machine and tractor stations with over 30,000 tractors were set up. Thousands of other modern machines were introduced in the flax growing areas.

Deep-going changes took place in the primary processing of flax. If in 1928 only

3 per cent of marketable fiber was mechanically processed, by 1940 more than 500 factories were operating in this field. These plants made extensive use of the latest in machinery which greatly increased the output of long fiber. The result was both a rising production of flax fiber and improvement in its quality.

The leading flax growing regions, Pskov, Kalinin and others, suffered heavily under German occupation. Now they are confronted with the huge job of rehabilitating and further developing the cultivation of this crop.

Sugar Beets

No less important than cotton and flax is sugar-beet growing. On the eve of war the Soviet Union held first place in the world as a sugar beet producer. The area it had under this crop amounted to about one-half of the world's total. The bulk of the sugar beet plantations, however, were in the Ukraine and in Kursk and Voronezh Regions which the Germans seized in the early part of the war. It is difficult to point to another branch of agriculture that suffered as heavily from invasion as sugar beet growing.

This is a crop that requires more labor to cultivate than most others; it requires a great deal of draft power, mineral fertilizers and machinery. The fascists wrecked the sugar beet collective farms and ruined their plantations, slaughtered or herded off the horses and smashed the tractors. This made the rehabilitation of sugar beet cultivation difficult indeed.

The collective farms are now overcoming these difficulties and are on their way to revival, thanks to the substantial aid accorded them by the Government. However, a good deal of effort must still be invested before the yields are brought back to prewar levels.

The establishment of the People's Commissariat of Industrial Crop Cultivation will undoubtedly play an important role in the restoration and further development of the production of sugar beet and other industrial crops in the Soviet Union.

Notes on Soviet Life

An outstanding Russian writer, Sergei Sergeyev-Tsensky on the occasion of his 70th birthday has been decorated with the Order of the Red Banner of Labor for his fruitful literary work of many years. Sergeyev-Tsensky is known as an author of historical novels the last of which, on the Sevastopol siege of the last century, has been an outstanding best seller.

★

Thirty thousand Lithuanian peasants received long-term loans and grants for the restoration of their farms demolished by the Germans. Twenty-six million rubles have been issued in such loans this year. With these funds the peasants built and reconstructed over 10,000 homes and farm structures and acquired 8,000 horses and 13,000 cows.

★

Veterans returning to Yakutia in the last sunny days before the end of navigation arrived at Yakutsk by boat and then were flown to their homes. The collective farms are building houses for them and supplying stocks of firewood and foodstuffs.

Among the Yakutians who have come home are veterans of the battle of Stalingrad, Kiev, the Crimea, Budapest, Vienna and Berlin.

★

In the Soviet Union the families of servicemen, soldiers and officers who perished in the war and war invalids are the objects of special attention.

In the Tajik Soviet Republic, for instance, the citizens of town and village recently collected over 3 million rubles in cash, 1,847 head of cattle, about 400 tons of grain, 127 tons of vegetables and 20 tons of dried fruits. These were delivered to the aid fund.

About 6,500 apartments for such families have been renovated and repaired, supplied with fuel for the winter, and in rural localities families have also been provided with fodder for their horses and cattle.

New machinery is now being introduced to accelerate the process of tunnelling and tube laying.

At the Central Park of Culture and Rest station a powerful shield which will greatly speed up the work of tunnelling has been installed.

Between the Kaluzhskaya and Serpukhovskaya stations an erector has gone into operation. This is a new machine designed by Soviet engineers and made of domestic materials.

With the aid of the erector the Metro builders can accomplish up to two meters of tunnelling per shift. The productivity of labor will be increased two or two and one-half times.

★

The State Publishing House of Fiction and Art has brought forth a number of new books by Estonian writers, including the fourth edition of *War and Makhtra* by Eduard Vilde, and an anthropological work, *On Tasua Trails* edited by the poet Y. Kyarner. There has been a second edition of stories by August Jakobson, *Harbor in Mist*. An adaptation of *War and Makhtra* for the stage, by Paul Rommo, is also in print.

★

A volume of the selected works of Adam Mickiewicz, the Polish poet of the nineteenth century, is being published in Russian by the Moscow State Publishing House.

The works of Mickiewicz have always attracted the attention of Russian poets. His poetry has been translated into Russian by the great Russian poets Pushkin and Lermontov and by the modern Soviet poets Aseyev, Antokolsky and others.

The best translations have been compiled and submitted to the press.

★

The Odessa Astronomical Observatory marked its 75th Anniversary recently. Professor V. P. Tsesevich, director of the observatory, has made 120,000 observations during the past 23 years. Scientists are at work compiling a catalog of the precise location of 645 stars.

Excavations of the world's northernmost glacial age settlement were made by members of an expedition of the Academy of Sciences and of the Tagil Ethnography Museum. The settlement was found on the bank of the Chusovaya River near the village of Ostrov. The Soviet scientist Bazer, in charge of the investigations, reports: "We have studied the area at a depth of 16 meters and have discovered many stone implements and bones of the reindeer, polar fox, wild horse, mammoth, rhinoceros, wolf and other animals. This site is the most ancient settlement known to the Urals, it is about 25,000 years old, and is a camp of ancient hunters."

★

A record was set in the Ukraine recently when Sokolov, a bricklayer who is also an instructor of Stakhanovite methods, with the aid of three helpers laid 19,579 bricks in 6 hours 20 minutes, thus doing 1,179 above his quota. He had an audience of over 150 bricklayers, plasterers and engineers. Sokolov's methods will soon be introduced into general practice.

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Stalin's Birthday—December 21

Joseph Vissarionovich Stalin (Djugashvili), the great continuator of the cause of Lenin and leader of the peoples of the USSR, was born on December 21, 1879, in the town of Gori, Georgia. His father was a working man of peasant origin.

At the age of 15, Stalin joined the revolutionary movement. From 1898 to 1900 he conducted workers' Marxist circles and headed the revolutionary Marxist wing of the first Georgia Social-Democratic organization, known as *Messameh Dassy*. His activity as a professional revolutionary dates

from 1901. He founded the revolutionary organizations in Transcaucasia which supported the policy of Lenin and his newspaper *Iskra*. In 1903, while in exile in Siberia, Stalin established connection with Lenin. He met Lenin personally for the first time at the Conference of the Bolshevik Party in Tammerfors, Finland, in 1905.

During the Revolution of 1905-07, Stalin, at the head of the Transcaucasian Bolsheviks, directed the revolutionary



JOSEPH VISSARIONOVICH STALIN

struggle of the Transcaucasian workers and peasants. He upheld and brilliantly developed Lenin's principles of organization and tactics and the theoretical principles of the Bolshevik Party.

Stalin waged a relentless struggle against the Mensheviks, Anarchists and other enemies of Marxism. From 1907 to 1910 he directed the activity of the Baku Bolshevik organization. In 1912 he was elected a member of the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party and

directed the revolutionary work in Russia.

In the course of his activities Stalin was constantly hounded by the gendarmes and the police. He was arrested eight times, and exiled seven times. Six times he escaped from exile.

After the February Revolution of 1917 he was released from his last exile and went to Petrograd where he directed the activities of the Central Committee and the Petrograd Committee of the Bolshevik Party and edited the newspaper *Pravda*.

Since May, 1917, Stalin has been a member

of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee. In August 1917 he directly guided the proceedings of the Sixth Congress of the Party. During the October days of 1917 he was at the head of the Party Center to direct the uprising. Together with Lenin, Stalin was the inspirer and leader of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

From 1917 to 1923, Stalin was the People's Commissar for the Affairs of the Nationalities, and from 1919 to 1922,

the People's Commissar of Workers' and Peasants' Inspection. During the Civil War, Stalin, together with Lenin, built up the Red Army and organized the defeat of the foreign interventionists and Russian White Guards. In 1922 Stalin was elected General Secretary of the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party, a post which he holds to this day. Since Lenin's death Stalin has been leading the peoples of the USSR along the road mapped out by Lenin.

Stalin is Lenin's devoted disciple, his closest associate and friend. Jointly with Lenin he founded and built up a new type of workers' revolutionary party—the Bolshevik Party. He upheld the principles of Leninism in the struggle against the treacherous Trotskyites, Bukharinites and other enemies of the people.

A profound theoretician who defended and further developed the theories of Marx, Engels and Lenin, Stalin further elaborated Lenin's teachings regarding the victory of socialism in one country, socialist industrialization, collectivization of agriculture, the Socialist State, and the building of socialism and communism in the USSR. He also elaborated the principles of the Bolshevik Party and, later, the national policy of Soviet power, on questions of nationalities.

Stalin performed tremendous work in forming the national Soviet Socialist Republics and then in uniting them all in one federal State—the USSR.

Stalin is the author of the new Constitution of the USSR.

The Soviet people elected Stalin the



Painting by B. Karpov

GENERALISSIMO STALIN

first Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR. He has been awarded three Orders of the Red Banner. The title of Hero of Socialist Labor was conferred upon him on his 60th birthday, together

with the Order of Lenin. Since May 6, 1941, he has been Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR.

After the outbreak of the Patriotic War, Stalin was appointed Chairman of the State Committee of Defense, Supreme Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces of the USSR and People's Commissar of Defense of the USSR. In March 1943 he was invested with the rank of Marshal of the Soviet Union.

In November 1943 Stalin was awarded the Order of Suvorov, First Class. On June 20, 1944, Stalin was presented with the Moscow Defense Medal.

On July 29, 1944, the Order of Victory was conferred upon Stalin "for exceptional services in organizing and conducting offensive operations of the Red Army which have led to a major defeat for the German army and a radical change in favor of the Red Army in the situation on the front in the struggle against the German-fascist invaders."

On June 27, 1945, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR named Stalin as Generalissimo of the USSR.

Under the leadership of the great Stalin the peoples of the Soviet Union, in the days of the Patriotic War, united to fight and defeat the German-fascist invaders.

