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## The Soviet Union and General Disarmament The Soviet-Persian Neutrality Pact Soviet Note on Polish-Lithuanian Controversy Recall of Soviet Representative in France Foreign Trade of the Soviet Union for 1926-27 Manifesto of Central Executive Committee

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## The Soviet Union and General Disarmament

**A**T the first session of the Preparatory Commission for a Disarmament Conference, held in Geneva, on November 30, 1927, under the auspices of the League of Nations, the Soviet Delegation, headed by Mr. M. M. Litvinov, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, submitted the following declaration:

The government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, having been unable to participate in three sessions of the Preparatory Commission for the disarmament conference, has entrusted its delegation to the fourth session of the Preparatory Commission with the task of making a declaration covering all questions connected with the problem of disarmament.

The Soviet Government is of the opinion it has always held, that under the capitalist system no grounds exist for counting upon the removal of the causes which give rise to armed conflicts. Militarism and big navies are essentially natural consequences of the capitalist system. By their very growth they intensify existing contradictions immensely accelerating and sharpening all hidden potential conflicts and inevitably convert these into armed clashes.

The peoples of all countries, however, bled white and impoverished by the imperialist World War of 1914-18, are full of determination to struggle against new imperialist wars and to safeguard peace between nations.

It is precisely this latter circumstance that makes it possible for the Soviet Government to accept the invitation of the League of Nations which, in words, expressed itself in favor of disarmament. In so doing, the Soviet Government demonstrates before the whole world its will to peace among nations and makes clear the real aspirations and true desires of the capitalist states in regard to disarmament.

Despite the fact that the World War was called a "war to end war," the whole post-war history of international relations has been one of unintermittent and systematic increase of armed forces in the capitalist states and of a vast increase in the general burden of militarism, resting heavily on the shoulders of the working masses.

The world does not see so far even a partial fulfillment of the solemn promises of the League of Nations. In its activities in this regard the League of Nations has systematically evaded considering the disarmament question from a practical standpoint.

All of the work done by the Preparatory Commission in this respect has been of a purely decorative nature. Thus the League of Nations did not take up the question of universal disarmament until 1924. The conference on universal disarmament was scheduled to convene on May 1, 1925, but up to the present not only has the matter of disarmament made no headway, but even the date for the conference cannot be fixed.

The League of Nations has likewise been fruitlessly "considering" the question of the limitation of military budgets, since 1920.

Reluctance to put into practice the policy of disarmament, both on the part of the League of Nations and of individual imperialist states, was manifested in the very methods adopted and in the alternation of the questions of disarmament and guarantees, while simultaneous attempts are being made to consider in detail all the factors determining the armed power of the various countries concerned. Such a treatment of the question, evoking endless and fruitless arguments on so-called military potentials, affords actual opportunity for an evasion of the fundamental and decisive question of the actual extent of disarmament.

There can be no doubt that if the question will be treated in this manner at the coming disarmament conference, no curtailment of existing armaments will take place; on the contrary, the states belonging to the League of Nations may even receive legal sanction for increasing armaments in the future.

The Soviet Government has systematically endeavored to get the question of disarmament considered in its practical aspects. Its efforts have, however, always encountered determined resistance on the part of other states. The Soviet Government, the only one to show in deeds its will to peace and disarmament, was not admitted to the Washington Conference of 1921-1922, devoted in particular to questions of curtailment of naval armaments. The proposal for universal disarmament made by the Soviet delegation at the Genoa Conference on April 10, 1922, was rejected by the leading spheres of the conference.

Notwithstanding the aforesaid opposition, the Soviet Government has never relaxed its determined endeavors in the said direction. In December, 1922, a conference of representatives of the border states was called at Moscow by the Soviet Government for a joint discussion of the prob-

lem of the proportional curtailment of armaments. The Soviet Government agreed to a considerable diminution of its armaments, despite the fact that this would not affect many of the great powers, always ready, whether under obligation of treaties or not, to come to the assistance of the other countries represented at the Moscow conference, should these be involved in conflicts with the Soviet Union.

A concrete and well-grounded plan for a diminution of armaments was proposed at that conference by the Soviet Government. That plan was, however, likewise rejected.

Despite the negative attitude of the Soviet Government with regard to the activities of the League of Nations, it accepted the invitation of December 12, 1925, to attend the coming disarmament conference. Only the Soviet-Swiss conflict brought about by the assassination of Vorovsky and the subsequent acquittal of the assassin by a Swiss court have prevented the Soviet Union from taking part in the previous sessions of the Preparatory Commission for the Disarmament Conference.

In now sending a delegation to the fourth session of the Preparatory Commission for the Disarmament Conference the Soviet Government has authorized it to present a plan for complete universal disarmament. The Soviet Delegation is authorized by its government to propose the complete abolition of all land, marine and air forces.

The Soviet Government suggests the following measures for the realization of this proposal:

(a) The dissolution of all land, sea and air forces and their prohibition in any concealed form whatsoever.

(b) The destruction of all weapons, military supplies, means of chemical warfare and all other forms of armament and means of destruction in possession of troops or military or general stores.

(c) The scrapping of all warships and military air craft.

(d) The discontinuance of calling citizens for military training, either in armies or public organizations.

(e) Legislation for the abolition of military service, either compulsory, voluntary or recruited.

(f) Legislation prohibiting the calling up of trained reserves.

(g) The destruction of fortresses and naval and air bases.

(h) The scrapping of plants for military purposes, and of installations for military industry in the general industrial establishments.

(i) The discontinuance of assigning funds for military purposes, both in state budgets and in those of public organizations.

(j) The abolition of the ministries of war, navy and military aviation, the dissolution of general

staffs and all kinds of military administrations, departments and institutions.

(k) The legislative prohibition of military propaganda and military training of the population, and of the education of youth in the same spirit, either by state or by public organizations.

(l) The legislative prohibition to patent all kinds of armaments and means of destruction, with a view to the removal of the incentive for the invention of the same.

(m) Legislation making the infringement of any of the above stipulations a grave crime against the state.

(n) The withdrawal or corresponding alteration of all legislative acts, both on a national and international scope, which are in contradiction to the above stipulations.

The delegation of the U. S. S. R. is empowered to propose the fulfillment of the above program of complete disarmament as soon as the convention to that effect comes into force, all the necessary measures for the destruction of military stores to be completed within a year.

The Soviet Government considers that the above plan for carrying out complete disarmament is the simplest and the most conducive to peace.

In case the capitalist states reject the immediate actual abolition of standing armies, the Soviet Government, in its desire to facilitate the achievement of a practical agreement for complete disarmament, considers it possible to offer the following proposal: Complete disarmament is to be carried out simultaneously by all the contracting states by gradual stages within a period of four years, the first stage to be accomplished in the course of the coming year.

Funds released from war budgets are to be employed by each state at its own discretion, but exclusively for productive and cultural purposes.

While fully defending the above stated views, the delegation of the U. S. S. R. will participate in any and every discussion of the question of limitation of armaments whenever practical measures really leading to disarmament are proposed.

The delegation declares that the Soviet Government fully subscribes to the convention on the prohibition of the application to military purposes of chemical and bacteriological substances and expresses its readiness to sign the convention immediately. It insists on an early date being fixed for its ratification by all states and considers that, in order to insure the enforcement of the convention, it is necessary to raise the question of the establishment of workers' control over the peace-time production of those chemical industries capable of being rapidly converted to war purposes in states which have a highly developed chemical industry.

### Mr. Litvinov's Speech

After the above declaration had been read, Mr. Litvinov made the following speech:

This is our disarmament program. At first glance its radicalism, its wide sweep, will seem to you complicated, difficult to realize, nay, even utopian. But this is only due to the fact that the subject is so new. It may be stated definitely that the question of general disarmament has never been taken up as yet. Up to the present this was forbidden ground. The realization of our program does not tally, of course, with the political interests of the great powers, and above all, with those of the big industries. We are very well aware of it. But the problem of complete disarmament, by itself, does not present any difficulties and could be settled quickly and easily. This program is, at any rate, simpler, and requires less time for detailed study than those schemes which until now constituted the basis of the activities of the Preparatory Commission.

I must admit that I studied those schemes and I was frightened to see how involved they are, how confused the questions which are being brought up simultaneously with the disarmament problem. And, indeed, the Commission has already devoted several sessions to the discussion of the list of the questions and to the establishment of the points which would form the basis of an international convention on partial disarmament. Complete accord has been attained only on questions of the very least importance, on questions which are practically commonplaces. The overwhelming majority of the questions or, more correctly of their titles, have called forth differences of opinion which were not removed by any commission, nor still less by any special negotiations between the governments. And only after the removal of these differences (should this ever take place) will the real difficulties facing the commission begin. The commission will have to be unanimous in order to establish the degree of security of every single country, in order to determine the extent and the significance of its international obligations, its geographical and other peculiarities, and to be able to indicate the maximum quota of troops and technical equipment, navy, airplanes, etc., possible for each of the countries involved.

This enumeration suffices for showing in all its nakedness the complete hopelessness, if not utopianism, of such a conception of the disarmament problem. If the problem is put in such a way, then there is no possibility to foresee its solution under the present status of international relations, because the recent events, the agreements concluded lately are leading not to unity but to a division of the European and non-European countries into political groups and to the strengthening of the antagonism between them. This situa-

tion does not offer any grounds for judging optimistically the possibility of a solution of the questions with which the Preparatory Commission is confronted. But this is not all. Attempts were made to discontinue the activities of the Preparatory Commission in the expectation of a solution of the entire complex of political events which are not less involved and complicated than those about which I just spoke. If the present basis of the activities of the Preparatory Commission is not changed, and if, in spite of it, the commission will not break down under the weight of the innumerable discussions which are developing in its fold, then it will be condemned to years, nay, to decades of work without any hope for results, at least for tangible results. This may be asserted with absolute certainty. Meanwhile we are living in an epoch in which the danger of war is not a theoretical possibility but an absolutely real menace. We are not the only ones to assert this. The same apprehensions were expressed recently by many authoritative statesmen of the capitalist countries. The breath of the impending inevitable war is being felt everywhere. If the war can be avoided, it is necessary to act without any further delay. We believe that complete, immediate disarmament is the best guaranty of security for all nations. This problem should be taken up immediately and decided in the shortest possible time. Countries which evade this problem are assuming a tremendous responsibility. For this reason I am taking the liberty of submitting the following resolution in the name of the Soviet Delegation:

### Draft of Resolution Submitted by the Soviet Delegation

Whereas the existence of armaments and their obvious tendency towards further growth are inevitably bound to lead to armed conflicts between the various countries, diverting the workers and peasants from their peaceful productive toil and causing countless calamities; whereas the armed forces are used by the great powers for the purpose of oppressing small nationalities and colonial countries; whereas only complete suppression of all armaments is a real guaranty of security and a satisfactory medium for preventing war—the fourth session of the Preparatory Commission for the Disarmament Conference resolves:

(1) To commence immediately the elaboration of a detailed draft of a convention concerning universal disarmament, on the basis of the proposal of the Delegation of the U. S. S. R.

(2) To call not later than in March, 1928 a Disarmament Conference for the discussion and confirmation of the proposals included in clause 1.

After having made public the draft of the resolution, Mr. Litvinov continued:

As there are no earnest objections against the substance of our program, we foresee that some groups will attempt to represent our program and our resolution as propaganda. This time we are ready to accept the challenge and to declare that this is propaganda for peace. We are conducting such propaganda and we are going to conduct it in the future. If the Preparatory Commission for Disarmament is not the proper place for peace propaganda, then it must be assumed that we are here through a misunderstanding. The Soviet Government is vigorously carrying on a policy of peace and is asserting it not only in words but also in deeds.

Only a few days ago when it seemed that the clouds of war had particularly darkened the horizon of Eastern Europe, the Soviet Government

did all in its power to prevent the catastrophe. It availed itself of all arguments at its disposal in order to influence the Lithuanian Government and to convince it of the necessity of stating immediately that the condition of war between Poland and Lithuania has ceased. The Soviet Government has also taken the initiative to convince two other neighbors of Lithuania of the necessity of giving to Lithuania similar advice on their part. Proper steps aiming at the preservation of peace were undertaken by the Soviet Government in Warsaw as well.

This peace policy of the Government of the Soviet Union gives us a special right to declare firmly that we will not neglect any opportunity for intensifying the propaganda for disarmament and peace.

## Foreign Relations of the Soviet Union

ON October 4, 1927, Mr. G. Tchitcherin, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, addressed the following note to M. Herbet, French Ambassador in Moscow:

Mr. Litvinov, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs, communicated to the Soviet Government the contents of your verbal statement which, on October 1 of the current year, you made to him in the name of your Government regarding the request of the French Government to revoke Mr. Rakovsky from his post of Plenipotentiary Representative. In the opinion of the Soviet Government the communication made by you touches upon a question which is of extraordinary importance in the relations between the two countries. The recall of Mr. Rakovsky is so undesirable to the Soviet Government, it is so inexplicable in view of the advance made, due to Mr. Rakovsky, in the matter of debt settlement, and so dangerous to the cause of negotiations between the two Governments with regard to debts and credits as well as to other important questions—as was repeatedly pointed out to you, Mr. Ambassador, by the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs, that the Soviet Government finds it difficult to adopt any decision without being in possession of the exact statement of the request presented by the French Government, concerning the recall of Mr. Rakovsky, and the motives which prompted that request.

In view of the above I have the honor of asking you, Mr. Ambassador, to send us, in the name of your Government, a written statement of the decision of the Council of Ministers of the French Republic, and of the grounds which led to the adoption of that decision.

Upon receipt of the written statement for which I am asking I will not delay in submitting the decision of your Government to the Presidium

of the Central Executive Committee of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

G. TCHITCHERIN.

The second note, as of October 12, addressed by Mr. Tchitcherin to the French Ambassador reads as follows:

The People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs has communicated your note of October 7 to the Government of the Soviet Union; in accordance with the decision adopted, it has the honor of bringing the following to your cognizance:

The Government of the Soviet Union does not deny that the French Government has the right to ask for the recall of a representative of a foreign country; but it believes that a request of this kind should be based on weighty considerations, particularly when it refers to an ambassador who, in the course of two years, had been successfully conducting negotiations of prime importance, which have yielded very substantial results in the interest of both countries. The Government of the Soviet Union must, however, declare that it cannot agree with the arguments presented in your note.

The instance referred to in your note concerning the signature appended by Mr. Rakovsky, in the course of an intra-party discussion, to the declaration of August 9, was subject of an exchange of verbal notes and conversations between you and me, as a result of which you, Mr. Ambassador, declared to me, on September 4, that your Government considered itself satisfied with the explanations given by me and that the incident may be considered closed. This was all the more natural and comprehensible, as Mr. Rakovsky made a public statement coinciding with my explanations, which testified to a full agreement between him and me in the condemnation of the motives and intentions which were

incorrectly attributed to him and which both he and I consider incompatible with the functions of an ambassador. If the French Government, according to your statement, Mr. Ambassador, considered itself satisfied with the explanations received, then it is perfectly incomprehensible why it is now reverting to that question, and asking for another reparation.

Apparently the French Government itself realizes that the above mentioned reasons for the recall of the Soviet Ambassador are unfounded and insufficient, if at present it has deemed it necessary to hold against Mr. Rakovsky the publication of the letter to Mr. De Monzie. In this connection I will permit myself, first of all, to remind you, Mr. Ambassador, and your Government, of the fact that in the course of the last few weeks and months a certain part of the French press, availing itself of information which it could have obtained only from French official sources, was distorting and misrepresenting that information by spreading rumors about the complete futility and failure of the negotiations conducted between the Soviet and French delegations concerning the compensation of French holders of Russian pre-war bonds. Those rumors which aimed at discrediting both the conduct of our delegation in the Franco-Soviet negotiations and the serious intentions of the Soviet Government with regard to the solution of the disputed questions and the improvement of the relations with France, could not be ignored by the Soviet Government. This circumstance prompted Mr. Rakovsky to publish his communication about the agreement reached and about the differences which remain to be settled. If this is supplemented by the fact that Mr. Rakovsky published his communication with the knowledge of Mr. De Monzie, Chairman of the French Delegation, it becomes perfectly clear that the accusation of lack of good faith and of tactlessness brought forth against Mr. Rakovsky, was entirely unfounded.

In expounding in greater detail the above arguments in our conversations with you, Mr. Ambassador, both Mr. Litvinov and I pointed out that the recall of Mr. Rakovsky, to whose efforts and energy the Franco-Soviet Conference owes to a considerable extent the results already achieved, could not help causing a moral prejudice to the conference itself and objectively influencing its further activities most unfavorably, in consequence of which the Soviet Government refuses to assume, even in the remotest way, any responsibility for the recall of Mr. Rakovsky and for the possible consequences of that recall. If in addition to this, it is considered that the steps undertaken by you with regard to the recall of Mr. Rakovsky, were preceded and accompanied by an unheard of campaign against Mr. Rakovsky and by inadmissible insults directed against him on the part of certain French newspapers which could have obtained their information from official sources only, then it is obviously entirely im-

possible to speak of any civil form in which, allegedly, it was intended to express the demand for Mr. Rakovsky's recall.

After the refutation of the reasons for the recall of Mr. Rakovsky, adduced in your note and analyzed above, the groundlessness of which is obvious, there remains only the very fact of the formal demand by the French Government for the recall of Mr. Rakovsky. The Soviet Government does not deny that the French Government has the right to request of a foreign country the substitution of another ambassador for the one in office. It cannot help reckoning with such a request on the part of the French Government in spite of the fact that the reasons communicated to the Soviet Government are without a basis. For this reason the Government of the U. S. S. R. considers itself forced to relieve Mr. Rakovsky of the duties of Ambassador to France, and to appoint in his stead a successor concerning whose personality it now demands the consent of the French Government.

I beg you, Mr. Ambassador, to bring the above to the cognizance of your Government, and to accept the assurance of my perfect esteem.

G. TCHITCHERIN.

#### Soviet-Persian Agreements

At the conclusion of the negotiations between the Government of the Soviet Union and that of Persia, the following documents were signed in Moscow, dated October 1, 1927:

(1) A Guaranty and Neutrality Agreement establishing the mutual obligations of both parties concerning non-aggression, non-intervention in the internal affairs and non-participation in political alliances and agreements, as well as in economic boycotts and blockades directed against the other party.

(2) An exchange of notes concerning the commercial relations between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and Persia, determining the rules according to which the trade exchange between the two countries is to be effected. The establishment of a quota of 50 million rubles for the importation of goods of Persian origin to the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is stipulated; within this quota a simplified method of importing Persian goods to the U. S. S. R. and of exporting Soviet goods to Persia has been established, Persian imports to be balanced by Soviet exports to the extent of 90 per cent, and preferential rights for the purchase of the industrial raw materials imported by Persian merchants are to be granted to Soviet State organizations and cooperatives. Persia is granted free export transit through the territory of the U. S. S. R. to other countries, as well as import transit—within the limits of special lists—from other countries with which the U. S. S. R. has concluded trade agreements.

(3) An agreement concerning the exploitation of the fisheries on the southern shore of the Cas-

pian Sea, the term of the operations of the mixed Soviet-Persian Company exploiting these fisheries being fixed at 25 years.

(4) An exchange of notes concerning the port Pehlevi, which establishes the terms on which the Persian Government is to maintain the port and its equipment in proper condition necessary for the requirements of navigation.

(5) A customs convention establishing the convention tariff in the trade relations between the U. S. S. R. and Persia, as well as the mutual principle of the most favored country in tariff and customs matters.

A separate contract of lease, signed simultaneously with the exchange of notes, establishes the rules according to which the Caspian Joint Stock Steamship Company is to use the wharves, the warehouses and other structures of the port of Pehlevi.

#### *Text of the Guaranty and Neutrality Agreement*

The Central Executive Committee of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and His Imperial Majesty, the Shah of Persia, recognizing that it is in the interest of both contracting parties to determine the exact conditions facilitating the consolidation of stable normal relations and of the sincere friendship uniting them, have nominated plenipotentiary representatives for this purpose, that is to say—

The Central Executive Committee of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics nominated George Vasilievich Tchitcherin, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and Lev Mikhailovich Karakhan, Assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U. S. S. R.; His Imperial Majesty, the Shah of Persia, nominated Mr. Ali-Goli-Kahn-Ansari, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Persia—who, having presented their credentials, which were found in good and due form, have agreed on the following:

#### ARTICLE I

The Treaty of February 26, 1921, remains the basis of the mutual relations between Persia and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics; all articles and stipulations of that treaty remaining in force and its validity to be extended over the entire territory of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

#### ARTICLE II

Each of the contracting parties obligates itself to refrain from attacks and any aggressive actions against the other party, or from leading its military forces into the territory of the other party.

In case one of the contracting parties is attacked by one or several outside powers, the other contracting party obligates itself to observe neutrality in the course of the entire conflict, and the party which was attacked is likewise bound not to violate this neutrality, regardless of any strategical, tactical or political considerations or advantages which such action might offer.

#### ARTICLE III

Each of the contracting parties obligates itself not to participate either formally or in fact in political alliances or agreements directed against the safety of the other party, either on land or on water, or against its integrity, its independence or its sovereignty.

Moreover, both contracting parties are to refuse participation in economic boycotts and blockades organized by outside powers against either of the contracting parties.

#### ARTICLE IV

In view of the obligations established by Articles 4 and 5 of the Treaty of February 26, 1921, each of the contracting parties, desirous not to interfere in the internal affairs of the other party and not to conduct any propaganda or fight against the Government of the other party, will strictly forbid its employees to undertake such actions on the territory of the other contracting party.

If the citizens of one contracting party sojourning on the territory of the other party will engage in propaganda or fight forbidden by the authorities of that party, the Government of that territory will have the right to stop the activities of those citizens and to apply to them the punishments provided by the statutes.

Likewise, by virtue of the above articles, each of the parties concerned obligates itself not to support and not to permit on its territory the formation or the activities (1) of organizations or groups, whatever their names, whose aim it is to combat the government of the other contracting party by means of violence, through uprisings or terrorist attempts; (2) of organizations or groups claiming to be the government of the other country or of parts of its territory, and which also aim at combating the government of the other contracting party by the above mentioned methods, or at disturbing its peace and security, or are threatening its territorial integrity.

Proceeding from the above principles both contracting parties likewise obligate themselves to forbid the recruiting, as well as the entry, into their territory, of armed forces, arms, military supplies and all kinds of war material destined for the above mentioned organizations.

#### ARTICLE V

Both contracting parties obligate themselves to settle by peaceful means most suitable in each particular case all kinds of differences which may arise between them and which cannot be settled by ordinary diplomatic means.

#### ARTICLE VI

Outside of the obligations which both contracting parties have assumed under the present agreement, both contracting parties reserve full liberty of action in their international relations.



## ARTICLE VII

The present agreement is concluded for a term of three years and is subject to be approved and ratified as soon as possible by the legislative organs of both countries whereupon it will enter into force.

The exchange of ratification notes is to take place in Teheran one month after ratification.

After the expiration of the first term, the agreement will be considered as automatically extended each year for one year until one of the contracting parties renounces it by giving notice to that effect. In that case the present agreement is to remain in force for six months after one of the contracting parties has notified the other of the dissolution of the agreement.

## ARTICLE VIII

The present agreement has been drawn up in the Russian, Persian and French languages in three original copies for each contracting party.

For purposes of interpretation all texts are considered authentic. In case of differences of opinion in interpreting the text, the French version will be considered as the fundamental.

In witness whereof the above mentioned Plenipotentiary Representatives signed the present agreement and attached their seals thereto.

Done in the City of Moscow, October 1, 1927.

GEORGE TCHITCHERIN.

ALI-GOLI-KHAN-ANSARI.

L. KARAKHAN.

## PROTOCOL No. 1

G. V. Tchitcherin, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U. S. S. R., and L. M. Karakhan, Assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U. S. S. R., declare that the Government of the U. S. S. R. has authorized them to confirm in its behalf, at the moment of signing the Guaranty and Neutrality Agreement between the U. S. S. R. and Persia, of this date, that the Government of the Union has not assumed any international obligations which would conflict with the aforesaid agreement, and likewise that it will not assume any such obligations as long as the said agreement remains in force.

Mr. Ali-Goli-Khan-Ansari, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Persia, declares that he has been authorized by the Persian Government to confirm in its behalf, at the moment of signing the Guaranty and Neutrality Agreement between Persia and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics of that date, that the Persian Government has not assumed any international obligations which are in contradiction to the aforesaid agreement, and that, likewise, it will not assume such obligations as long as the said agreement remains in force.

Done in Moscow, October 1, 1927.

GEORGE TCHITCHERIN.

ALI-GOLI-KHAN-ANSARI.

L. KARAKHAN.

## PROTOCOL No. 2

In accordance with the stipulations of the Treaty of February 26, 1921, which retains its validity as a whole and in all its parts, the obligations provided for in Article 2 of the Guaranty and Neutrality Agreement signed on this date between the U. S. S. R. and Persia, concerning the non-entrance of armed forces into the territory of the other contracting party, do not refer to the cases provided for in Article 6 of the Treaty of February 26, 1921, and to the explanations given in that article.

Done in Moscow, October 1, 1927.

GEORGE TCHITCHERIN.

ALI-GOLI-KHAN-ANSARI.

L. KARAKHAN.

*Appendix*

Moscow, October 1, 1927.

To Mr. G. Tchitcherin, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U. S. S. R.

At the moment of signing the Guaranty and Neutrality Agreement which was signed on this date between Persia and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, I have the honor of informing you as follows:

Considering that the Persian Government has always been endeavoring correctly to carry out all the obligations assumed voluntarily; that it is signing the present agreement with the purpose of sincerely respecting all obligations resulting therefrom, and insofar as the Persian Government considers that the above mentioned obligations are not in contradiction to the obligations of the Persian Government towards the League of Nations—

The Persian Government declares to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics that the Persian Government will also respect and carry out all its obligations as a member of the League of Nations.

ALI-GOLI-KHAN-ANSARI.

MR. TCHITCHERIN'S REPLY TO THE ABOVE LETTER

To Mr. Ali-Goli-Khan-Ansari, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Persia.

In behalf of my Government I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt and to take cognizance of the following note sent by you on this date:

(Repetition of text of preceding letter.)

GEORGE TCHITCHERIN.



### Soviet Note to Poland

On November 24, 1927, Mr. D. Bogomolov, the Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in Poland handed the following note to Mr. Zaleski, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Polish Republic:

Upon instructions from the Government of the U. S. S. R. I have the honor of bringing the following to your cognizance:

The Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is disturbed by the tension which has lately arisen between Poland and Lithuania and which constitutes a menace to peace. The Government of the Soviet Union cannot help looking with apprehension upon the development of a conflict which is pregnant with the most serious complications and may lead to new bloodshed and to new sufferings for millions of the working people all over Europe.