Stalin is the organizer, great strategist and leader

of the armed forces of the Soviet Union. Stalin is today's Lenin. With the name of Stalin, the Soviet people associate their present and future, all their achievements and victories.

Stalin and the Gains of October

In numerous letters, workers, peasants and intellectuals addressed Stalin as "father" even long before the war. In this word broad sections of the Soviet people expressed their feelings of profound love and respect for their great teacher and leader. These feelings for Stalin were revealed many times more strongly after the German fascists treacherously attacked the peace-loving Soviet land.

On the morning of June 22, 1941, immediately after the radio announcement of fascist attack, even before the proclamation of mobilization, every Soviet citizen knew at once what he was to do. The sense of responsibility among the Soviet people was heightened. Each at his post was eager to perform his civic duty. Women were preparing their husbands for the front. Discipline became stricter everywhere. And yet, it seemed that the bustling cities, the factories, the mills which were working with utmost intensity, all the draftees who were leaving for the front in train after train, all men on the fields of battle, all the Soviet people everywhere were tensely waiting.

Historic Speeches

Of 1,417 days of war against the German fascists, the first 12 days seemed the longest and most trying. Those were days during which the country impatiently waited for Stalin to speak.

On July 3, 1941, the entire country thrilled at the paternal warmth with which the long-awaited words resounded.

"My words are addressed to you, my friends."

What distinguished Stalin's speeches is that they became historic not only after the passing of some time but the very moment they were uttered. Their content is as marked by the profundity of genius as their form characterized by the simplicity of genius. Their force lies in their indisputable and clear truth. This is the key to the hearts of the millions of people whom Stalin's words grip deeply, touch and at once impress by their wisdom.

On July 3, Stalin explained to the



Painting by G. Pavlovsky
DURING THE REVOLUTION—Generalissimo Stalin, then a young leader of the Revolution, is shown speaking to his troops.

people how it could have happened that our glorious Red Army surrendered a number of our cities and districts to the fascist armies. He spoke of the fact that the war of fascist Germany against the USSR began under conditions that were favorable for German forces and unfavorable for the Soviet forces.

Stalin pointed out what urgent measures had been taken in the rear to help the Red Army. Even at the very beginning of the war, he said, it was a war of the entire people, a Patriotic War, and he explained its aims: "The aim of this national war in defense of our country against fascist oppressors is not only to eliminate the danger hanging over our country, but also to aid all European peoples groaning under the yoke of German fascism."

Warned of Danger

Stalin warned every Soviet citizen of the danger to the country. "Above all," he said, "it is essential that our people, the Soviet people, should understand the full immensity of the danger that threatens our country and abandon all complacency, heedlessness, all those

moods of peaceful constructive work that were so natural before the war, but which are fatal today when the war has fundamentally changed everything." He taught the people not only to look danger straight in the face but pointed out how to deal with it: "There must be no room in our ranks for whimperers and cowards, for panic-mongers and deserters; our people must know no fear in the fight and must selflessly join our patriotic war of liberation, our war against the fascist enslavers."

Inspired Confidence

He imbued people with confidence in its forces. "Our forces are numberless." He said, "The overweening enemy will soon learn this to his cost."

Millions of Soviet people became infused with Stalin's calm courage and there was increasing and stronger unity between the people and their leader—unity the like of which is hard to find in the history of nations.

And the graver the situation at the front, the closer and the more intimate this unity became.

Before the Patriotic War, Stalin

personally made no speeches at meetings in celebration of Anniversaries of the Great Socialist October Revolution. But on November 6, 1941, when the enemy stood at the gates of Moscow, Stalin, aware that the Soviet people were waiting for his words, spoke. His speech reflected the grim truth of the situation at the time.

"Today," he said, "as a result of four months of war, I must emphasize that this danger—far from diminishing—has on the contrary increased. The enemy has captured the greater part of the Ukraine, Byelorussia, Moldavia and Estonia, and a number of other regions, has penetrated the Donbas, is looming like a black cloud over Leningrad, and is menacing our glorious capital, Moscow."

That evening everybody, young and old, stood around loudspeakers and listened to Stalin's voice. He revealed the tragic picture of the situation in which the Soviet people in territory overrun by the enemy found themselves. It is hard to find words to convey what the Soviet people, standing around loudspeakers that anniversary evening, felt for Stalin.

Speech from Moscow

Stalin was speaking from Moscow, around which the enemy was then tightening his pincers. From west to east trains in endless streams were carrying factory equipment. Cold snow, which was falling on those trains, turned to fiery drops which seared the hearts of the Soviet people as they listened to Stalin's words:

"The German-fascist invaders are plundering our country, destroying the cities and villages built by the labor of the workers, peasants and intelligentsia. The Hitler hordes are killing and violating the peaceful inhabitants of our country without sparing women, children or the aged. Our brothers in the regions of our country captured by the Germans are groaning under the yoke of the German oppressors."

In the same speech, however, Stalin clearly explained to the Soviet people what had to be done to achieve victory...

"To achieve this it is necessary that our Army and our Navy enjoy the active and vigorous support of our entire country; that our workers, men and women, work

in the factories without relaxing their efforts; that they give to the front more and still more tanks, anti-tank rifles and guns, airplanes, artillery, trench mortars, machine guns, rifles and ammunition. It is necessary that our collective farmers, men and women, work tirelessly in their fields; that they give to the front and the country more and still more grain and meat, and raw materials for our industries. It is necessary that our entire country and all the peoples of the USSR organize themselves into one single fighting camp, waging together with our Army and Navy a great war for liberation, for the honor and liberty of our native land and for the destruction of the German armies."

From that moment millions upon millions of Soviet people, with the words of Stalin in their hearts, set about the great constructive work which amazed the world. The speed at which they set up evacuated plants and built new ones far behind the lines increased from day to day. Love for Stalin and faith in him stimulated each Soviet citizen's ambition to work selflessly and opened up ever new sources of strength for this work. Thousands upon thousands of Soviet people, men and women, felt the need to express their affection for Stalin in deeds for the good of the country.

This gave rise to an endless stream of letters in which groups of workers, peasants and intellectuals, reported to Stalin that they were contributing their savings to the Red Army and to the fund of the country's defense. A brief reply from Stalin to every such letter was the greatest stimulus to discover in oneself new creative forces.

For this self-sacrificing labor about which legends are being composed throughout the world, for the days and nights spent at lathes, for the months of constant, tireless work in factories and mills, for all this the Soviet people felt compensated when, on November 6, 1942, they heard Stalin's words:

"As a result of all this complex organizational and constructive effort, not only our country, but also the people themselves in the rear, have been transformed."

It must be remembered that in that

year hostilities on the front were divided into two periods. "The first period was chiefly the winter period when the Red Army, having beaten off the German attack on Moscow, took the initiative into its own hands, passed to the offensive, drove back the German troops and in the space of four months advanced in places over 400 kilometers.

"The second period was the summer period when the German-fascist troops, taking advantage of the absence of a second front in Europe, mustered all their available reserves, pierced our front in the southwestern direction, and taking the initiative, in the space of five months advanced in places as much as 500 kilometers."

Burden of War

In view of the absence of the Second Front the entire burden of the war was then shouldered by the Soviet people and its Red Army. But the Soviet people never doubted that they would emerge victorious if they continued to carry out Stalin's instructions to the letter. In Stalin's order of the day, November 7, 1942, they read: "Comrades, the enemy has already experienced the force of the blows of the Red Army before Rostov, before Moscow, before Tikhvin. The day is not far off when the enemy will feel the force of new blows of the Red Army. It will be our turn to rejoice!"

How simply those words sounded then, "Our turn to rejoice." But how deeply they penetrated into the soul of the Soviet people on the front and in the rear, and what a new upsurge of inner energy they called forth!

The immense life-asserting power of those words aroused the entire Soviet nation to new heroic feats and, in 1942, brought the turning point in the war. On the day of the celebration of the 26th anniversary of the Great Socialist October Revolution the people heard how highly Stalin, in explaining the Red Army's successes at the front, rated their heroic labor.

"The successes of the Red Army would have been impossible without the support of the people, without the selfless work of the Soviet people in the factories and plants, collieries and mines, in transport and agriculture."

At the same time the entire people felt and knew that the Red Army's successes and the achievement of the Soviet people in the rear would have been impossible without Stalin's leadership of genius. Only Stalin's brilliant strategy, his authority and organizing force made possible the amazing victories at Stalingrad and Orel, on the banks of the Dnieper and Dniester. The Red Army's victories far transcended the bounds of the Soviet-German front.

Factories Produce

The people also felt and knew that it was thanks to Stalin's foresight and wisdom that the Red Army was uninterruptedly receiving armaments from numerous factories which had been transplanted in good time to the east where, together with the old and the quickly built new giant factories, they formed a vast arsenal of the most up-to-date weapons. These weapons dealt death to the impudent enemy who threatened the gains of the Great October Socialist Revolution. That same day, on November 6, 1943, Stalin reminded the people of the greatest and most precious gain of the October Revolution—the Soviet system which splendidly stood the test of the war.

"The Soviet State was never so stable and solid as now in the third year of the Patriotic War. The lessons of the war show that the Soviet system proved not only the best form of organizing the economic and cultural development of the country in the years of peaceful construction, but also the best form of mobilizing all the forces of the people for resistance to the enemy in time of war. The Soviet power set up 26 years ago transformed our country within a short historical period into an impregnable fortress."

Impregnable Fortress

The Soviet people, irrespective of nationality, race, and religious beliefs, are well aware of what this impregnable fortress means to them. It means to them and their children the right to work and rest and leisure, the right to an education, full freedom for their creative effort, the right to social insurance, the right to genuine democracy which found its expression in the Stalin constitution, the right to constant improvement—material

and spiritual—in their personal and social life. All this has been given by their country, the Soviet land whose true humanism and lofty humanity have become so clearly revealed before the world. That is what the impregnable fortress, of which Stalin spoke, means to the Soviet people. It is a fortress which people defended with their lives. That is why Stalin's words about the achievement of the Soviet Union, uttered November 6, 1944, on the occasion of the 27th Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution, penetrated so deeply into the hearts of the people. Stalin said on that occasion:

"Today when the Patriotic War is drawing to its victorious conclusion, the historic role of the Soviet people is revealed in its full greatness. It is universally acknowledged now that by their selfless struggle the Soviet people have saved the civilization of Europe from the fascist vandals. That is the great service rendered by the Soviet people to the history of mankind."