Without entering into an examination of the questions which are the object of the controversy between Poland and Lithuania, the Government of the Soviet Union considers it necessary to point out that the preservation of peace depends upon Poland to a much larger degree than upon Lithuania, in so far as the latter, considering its resources, cannot be interested in seeking a settlement of its claims by way of an armed conflict with Poland. Nor has the Government of the U. S. S. R. on its part neglected in a friendly way to remind the Lithuanian Government of the necessity of avoiding any step which would still further aggravate a situation which, in any case, is tense enough. However great the divergence may be between the demands of Poland and Lithuania, the Government of the Soviet Union is deeply convinced that the settlement of all disputed questions between these countries might be attained by exclusively peaceful means. However, the conflict between the two countries is growing more and more acute, and reports about the possibility of an armed conflict are with increasing frequency disturbing the public opinion of all countries.

The public opinion of the Soviet Union is in particular disturbed by the fact that the important Polish papers, without eliciting refutations from authoritative circles, have published reports alleging that the Polish Government has adopted the decision "radically to cut the knot of the Polish-Lithuanian relations."

Without venturing upon an estimate of all the alarming news confirming these apprehensions, the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the nearest neighbor of Poland and Lithuania, being deeply interested in the preservation of peace in Eastern Europe, is forced earnestly to call the attention of the Polish Government to the incalculable dangers that might result from a possible attempt on the part of Po-

land against the independence of Lithuania, whatever form it might assume, and it expresses its conviction that the Polish Government which only recently solemnly declared its desire for peace, will actually be able to dispose of the threatening danger of war.

The Government of the Soviet Union hopes that the Polish Government will realize that the present note has been prompted exclusively by the desire of the U. S. S. R. to preserve peace in general, and, in particular, to develop peaceful and friendly relations with Poland.

D. V. BOGOMOLOV.

### Settlement of the Controversy with Poland

Upon his return to Moscow, Mr. Patek, the Polish Envoy, visited Mr. Tchitcherin, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, and had a lengthy conversation with him. In view of the fact that the questions at issue which had come up in connection with the murder of Mr. Voikov, Plenipotentiary Representative of the U. S. S. R. in Poland, had been settled to the satisfaction of both parties, the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs considered the incident as closed.

### Relations with Austria

An incident clouding the friendly relations between the Soviet Union and Austria occurred in July, 1927, in connection with the disturbances which had taken place in Vienna. The incident was settled by a statement made in Moscow by the Austrian Mission about the end of August.

In a speech delivered in the Austrian Parliament concerning the July events, Mr. Hartleb, Vice-Chancellor of Austria, quoted a police report mentioning that Messrs. Lengyel and Rappoport, employees of the Soviet Trade Delegation in Berlin, who were arrested in the course of those events, were released, as there was absolutely no evidence of any illegal activities on their part. However, immediately following that admission, the police report pointed out that there was nevertheless positive suspicion that Lengyel and Rappoport had come to Vienna "for the purpose of Communist propaganda."

The fact that the Vice-Chancellor made that latter sentence public from the floor of the parliament represented an inadmissible attack against the Government of the Soviet Union. Diplomatic discussions between the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs and the Austrian Mission in Moscow resulted.

Finally, the Austrian Government, through the Austrian Mission in Moscow, made a statement to the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs, declaring that the suspicions with regard to Lengyel and Rappoport have proven unfounded—thus withdrawing the accusations of the Vice Chancellor.

### Reduction of Soviet Trade with England

The first issue of the *Review*, published by the Bank for Russian Trade, London, gives the first comprehensive summary of the sharp reduction of Soviet orders placed in Britain following the break in relations between the two countries in the latter part of May. According to the *Review*, the Soviet orders placed in Great Britain have fallen off by over 80 per cent since the break, and the loss in Soviet orders during the four-month period between June 1 and September 30 (the end of the Soviet fiscal year) is estimated at 21,400,000 pounds sterling.

During the first seven months of the Soviet fiscal year, October 1, 1926 to June 30, 1927, the Soviet orders placed in Great Britain averaged 1,665,951 pounds sterling per month. During May, the month of the break, orders placed declined to 1,099,671 pounds sterling. From June 1 to September 30, monthly orders averaged only 338,080 pounds sterling. In August they were 249,838 pounds sterling, and in September, 256,800 pounds sterling.

The following table gives shipments to the U. S. S. R. of goods purchased in Great Britain and orders placed by the Soviet trading organizations in Great Britain during the financial year 1926-27:

	In Pounds Sterling.	
	Shipments to the U. S. S. R.	Orders Placed in G. B.
October-December, 1926 .....	3,963,243	5,109,523
January, 1927 .....	1,448,155	1,293,353
February, 1927 .....	1,454,792	1,349,224
March, 1927 .....	1,974,873	2,596,695
April, 1927 .....	1,368,923	1,312,860
May, 1927 .....	1,765,472	1,099,671
June, 1927 .....	1,044,271	383,807
July, 1927 .....	919,930	461,877
August, 1927 .....	849,676	249,838
September, 1927 .....	529,590	256,800
Total for the year .....	15,318,925	14,113,648

At the beginning of the fiscal year it was planned to place orders in Great Britain amounting to £25,000,000. As a result of arrangements made for long-term credits in Britain, particularly the trade credit of £10,000,000 arranged with the Midland Bank, it was later arranged to increase the original plan by additional orders for machinery and equipment aggregating £10,500,000, thus bringing the total of orders in Great Britain for the year to £35,500,000.

The break in relations particularly hit the plans for orders for equipment for industry, electrical construction, agricultural machinery, motor transport and other technical material. The enlarged plan called for purchases in these lines for the year aggregating £17,000,000. Actual purchases were only £1,932,800, or 11.4 of the plan.

### Status of Soviet Trade Delegation in Sweden

An agreement concerning the legal status of the Soviet Trade Delegation in Sweden was signed about the middle of October, 1927. The principles on which it is based are the same as those that govern the legal status of the Soviet Trade Delegation in Germany and in other countries. The agreement stipulates the sphere of the obligations of the Trade Delegation, in its capacity as an organization protecting the interests of the Soviet Union in the field of foreign trade, also carrying on and regulating the foreign trade of the U. S. S. R. The extra-territoriality of the building occupied by the delegation has been guaranteed and the diplomatic privileges of the persons heading the delegation established.

### Forged Mexican-Soviet "Documents"

In response to inquiries, Mr. Boris E. Skvirsky has issued an emphatic denial of assertions in alleged documents recently printed in certain newspapers to the effect that the Soviet Embassy in Mexico received funds from the Mexican Government for conducting "propaganda" in Mexico. Mr. Skvirsky's statement reads:

"The attempt to bring the Soviet Union into the sensational Mexican 'documents' published in certain newspapers is both crude and disingenuous. According to the 'documents' money was to be paid from Mexican Government funds to one Pablo Palovichi for transmission to 'Mr. A. B., Secretary of the Russian Legation in Mexico.' There is no secretary with such initials attached to the Soviet Embassy in Mexico. I have never heard of any Palovichi.

"On their face the 'documents,' with the accompanying explanatory news story, are wholly ridiculous. They recall the documentary fabrications circulated for some years in European capitals by the forger Druzhelovsky, who confessed after his capture in the Soviet Union during the past year. None of the statements in regard to the Soviet Embassy in the Mexican 'documents' has any basis in fact."

### Changes in Soviet Diplomatic Service

Mr. V. S. Dovgalevsky was appointed Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in France, a post formerly held by Mr. C. Rakovsky.

Mr. A. A. Troyanovsky was appointed Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in Japan, a position in which he succeeded Mr. V. S. Dovgalevsky, appointed to a similar post in France.

Mr. D. V. Bogomolov was appointed Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in Poland.

Mr. B. S. Stomoniakov was appointed Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in Italy, Mr. L. B. Kamenev having been relieved of this post.

Mr. K. K. Yureniev was appointed Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in Austria, succeeding Mr. J. A. Berzin, who was relieved of that post.

Mr. A. M. Makar was appointed Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in Mexico, a post formerly held by Mme. A. M. Kollontai.

Mme. A. M. Kollontai was appointed Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in Norway, a position in which she succeeded Mr. A. M. Makar, who was appointed to a similar post in Mexico.

Mr. A. Y. Okhtin was appointed Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in Mongolia, Mr. P. M. Nikiforov having been relieved of this post.

## Foreign Capital in the U. S. S. R.

THE agreement with the American Farquhar Group, approved by the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R., provides for large investments in Soviet metal industries on the basis of American credits. The Makeyev metal works in the Donetsk coal basin are to be re-equipped to bring their yearly output up to about 870,000 metric tons of pig iron, which is four or five times more than the actual annual output of the works. At the same time, the net cost of the output will be reduced considerably.

To supply the works with coal and ore, new coal and iron mines will be equipped. The Makeyev works will be the largest enterprise of its kind in the Soviet Union, equipped in accordance with the latest inventions of American technique, with huge rolling mills of a type not yet constructed or operated in Europe. This reorganization of the Makeyev works is to be effected within three years, a comparatively short period.

To cover the costs of the necessary equipment, the Farquhar Group is to grant to the Soviet Government a six-year credit of \$40,000,000. In addition, the Government of the U. S. S. R. will spend out of its own resources about 50 million rubles (over \$25,000,000) for the development of these works. Thus this application of American capital represents not a concession, but the financing of orders for equipment. However, it is not confined to financing alone, as the Farquhar Group is also to render technical assistance in drafting the project of the works and in putting them into operation. The contract provides for the conversion of the six-year credit into a long-term 20-year loan.

Should such conversion of the loan be effected by the Farquhar Group within the first four years after the signing of the present agreement, the group shall have the right, first, to invest more

capital for financing the re-equipment of the Ekaterininsk, Donetsk, Likhaya-Stalingrad and Merefa-Kherson-Nikolayev railways into a super-trunk line, and for the re-equipment and enlargement of the port of Nikolayev; second, it will obtain a concession for the establishment of new metal and steel works in the region of the Ekaterininsk railway with an annual output of 1,000,000 tons, and for the establishment of elevators, wharves, warehouses and shipyards in Stalingrad. The terms of these concessions and financing arrangements are to be elaborated in special contracts.

## Gold Concession "Holter and Borgen"

The Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. has ratified a concession agreement concluded with the Norwegian firm Holter and Borgen, under which the concessionaire is granted the exclusive right of prospecting in the territory of twelve gold fields in the Bureinsk mining district in the Russian Far East, the term expiring October 1, 1929.

After taking over the fields the concessionaire is obliged immediately to undertake prospecting work. The resources necessary for running the concession are to be provided exclusively by foreign capital.

As soon as the prospecting activities yield results the concessionaire is entitled to start the exploitation of the gold fields. The exploitation period has been fixed at 24 years. As soon as the concessionaire starts the exploitation, but not later than April 1, 1930, he is obliged to organize a joint stock company for that purpose with a capital of not less than \$250,000.

For a period of five years the concessionaire has the right to import, free of duty, dredges and other equipment, according to special lists approved by the Supreme Council of National Economy of the Soviet Union.

The concessionaire is granted the exclusive right, within the territory of the concession, of purchasing the gold produced thereon. The Government has preferential rights in the purchase of all the gold mined and bought by the concessionaire.

Litigations and differences under the concession agreement are to be settled by an arbitration court in Moscow. If no agreement can be reached by the two contracting parties, the concessionaire elects an umpire from among a list of candidates proposed by the Academy of Sciences of the Soviet Union.

After the expiration of the concession term, the enterprise reverts to the Government without compensation.

## Manifesto of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R.

ON October 15, 1927 the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R., the highest authority of the Soviet Union, issued a manifesto on occasion of the tenth anniversary of the November Revolution. After reviewing the history of the first ten years of the Republic, the manifesto concluded with the announcement of the measures which the Soviet Government has decided to put through in the interest of the workers and peasants:

With regard to the industrial workers engaged in the mills and factories—to secure, in the course of the next few years, a transition from the eight-hour day to the seven-hour day without a reduction of wages. For this purpose the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. are to undertake, not later than in a year, the gradual realization of that decision in the various branches of industry, in conformity with the progress of reequipment of the industrial enterprises, their reorganization on a more efficient basis, and the growth of the productivity of labor.

To increase the federal budget appropriations for housing construction by 50 million rubles (over \$25,000,000), as compared with the preceding year, for the purpose of satisfying the requirements of the workers in those localities which are particularly suffering from the housing shortage.

For the purpose of improving the situation of the poorer strata of the agricultural population, to extend the exemption from the single agricultural tax to another 10 per cent of the peasant farms, in addition to the 25 per cent already exempted.

To cancel the indebtedness incurred by the peasant farms under the loans granted them by the Government on occasion of the bad harvest of 1924-25. The arrears due under the agricultural tax for the preceding years are to be remitted in case of the poorer peasants, and paying facilities are to be granted to the middle strata of the peasantry in paying off these arrears. To grant easier terms for the payment of arrears and fines to the poorer strata of the urban and rural population, incurred under other forms of taxation.

To undertake, at the expense of the Government, the rearrangement and improvement of land holdings of the poorer strata of the peasantry, and to appropriate for this purpose 10 million rubles (\$5,150,000), over and above the appropriations provided for under the budget for the fiscal year 1927-28.

To entrust the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. with the drafting of a

law providing for a gradual introduction, at the expense of the State, of old age pensions for the poorer peasants, the bill to be submitted at the next Soviet Congress of the U. S. S. R.

To appropriate, above the federal budget appropriations for 1927-28, additional 15 million rubles (\$7,725,000) for school construction in villages and industrial settlements.

To increase the insurance funds for war invalids by no less than double the present amounts.

To eliminate from the criminal codes which are in force in the constituent republics, the application of the death penalty in all cases except crimes against the State, military offences and armed robbery.

To instruct the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. to commute the penalties applied by court sentences or administrative orders in all cases, except of active members of political parties aiming at the destruction of the Soviet system and persons convicted of wilful squandering of State money or of taking bribes.

## Soviet Foreign Trade for 1926-27

SOVIET foreign trade for 1926-27 (fiscal year ending September 30, 1927) was characterized by an increase in exports and a decrease in imports. In spite of the diplomatic break with Great Britain which it was feared would have an adverse effect on foreign trade, the foreign trade turnover increased from 1,433,000,000 rubles (\$737,995,000) in 1925-26 to 1,481,300,000 rubles (\$762,869,500) for the past fiscal year. Exports for the year were 768,600,000 rubles (\$395,829,000), a gain of 13.6 per cent over the preceding year, while imports fell from 756,400,000 rubles in 1925-26 to 712,700,000 rubles last year, a decrease of 5.8 per cent. There was a favorable trade balance of 55,900,000 rubles for the past year as contrasted with unfavorable balances of 79,800,000 rubles in 1925-26 and 148,300,000 rubles in 1924-25.

The figures for imports and exports for the past three fiscal years are shown below:

Year	Exports	Imports	Trade Balance
	Rubles	Rubles	Rubles
1924-25.....	575,200,000	723,500,000	— 148,300,000
1925-26.....	676,600,000	756,400,000	— 79,800,000
1926-27.....	768,600,000	712,700,000	+ 55,900,000

Customs receipts for the past year were 188,000,000 rubles as compared with 148,600,000 rubles in 1925-26 and 99,000,000 rubles in 1924-25.

During the past year there were substantial increases in the exports of grain products, timber, furs, petroleum products and sugar, as compared with the fiscal year 1925-26. The oil exports which passed the two million ton mark (\$105,000,000) were the highest ever attained. Sugar ex-

ports showed an especially noteworthy increase going from 1,300 tons in 1925-26 to 69,600 tons (\$4,686,000) in the past year. Exports of timber were 28 per cent higher last year than for the preceding year, amounting to 2,133,200 tons (\$36,184,000) as compared with 1,666,700 tons in 1925-26. Grain exports (2,226,800 tons, value \$105,500,000) increased 8.7 per cent and the value of fur exports (\$41,364,000) was 27 per cent in excess of the preceding year's. Increases were shown also in exports of poultry, eggs, butter, casings and manganese ore.

A considerable falling off in exports of flax and tow, hemp, bristles, seeds and oil cakes took place during the past year.

Food stuffs made up 50 per cent of the exports for the year and raw and semi-manufactured materials constituted 48.5 per cent.

On the import side, in spite of the decrease in total imports there were large increases in the imports of raw and semi-manufactured materials, especially cotton and non-ferrous metals and in imports of industrial machinery. Cotton imports increased from 85,600 tons in 1925-26 to 148,100 tons (\$62,109,000) last year, a gain of 73 per cent. The increase in the value of the cotton imported was, however, considerably less owing to the drop in the price of cotton. The value of the industrial machinery imports was 69,576,000 rubles (\$35,840,000), an increase of 64 per cent over the figure for the preceding year which was 42,397,000 rubles. Imports of non-ferrous metals during the last year amounted to 44,522,000 rubles, (\$22,930,000), a gain of 55.4 per cent over 1925-26.

There were also increases in imports of tanning materials, coal, wool, woolen yarn and ferrous metals.

During the past year there was a decrease in the imports of agricultural machines, tractors, automobiles, paints, cotton thread and cloth, and paper as compared with the preceding year.

Especially significant was the decrease in imports of cotton cloth which were only about a tenth as large as the imports for 1925-26, valued at 38,369,000 rubles.

The principal imports are raw cotton, industrial machinery, agricultural machinery including tractors, non-ferrous metals, leather, wool, tea and paper.

The Soviet foreign trade turnover across the Asiatic frontiers amounted to 179,261,000 rubles (\$92,319,415) for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1927.

The customs statistics for European borders by countries show that the United States now ranks second in imports to the Soviet Union, the imports having increased from 119,900,000 rubles in 1925-26 to 143,400,000 rubles last year, a gain of 19.6 per cent. Imports from Germany still occupy first place in the Soviet foreign trade but England has been displaced by the United States as the second in rank. However, England was the principal market for Soviet products, the exports for 1926-27 amounting to 197,500,000 rubles as against 187,100,000 rubles in 1925-26. England and Germany together absorbed about 54 per cent of the total exports of the U. S. S. R. across its European frontiers.

*Exports and Imports by Countries for the past two fiscal years (in gold rubles)*

	Fiscal Year 1926-27		Fiscal Year 1925-26	
	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports
	Rubles	Rubles	Rubles	Rubles
United States .....	17,300,000	143,400,000	25,100,000	119,900,000
Germany .....	167,300,000	157,700,000	111,000,000	172,200,000
England .....	197,500,000	97,100,000	187,100,000	125,400,000
Australia .....	—	15,600,000	—	16,800,000
Belgium .....	13,200,000	100,000	18,600,000	1,900,000
Czecho-Slovakia .....	2,200,000	10,800,000	500,000	18,100,000
Denmark .....	9,900,000	900,000	10,400,000	1,700,000
Egypt .....	5,900,000	20,800,000	2,900,000	26,600,000
Estonia .....	6,900,000	3,600,000	17,000,000	6,500,000
Finland .....	10,500,000	17,700,000	4,500,000	14,700,000
France .....	54,100,000	21,700,000	89,800,000	19,000,000
Holland .....	23,200,000	4,900,000	21,100,000	6,800,000
Italy .....	37,700,000	3,200,000	33,500,000	23,200,000
Latvia .....	57,400,000	1,600,000	63,500,000	4,400,000
Poland .....	19,500,000	13,100,000	3,100,000	9,200,000
Sweden .....	6,200,000	11,800,000	3,300,000	20,400,000
Other Countries .....	49,400,000	99,800,000	47,700,000	86,900,000
Total .....	678,200,000	623,800,000	589,100,000	673,700,000
	(\$349,278,000)	(\$321,257,000)	(\$303,386,500)	(\$346,955,500)

The principal countries figuring in Soviet foreign trade across its Asiatic borders are Persia, China and Japan. The trade turnover with Persia amounted to 71,170,000 rubles for the eleven months ending August 31, of the past fiscal year.

The trade with China amounted to 36,344,000 rubles for the same period. The United States received exports from the U. S. S. R. by way of the Pacific valued at 5,695,000 rubles during the eleven months' period.

## Exploration of Natural Resources of the U. S. S. R.

THE exploration of the natural resources of the Soviet Union is being continued with ever increasing success. In the course of the past month the Soviet press published a great number of new reports about discoveries and achievements in this field.

The following are the principal results of recent investigations:

Large lead deposits were discovered in the Nerchinsk mining district in Eastern Siberia. Investigations started in the Summer of 1926 by the Geological Committee of the Supreme Economic Council, marked 300 silver and lead deposits on the geological map, many of them discovered recently. The richest of all deposits is the Kadainsk mine. The explored reserves of that deposit have been estimated at 328,000 metric tons. The ore in question contains 10 per cent lead and about 20 per cent zinc. The largest deposits of the Nerchinsk district contain reserves of such magnitude as to render their industrial exploitation possible. Lead has also been discovered recently, at a distance of 74 kilometers from the station Turkestan on the Orenburg railroad. The thickness of the ore layer in that location is three meters. Considering the scarcity of lead in the Soviet Union, the discovery of new lead deposits is a matter of paramount importance.

In the course of last summer new coal deposits were discovered in a number of districts of the U. S. S. R. In Skopin County (Ryazan Province) coal fields constituting a continuation of the Moscow coal basin were discovered. The layer is four meters thick and extends over a distance of two kilometers. The coal field is situated very favorably from the point of view of railway transport. Rich coal fields were discovered in the Cheliabinsk district, in the Urals. In the Yegorshinsk sub-district in the Ural Region new high-grade anthracite fields were found.

Platinum deposits were found in the sub-district Burmantovo in the Ural Region. These deposits are 400 meters wide, the thickness of the layers reaching three meters.

Rich gold deposits were found in the Gazimursk fields in Siberia. Very minute prospecting work has been undertaken. About 500 independent prospectors are working on the deposits.

In the Berezhniakov sub-district, in the Ural Region new rich potassium deposits were found. The potash deposits in this district are from 70 to 310 meters thick and extend over an area of 410 square kilometers. Three shafts have already been drilled. The investigating activities are being continued by the Geological Committee. The potash deposits investigated last year in the So-

likamsk district (on the Kama river) and in the Berezhniakov sub-district which are at a distance of 32 kilometers from each other are twice as large as all the known potassium deposits of the world.

It must be pointed out that the electrical prospecting method has begun to be widely applied in the U. S. S. R. It was the application of this method which led to the discovery of lead deposits in the Nerchinsk district, and of copper deposits in the Kazak Republic, Soviet Central Asia. The investigation of the mineral resources which is being greatly encouraged by the Soviet Government, in discovering daily new natural riches which are of great industrial importance for the country.

## Book Reviews

"HOW BUSINESS IS CARRIED ON IN SOVIET RUSSIA," by Anna Louise Strong. Haldeman-Julius.

"MARRIAGE AND MORALS IN SOVIET RUSSIA," by Anna Louise Strong. Haldeman-Julius.

"HOW THE COMMUNISTS RULE RUSSIA," by Anna Louise Strong. Haldeman-Julius.

"PEASANT LIFE IN SOVIET RUSSIA," by Anna Louise Strong. Haldeman-Julius.

"WORKERS' LIFE IN SOVIET RUSSIA," by Anna Louise Strong. Haldeman-Julius.

"ON THE STEPPES," by James N. Rosenberg. Alfred A. Knopf.

Miss Strong has spent several years in the Soviet Union, and her five little volumes, published in the Haldeman-Julius Blue Book series, are intimate, first-hand studies of various aspects of Soviet life. They are probably the most authentic studies available in English in this country today. In particular the volume entitled "How Business Is Carried on in Soviet Russia" contains much material of value for persons interested in trade with the Soviet Union. Miss Strong is a sympathetic observer, but a shrewd critic. She sought her contacts with and her information from obscure members of the population, over a wide range, as well as from public officials and industrial leaders. Her studies are sane and well balanced, with ample backgrounds. They form a pleasing contrast to some of the propagandist distortions in book form imported to this country from London during recent months.

"On the Steppes" by the Vice-Chairman of the Joint Distribution Committee, is a diary of his visit of inspection to the new Jewish Colonies in the Soviet Union last year. It affords a graphic survey of the large achievement of settling thousands of Jewish families on the land and gives a first-hand view of the colonies and the mode of life of the colonists. Mr. Rosenberg has packed a great deal of shrewd observation and solid information into his staccato notes. The pages are filled with color and life.

## Miscellaneous News

### The Death of A. A. Ioffe

The death of Adolph Abramovich Ioffe is a great loss to the Soviet Union, in particular to its diplomatic service. The man who, on November 17, 1927, at the age of forty-four, saw in suicide the only relief from physical sufferings for which medical science had no remedy, was one of the most brilliant statesmen brought to the fore by the Revolution. A revolutionist since 1902 he took an active part in the events leading to the November Revolution of 1917. Chairman of the Soviet delegation at the Brest-Litovsk negotiations with the Central Powers, he became from that time on, one of the outstanding diplomats of his country. The first Soviet Ambassador to Germany in 1918, he was later, in 1919 and 1920, instrumental in conducting the peace negotiations with the three Baltic countries, which he brought to a successful conclusion. One of the most remarkable achievements of his career was the conclusion of the Riga Treaty with Poland after the war with that country in 1920. In 1922-23 he was Extraordinary Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in China and conducted negotiations with Japan. Following the resumption of diplomatic relations with Japan he was appointed Plenipotentiary Representative in Tokio. It was during his stay in the Far East that he contracted the cruel illness that led to his death. After his return from Japan he was Assistant Chairman of the Chief Concessions Committee.

### "Uprisings" and "Disorders" in the Ukraine

In connection with the spurious reports about uprisings and disorders in the Ukraine published in the press, Mr. Boris E. Skvirsky issued the following statement through the Soviet Union Information Bureau:

"I have received a cable from the Soviet Foreign Office emphatically denying the story originating in a newspaper in Bucharest, Rumania, and extensively circulated in the United States, about uprisings and disorders in the Ukraine. There have been no such disturbances in the Ukraine or in any other part of the Soviet Union.

"The autumn crop of fake stories about the Soviet Union has been particularly large in a number of European capitals. It has grown amazingly since Sir Henri Deterding and his associates failed either to gain control of the Soviet oil export or to cut off its markets."

### Soviet Anniversary Exhibitions Abroad

On the occasion of the Tenth Anniversary of the November Revolution the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries has made arrangements for exhibitions to be held in

various countries, showing the progress of the Soviet Union for the last ten years. It was decided to hold these exhibitions first in Berlin, Paris, Angora and New York. Afterwards parts of these exhibitions will be directed to Vienna, Prague, Stockholm, Berne, Athens, Constantinople, Teheran, Chicago and Tokio.