Soviet Patriotism

Lenin's associate, the tireless builder of the system which led our people to its great historic mission, Stalin who, like Lenin, is full of boundless love for the people and the country, elevates every Soviet man and woman to this lofty love in his flaming words about the strength of Soviet patriotism:

"The strength of Soviet patriotism lies in the fact that it is based not on racial or nationalistic prejudices, but on the people's profound devotion and loyalty to their Soviet homeland, on the fraternal partnership of the working people of all the nationalities in our land.

"Soviet patriotism blends harmoniously the national traditions of the peoples and the common vital interests of all the working peoples of the Soviet Union. Far from dividing them, Soviet patriotism welds all the nations and peoples of our country into a single fraternal family. This should be regarded as the foundation of the inviolable and ever stronger friendship among the peoples of the Soviet Union.

"At the same time the peoples of the USSR respect the rights and independence of the nations of foreign countries and

have always shown themselves willing to live in peace and friendship with their neighbor states. This should be regarded as the foundation of the contacts growing and gaining strength between our State and the freedom-loving nations."

Peoples United

Throughout the Patriotic War, in tense moments of losses and in moments of successes and victories, Stalin never for a moment interrupted his work of organizing, leading, inspiring with his creative force, summing up results and mapping out future roads for the front and rear. At the same time he constantly imbued the people with a spirit of loyalty to Lenin's ideas and the traditions of the Great October Revolution which alone imparted iron strength to the invincible Soviet Union. This is what Stalin has always done. He did this also in the days of war in his speeches on the eve of the November celebrations. In all the years of war the evening of November 6 became an evening of particular intimacy between Stalin and the people.

United in one great family, all the peoples of the Soviet Union listen to Stalin's voice, take in his words, and all feel like brothers united around Stalin; for Stalin's deep fatherly feelings are addressed equally to all, and the happiness of each Soviet nation is his happiness.

Knowing and highly appreciating the abilities and importance of each nation in the Soviet Union, as a father knows and appreciates his children, Stalin directs the national policy of the country on such a high plane that not a single nation ever feels wronged in the least and all of them constantly emulate one another in economic and cultural progress. All the Soviet nations know that the achievements of each are equally dear to Stalin and to the entire country. This explains why there is never any friction among the Soviet nations and why they constantly strive to emulate the best qualities of one another.

Stalin's toast (at the end of the war) to the entire Soviet people and particularly to the eldest brother in the family

of Soviet nations—the great Russian people—therefore, roused no envy whatever among all the other Soviet nations. On the contrary, in emphasizing as he did, "I drink first of all to the health of the Russian people because it is the most outstanding nation among all the nations constituting the Soviet Union," Stalin expressed the sentiments of all nations of the Soviet Union who appreciate the Russian nation not only because it is a leading nation but because it is endowed with clear vision, staunch character and patience.

Stalin's Leadership

All people of the Soviet Union know that Stalin led the people to victory.

The May 7th preliminary instrument of Germany's surrender was signed at Rheims. But the Soviet people rejoiced most fully in victory when Stalin congratulated them May 9: "Comrades, the Great Patriotic War has ended in our complete victory. The period of war in Europe is over. A period of peaceful development has begun.

"I congratulate you upon victory, my dear fellow countrymen and countrywomen."

The same warm words—"My dear fellow countrymen and countrywomen,"—people heard from Stalin's lips for the second time on September 2, 1945, when Japan surrendered unconditionally.

"Our Soviet people spared no effort or labor for the sake of victory," he said. "We have lived through trying years. But now every one of us can say: we have won. Henceforward, we may regard our country as free from the threat of German invasion in the West and Japanese invasion in the East. Long-awaited peace has come for the peoples of the whole world.

"I congratulate you, my dear fellow countrymen and countrywomen, on a great victory, on the successful termination of the war, on the arrival of peace in the entire world."

With these words Stalin leads the Soviet people into a period of peacetime development and further progress on the basis of the gains of the great Socialist October Revolution.

Heroes of Berlin Honored

By Lieutenant Colonel I. Gaglov

A majestic monument dedicated to the fallen Soviet heroes of the battles for Berlin has been erected in the center of the German capital. Troops representing all arms of all armies which took part in the siege of Berlin attended its dedication.

Here was the company of the Idritsko-Berlin Order of Kutuzov Division, represented by the men and officers who had hoisted the Victory flag over the Reichstag. Beside the Soviet soldiers stood men of the American, British and French armies.

Marshal Zhukov, Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet Occupation Forces, inspected the troops and then ascended the platform. Accompanying him were Army General Sokolovsky, Marshals of Armored Troops Rotmistrov and Rybalko, Colonel Generals Malinin, Serov, Proshlyakov, Shebunin, Kazakov, Varentsev, Lelyushenko, Colonel General of the Air Force Rudenko, Lieutenant Generals Telegin, Pronin, Smirnov, Bokov, Major General During of the British Army, Generals Gawy and Conrad of the American Army and French General De Bochen.

Lieutenant General Telegin, member of the Military Council of Occupation Forces, delivered the speech in memory of the heroes of the fighting for Berlin.



ANOTHER MONUMENT—to the heroes of Stalingrad.

The standard bearers lowered the colors. The gun salute was followed by a funeral march. The monument was unveiled. It is shaped like a colonnade, the central pylon of which carries the figure of a Red Army soldier.

The inscription on the memorial reads: *Eternal glory to the heroes who fell in battle against the German-fascist invaders for the freedom and independence of the Soviet Union.*

Marching to the mournful melody of the funeral march, soldiers, officers and generals approached the monument. Two generals in front carried a wreath from Generalissimo Stalin, the People's Commissar of Defense. Others bore the wreaths of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR and a wreath from Marshal Zhukov. Wreaths were laid from the Military Council of Soviet Occupation Forces in Germany, from Marshal Konev on behalf of the Military Council of the Northern Army Group, from infantry and tank units who took part in the fighting for Berlin, as well as from British, American and French forces.

In his speech Marshal Rybalko of the Tank Army said, "We came here to pay tribute to the memory of our companions who fell in the struggle for Berlin. In commemorating their memory we lower our fighting standard which they glorified."

Colonel Lelyushenko spoke on behalf of the Northern Army group; Major Borovoi, twice Hero of the Soviet Union, in the name of the pilots; and Colonel Kolesnik on behalf of the Guards Units which stormed Berlin.

The officers and company of the General Staff of the Occupation Force in Germany marched before the memorial followed by battalions led by generals who had distinguished themselves in battles against the enemy. They were followed by units of American, British and French forces.

Around the monument pace sentries who guard the peace of the heroes who saved humanity from the Nazi plague.

Producers' Cooperatives in the USSR

By A. Birmanov

In the Soviet Union, along with State industry, there are also many small enterprises belonging to cooperative associations of producers.

Craft industry has long existed in Russia, and many districts have specialized in the production of certain articles. The artisans of Gorky Region have been famed throughout the country for their knives, locks and other ironware. Vologda lace makers time and again received first prizes at international exhibitions in Paris.

The artisans and handicraftsmen made attempts to unite in industrial cooperatives even before the Revolution, but the tsarist government placed many obstacles in their way. It was only under Soviet power that industrial cooperatives made real headway.

At present there are in the USSR many thousands of cooperative industrial enterprises. The principal type of such enterprises is the artel of craftsmen varying in size from 20 to several hundred members or shareholders. There are more than 15,000 such artels in the country. The artel's original fund, or foundation capital, is made up of share subscriptions paid by craftsmen. Newly-organized artels usually need financial assistance which they receive from banks in the form of short-term and long-term loans.

One of the Soviet banks, the Trading Bank, specializes in financing cooperative organizations. To assist cooperative enterprises a law was passed in 1941 exempting the newly-formed cooperatives from all taxes for the first two years of their activities.

Artels Specialize

Every industrial artel specializes in the manufacture of definite commodities. There are artels producing building materials, knit goods, footwear, furniture and utensils.

Cooperative enterprises are usually fairly well equipped.

All administrative bodies from top to bottom are elected. At the head of the artel is an administrative board elected by a general meeting of the members which also elects the auditing commission

that controls the expenditures of funds and utilization of the material values of the artel.

Similar artels are united in unions of industrial cooperatives. Among such are the unions of garment making, metal goods, wood-working and other cooperatives.

These unions represent artels in their relations with state bodies. They conclude agreements for the supply of raw and other materials, they accept orders for goods, arrange prices and regulate wage questions.

Organization

Within the limits of each republic of the USSR, industrial cooperatives are united in one organization covering the republic. In the majority of Union Republics are three types of these cooperative organizations: the Timber Industry Cooperative Association, uniting all artels producing timber goods—carts, building material, etc.; the Sundry Industries Cooperative Association, uniting all forms of artels, with the exception of those producing timber goods; and the invalids' artels.

The Cooperatives of Invalids differ somewhat from other artels. Their object is to assist invalids not by way of philanthropy, but by providing them with suitable work. There are more than 3,000 invalids' artels which produce goods to the value of almost 3 billion rubles a year. Invalids' artels work under special conditions. The length of the working day of their members depends upon the state of their health. The invalids' normal output is much lower than that of ordinary artels. Measures of labor protection and safety engineering are more strict in enterprises of the invalids' artels. Seriously injured invalids work at home, raw material is delivered and the ready products are collected from them. They are also provided with the necessary tools for work.

Cooperative artels work chiefly on local raw material and produce consumers' goods, mostly clothing and footwear, furniture, kitchen utensils, office goods, ar-

ticles of food, toys, musical instruments, and visual aids for schools. Of certain commodities, such as dry goods and knit goods, the cooperatives produce more than the State enterprises.