The chief sections of these exhibitions will deal with the following subjects: The national policy of the U. S. S. R., industry and industrialization of the country, agriculture, foreign and domestic trade, cooperatives, the financial system, transport system, posts and telegraph, public education, scientific life, art (graphic, theatre and cinema), municipal economy, housing construction, health protection, social welfare.

### Scientists and Experts to Assist Soviet Construction Activity

About the middle of October a group of scholars in the U. S. S. R., including some of the most prominent scientists and technical experts, issued an appeal to all scientific and technical forces of the U. S. S. R., calling upon them to join with them in the formation of a society which is to assist in the socialist construction work of the Republic.

The first task of the Society for Assisting Socialist Construction Work is to bring together those elements among the intellectuals who are friendly towards the Soviet system. Every member of the Society, while freely criticizing the shortcomings which may come to his notice will at the same time endeavor to be helpful in the solution of the most important economic and cultural problems.

Among the signatories of the appeal the following names may be mentioned: I. Abrikosov, Professor of Anatomy and Dean of the Medical Faculty of the Moscow State University; Prof. I. G. Aleksandrov, Chairman of the Technical Council of the Dnieper Super-Power Plant; V. A. Barykin, Professor of Microbiology at the First Moscow State University; Prof. A. N. Bach, Director of the Karpov Chemical Institute and of the Bach Biochemical Institute in Moscow; Prof. A. I. Geymanovich, Director of the Ukrainian Psychoneurological Institute in Kharkov; Prof. N. F. Gamaley, Director of the Leningrad Jenner Institute; A. N. Dolgov, Chairman of the All-Union Society of Engineers; B. M. Zavadovsky, professor of Physics at the Sverdlov University in Moscow; M. M. Zavadovsky, professor of Biology at the Second Moscow State University; Prof. V. I. Kovalenkov of the Leningrad Experimental Electrotechnical Laboratory; Prof. N. K. Koltzov, Di-



rector of the Institute of Experimental Biology in Moscow; the Academician N. S. Kurnakov, Director of the Institute of Applied Chemistry in Moscow; Prof. D. I. Mushketov, Chairman of the All-Union Geological Committee in Leningrad; Prof. A. V. Palladin, Director of the Ukrainian Biochemical Institute in Kharkov; S. D. Shein, Chairman of the All-Union Bureau of Engineers and Technicians.

### **Soviet Industries for the Past Year**

According to the preliminary data of the Central Statistical Administration of the Soviet Union for the past fiscal year 1926-27 (from October 1, 1926 to September 30, 1927) the value of the total output of the industries of the Soviet Union amounted to over 12 billion rubles (over 6 billion dollars), which is about 13.2 per cent above the output for 1925-26. The number of enterprises in operation increased during the year 1926-27 from 12,517 to 12,854.

The total output of coal for the past fiscal year was 30,940,000 metric tons, as against 24,431,000 metric tons in 1925-26. The total output of oil in 1926-27 was 10,184,000 metric tons, as against 8,461,000 in 1925-26. The total output of cotton cloth was 2,324,000,000 meters in 1926-27, as against 2,028,000,000 meters in 1925-26; that of woolen cloth 85,000,000 meters in 1926-27, as against 65,000,000 meters in 1925-26; that of linen 178,000,000 meters in 1926-27, as against 167,000,000 meters in 1925-26.

The total number of workers employed in the industrial establishments was 2,062,600 in 1926-27, as against 1,908,300 in 1925-26. The index of real wages, as compared with pre-war wages, was 104.2 in 1926-27, as against 93.4 in 1925-26.

### **Development of Automobile Traffic in the U. S. S. R.**

A society whose aim it is to contribute to the development of automobile traffic and to the improvement of the roads in the U. S. S. R. was constituted recently in Moscow under the chairmanship of Mr. V. Ossinsky, Director of the Central Statistical Department.

The Society is studying the problem of the construction of new automobile plants in the U.S.S.R., and is engaged in research to determine the make of automobile which is most suitable for the conditions prevailing in the country.

The Society will also devote its attention to the question of importing automobiles from abroad. It will establish those makes and types of foreign cars which are most acceptable, and will consider the offers of the various foreign automobile firms which want to import their cars into the U. S. S. R.

The Moscow Soviet has decided immediately to start in Moscow the construction of plants manufacturing automobiles and bicycles with an annual

output of from 10,000 to 12,000 passenger cars and motor trucks and of 120,000 bicycles. Part of the equipment will be ordered from abroad.

### **Struggle Against Child Vagrancy**

It is a well-known fact that since the time of the famine homeless children and adolescents flocked to Moscow from all parts of the country. Most of these homeless youngsters had been given shelter more than once in children's homes, receiving centers, etc., but could not settle anywhere. Although the total number of these homeless children is not so large, they are most difficult to manage.

The Children's Commission of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee had undertaken the task of taking care of all the homeless children in Moscow by the Tenth Anniversary of the Revolution.

This task has been carried out to a very large extent. At present over two thousand homeless children have been placed in the receiving centers in Moscow. Only few homeless children can be found now in the streets of Moscow.

The difficult question of the reeducation of the picked-up homeless children is now being discussed. The adoption of a number of preventive measures is contemplated. This work will require great efforts and considerable expenditure.

### **Radio in the Soviet Union**

Radio fans are multiplying so rapidly in the Soviet Union that the Government Trust is steadily expanding its effort to keep up with the demand for receiving sets. The number of receiving sets in use has now reached 200,000, as compared with 116,000 on February 1, last, and 30,000 at the beginning of 1926.

Forty-seven radio stations now broadcast daily programs in the Soviet Union, where there was only one in 1924 and nine in 1925. A dozen new stations are being built. There is now a broadcasting station in every large city. Moscow has four stations, Leningrad two and Kharkov, the capital of the Ukraine, has two.

On the occasion of the recent celebration of the tenth anniversary of the Soviet State, a broad hook-up carried the proceedings in Moscow, the capital, to remote parts of the country. Peasants in Siberia and in Central Asia, gathered in their village club rooms, listened in on the music and the speeches attendant on the celebration in the distant capital.

*Bound Volume V of the SOVIET UNION REVIEW, 192 pages, containing all the issues published in 1927 as well as a comprehensive index, will be ready early in January. Price \$3.00.*



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## The Concession Policy of the Soviet Union

THE first decree about concessions, outlining the conditions on which foreign capital was to be admitted to the Soviet Union, was issued in 1920. The Chief Concessions Committee was organized in 1923 and was entrusted with all the activities pertaining to the investment of foreign capital.

Since 1922 up to September 1, 1927, 2,193 applications for concessions were submitted. The largest number of applications are of German origin, making up 35.2 per cent of the total. The second place is held by England—11.1 per cent; next comes the United States with 9.4 per cent, France with 7.8 per cent, etc. The largest number of applications—30.1 per cent—dealt with the manufacturing industries. The second place is held by applications for technical service concessions—23.2 per cent, while applications for mining concessions rank third, with 11.7 per cent of the total.

The interest evinced in the different branches of national economy varies according to country. Germany was interested above all in the manufacturing industries; next came trading and agricultural concessions. The United States was mostly interested in mining concessions, trading and manufacturing taking the second place. France was primarily interested in the manufacturing industries, and only to a lesser degree in trading and mining concessions. England was chiefly interested in trading concessions.

By September, 1927, altogether 156 concession agreements had been concluded embracing practically all branches of national economy.

At the present time there are 110 concessions in operation. With 28.2 per cent of the total Germany holds the first place with regard to the number of concessions in operation. Next comes the United States with 10 per cent, England with 9.1 per cent, Japan with 7.3 per cent, Sweden and Poland with 5.5 per cent each, France and Austria with 4.5 per cent each, etc. The largest number of agreements, as compared with the number of applications submitted, was concluded with Japanese, English and American citizens, the latter leading in this respect.

There is no doubt that the establishment of normal international relations would increase the number of concession agreements to a considerable extent.

All concessionaires operating in the U. S. S. R. have obtained considerable results in spite of the

fact that they have begun their activities only a short time ago.

The Lena-Goldfields Company is the largest concession both as regards the scope of its activities and the amount of capital invested. In addition to the right to mine and to work the ores, the concessionaire is entitled to exploit the forest resources and to avail himself of the water power on the territory of his concession. In order to carry out the program the concessionaire is to invest 25 million rubles (over \$12,500,000) in the concession. During the first year of his activities the concessionaire has exceeded the production program laid down in the contract, by turning out 17,964 pounds of gold. Moreover, the largest dredge in the world was installed by him in the fields prior to the term stipulated.

The next largest foreign concession in the U. S. S. R., both in size and importance, and at the same time the largest American concession, is the Harriman manganese concession which is to reestablish the pre-war productivity of the Chiaturski fields in the course of the next two or three years.

Up to the present time the Harriman interests invested 2,500,000 rubles (over \$1,250,000) in the Chiaturski manganese concession. Over 800,000 metric tons of manganese ores, valued at 36,000,000 rubles (about \$18,500,000) were exported since the concession agreement went into effect.

The Tetiukhe Mining concession in the Maritime Province of the Russian Far East has equipped the first lead smelting plant in the U. S. S. R. prior to the term stipulated in the agreement; its output exceeds by 50 per cent the quantity required by the agreement.

Considerable success was achieved not only by the large and most profitable concessions, but also by all the other concessions which are operated on a smaller scale. The following concessions in the manufacturing industries are particularly profitable: The ball-bearing factory operated by the Swedish firm SKF; the dye factory operated by the Berger & Wirth concern; the Hammer concession engaged in the manufacture of pencils and office equipment; Stock & Co., engaged in the manufacture of fancy goods; the "Ragas" compressed gas company, etc. They all show a substantial profit of 20 to 25 per cent. The concession enterprises in the manufacturing industries in which the Soviet Government has granted a number of concessions are of medium size. They

manufacture articles of which there is a scarcity in the U. S. S. R. These enterprises are assured of a market for their output and they are very profitable.

The Soviet Government attaches great importance to building concessions. Various forms have been elaborated for the participation of foreign capital in this field, the latter being assured of large profits. Among the concessions working in this line the Russian-German Construction Company "Rusgerstroy" should be mentioned. During the first season the company contracted for eight million rubles work in industrial and cooperative housing construction. The Company applies efficient management and machine methods on a large scale, and has succeeded in reducing the cost considerably.

Technical service agreements of great importance have been concluded recently. Under these agreements a certain compensation is paid to foreign firms for placing new methods of production at the disposal of Soviet plants and factories, by supplying them with their drawings and patents, by instructing the engineers, etc. These agreements are of great importance in that they aim at the re-equipment of Soviet industries in accordance with the latest achievements of Western-European and American technique. The agreements concluded show that the largest European firms such as the German Chemical Trust, the German General Electric Company (A. E. G.), Vickers, the French General Wireless Telegraph Company, etc., are engaged in supplying technical aid to Soviet industries. Lately American firms have been showing great interest in entering into such agreements.

By August 1, 1927, about 60,000,000 rubles (nearly \$31,000,000) were invested in the concession enterprises. The relative importance of the output of the concession enterprises is very considerable in some branches of industry. Thus 35 per cent of the entire gold output of the U. S. S. R. and about 40 per cent of the entire manganese output are being produced by the concession enterprises.

According to approximate calculations, about 20,000 workers are employed in the concessions which are in operation. These workers are almost exclusively natives of the U. S. S. R. Foreign workers and technical employees constitute not more than 6 per cent of the total number of workers employed in the concession enterprises.

#### Prospects for Foreign Capital

Large prospects are opening now in the U. S. S. R. for foreign capital. The Soviet Government hopes in the course of the next five years to attract foreign capital to the amount of 750 to 1,000 million dollars.

On the basis of the country's industrialization plan outlined by the Soviet Government, a list of concession objects was drawn up to be published shortly in all foreign languages. Through the publication of this plan foreign industrial and financial groups will be able to get acquainted with the concession possibilities in the U. S. S. R., the conditions of labor, the natural resources of the regions for which foreign investments are sought, etc. The granting of a few hundred concession objects is being contemplated, including chiefly the equipment of metallurgical plants and machine-constructing factories, the building of electric plants, in particular hydro-electric plants of various capacity, the establishment of iron ore and coal mining enterprises, the construction of paper and cellulose factories, also of cement plants, the construction of railroads and the development of other transportation systems. In the field of railway construction particular interest is attached to roads laid in new regions. The construction of some of the railroads planned is to be combined with the exploitation of the natural resources available in the various regions; thus the construction of railroads may be combined with the exploitation of timber lands, coal, oil, etc. In the mining industry the granting of iron, copper-lead-zinc, and graphite concessions is being contemplated. The list of proposed concessions includes coal and oil concessions, agricultural concessions, municipal service concessions, building concessions, etc.

Considering the rapid pace of economic development of the Soviet Union, as well as the fact that an ample demand within the country is assured due to the growth of the well-being of the population, the investment of foreign capital in the U. S. S. R. offers quite favorable prospects.

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## Tenth Anniversary of the Supreme Economic Council

THE Supreme Council of National Economy was established by the decree of the Central Executive Committee and of the Council of People's Commissars, issued on December 18, 1917.

Under that decree, the Supreme Council of National Economy was entrusted with the organization of the national economy and of the State finances. Thus the Supreme Council of National Economy was at first not only in charge of the management of the industries—it was, moreover, the chief economic institution attached to the Government, in whose hands was to be concentrated the administration of the entire economic life of the country. All other economic organizations and People's Commissariats were to be subordinated to it in this respect.