Many artels manufacture such commodities as small machine tools, instruments of measurement and other machines. The industrial artels often supply the large plants in their vicinity with armatures and various parts. On the other hand they utilize waste metal and by-products of large enterprises.

The products of industrial cooperatives amount to almost 30 billion rubles annually.

The artels work according to plan. The administrative board of the artel draws up the production plan for the year and submits it to a general meeting of the members.

In the artels, as in State enterprises, labor is paid both by time and piecework, depending upon the nature of the work. The earnings of an artel member depends upon his qualifications and productivity.

All goods produced by the artel are sold at prices approved by the State. These prices cover all expenditures on production, taxes and profit. The percentage of profit varies for different commodities, but it usually fluctuates between ten and twenty percent. The prices the artels pay for raw material are fixed in advance and, consequently, if an artel is able to reduce overhead charges it makes more money.

The profit is distributed after the annual report is adopted by a general meeting of the members of the artel.

The Profit

The constitution of the industrial cooperatives recommends that part of this profit be utilized for the further development of the enterprise—for the building of new workshops or warehouses and the purchasing of new machinery. Another part of the profit is to be spent on social, cultural and other needs of the members of the artel. The remainder of the profit is to be distributed among the members.

Timber Industry to Expand

By Sazonov

Large artels have their own polyclinics and dispensaries, rest homes and sanatoriums. The children of members are accommodated in forest camps during the summer holidays. In towns and workers' settlements the industrial cooperatives have their clubs where members and their families may see new movies or dramatic performances, listen to lectures, play chess or other games. The clubs have dramatic and choral circles, schools for cutters and needleworkers, also dancing schools. These cooperatives have their own sports organization—the Spartak Sports Association, one of the strongest in the Soviet Union. This association has splendidly equipped stadiums in Moscow and in many other large cities.

The Training

The industrial cooperatives devote much effort to enhancing the skill of their members and to training young people as qualified workers. There are various technical schools and colleges in connection with the republican centers of the industrial cooperatives. Young people who have not worked before entering a training school receive pay during their training. When a member of an artel is sent to a technical school or college to raise his qualification, such a member is paid by the artel his average earnings during the schooling period. If the school is outside the place where he lives, he also receives a stipend.

During the war the artels rendered a great deal of assistance to the Red Army. They sewed underwear and produced greatcoats for the Army, also footwear and harnesses; they manufactured hundreds of thousands of skis, carts, ammunition boxes, fire-bottles to be used against tanks and a tremendous quantity of parts for munitions.

During the war many employees of industrial cooperatives were awarded orders and medals of the Soviet Union for their services to their country.

At the beginning of September the Soviet Government adopted a decision calling for an increase in the output of industrial goods and food commodities by the local industry, and the industrial cooperatives' duty is considerably increasing with the production of furniture, kitchenware, clothing, footwear and dry goods.

The Soviet Union's lumber industry is slated to increase its total production 30 to 40 per cent above the prewar level during the coming five years, according to the draft of the industry's Five-Year Plan.

The program drafted calls for restoration of all the industry's enterprises which were wrecked during the German invasion and a general expansion of lumbering throughout the country, according to M. N. Sprintsin, chief of the Long-Range Planning Division of the People's Commissariat of the Lumber Industry of the USSR.

Already one of the world's great lumber producers, the USSR has timber resources amounting to one-third of the total forest area of the world. Soviet forest tracts run to more than 3,700,000 square miles three-fourths of which are situated in the Asiatic section of the Soviet Union, although important forest areas are found in the Urals and the northern part of the European USSR.

According to Sprintsin, the production capacities of the country's timber industry are great enough to ensure the USSR first place in the world as lumber exporter.

Sizable expansion in this industry is necessary to meet the increased demand for timber and forest products during the coming Five-Year Plan period with its provisions for sweeping rehabilitation and new development. This demand will be greater than even in wartime.

No less than 150 sawmills and wood-working plants, besides lumber camps, are to be restored in liberated areas during the next few years.

Particularly great was the damage to major enterprises, such as the Bozhenko furniture factory in Kiev and the Kiev, Dniepropetrovsk and Kremenchug wood-working mills. Other major restoration jobs are to be completed in the lumbering areas of Byelorussia, the western regions of the Ukraine, the Leningrad Region and the Karelo-Finnish Republic, to include the rehabilitation of some 1,500 narrow-

gauge timber railways, hundreds of bridges and other installations.

In other parts of the USSR the plan calls for considerable expansion of output and the extension of operations to hitherto untouched forest tracts in the north and east, particularly those situated in Kama, the northern Dvina and Vychegda valleys.

Accent will be placed on the mechanization and technical improvement of lumbering operations in both rehabilitation and development. For instance, all work, from felling to hauling to the saw mills, is to be fully mechanized.

Increased efficiency in lumbering operations, Sprintsin said, should double labor productivity in the course of the coming five years.

Mechanization is likewise to be improved at the sawmills and woodworking factories.

In the course of the fourth Five-Year Plan period, the assortment of timber industry products is to be considerably expanded with more finished items and less semi-finished ones figuring on the list.

Coal Mines Restored

The coal mining industry of Stalino Region, the principal coal mining district of the Don Basin, has reached 35 per cent of its prewar output as a result of restoration work carried out within the two years since the liberation of the area.

Over 4.5 billion cubic feet of water have been pumped out of the mines. Industrial buildings totaling 30 million cubic feet have been restored. Coal output during this period amounted to 21 million tons. One-third of the restored mines have reached their prewar capacity.

Comparable success has been achieved by the iron and steel works of the region. Nine blast furnaces, 34 open hearth furnaces, 25 rolling mills and 60 coking batteries have been restored.

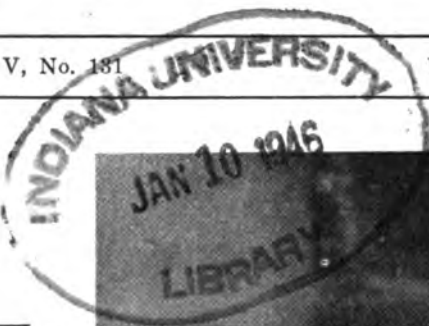
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EDUCATION IN THE USSR

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

EDUCATION has been a matter of great concern to the Soviet Union from its very foundation.

Lenin stated: "We need an enormous cultural development," and that it was necessary to master "the knowledge without which the modern conception of an educated man is impossible."

Article 121 of the Constitution reads: "All citizens have the right to education."

The introduction of universal compulsory education for children is one of the main indications of a country's cultural standard.

Before 1917, about four-fifths of all the children in Russia were deprived of the possibility of getting education.

Millions were totally illiterate. Only 4.7 per cent of the population attended school, that is, 47 out of 1,000.

On October 16, 1918, only a year after Soviet rule was established the initial decree for universal education was passed. In place of the discriminatory schools of pre-Revolutionary Russia, a unified system of general elementary and secondary education was introduced, covering a period of nine years for children between 8 and 17. All privileges of class, religion and nationality were annulled. The upkeep of the schools was assumed by the State and education was free. Needy pupils received aid from the State, such as school supplies, clothing, and lunches.

Lessons were conducted in the native language of each region and backward areas were helped to develop a written language.

The schools inherited from tsarist Russia were wholly inadequate. By the 1927-28 school year over 13,000 new schools were opened, attended by more than 3,600,000 children.

With the provision of the necessary conditions, such as school buildings and trained teachers, it became possible to introduce universal compulsory education in the Soviet Union. At the Sixteenth Congress of the All-Union Communist Party in 1930, Stalin said:

"The main thing now is to introduce compulsory elementary education. I say 'main' because such a change would mean a decisive step in the cultural revolution. And it has long been high time to begin this, because we have today all that is necessary to organize general elementary education in the vast majority of districts of the USSR."



On August 14, 1930, the Soviet Government decreed the introduction of universal compulsory primary education throughout the country. A gigantic process of school building was begun. In the far north of the Soviet Union, where peoples did not even have alphabets of their own prior to the Soviet regime, in the steppes of Central Asia, in the remote mountain village of the Caucasus, schools sprang up.

In the following few years, universal elementary education became a reality. As compared with 8,770,000 elementary school pupils in the USSR in the 1928-29 school year, in 1931-32 there were 13,456,000.

A decree of May 16, 1934, divided schools into three types: elementary, junior secondary, or middle; and secondary. Elementary schools consisted of four classes, a year for each class. Junior secondary consisted of seven classes, including the four primary classes. Secondary schools consisted of ten classes, including the four primary, and the three junior secondary. The junior secondary school is commonly known as the "seven-year" school; the secondary, as the "ten-year school."

In 1938 the Soviet Government decided to introduce universal seven years' education in towns with an extension on local initiative from 8 to 10 years.

The next task according to the third Five-Year Plan of 1938-42, called for universal secondary education in the cities and the extension of junior secondary education in the farm areas.

So effectively executed were the educational decisions that in 1939 the total enrollment in the Soviet Union, including all age groups, had risen to 17,400,000. In other words, one out of every four persons in the Soviet Union was attending school.

Other striking changes under the Soviet system are illustrated by the following:

The number of schools built during the 18 years of Soviet rule by far exceeds the number built during 200 years of tsarism.

In 1914, there were 5,551,600 pupils on the territory of the present Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic; in 1928-29 there were 7,859,600; in 1932-33 the figure had reached 13,342,200, and in 1939 there were 20,408,800.



KINDERGARTEN — Moscow, at the Manometer works.

In 1913 there were only 12 primary schools and one secondary school with a few hundred pupils in Kabardino-Balkaria, whereas in 1940 in the Kabardino-Balkarian ASSR there were 94 primary, 61 secondary, and 92 seven-year schools (from 8 to 15 years of age) totaling 74,648 pupils.

Similar changes have occurred in other Republics of the Soviet Union.

In 1914 there were 34,000 pupils in Armenia, whereas in 1939 in the Armenian SSR there were 320,000; in 1914 there were 6,800 pupils in Turkmenia, whereas in 1939 in the Turkmenian SSR there were 223,000; in 1914 there were 17,000 pupils in Uzbekistan, whereas in 1939 there were 1,106,000 pupils in the Uzbek SSR.

Special education institutions to train skilled workers, technicians and engineers

for industry, specialized agricultural workers, nurses and doctors, have been opened alongside the general schools. In 1914 there were 35,800 pupils in vocational schools, in 1940—802,300; in 1914 there were 24,700 students in 81 universities and institutes. In 1941, the number of colleges and universities had risen to 782 and the student body to 564,573.

The Soviet Union inherited from tsarism an extremely large number of illiterate adults who first had to be given primary education. Special schools for adults, of a temporary character, and evening classes were created for that purpose in addition to facilities for individual education.

As a result of these measures illiteracy was almost completely wiped out in the Soviet Union.

Many of the nationalities which inhabited Russia did not even have alphabets of their own before the advent of the Soviet State. The Soviet Government has carried out educational work of great magnitude, and has accomplished a "cultural revolution" in the national Republics. New schools, institutes, clubs, and libraries have been opened in which children and adults are able to study freely in their own languages. Striking changes which have occurred in the cultural life of the national Republics can be seen from the following table:

INCREASES IN LITERACY IN USSR

	1926	1939
	Per cent	Per cent
Russian SFRS	55.00	81.9
Ukrainian SSR	57.5	85.3
Azerbaijan SSR	25.2	75.3
Turkmen SSR	12.5	67.2
Uzbek SSR	10.6	67.8
Tajik SSR	3.7	71.7

The educational system of the Soviet Union serves all sections of the population.

The declaration of October 16, 1918, on unified schools for the Soviet working masses laid down the following main principles as the basis for the educational system:

1. **State Schools.** All types of educational institutions are financed from the State budget. The State determines the tasks and the character of school work (syllabuses, curricula, and other mea-



CHILDREN'S HOME—This home is in the Tajik Republic. Shown are a Kazakh, an Uzbek, a Tajik, and a Tatar girl.

tures). The management, leadership and control of education are vested in the hands of the educational authorities.

2. **Secular Education.** Separation of the school from the church. The People's Commissariat for Education in its decision of February 18, 1918, explained: "Considering that religion is a matter of conscience for every individual, the State in religious matters remains neutral, i.e., it does not back any particular religion, does not grant any rights or privileges, nor does it support any particular religion materially or morally. It follows from this that the State cannot undertake the task of religious education of children."

3. **Education for All.** All citizens without regard to their religion or social standing, sex or nationality, have access to general and vocational education.

This access is guaranteed by the following measures:

(a) **Education free of charge.** Education up to the eighth year of the secondary school is free of charge. From the eighth to the tenth year inclusive a pupil has to pay a small fee of 50 rubles a year which amounts to 1.4 per cent of the annual average income (data of 1938) and thus cannot be an obstacle to the education of children. Many children, such as those of invalids of the Patriotic War, pensioners, partisans, are exempt from any fees. The low price of books and other educational accessories makes the education of all children possible.

The State publishes textbooks at very low prices in order to make them easily available to all children. As a comparison, a daily newspaper costs 15 kopecks, while an arithmetic textbook for the first year costs 60 kopecks, i.e., only four times as much as the price of a daily newspaper such as is bought by every citizen.

New text books are published annually in millions of copies.

(b) Grants to good students in technical schools, universities and institutes. Education in vocational schools is free of charge and good students are granted scholarships which cover all their expenses for their training period.

The fee for education in universities and institutes is 400 rubles per annum. But all good students receive a grant which ranges from 185 rubles a month in the first year to 300 rubles a month in the last year. Special scholarships are granted to exceptionally brilliant students.

(c) Carrying on education in the native language. Education in schools in every national Republic is given in children's native language. Children of different nationalities may study in their native schools if they so desire, but even in such cities as Moscow and Lenin-



FARM SCHOOL—These children learn botany.

where the overwhelming majority of the children are Russian, national schools for Tatars, Armenians, etc. are to be found. Teachers may be of any nationality so long as they know the native language of their pupils.

CHAPTER 2

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

THE educational system of the Soviet Union consists of a network of all types of general and vocational schools and educational institutions, for infants, children and young people.

A. Educational institutions for children below school age:

Creches for infants up to 3 years old are under the supervision of the People's Commissariat of Health. Kindergartens for children of 3 to 7 years are under the Commissariat of Education.

B. Educational institutions for children and adolescents:

(a) General Education (elementary, junior secondary and secondary school).

(b) Special schools: 1. Forest schools. 2. Schools for the deaf and dumb and for the blind. 3. Schools for backward and

mentally defective children. 4. Special schools for the arts.

(c) Residential educational institutions: 1. Children's homes. 2. Suvorov schools.

(d) Children's institutions for out-of-school activities.

C. Vocational schools for children and adolescents:

(a) Trade and railway schools

(b) Factory apprentice schools

(c) Teachers' training schools

(d) Medical schools (for nurses, etc.)

(e) Technical schools for different specialties

D. Higher Education—universities and specialized institutes.

All cultural-educational institutions such as libraries, clubs, reading rooms, theaters, cinemas, etc., come under the supervision of the educational authorities.

A. KINDERGARTENS.

The Kindergarten is an institution for children below school age (3 to 7 years old).

Kindergartens may be opened and run not only by the educational authorities, but also by any employing organization or trade union. But supervision of the education and physical development of the children is exercised by the educational authorities.

Kindergartens are organized by the State to help the family. Children, whose parents are engaged in work during the day, must not be neglected. A child remains in a kindergarten from 8 or 9 A.M. to 5 or 7 P.M., spending the rest of the time with its family.

The day's timetable in a kindergarten includes games, educational play, walks, meals and sleep at definite hours. The older children learn reading and arithmetic. The fee for a child is low and children of war invalids, pensioners and of large families are exempt from all fees.

The number of kindergartens is increasing yearly. There were only 275 kindergartens and playgrounds in 1919 which cared for 7,000 children, while by 1940 their number had increased 200-fold and reached the total of 55,102. They cared for 2,331,848 children.

B. (a) GENERAL EDUCATION.

The present structure of the general



ELEMENTARY SCHOOL—Technical work on transport.

school was determined by the Soviet Government on May 16, 1934. There are three types of general schools in all republics: elementary, junior secondary and secondary school.

A school is directed by a headmaster or headmistress who is appointed by the educational authorities. In those primary schools where there are only two or three teachers a senior master or mistress is appointed instead of a head. The head is aided by an assistant for study. His duties are: the efficient organization of school life, the maintenance of educational equipment and supervision and control of the work of the teachers.

The teaching staff of a school is recruited from trained, qualified people. A teacher in a primary school must possess a teachers' training school certificate, a teacher in a middle school must have finished a teaching institute, and a teacher taking grades 8, 9 or 10, must have finished an Institute of Education or education department of a university.

The teacher's salary varies according to the age group of his pupils, his own educational qualifications, and length of service. There is equal pay for men and women.

The school year in all schools of the Soviet Union begins on September 1. During the year there are three short holidays in addition to the summer holidays which are from two to three months.

Elementary Schools are found mainly in rural districts—in villages and remote mountain hamlets where the number of pupils is not sufficient to have a middle or secondary school. An elementary school consists of four classes and is co-educational. In accordance with the law on universal compulsory education all children on reaching the age of seven must be sent by their parents to the elementary school.

Among elementary schools there are:

Full complement schools, i.e., schools with the full number of pupils in all four classes with a teacher for each class.

Two-unit schools, schools with less than the standard number of pupils per class. There are only two teachers in such schools. Each teacher takes two classes (I and III, II and IV).

One-unit schools, i.e., small schools in

which one teacher takes all lessons in all four classes.

Junior Secondary Schools have seven classes from I to VII. The first four classes are similar to those of an elementary school. Pupils are admitted into the fifth class of a seven-year school on completing the fourth class, or from an elementary school in another area. There is no examination on admission, the only qualification being the marks received by a pupil at the spring examinations on the conclusion of the fourth year.

The age of a pupil of a junior secondary school must be between 7 and 8 in the first class and between 14 and 15 in the seventh.

The majority of junior secondary schools are co-educational, but in large towns there are separate girls' and boys' junior secondary schools.

Those who finish a junior secondary school get a certificate which entitles them to: (1) admission (without examinations) into the VIII class of a secondary school; (2) admission into secondary vocational schools (in some of them

with, and in some without, examination); (3) admission to various short-term courses such as commercial courses.

Those young people, who for one reason or another do not want to continue their studies, either enter industry or offices, taking up work which does not require any special qualification. But the Soviet Government encourages all such citizens to have a secondary education, and they are encouraged to attend evening classes which enable them to improve their qualifications later.

The Secondary School is a complete 10 years general school. There are secondary schools in all towns, in large villages, workers' housing settlements, etc. There is a network of secondary schools in all districts of every town including the most remote suburbs.

The first four classes of a secondary school correspond to the four classes of elementary schools.

The first seven classes of a secondary school correspond to the seven classes of a junior secondary school.



RAILWAY STATION—A special room for mothers and children at Kazansky Station, Moscow.



LABORATORY—Electro-technical students at the Pioneers' Palace at Moscow.

Pupils attend a secondary school between the ages of seven in the first class and seventeen in the tenth class.

In towns with a large number of secondary schools, education is given separately to boys and girls. In such cases there are separate boys' and girls' schools. In provincial secondary schools with a small number of pupils the sexes are mixed.

On finishing secondary school pupils receive a diploma testifying to their completion of secondary education. This diploma entitles them to admission into any of the higher educational institutions, and to different short-term courses requiring as a preliminary the completion of secondary education. Those students who get "excellent" marks in their ex-

amination for all subjects receive a diploma *cum lauda*. This entitles them to be admitted into higher educational institutions without examination.

A pupil finishing a secondary school can acquire any specialty by means of short-term courses. The majority of pupils from secondary schools usually want to continue their studies and go to a university or specialized institute.