The Supreme Council of National Economy was formed out of the All-Russian Council of Workers' Control, and was composed of representatives of all People's Commissariats. That Council appointed a bureau from among its members, which, in December, 1917, elected the first Presidium of the Supreme Council of National Economy.

The Supreme Council of National Economy became one of the People's Commissariats and its Chairman—a member of the Council of People's Commissars. The first Chairman was Mr. V. V. Obolensky (Ossinsky) who, however, soon had to give up that post, having been entrusted with an important mission in the Donetz coal basin. He was succeeded by A. I. Rykov, the present Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars, and by P. A. Bogdanov. On February 2, 1924, Felix Dzerzhinsky was appointed Chairman of the Supreme Council of National Economy and remained in this office until his death on July 20, 1926. Mr. V. V. Kuybyshev, who was nominated after Dzerzhinsky is holding that post at present.

### The First Steps

The activities of the Supreme Council of National Economy began under very un auspicious circumstances. While the other Commissariats had taken over from the Provisional Government the greater part of the staff (even though engaged in sabotage and openly opposed to the Soviet Government), the Supreme Council of National Economy had to train its own personnel, to draw up its own organizational plans, etc.

The tasks of the Council were exceedingly difficult. Everywhere it was meeting with the most stubborn resistance of the factory owners and the higher technical personnel of the enterprises. As a result the Council had to resort to the seizure of the plants and factories. Simultaneously a spontaneous seizure of the factories by the workers themselves took place in many instances, and the

Supreme Council of National Economy was not always in a position even to get in touch with the managing boards set up by the workers in the nationalized factories.

In the beginning the problem of the control of industries was not contemplated from the point of view of a complete systematic nationalization of industries. At first negotiations were being conducted with the manufacturers for the creation of trusts operating either with the participation or under the control of the Soviet Government. Only by the end of December Lenin submitted to the Supreme Economic Council the draft of a decree which proclaimed the nationalization of all the larger industrial establishments.

Alongside with the task of securing control of the industries, the Supreme Council of National Economy was faced by a number of problems pertaining to other fields of economic life, such as trade, co-operatives, etc. In spite of the difficulties of the economic situation, the Supreme Council of National Economy did not restrict itself to problems of current management. It was working out large scale construction plans, the carrying out of which was prevented by the Civil War and the German occupation. The projects for the development of the Kuznetz coal basin to permit the production of 5,000,000 metric tons annually, for its connection with the Trans-Siberian trunk line; for the electrification of Leningrad (preparatory activities in this direction were being carried on on the Svira River); for the irrigation of Turkistan and many other plans originated at that time.

May, 1918, marks the beginning of a new period for the Supreme Council of National Economy. It was the period of organized construction during the Civil War, at a time when the territory was greatly reduced, when the fuel crisis was at its height and transport was disorganized, while there was a scarcity of products and the workers were deserting the cities for the villages. With all that, a new mobilization of industries had to be carried on. Under such conditions the only possible organizational method was the centralization of industrial administration. At that time the industrial enterprises became subordinated to vertically centralized managing boards.

The composition of the Supreme Council of National Economy then underwent a change. The First Congress of Councils of National Economy decided that the plenum of the Supreme Council of National Economy was to consist of representatives of the Central Executive Committee, of the Trade Unions, of the Regional Councils of National Economy, of Workers' Co-operatives, and of People's Commissariats. This Congress also decided upon a number of changes in the system of managing the enterprises.

The activities of the Council were at that time concerned exclusively with maintaining the vital

forces of industry. Any thought of a re-establishment or of a further development of the industries which at that time had declined to an incredible degree, was out of the question. On the contrary, it was necessary systematically to reduce the activities of the various branches of industry, due to the lack of raw material, fuel, etc. The first to suffer in this respect was the textile industry which, due to the Civil War, was cut off from the supply of cotton. The task of the central managing boards of the various industries consisted not only in managing the industries but also in distributing the raw materials and the manufactured products.

The situation remained the same at the time when—beginning with February, 1919—the territories occupied by the troops of the White Guards and the interventionist powers were successively liberated by the victorious Red Army. At that time the scarcity of raw materials and manufactured products increased enormously. True, some supplies of raw materials and fuel were obtained in the liberated regions, but they had to be distributed very sparingly.

However, at that time the Supreme Council of National Economy had already undertaken the task of re-establishing the industries. Under the prevailing conditions paramount emphasis was placed first of all upon the re-establishment of the coal and metal industries.

#### Decentralization of Administration

By the end of 1919, the change of the political and economic situation rendered superfluous the extreme centralization of industries, as expressed by the Central Managing Boards of the various industries, as it was hampering the development of local initiative. In the beginning of 1920, the industrial enterprises were divided into three groups. Only the most important enterprises remained under the direct management of the Central Managing Boards. A considerable group of establishments was managed by the Central Managing Boards through the intermediary of the local organs, while the major part of the local enterprises was placed under the management of the Provincial Councils of National Economy which could distribute the output of the industries under their jurisdiction.

With the economic revival and the new problems brought forth by the inauguration of the new economic policy, as well as with the development of production for the market and of money circulation, the old system of Central Managing Boards which were managing the industries and distributing their output became obsolete. The instructions of the Council of People's Commissars published on August 9, 1921, as well as a subsequent decision of the Council of Labor and Defense, contained measures "for the re-establishment of large scale industries." This marked the beginning of the period of the strict account-

ing system, when the enterprises had to work on a self-supporting basis; the period of the reorganization of industries on the basis of trusts and syndicates.

Later the Supreme Council of National Economy was faced by the task of organic control of the industrial resources, the task of steering the course of industrial re-establishment into normal channels. In practice this meant a revision of the trusts, a concentration of the industries and finally, a change of the structural forms of their management. The management of the most important and leading branches of industry and of the corresponding industrial units was concentrated in the Central Administration of State Industries (Tzugprom) which through its managing boards was able to gain control of the trusts and to place the development of the industries on a systematic basis. This re-organization of the Supreme Council of National Economy was carried out by the end of 1923, and this structure was maintained until the past economic year when the transition to the period of new construction required a change of the structural forms, for the purpose of strengthening the elements of systematic management and of carrying out the decentralization of the management of industries.

#### Situation of the Workers in the U. S. S. R.

ON November 4, 1927, the Presidium of the Supreme Council of National Economy of the U. S. S. R., headed by Mr. V. V. Kuybyshev, received a number of foreign labor delegations that had arrived in Moscow on the occasion of the November anniversary celebration. After a report made by Mr. Kuybyshev about the economic progress of the Soviet Union, every delegation submitted a number of questions in which it was interested. The answers to the most important of these questions, in condensed form, are given below:

Question: What are the characteristic features of the unemployment situation in the U. S. S. R.?

Answer: Unemployment in the U. S. S. R. is not industrial in its character. It is chiefly a result of that "inheritance" from Tsarist Russia, which the Soviet State received in the form of rural overpopulation. The excess agricultural population is streaming to the cities. An analysis of the composition of the unemployed shows that about 50 per cent of them are persons who are not skilled in any trade and that the majority of them never worked as wage-earners. Only 15 per cent of all the unemployed are industrial workers. In the course of the last few years unemployment was also caused by the reorganization of the administrative apparatus which brought about a certain reduction of the office personnel, as well as by compulsory registration in the labor exchanges of

trade union members, even if they were out of work for a very short time.

Question: What was the standard of living of the Russian workers before the war, and what is it at present?

Answer: In spite of the very high cost of living prevailing at present, as compared with the pre-war period, the situation of the working class is much better now than at that time, because the real wages are rising steadily. A classification of the workers, according to the scale of wages brings out the fact that the proportion of workers earning a low wage is decreasing rapidly, while that of higher paid workers is increasing. This means that a continuous rise is taking place in the workers' standard of living. The average worker's family budget which had been upset during the years of the Civil War has now reached its pre-war structure. With regard to food the situation of the workers is improving constantly, both from the point of view of quantity and quality, and the standard is at present higher than before the war.

It must be noted as characteristic of the changes taking place in the situation of the working class that while the proportion of wages in the total national income shows a tendency to decline in the capitalist countries it is growing incessantly in the U. S. S. R., according to the data of the State Planning Commission. During the period from 1923-24 to 1925-26, it has increased from 23.2 per cent to 29.2 per cent.

Question: How are labor wages regulated in the U. S. S. R.?

Answer: In the capitalist countries the wage level is determined by the correlation of the forces of labor and capital. In the U. S. S. R., under the dictatorship of the proletariat, wages are regulated according to plan and in accordance with the achievements of the entire national economy and the tasks facing the Workers' State. At the present time the increase in the labor wages in industry is proceeding along two lines: First, the increase in the productivity of labor is accompanied by a certain increase in wages, and, second, at the time of renewal of the collective agreements the wage scales for certain backward branches of industry or for certain categories of lower paid workers are being increased in a centralized, systematic manner, on the basis of decisions adopted by the Government. The conditions of labor and the wage scale of nearly all industrial workers are regulated by collective agreements which at present include 90 per cent of all wage-workers, and 97.2 per cent of all organized industrial workers.

Question: Who is subject to social insurance in the U. S. S. R.?

Answer: Social insurance embraces all the wage-earners in the cities and industrial settlements. The only category not yet fully included at present are the agricultural laborers working on peasant farms. The number of wage-earners

subject to social insurance has increased from 6,720,000 in 1924-25 to 8,900,000 in 1926-27, and next year this number will increase to 9,100,000. Social insurance applies to the following cases: Temporary disability—benefits beginning with the first day of illness, the full amount of the wages being paid; permanent disability brought about by general causes, and old age—benefits amounting to a certain proportion of the wages; unemployment—doles amounting on an average to 15.30 rubles monthly for those listed in the labor exchanges. It also includes such preventive measures as rest houses, sanatoriums, health resorts, etc. The social insurance funds are being formed by the contributions paid by the employers.

## Soviet-American Trade in 1927.

THE Amtorg Trading Corporation of New York, which represents most of the large Soviet syndicates, reports orders placed by the Company during 1927, for shipment to the Soviet Union, at \$31,199,834, a very large increase over the orders placed in 1926, which were valued at \$8,681,412. These totals do not include shipments of cotton to the U. S. S. R. by the All-Russian Textile Syndicate of New York, which amounted last year to \$42,000,000 as against \$33,000,000 in 1926. It is estimated that the export and import business between the Soviet Union and the United States, including the business done by the several American concessionaires, and by Centrosoyus and Selskosojus representing Soviet Union cooperatives, during the year 1927, was close to \$100,000,000 as compared with a total of \$70,000,000 in 1926, and \$48,000,000 in 1913.

The statement by Saul G. Bron, Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Amtorg, follows:

"The year 1927 proved the biggest in the existence of the Amtorg Trading Corporation which is doing the bulk of business with the Soviet Union outside of cotton purchases. Orders placed by us during the year totaled \$31,199,834, which is three and one-half times the figure for the preceding year when American-Soviet trade experienced a slump. Especially noteworthy has been the increase in the amount of orders for industrial and electrical equipment. These reached the record figure of \$11,313,750. Purchases by the Amtorg included oil equipment worth \$4,646,177, mining equipment valued at \$1,469,209 and equipment for glass factories, iron and steel plants, textile mills, etc. The second largest group of orders was for raw materials, including metals, \$6,363,177, and crude rubber, \$1,370,204. Industrial equipment and raw materials will probably continue to be the two principal groups of commodities that the Soviet Union will purchase in the American market.

"Purchases of agricultural machinery, binder twine and live stock also made up last year a considerable figure totaling \$7,252,737 or more than

double the orders in this class placed in 1926. Other important items on the Amtorg purchasing list were chemical products, electrical equipment, automotive equipment, construction machinery and office supplies, including adding machines and typewriters.

"A significant indication of the increased importance of Soviet-American trade is the number of technical and trade delegations which visited the United States during the past year. The total number of Soviet executives and technical men who came on missions to this country was close to one hundred, three times as many as in 1926."

## Copyright Law of Soviet Russia

ON October 11, 1926, the All-Russian Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (R. S. F. S. R.) passed the following decree on the basis of the one "Concerning the Basic Principles of Copyright"\* (Collected Statutes of the U. S. S. R., 1925, No. 7, Art. 67) adopted on January 30, 1925, by the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics (U. S. S. R.):

1. In accordance with the decree "Concerning the Basic Principles of Copyright" passed by the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. on January 30, 1925, the copyright privilege shall be acknowledged to belong to all authors with respect to all works on which the term prescribed in the aforementioned decree shall not have expired.

2. Legislation previously in force shall apply to legal and other disputes over the respective legal relations between the author and other persons when such cases shall have arisen prior to the inauguration of the present decree.

3. Insofar as the legal relations admissible under the laws in effect at the moment the cases arose shall not have been adequately regulated by those laws, the provisions of the present decree and of that passed on January 30, 1925, by the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. shall apply.

4. When the author is a citizen of the U. S. S. R., he and his heirs shall enjoy the protection of copyright on the territory of the R. S. F. S. R., in the case of a work published in a foreign country, even though that country has not concluded any agreements with the U. S. S. R. provided for in Part II, Art. 1, of the decree passed on January 30, 1925, by the Central Executive Committee and

the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R.; with the exception of the heirs, the author's legal assigns claiming copyright to any extent on a work that appeared originally in the country in question, shall not enjoy the protection of this privilege on the territory of the R. S. F. S. R.

5. The privilege of copyright on collaborative productions constituting an indivisible whole shall reside in all the authors together; their mutual interrelations shall be governed by agreements between them.

6. The editors of old manuscripts, diaries, correspondence and similar documents, as also the compilers of collections of folk art and popular legends, tales, proverbs, songs, etc., shall enjoy the privilege of copyright on such productions; this right, however, shall not prevent other persons from publishing the same materials and works under a different elaboration.

7. The scale of royalties payable for public performance in accordance with Article 5, Part II, of the decree of the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. "Concerning the Basic Principles of Copyright," shall be established by the People's Commissariat for Education of the R. S. F. S. R. or of the Autonomous Republics concerned.

8. The term of copyright on dramatic, musical and musical dramatic productions published for the first time in printed form after their public performance, shall be reckoned in the manner established by Article 10 of the decree of the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. "Concerning the Basic Principles of Copyright."

9. The copyright belonging to an author or his heirs shall not be attachable by creditors of the author or of the heirs.

Attachment may be made upon the income derived by the author from his copyright.

10. Publication of works covered by copyright with infringement of the author's rights shall entail the liability defined by the provisions of Chapter XIII of the law of obligations in the Civil Code.

In lieu of indemnification for damages suffered, however, the author shall have the right to demand the payment of royalty to him in accordance with the scales established in the manner prescribed by law.

11. Any work, both one covered by copyright and one for which the copyright term has expired, if it was first published on the territory of the R. S. F. S. R. or exists on the said territory in manuscript or other material form, may be declared State property by decree of the Council of People's Commissars of the R. S. F. S. R.

Works on which copyright has not expired may be converted into State property only upon payment of compensation to be determined by the

\* Published in the October 15, 1925, issue of the Russian Review (Vol. III, p. 414).



People's Commissariat for Education of the R. S. F. S. R. (or by the People's Commissariat for Education of the Autonomous Republic concerned) in agreement with the People's Commissariat for Finances of the R. S. F. S. R.

12. Works on which the copyright period has expired, with the exception of such as have been declared State property in the manner prescribed by laws presently or previously in force, may be reproduced, published, distributed and performed by all persons free of any restrictions entailed in the present decree or that passed on January 30, 1925, by the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R.

13. Both the right of translation and the Russian translations themselves of literary works published in foreign languages inside as well as outside the confines of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic, may be declared a State monopoly by decision of the Council of People's Commissars of the R. S. F. S. R.

14. The exclusive right of the author to publish and distribute his work may be conveyed by him for a limited or unlimited period, in toto or in part, to publishing houses conducted by State organizations, as well as by trade union, party and cooperative organizations.

15. The conveyance of copyright to publishers not included under the designation of the foregoing article shall be permissible only under a publishing contract. As a publishing contract is to be considered an agreement whereby the author conveys his exclusive right to the publication of works prepared in their concrete form; the publisher shall assume the obligation to issue the works in question at his own expense. Such agreements with the publishing establishments in question may be concluded for a term of not over five years.

Note. The above-mentioned limitation of the term does not apply to musical and musical-dramatic productions.

16. Agreements covering the conveyance of copyright must be executed in written form under penalty of being null and void.

Note. The provisions of the present article do not apply to works printed in current publications, collections of articles, encyclopedias, etc.

17. The specifications concerning the use to be made of the copyright conveyed by virtue of Articles 14 and 15 must be precisely set forth in the contract; in particular, the agreement must specify the number of copies to be printed in the first edition and likewise in subsequent editions, if such editions are provided for in the contract.

18. It shall be permissible to enter into an agreement whereby the author binds himself to convey his copyright privileges in a work that has not

yet been cast into its proper material shape at the time the contract is concluded; Articles 14 and 15 of the present decree shall be applicable to agreements of this kind. These agreements must be executed in written form under penalty of the consequences prescribed in the note to Article 136\* of the Civil Code of the R. S. F. S. R.

19. In the absence of an agreement as to the term of publication the publisher shall be obliged to issue it within the following periods: (a) within six months for periodical publications and books containing not more than five "sheets"†; (b) within one year for books containing not more than 10 "sheets" and all text books; (c) within two years for all other works. These periods are reckoned from the date the contract is signed, or from the date the work is received, if it is turned over later.

20. If publication does not ensue within the term established by contract or by law, the agreement lapses upon declaration by the author, and the publishing house is obliged to pay the author the agreed fee in full.

21. The right obtained by a publishing house for the publication of works may be transferred to another party only with the written consent of the author or his assigns.

22. Insofar as it may be necessary for the protection of his rights under the publishing agreement, the publisher shall enjoy the privileges of copyright as against both the author and third parties, subject only to such limitations as are prescribed in the law or in the agreement.

23. In publishing a complete collection of his works the author shall have the right to include works on which the privilege of publication has been conveyed by him to third parties.

\* The Note to Art. 136 of the Civil Code stipulating that agreements for amounts exceeding 500 rubles are to be executed in written form reads as follows: If the regulation laid down in this article is disregarded, the contracting parties, in case of litigation, lose the right to produce witnesses testifying to the agreement; they retain, however, the right to produce written proofs.

† One "sheet" means, in Russian, sixteen large book pages with an aggregate of 50,000 letters or about 8,000 words.

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# Foreign Relations of the Soviet Union

**I**N reply to the note of the Shanghai Commissar for Foreign Affairs to the Soviet Union, dated December 15, 1927, the Soviet Government wired, on December 16, the following note to the Consul General of the U. S. S. R. in Shanghai, to be delivered immediately to the Commissar of Foreign Affairs in Shanghai:

The Soviet Government never recognized the so-called "National Government" in Nanking, in whose name the note of December 15 was delivered to the Soviet Consulate in Shanghai. The "National Government" in Nanking must needs be aware of the fact that all the consulates of the U. S. S. R. are operating on the territory of China on the basis of an agreement between China and the Soviet Union, signed in Peking in 1924, and every appointment of consuls in Shanghai as well as in any other locality in China, was taking place with the knowledge and consent of the Peking Government. The Shanghai authorities, like all other local Chinese authorities, were simply taking cognizance of these appointments. For this reason, the statement made in the note of the "National Government" in Nanking, concerning the withdrawal of recognition of the consuls in the various provinces, can mean only one thing, namely, that under the pressure of the imperialists, the generals who have seized power in Nanking, have deemed it convenient that in the area under their control there should be present chiefly consuls of those countries that have maintained the "unequal treaties" with the Chinese.

The Soviet Government is bound to refute in the most decisive manner the unfounded statements made in the note of Dec. 15, to the effect that Soviet Consulates and State trading agencies are being used "for Red propaganda and as a refuge for Communists." In particular, we must refute most decisively the accusation against our Consulate in Canton to the effect that it allegedly served as a base for directing the revolutionary movement of the workers and peasants in the Kwantung Province. There is nothing novel in the fact that the revolutionary movement of the workers and peasants in China is viewed as a result of the activity of Soviet official institutions. For a number of years the enemies of the Chinese people, the imperialists of all countries, have been considering the great Revolutionary movement of the Chinese people as the consequence of intrigues of "outside forces." The fact that the "National Government" in Nanking is now repeating the counter-revolutionary legends of the oppressors of the Chinese people, shows best whose will that Government is carrying out at present.

The Soviet Government is convinced that the attitude adopted by the Chinese authorities in Shanghai is above all injurious to the Chinese people and to the national interests of China, and that those who have so lightly embarked on a policy of hostility toward the U. S. S. R. will be the first to feel its harmful consequences.

G. TCHITCHERIN.

## Statement of the Peoples' Commissariat for Foreign Affairs on the Events in China

On December 22, 1927, Mr. G. Tchitcherin, Peoples' Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, issued the following statement in connection with the events in China:

The People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs has repeatedly had the opportunity of pointing out that whenever a revolutionary movement takes place anywhere on earth, the adversaries of the U. S. S. R. invariably declare that it was called forth by agents of the Soviet Government. With regard to China not only the reactionary press, but even members of governments of capitalist countries have long been endeavoring to represent the entire national movement as a product of Soviet policy and of the activities of Soviet agents. The same method was adopted by the counter-revolutionary generals who have drowned, in streams of blood, the great uprising of the revolutionary workers of Canton. While filling the streets of Canton with mountains of corpses of martyred workers they turned with particular hatred against the Soviet citizens residing in Canton who were the first of their innumerable victims. We are not yet in possession of exact information as to the latest events in Canton, but we can say with certainty that a number of Soviet citizens in Canton have suffered a terrible death after all kinds of outrages. Accounts of the tragic death of the Soviet Vice-Consul Khassis are available from several sources and it is hardly possible to doubt the accuracy of the appalling news. But while the crimes of the Canton generals with regard to the U. S. S. R. are of unheard of gravity, the responsibility therefor cannot be restricted to Canton alone.

The political action of the Kuomintang generals against the U. S. S. R. and its representatives has extended over all of Southern China and the Canton bestialities were only its most striking manifestation. The political responsibility for these bestialities thus rests upon all the leading personages of the territory of the so-called "national" governments. Not only Chang Fa-kwei and Li Fu-lin who were operating in Canton, but also

others, such as Li Ti-sin, Chiang Kai-shek, Bai Tsung-shi, etc., are guilty of these crimes. But the responsibility in the given case falls also upon other forces of world reaction which are hostile to the U. S. S. R. The instigations of all imperialist and White Guardist groups in Shanghai, Hongkong, and other important bases of colonial policy in China, and the inspiration from London which has become apparent beyond any doubt, and which was later confirmed by the laudatory voices of the British press, have played a practically decisive role in the unfolding of these events. British imperialist reaction should be acknowledged as the chief moving force behind the Canton bloodshed and the outrages committed against Soviet citizens as well as the murders and deportations.

The working people of the U. S. S. R. deeply mourn the tragic death of the comrades who have been tortured to death by the hangmen and executioners of South-Chinese counter-revolution, but the blood of these martyrs has not been shed in vain. A nation of four hundred millions cannot be stopped on the road to its liberation, and those military cliques which from leaders of the national movement have turned into its stranglers, will be swept away completely. The liberated Chinese people will not forget their Soviet friends who perished at the hand of their oppressors, and their memory will still further consolidate the blood-welded friendship of the peoples of the two great countries.

The Soviet Government considers the unheard of barbarities committed by the Chinese counter-revolution and the forces standing behind it, as the manifestation of an aggression directed against the U. S. S. R. Steadfastly continuing its policy of peace, a new expression of which was the disarmament proposal at the Genoa Conference, the U. S. S. R. is at the same time prepared for the worst and will not be caught unawares.

In the name of the Soviet Government the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs protests to the whole world against the crimes of the Chinese counter-revolutionists. The Soviet Government reserves for itself the right to take all measures which it will consider necessary in connection with the bloody crimes committed against the U. S. S. R. in South China. These bestial acts cannot go unpunished.

#### **The U. S. S. R. Joins the Protocol of June 17, 1925**

In accordance with point 5 of the Soviet declaration made at Geneva at the conference of the Preparatory Commission on Disarmament, Mr. M. M. Litvinov, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, on December 3, signed a document to the effect that the U. S. S. R. subscribes to the protocol of June 17, 1925, concerning the prohibition of the application of gases and

bacteriological substances for military purposes. The document was transmitted to the French Government with which the protocol of June 17, 1925, is deposited.

Up to the present the protocol has been signed by 39 states. For the time being it has been ratified by France alone.

Point 5 of the declaration of the Soviet Delegation reads as follows:

The delegation declares that the Soviet Government fully subscribes to the convention on the prohibition of the application to military purposes of chemical and bacteriological substances and expresses its readiness to sign the convention immediately. It insists on an early date being fixed for its ratification by all states and considers that, in order to insure the enforcement of the convention, it is necessary to raise the question of the establishment of workers' control over the peace-time production of those chemical industries capable of being rapidly converted to war purposes in states which have a highly developed chemical industry.

#### **Changes in Soviet Diplomatic Service**

The January issue of the "Soviet Union Review" erroneously reported the appointment of Mr. B. Stomoniakov to the post of Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in Italy.

Mr. S. F. Sukhovy was appointed Trade Representative of the Soviet Union in Turkey, a position in which he succeeded to Mr. V. C. Aussem.

Mr. L. M. Benchin was appointed Trade Representative of the Soviet Union in Austria, a position in which he succeeded to Mr. N. L. Ufimtzev.

#### **Museums and Ancient Monuments in the U. S. S. R.**

THE activities of the Soviet authorities with regard to museums cannot be compared with those of pre-revolutionary Russia for the reason that there is, in the true sense of the word, nothing to compare. There is not one law, not one measure, which would demonstrate in any way the concern of the old regime with this sphere. The State not only failed to do anything constructive, but it fostered acts of the most shocking vandalism. Particularly intolerable was the position of art during the last decade of the Tsarist regime. The best art magazines "Mir Iskusstva" (The World of Art), "Stariye Gody" (Olden Times) and "Apollo" were full of attacks upon the indifference and hostility of the Government which left the museums without funds and destroyed or mutilated ancient art monuments. These magazines even introduced a section under the heading of "Vandalism," devoted to the bitter and tragical occurrences affecting the museums and the work of preserving ancient art monuments.

The November Revolution of 1917 was confronted with two groups of art values. On the one hand, there were the museums established for all kinds of purposes, on the other there were the works of art and monuments of antiquity. Both of these were in a most precarious situation.

Worse still was the condition of the individual art monuments, such as old buildings which were passing from hand to hand, old churches, historical estates, scattered throughout the country, etc.