The aim of evening secondary schools for working youth is to enable them to complete their secondary education without leaving their work. There are six classes in an evening secondary school—classes 5 to 10. The curriculum and syllabus are similar to those in ordinary secondary schools, the difference being only in relation to the organization of

studies and methods of teaching.

Studies are carried out in cycles. Thus for instance, one term is taken up by one group of subjects, the humanities (languages, literature, history); or by physico-mathematical subjects (algebra, geometry, physics); in accordance with the syllabus. Having passed the examination for one cycle a student can take up the second cycle. Thus the students are enabled to cover the year's syllabus of an ordinary secondary school in one year.

The lessons in an evening secondary school for working youth are given three times a week and last three hours at a time. On finishing these schools the students receive diplomas testifying to the completion of their secondary education and all the rights that this affords.

THE AIM OF THE SOVIET SCHOOL.

The aim of the Soviet school is to give general education to the citizen and to make him a useful member of the community.

All general schools in the Soviet Union have broadly the same syllabus, but the national characteristics of each Republic are of course taken into consideration and the timetables of all non-Russian schools have to allow a definite number of hours for the native language, literature and national history.

Textbooks are also uniform. They are approved by the People's Commissariats of Education for a period of several years. Children in all schools use, for example, the same physics textbooks, and solve problems taken from the same book of exercises. Textbooks are compiled either by the most experienced teachers or by eminent scientific workers and are approved by committees of scientists and public workers.

This is how the history textbooks, for instance, were compiled.

Following a decision of the Council of People's Commissars, a competition for the best elementary history of the USSR for elementary schools, with brief references to general history, was held in 1936.

All the leading professors of history took part in the competition. The jury chose as the best textbook the *Concise History of the USSR* compiled by the Faculty of History of the USSR at the

Moscow State Educational Institute, under the leadership of Professor A. V. Sheshtakov.

The Council of People's Commissars set up five groups to prepare history textbooks for the fifth to tenth classes and approved their results. The drafts of these textbooks were revised by the most prominent scholars and statesmen of the country. Stalin, Kirov and Zhdanov took a personal interest and made numerous suggestions which helped the authors of these textbooks.

The uniformity of educational curricula, syllabuses and textbooks assures the realization of the principles of the uniform school, a uniform standard of education for the younger generation and State supervision over the school. This enables pupils to take up their studies without examination and without difficulty in the corresponding class of a new school when moving to another town.

The curriculum for secondary schools includes the following subjects: the Russian language and literature, mathematics (arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry), physics, chemistry, natural sciences (botany, zoology, human anatomy and physiology, theory of evolution, geology and mineralogy), astronomy, the Constitution of the USSR, history (ancient, medieval, modern), history of the USSR, geography, one foreign language, physical training, writing, draughtsmanship, art, singing, and military training (elementary



SIBERIA — These students are studying zoology at Khakass Normal School.

military knowledge which the young men will require when joining the services).

THE ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL WORK.

In the first four classes all principal subjects are taught by one teacher, who takes a class from the day of their admission to the end of the fourth class. Starting from the fifth class the lessons are given by specialists.

The progress of pupils is assessed by means of marks from 1 to 5. From the

fourth class onwards all pupils have to take an end-of-the-year examination.

The methods used in the Soviet school are various, but they are all subordinated to these fundamental principles: they must be based on a conscious and intelligent assimilation by the child of the given subject and must be as thorough and as much linked with practice as possible.

Lenin used to say that to become an educated man one "... has to enrich one's mind with all the wealth of knowledge that mankind has accumulated.

"We do not want mechanical assimilation, but we want to develop and improve the mind of every pupil by knowledge of basic facts. You must not simply learn them, but acquire them in such a way as to allow a development of a critical approach, to prevent the mind from becoming congested with masses of unnecessary material."

This proposal of Lenin was laid down as the foundation for the education of children. Education authorities have to make sure that a subject is presented logically and methodically, that the teacher develops in the children a capacity for independent work with books, in laboratories, and in workshops, and that he makes use of available visual apparatus, experiments, and excursions.

CURRICULUM OF SOVIET SCHOOLS

Subject	Number of hours per year, according to the curriculum adopted in 1942-43	
	Number	Per cent
Russian language and literature.....	2,676	28.1
Mathematics	2,092	22.0
Physics, chemistry, astronomy.....	848	8.9
Natural sciences	523	5.5
Geography	570	6.0
History and Constitution of the USSR.....	797	8.3
Modern languages.....	653	6.8
Writing, draughtsmanship, art and singing.....	330	3.4
Physical and military training.....	1,048	11.0

CHARACTER TRAINING.

Besides the academic task, every teacher is responsible for character training and the general development of the pupils; for training the young citizen.

"This new man," said Mikhail Kalinin, "must be infused with the best qualities of man. . . These qualities are: love for the people and for the working masses, honesty, courage, solidarity, and love for work. One has not only to love work, but to carry it out honestly, bearing in mind all the time that whoever eats and exists without working lives on the fruits of someone else's labor."

A firm and conscious discipline in class is a fundamental principle of conduct.

Persuasion and explanation to the pupils of what is required from them coupled with the firm demand that they should observe accepted rules are the main methods of obtaining good behavior. Punishment is used in schools, but its application is strictly controlled by the education authorities. Corporal punishment, detention which causes children to miss their meals, and similar methods are absolutely forbidden.

The following measures are in use:

Rewards. Praise by the teacher and

certificates of merit issued by the head of the school.

Punishments. Reprimand by the teacher, public reprimand in the class room, order to the pupil to stand up, order to leave the class room, loss of conduct marks, reprimand at a meeting of the Teachers' Council, or finally, expulsion from the school (temporary expulsion must be approved by the district education authorities).

Special "Rules for Pupils" regulating their conduct both inside and outside school, are approved by the Government. For example, pupils must not go to cinemas, theaters and other places of entertainment during school hours. They are expected to be kind and helpful to old people, small children, the weak or ill. They must give them first place, and offer them their seats in trams and buses and assist them in every way.

The main responsibility for the general development of the pupils rests with the head teacher, but in addition one of the senior teachers is appointed by the head as responsible master or mistress for every class. This teacher organizes these pupils, helps them in their "self government" and in the work activities of the Young Com-

munist League and Pioneer organizations.

There are clubs and societies (called "circles") in every school. They usually meet once a week after school hours and work under the supervision of a teacher or other qualified person.

Once a month evening performances are organized in schools in which the pupils take part.

THE "PIONEER" AND "KOMSMOL" ORGANIZATIONS.*

The main task of the Pioneer and Komsomol organizations is training for good citizenship. Duties connected with the Pioneer and Komsomol organizations develop in the children a sense of responsibility toward the community and accustom them from childhood to carry out social duties.

Pioneers consider it their duty to be an example to other children: to study well, to help their family at home and their schoolmates at school. Pioneers are organized in detachments and groups. They have a banner of their own, wear

* Russian abbreviation for the "Communist Union of Youth." The "Pioneers" are an organization for the younger children.



GEOGRAPHY—Pupils at the Leningrad Palace of Pioneers.

a red tie, bring out a wall newspaper of their own, and salute one another in a special way. At gatherings of these detachments they read, or listen to talks given by adults, rehearse plays, recite poetry, play games, and so forth.

The members of Komsomol who are in the senior classes guide the activity of the Pioneer organizations. Thus, members of the Komsomol help the head and other teachers in the work of bringing up the younger children. They are the most conscientious and energetic pupils and organize the out-of-school activities. Under the guidance of teachers they edit wall newspapers, organize different activities (technical, artistic and sport).

B. (b) SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

1. **Forest schools for children with delicate health.** Forest schools are boarding schools and sanatoriums combined, where children get medical treatment, sometimes for several years, and simultaneously continue their studies, under supervision of a doctor, following as far as possible the normal syllabus.

2. **Schools for the deaf and dumb, weak-sighted and blind.** These schools function as an independent type of educational institution with a special curriculum and syllabus, special textbooks, equipment and apparatus. There are special scientific departments at the People's Commissariats of Education which supervise the work of such schools.

3. **Schools for mental defectives.** There are not many schools of this type. Special curricula and syllabuses are prepared for such schools, as well as special textbooks and apparatus, to enable a mentally deficient child to get an elementary education and acquire some suitable manual profession by the age of 15 or 16.

4. **Special art schools.** There are special art schools in large towns for exceptionally gifted children: the schools of music attached to the conservatories, ballet schools attached to theaters, schools of painting and so on. They are supervised by the Committee for the Arts of the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR. In addition to special subjects, pupils in such schools also take general subjects in accordance with the secondary school curriculum.

B. (c) RESIDENTIAL EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

1. **Homes for children of school and pre-school age.** Such institutions care for orphans, who remain in them up to the age of 14, get a general education up to junior secondary school standard and acquire a skill. At the age of 14, a pupil is sent by the Administration of Children's Homes to a vocational or technical school which has a hostel attached to it.

2. **Suvorov military schools** are residential secondary schools and care for sons of Red Army men and officers, of partisans and for orphans whose parents perished in the war. Suvorov military schools prepare boys for military service, giving them an officer's training and a general secondary education.

Suvorov schools are under the People's Commissariat of Defense.

B. (d) OUT OF SCHOOL CHILDREN'S INSTITUTIONS.

These include: libraries, Pioneer clubs, technical centers for children, centers for young naturalists, excursion and tourist



TELEGRAPHY—These Buryat-Mongolian girls are students.

centers, sports centers and sports stadiums, skiing centers, swimming pools and other institutions, centers for the arts, children's cinemas and theaters.

The task of these institutions is to help the academic work of the school and to provide healthy and creative forms of leisure. They enable youth of school age to carry on studies after school hours in subjects in which they are particularly interested, to enlarge their general knowledge and to improve their physique.

C. VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS.

(Technical schools, railway schools, factory schools.)

The task of these schools is to train skilled personnel for transport and industry.

The training of skilled workers, owing to the constant growth of heavy industry, has been occupying the Soviet Government from the very first days of its existence. Prior to 1940 there were factory apprentice schools attached to factories. These schools trained two-and-a-half million skilled workers for industry during 20 years. Short-term courses trained 8-300,000 skilled workers. Despite this there was by 1940 an acute shortage of skilled labor in transport and industry which was caused by the fact that hundreds of new plants, mines, railways and power stations were coming into operation.

In view of this shortage a Government decree of October, 1940, provided for a tremendous extension of trade, railway and factory schools.

Boys and girls between 14 and 15 with not less than an elementary education are admitted into trade and railway schools. The training lasts for two years.

These schools train metal workers, oil workers, assistant engine drivers, railway repair workers, etc.

Factory apprentice schools train workers for jobs of average skill in industry and the building trade. The training lasts six months. Boys and girls of 16 to 17, irrespective of their previous education, are admitted to these schools.

The training in all these types of schools is carried out under conditions which as far as possible correspond to those existing in industry itself. The pupils in their training use the actual industrial raw

materials and work on lathes of the latest models. They receive for their products 30 to 100 per cent of the remuneration usually paid for work of that kind. This enables the State to make use of these schools to carry out important State assignments.

Thus, for instance, one of the technical schools manufactured 30,000 mines during two years of the war and reconditioned 6,000 rifles, 280 guns, 250 machine guns, and 240,000 navigational instruments for the Air Force.

There are special technical colleges of the State labor reserves which train teachers for all three types of school.

The training and the distribution of the trained workers is supervised by the Central Department of Labor Reserves of the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR and by the local administration of labor reserves.

Technical schools of different specialties, teachers' schools and junior medical schools (for nurses, midwives, etc.), are vocational schools which accept young people of 15 or 16, who have finished the junior secondary or seven-year school. Training lasts three or four years. They train specialists of average skill (nurses, technicians, teachers for elementary and infant schools, etc.).

There were in the USSR 3,695 such technical schools (or "technicums") with 802,200 students during the 1940-41 school years.

D. HIGHER EDUCATION.

(Universities, Institutes and Colleges.)

Universities and single-faculty institutes admit men and women who have completed their secondary education and

passed the entrance examination or have obtained full marks in their final school examination.

Only 15 per cent of all students were women in the universities of tsarist Russia. In 1938, 43 per cent of the total

tional Republics which make up the Soviet Union is one of the main tasks of the Soviet State. The problem of building universities in the national Republics where before the Revolution they were almost non-existent has been treated by the So-



TRADE SCHOOL—These boys, students at Moscow, wear the trade school uniform.

number of students were women.

The number of higher educational institutions increased from 91 to 782 in 20 years. The number of new technical, agricultural and transport, veterinary and forestry and electrical institutions is especially high. There are institutes for every branch of the country's economy.

The cultural development of all the na-

viet Government with the same high degree of attention as the building of schools.

There are at present in the non-Russian Republics: 21 university colleges in Georgia, 9 in Armenia, 20 in Kazakhstan, 27 in Uzbekistan, 15 in Azerbaijan, etc.

Children of workers and peasants and junior office staffs had no opportunity of getting higher education in pre-Revolutionary Russia as the cost was too great.

Today higher education is available to all who can qualify for it. The accessibility of education to large masses of the population is illustrated by the following data: In the school year 1914-15 the children of the nobility and high officials numbered 38.3 per cent of the total number of the students in eight universities; middle-class children 24.4 per cent; children of tradesmen, 11.4 per cent; children of rich peasants, 14 per cent; children of the clergy, 7.4 per cent; children of manual workers, none. In

SOVIET TECHNICUMS AND TECHNICAL STUDENTS

	<i>Number of Technicums</i>	<i>Number of Students (in thousands)</i>
Industrial	549	177.0
Transport and communications	156	52.1
Agricultural	735	111.3
Law	36	4.0
Teachers' training	834	197.6
Medical	1,042	203.5
Art	202	23.7
Economic organization	141	33.0

1938 children of manual and office workers and of peasants numbered 97 per cent of the total students in universities.

Alongside the regular education there exists in the USSR an extensive system of correspondence courses which enable students to study without abandoning their work.

At the beginning of the war there were 11,795,000 correspondence students.

The length of studies in universities is four to five years, but in teacher's training institutes it is two years.

Those who graduate from institutes are guaranteed jobs. The People's Commissariats and the Committee on Higher Education send young specialists to work in the various republics, regions and districts according to the requirements of Soviet economy and their personal choice.

Higher education is supervised by the Committee on Higher Education. This committee approves the curricula, syllabuses, building program, and exercises general supervision. The Departments for Higher Education, which are organized at all the Republican People's Commissariats of Education, function under the authority of this committee.

Every university or institute is headed

by a chancellor or rector aided by a senate.

Such a centralized system of direction makes it possible to plan the training in accordance with the requirements of every branch of the country's economy.

The curricula and syllabuses are such as to enable students to acquire not only the knowledge necessary for their particular specialty, but also the general knowledge covering the specialty as a whole, and to have an appreciation of the humanities. To achieve this, the first three years are devoted to lectures giving a general picture of the specialty, and the fourth and fifth years, to specialization in a certain subject.

HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS OF THE USSR

Types of Higher Education	Year	
	1917	1940
1. Universities and Single Faculty Institutes for the Arts.....	45	398
2. Medical Institutes	9	78
3. Agricultural Institutes	10	86
4. Technical and Transport Institutes	14	152
5. Economic Institutes	6	43
6. Art Institutes	7	25
Total	91	782

To enable a student to take up a job as an experienced specialist immediately on graduating from an institute, the syllabus provides for compulsory practical training, in factories, agriculture, hospitals, schools and in the communication services, according to the student's specialty.

The military and physical training of students comes within the timetable, but additional work is done after the regular hours, in sport organizations, clubs, and at stadiums. The trade union and Komsomol organizations regularly carry out what are termed "test parades," covering the military training of students, competitive games, ski runs, cross-country runs and marches, and so on.

The teaching staff of a faculty consists of professors, lecturers and assistants. There are two scientific degrees in the USSR: Doctor of Science and Candidate of Science. The rank of Professor is conferred upon Doctors of Science, and that of Reader or Lecturer (Docent) upon Candidate of Science.

In the school year 1940-41 in all institutes of the USSR there were: 5,353 professors, 13,105 lecturers or readers, and 31,557 assistant lecturers and instructors without degrees.

Universities have special postgraduate courses which train professors, lecturers and scientific personnel.

In the school year 1940 to 1941 there were 12,266 such students.

Students training for university teaching are granted State allowances and are exempted from all fees. When they graduate they have to defend a thesis, after which, if they pass, the degree of Candidate of Science is conferred on them.



UNIVERSITY—A lecture at the Moscow State University.



PALACE—This is the Palace of Pioneers at Leningrad. The famous Klodt sculptures are in the foreground.

CHAPTER 3 THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN WARTIME

A. SCHOOL.

THE war interrupted normal school activities. The school had to undertake new tasks such as helping in the evacuation of children, organizing aid to evacuated children and especially orphans, the provision of clothing, shoes and hot meals for children, and the provision of help to collective and State farms in agricultural work.

In the first days of the war the Soviet Government ordered the evacuation of all children below the age of 14 to the eastern regions of the Soviet Union.

Children's homes, kindergartens and technical schools left with pupils, staff and equipment. Pupils of general secondary schools were evacuated either together with their parents, or as boarding schools under the supervision of their teachers. Some factories, enterprises and offices organized, at their own expense, boarding schools for the children of their employees.

Long trains carrying children left for the eastern regions situated thousands of miles away. Children were often in great danger as German pilots frequently bombed and machine-gunned the trains. Although they travelled under the protection of Soviet fighters, many of them were killed and others suffered injuries that have crippled them for life.

The children were terrified and worn out by all they had to go through. They had to be welcomed, comforted, housed and given an opportunity of continuing their studies.

The local authorities prepared beforehand kindergartens, boarding schools and children's homes, provided them with furniture, crockery and kitchen utensils, clothing and even with allotments. The allotments of children's homes in the Sverdlovsk Region alone totalled 2,891 acres.

But the time available was too short for a complete preparation. Much had to be done by teachers and children themselves. They took part in the work of reconditioning houses, collected and transported fuel, and cultivated their own allotments. This went on throughout the

whole period of evacuation.

The local population gave much assistance to the evacuated children. Industrial and office workers helped in their spare time to recondition school buildings, and women washed, mended and sewed the children's clothes. Collections to aid the children were carried out throughout the country.

Many families adopted children. They were made to feel happy and at home with their new families and their dreadful memories gradually faded and they became once again healthy and cheerful.

The number of children adopted by families totals over 100,000.

In spite of the war education continued. The evacuated children used the local school buildings.

There were a great many difficulties: inadequate accommodation, insufficient textbooks, pens, pencils and other equipment.

A number of teachers had been called up, others had joined the partisans.

There were 1,222,805 teachers in 1941. Their number decreased by about 50 per cent., reaching the figure of 774,795 by the beginning of the school year 1943-44.

To enable all children to get an education there had to be two and even sometimes three shifts in the schools, and the number of pupils per class increased to 40 or 45.

A number of schools in Leningrad carried on work even during the siege. Children did everything not to miss school, although class rooms were freezing and the children often had nothing to eat at home. They received supplementary food rations at school in accordance with a special decision of the Leningrad Soviet.

In the middle of October, 1941, when the enemy was close to Moscow and German planes were bombing it day and night, the regular work of the Moscow schools was seriously interrupted. But tutorial sessions were still held at the schools for children who studied at home and later sat for their examinations.

Normal studies in the Moscow schools were resumed in the autumn of 1942.

The overwhelming majority of schools, institutes, clubs and libraries, in regions temporarily occupied by the enemy, were destroyed. In Stalingrad and the Stalingrad Region alone the Germans destroyed 567 schools and 186 children's homes.

The restoration of schools in the liberated regions and in the front line areas began in 1942. In those villages where school buildings had been destroyed, schools were housed in the best available buildings of the village; peasants often offered their homes for school purposes. The local authorities, parents, teachers and pupils themselves helped to repair schools, furniture and equipment. Special brigades of engineers, builders and technicians were sent to these regions; architects have worked out plans for temporary school buildings.

Despite the fact that the country's entire industry was engaged on war work, the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR ordered that school furniture be manufactured. Thirty-five thousand desks were dispatched to the Stalingrad, Rostov, Kursk and Orel Regions in 1943.

Textbooks, educational apparatus and stationery were sent by the People's Commissariats of Education of the Union Republics to the liberated regions; 5,649,700 textbooks, 19,419,000 exercise books, 86,559,000 pencils, 3,319,000 pens were sent by the Russian SFSR in 1943.



STUDENTS OF A COLLECTIVE FARM—These rural students of Stalingrad Region learn about animals.

Where only yesterday there was the frontline, today school activity is in full swing.

In Rostov-on-Don and the surrounding region 524 schools with 50,000 pupils were functioning only four months after the Germans had been driven out.

In February, 1944, 1,272 schools with 143,619 pupils were functioning in districts of the Smolensk Region which had been liberated in August, 1943.

The number of schools decreased from 193,025 to 116,548 in 1941-42, but already 140,156 schools were functioning in 1943-44.

To provide the necessary number of teachers the Government released all teachers who since the beginning of the war had been engaged on other work. A decree increasing the salaries of teachers was issued in August, 1943. Expenditure on teachers' salaries was almost doubled in the Russian SFSR.

Sanatoriums, summer Pioneer camps of sanatorium type, and children's summer play centers have been set up to help in the restoration of the health of children who had to live in occupied regions or in besieged towns. These institutions are free of charge for the children.

Over a million urban school children left their cities for Pioneer camps during the summer of 1943.

In order to provide education and training for the children of Red Army men and officers, partisans, as well as children whose parents perished at the hands of the German invaders, the following institutions were organized in the year 1943-1944.

Number of Children

9 Suvorov military schools....	4,538
23 special technical schools....	9,000
118 special children's homes....	16,300
26 special homes for small children	1,850

Expenditure for education in 1944 was nearly double that for 1943 (21.1 thousand million rubles, as compared with 12.7 in 1943).

Curricula and syllabuses were not changed during the war. Only textbooks for elementary schools were enlarged by information on how the country was living, working and fighting against the Germans during the war. Despite wartime difficulties examinations show that the work of pupils did not deteriorate in comparison with prewar years.

The Soviet Government carried out a

number of important measures aiming at a further improvement of school activities during the war.

Certain changes were made as follows:

1. Separate education of boys and girls was introduced. Boys' and girls' schools were opened in 80 large towns of the Soviet Union. All the schools use the same textbooks and have the same curriculum and syllabus, but separate classes make it possible to take into consideration the special characteristics of the physiological development of boys and girls, certain of their psychological characteristics, and differences in training and preparation of boys and girls for practical life.

2. More attention was paid to military and physical training in boys' than in girls' schools.

In 1938, 596 hours were devoted in the course of the whole year to military and physical training. This represented 6.2 per cent of the total; in 1943 the number of hours amounted to 1,048, i.e., 11.0 per cent of the total.

During the summer holidays pupils of the eighth to tenth classes attended camp for a fortnight. In the course of lessons on military matters and at camp, instructors devoted their attention mainly to providing youth with practical knowledge of shooting, map reading and battle formation.

At the same time pupils were shown in the course of lessons on physics and mathematics how these subjects are connected with military science.

3. In 1943 the age of admission to school was lowered from 8 to 7 years.

4. The same year the People's Commissariats of Education of The Union Republics worked out and approved new "Rules of Conduct for Pupils."

5. A special type of school—evening schools for working youth—became especially widespread during the war. This arose out of the fact that a large number of young people of 15 or 16, unable to

finish their studies at secondary schools, went to work during the war; 1,005 such schools with 153,710 pupils have been opened in the Russian SFSR.

Senior pupils, under the supervision of teachers, helped during their summer holidays with the work of collective and State farms. This was necessary because the State and collective farms were short of manpower owing to the fact that a large number of men had joined the services.

Members of the Pioneer and Komsomol school organizations played a leading part in this help rendered by children to the war effort.

Pioneers in their spare time helped the wives of servicemen with their housework. They helped to look after small children whose mothers were working in the collective farms and factories. In summer the Pioneers helped the families of servicemen on their allotments. In winter they stopped at school after school hours and made toys for small children and presents for Red Army men. Members of the Komsomol cut and sawed wood, brought

it in for the winter and trained the people for A.R.P. work. They acted as rōf-spotters during air-raids and saved many buildings from destruction by fire.

An outstanding example of Soviet youth is Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya, a pupil of the tenth class of one of Moscow's schools, who joined the partisans. With courage she met her death at the hands of the Germans. She was posthumously awarded the title of Heroine of the Soviet Union. She is today one of the country's most famous people. Lisa Chaikina and Shura Chekalin and a host of other heroes of the Soviet Union were also the product of Soviet education.

B. VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS.

Technical and railway schools, as well as factory workshop apprentice schools became especially important during the war. The majority of adults were called up to the services and industry was lacking skilled labor. Technical schools were urgently needed for training people for skilled work.

The Magnitogorsk metallurgical technical school No. 13, during six months of 1943, produced in its open-hearth furnaces steel sufficient to manufacture 10 million hand grenades, 1.5 million mines, 1.5 million tommy guns and over 3,000 tons of steel for heavy tanks.

Goods manufactured by pupils of vocational schools have covered, in value, about half the cost incurred by the Government for their maintenance.

Factory workshop apprentice schools trained 1½ million skilled workers during the period from the beginning of the war up to July, 1943.

C. HIGHER EDUCATION.

The war interrupted the normal development of the universities and colleges. The invading Hitlerite hordes inflicted tremendous damage on the higher educational institutions. Many had to suspend activities and others were evacuated to eastern regions.



REUNION — Leningrad children, evacuated during war, return.

In 1942 the number of universities and colleges was reduced to 460, and the total student body to 227,445.

The numbers of institutes functioning and of students during the war are as follows:

Years	Institutes	Students
1940-41	782	564,573
1941-42	503	312,868
1942-43	460	227,445
1943-44	515	320,780

But with the speedy liberation of invaded areas, reconstruction was begun. During the war, 60 new colleges were opened, among them 15 industrial and construction colleges, three transport colleges and seven agricultural colleges.

At present, (1945-46 school year) there are 772 colleges functioning in the USSR with a student body of 560,000. The number of universities and colleges in this first postwar school year is almost equal to that before the war.

The evacuated universities had to work in very unfavorable conditions. Suitable premises were scarce, part of the libraries were not evacuated, and there were not enough professors and lecturers. Difficulties in the food situation made it necessary for the institutes, trade union and Communist Party organizations to cope also with the problem of providing students and professors with food, accommodation and essential commodities.

The decrease in the number of students is to be explained by: (1) the fact that among the students who graduated from universities in 1941 there were not only students who had completed five years, but also who had only completed four; (2) a number of students volunteered to join the forces; (3) a number of students went to work in view of the urgent requirements of industry; (4) the number of students admitted to the first year was lower than in previous years.

As the country required doctors, engineers, constructors, physicists and technicians in larger numbers than before, the institutes, in order to meet these requirements, temporarily reduced the length of the course while keeping the syllabuses unchanged. At the same time the length of the academic year was reduced. The year in 1941 and 1942 started on October 1st and not on September 1st as in pre-war years. This was due to the fact that

students helped during the summer and autumn on collective farms, in forestry and in the peat industry.

In the regions temporarily occupied by the Germans all educational institutes were destroyed. Kiev University—one of the oldest in the country—was destroyed and its library plundered. The German barbarians made Kharkov University laboratories into workshops and turned its lecture halls into barracks.

Since 1943 the return to the west of the universities and institutes and the restoration of damaged institutes in regions liberated from the Germans has been going on continuously.

Special funds have been allocated for the reconstruction of these institutes. Those of the rear regions have donated a part of their equipment to the restored institutes in liberated territory.

The normal length of courses was restored in the autumn of 1943.

To increase the number of entrants, universities, such as, for instance, Moscow University, Moscow Aviation Institute and Leningrad University, opened preparatory courses. Such courses enabled potential students to cover the syllabus for the ninth and tenth classes of secondary school in one year or six months. They could then sit for the entrance examination.

There was no fundamental change in the syllabuses for higher education, but studies were naturally conducted according to war time requirements. Practical work has always occupied an important part in the curriculum, but its importance increased still further in the years of war.

A great deal of attention was devoted to the military training of students. The so-called "military day" was introduced. During that day, once a week, students underwent military training which included drilling, tactical exercises, firing, skiing, swimming, etc.

The Government did everything possible to raise the living standards of students and to give them opportunities for study. For this purpose increased allowances for students were introduced in a number of universities; students who were war invalids and those whose parents died in action were exempt from all fees.

To provide the necessary scientific staffs, postgraduate courses which were

abolished at the beginning of the war were re-introduced in 1943.

All these measures enabled higher education to continue despite wartime difficulties and provide the country with highly skilled personnel for all branches of its economy.

The Tenth Session of the Supreme Soviet in February, 1944, fixed the rate of reconstruction work as regards higher education for 1944, as well as the number of students. The expenditure allocated by the State budget was sufficient to restore 86 institutes in regions liberated from the German invaders.

With the country's transition to peacetime development, the Government has set out to draw up a new Five-Year Plan to cover the period 1946-50. During this period, tens of thousands of additional specialists will be needed. At the present rate of enrollment, some 100,000 specialists with college education will be graduated annually for the next few years. Nevertheless some branches of the national economy will experience shortages for example, engineers in the iron, steel and fuel industries; teachers, economists and lawyers.

By the end of the fourth Five-Year Plan the number of students annually matriculating in colleges and universities is expected to reach 195,000. This will insure the graduation of 150,000 specialists annually. Emphasis will be given to training in the new scientific and technical fields opened during the war.

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