The protection of the memorials of the past presented a threefold problem. In the first place it was necessary to find out their location, and in what respect they needed protection. It was the problem of taking inventory of the art treasures. The next task was to organize their protection, with the aid of competent persons. This meant the enlisting of the active assistance of local scientists and art connoisseurs. The last problem was that of providing funds from the State Treasury for the protection of art through special legislation, budget appropriations, and particularly by impressing local authorities with the idea that the protection of art and historical monuments is a duty of the Revolution.

On October 10, 1918, the Council of People's Commissars issued the famous decree concerning the registration of all works of old art regardless in whose possession they were. The Department of Museums and its local organs were entrusted with this work.

Only seven years after the November Revolution was it possible to commence the assorting of the art objects formerly belonging to the nationalized private collections and to select those among them which were to be incorporated in the museums.

In this category are, however, not included the famous private collections of Petrograd and Moscow which formed a class by themselves. Among the latter collections, which were likewise nationalized, there are to be mentioned S. I. Shchukin's and I. A. Morozov's collections of contemporary Western paintings; A. V. Morozov's collection of porcelain, icons and engravings; I. S. Ostroukhov's collections of Russian and Western Art, and D. I. Shchukin's collections of old Western art—all in Moscow. In Leningrad the family collections of Youssupov, Stroganov, Shuvalov and Sheremetev, together with their historical buildings, were nationalized.

A number of famous estates, which were peculiar and splendid monuments of old Russian culture, being frequently even richer in art objects than the collections of Moscow and Leningrad, were likewise nationalized and set up as suburban museums. These included "Arkhangelskoye" of the Youssupov family, "Ostankino" and "Kuskovo" of the Sheremetev family, etc.

Of particular interest was the nationalization of the Yasnaya Poliana estate, as a living monument to Leo Tolstoy. It had to be preserved exactly in the same condition as it was at the time when the author lived there.

Another group of monuments which called for great care included the archaeological antiquities, prehistorical or early historical camping grounds, ruins of cities, tumuli, burial grounds, dolmens, etc. They are distributed throughout the territory of European Russia, Siberia, Crimea and the Caucasus. Their number is enormous, and they are by no means fully surveyed and recorded.

The repair and the upkeep of historical monuments has become, so to speak, the exclusive duty of the Government, and at present nobody has the right to restore an ancient building, which he may have received for use, without authorization on the part of the Department of Museums. In 1924 the Government passed a law which renders all State organs and institutions responsible for the violation of the rules governing the protection of monuments of sculpture and archaeology, for arbitrarily injuring or repairing them, for the preservation of the historical objects kept in those buildings, etc.

In spite of all kinds of setbacks and a continuous shortage of funds, architectural restoration work has been carried out on more than two hundred large provincial monuments in Rostov Velikiy, Uglich, Borovsk, Staritsa, Solvitchegodsk, Kazan, Zaraisk, Vladimir, Suzdal, Zvenigorod, Sergievo, Smolensk and others.

The work done in Moscow, Leningrad, Yaroslavl, Novgorod and Samarkand is particularly remarkable.

In the Moscow Kremlin forty-four ancient monuments and buildings were repaired and restored. Of the other activities in this field carried on in Moscow there is to be mentioned the restoration of the wall of the Kitay-Gorod section, from which the shops and other structures attached to it were removed. Then came the restoration of the Old Moscow University, the old Sheremetev Hospital, of the building of the English Club, one of the best edifices built in Moscow in the nineteenth century. The famous Saint Basil Cathedral in the Kremlin, a monument of the sixteenth century, as well as the churches and other buildings in the village of Kolomenskoye, in the vicinity of Moscow—monuments of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries—were likewise restored. In Leningrad similar work was carried on in various palaces and museums, such as the Hermitage, the Winter Palace, the Alexander Theatre, the Russian Museum and the suburban palaces of Peterhof, Gatchina, Pavlovsk, Oranienbaum and others. In Yaroslavl which had suffered from fires during the insurrection in 1918,

many of the historical structures and monuments injured as a result of those events were restored, as were likewise the Saint Sophie Cathedral, the towers of Novgorod, the Kremlin (citadel) and other buildings in the city of Novgorod.

Special mention should be made of the work performed in Turkestan and particularly in Samarkand where the monuments of Moslem architecture from the fourteenth to the seventeenth century were preserved. Both from the point of view of history and of art these monuments of Oriental architecture, covered with remarkable ornamental tiles, are of the greatest value.

The same principle of preserving and restoring monuments was applied to a large number of ancient paintings. These activities began in 1918, with the preservation of the precious twelfth-century frescoes of the Vladimir Dmitrievsk Cathedral, which the historians claimed to be the work of Andrei Rublev, and which were barbarously "restored" in 1890. In this cathedral such ancient and unique works of art were found as the icon of the Maximov Madonna of 1299, and that of the Vladimir Madonna of 1395; in the Kirillo-Beozersk monastery a number of first-class icons were restored—among them the "Ascension" by Rublev and the portrait of Cyril Belozersky, the work of Dionysius Grushitsky of the latter part of the fourteenth century. In 1919 the famous iconostasis of the Moscow Blagovyeshchensk Cathedral was restored.

The number of museums rapidly increased after the Revolution. It did not grow arbitrarily, it was called forth by the demand of the various provincial centers to make use of the growing supplies of art treasures which were reclaimed and preserved by the Revolution. In many provincial cities private collections, which had become state property would be merged and become the nuclei of local museums. Delegates were sent to the capital to apply for additional acquisitions so as to round out the local collections. The State Museum Department was well in a position to satisfy those demands, as over 200,000 acquisitions had been made during the years of the Revolution by removing them from the hands of private individuals, safes, abandoned properties, manors, churches—all for the benefit of the people who crowded the old museums, and created new ones in places in which there were none.

A few figures may give an idea of the feverish growth of the museums. In pre-revolutionary Russia there were about ninety-eight museums not including the private collections. After the revolution, particularly during the period of 1920-1921, the record figure of 636 museums was reached. Their number began to decrease shortly afterwards when the authorities in charge undertook the tremendous task of systematic reorganization. Poorly equipped establishments were given

up; collections of a similar nature were merged. By 1924-25 the number of museums had fallen somewhat, but the figure was still impressive, amounting to 420; two years later, in 1926-27, the number of these institutions became stabilized, having been finally reduced to 381. Some of the museums might be improved, while others might be less magnificent, but the fact remains that the whole country was covered with a system of museums which are attracting great masses of visitors, and are being attended to by competent scholars, who, in their turn, are being eagerly assisted in their work by the authorities of the various republics and territories.

According to their importance the museums are divided into central, regional and local establishments. As regards their fundamental types they are divided into museums of art, of history, of technical arts and of ethno-geography. Out of the total number, 128 museums are maintained by federal funds, while the other establishments are taken care of by the local budgets.

The Hermitage Art Gallery of Leningrad and other Leningrad institutions of that kind may be pointed out as instances of the development of museum life in the U. S. S. R. The development of the Hermitage Gallery, one of the greatest museums of the world, as a World Art Museum, was greatly enhanced by the fact that the Winter Palace was placed at its disposal and that it has been enriched by a tremendous number of acquisitions, such as 7,000 pictures, 70,000 pieces of porcelain, 35,000 coins, etc. Over one hundred and fifty rooms were systematically equipped with new groups of art objects, and about a hundred have been prepared for opening in the future.

A number of exhibitions were organized showing largely the material of the Hermitage, such as Applied Art of the Medieval Epoch and of the Renaissance; Paintings of the Early Italian Renaissance; French Art of the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries; English and French Silver of the Seventeenth Century; Sassanian Art; Moslem Art; Weapons; Antique Carved Stones. A thorough regrouping and redistribution of its paintings is one of the main tasks before the Hermitage Museum.

The second place among the Leningrad Museums is held by the Russian Museum. During the years of the Revolution that museum underwent radical changes. First of all there is to be mentioned a thorough regrouping of the paintings of the picture gallery and the opening of rooms for modern Russian art—changes which showed the wonderful art collections of the museum in a new light. But of still greater importance was the completion of the ethnographical section which took place in 1923. It marked the conclusion of two decades of collecting work, the result of which was the establishment of a museum of Russian national life

which was unique in its completeness and beauty. The organization of a department of history of customs—a natural supplement to the departments of art and ethnography, will be the task of the near future.

The Museum of Anthropology and Ethnography attached to the Academy of Sciences bears the same relation to the Ethnographic Division of the Russian Museum, as the Hermitage to the Art Department of that Museum. Its vast collections which embrace the civilizations of all nations of the world and are placed in geographical order, according to ethnical groups, are at present more impressive due to the allocation of additional space. An important event during the last few years was the acquisition of large collections on the civilization of India, gathered by a special expedition between 1914 and 1918.

Among the museums of the other academies there are to be mentioned: The vast Mineralogical Museum, the enormous Zoological Museum, the Geological Museum—with its enormous wealth of material in the field of paleontology, osteology, geology, petrography, etc. They have all been greatly extended lately in their new and considerably more spacious buildings.

Aside from the other museums of Leningrad, such as the Geographic Museum, the Agricultural Museum, the Maritime Museum, the Artillery Museum, etc., mention is to be made of the splendid Stroganov Palace with its marvelous collection of Western art, and particularly of the Sheremetiev Villa, with a rich collection illustrative of the life of the old Russian nobility early in the nineteenth century. The imperial palaces in Gatchina, Peterhof, Dietskoye Selo (formerly Tsarskoye Selo), and Pavlovsk—all in the vicinity of Leningrad—are remarkable both from the point of view of art and from the point of view of the history of customs.

Two basic tendencies are to be noted with regard to the general policy concerning the provincial museums. First of all, the consistent decentralization of museum activities, and, second, a development of ethno-geographical museums as a new type of local museums.

A particular group of museums came into existence as a result of the Revolution, known as the "Museums of the Revolution" in Moscow and Leningrad, as well as in a number of provincial centers such as Voronezh, Saratov, Simferopol and other cities. They are engaged in collecting historical material referring to the revolutionary movements of the past as well as living revolutionary material of the current period.

Museums of a memorial character connected with the life of Lenin constitute a class by themselves. These include the "Lenin Home" in Simbirsk-Ulianovsk in which Lenin spent his childhood, the Museums in the suburban estate "Gor-

ky" in which he spent the last years of his life, and the apartment in which he lived during the first period of his stay in Petrograd. And finally, there are such monuments of revolutionary history as the Schluselburg and Peter-and-Paul prison-fortresses, symbols of Tsarist despotism.

It has become a commonplace to point to the cultural and educational effects of the Soviet museums. A few figures from various fields of museum life may be adduced as a confirmation: The annual number of visitors of the Hermitage in Leningrad is about 180,000 persons, one-third of whom were members of special excursions. The average number of Sunday visitors of the Tretiakov Gallery in Moscow is between 2,500 and 3,000, with a total annual figure of about 200,000. The Zoological Museum of the Academy of Sciences in Leningrad is being visited by over 40,000 persons annually; the Museum of the Revolution by 100,000.

Between October 1, 1925, and October 1, 1926, the number of visitors of all the Moscow museums reached the figure of 1,033,300, while the Leningrad figure was 980,200, and that of the provincial museums over one million. This means that the museums have called forth the interest of crowds numbering many millions, while the excursions conducted by special lecturers are more and more assuming the character of systematic education.

## Book Reviews

"THE REIGN OF RASPUTIN," by M. V. Rodzianko. Introduction by Sir Bernard Pares. Stokes.

"RASPUTIN," by Prince Felix Youssouppoff. The Dial Press.

"THE CATASTROPHE—Kerensky's Own Story of the Russian Revolution," by Alexander F. Kerensky. Appleton.

No thoughtful person who reads these three books can escape the conclusion that the people inhabiting the territory known as Russia must have enjoyed unusually hardy constitutions to survive under the excessive mismanagement of those in high places during the latter days of the Romanov dynasty and the transitory regime of the so-called Provisional Government. Rodzianko was President of the Imperial Duma up to March, 1917; Youssouppoff was a nobleman, his wife being a niece of the Tsar; Kerensky was premier in the Provisional Government during its later phases. The most impressive feature of their volumes is the revelation that they lived apparently in a world of sheer unreality.

Rodzianko was a member of the landlord class. An inveterate chauvinist, he was greatly irritated that the Tsar did not seize Constantinople during the second Balkan war. "We must take advant-

age of the popular enthusiasm," he urged his imperial master. "The Straits must become ours. A war will be joyfully welcomed and will raise the Government's prestige."

After the assassination at Serajevo in 1914, when Nicholas, according to Rodzianko, held back in the matter of mobilization, Rodzianko joined with the jingo generals in forcing his hand. He portrays himself as a pious man and a Christian, but the idea of sending millions of young men to their deaths apparently roused no qualms in him. Russia's part in the war seemed to him a holy mission. There is no mention in his book of the secret treaties under which the Tsar's Government assured itself from the outset of ample territorial loot. Rodzianko shows a genuine emotion in recounting a meeting of the Anglo-Russian Flag Association in Petrograd during the war at which the chief British spokesman, Major Thornhill, solemnly assured his Slavic audience that Great Britain was not out to secure any territory in the war. That assurance made a tremendous impression on Rodzianko. It seems curious that he cared to exhibit his naive credulity in a book that was not completed until 1924.

Rodzianko gives some intimate glimpses of the war effort in which high officials were selling supplies to the enemy, grand dukes were getting huge subventions for munition plants which turned out nothing while the canon-fodder battled the Germans with their bare hands in some sectors, official ineptitude kept huge food shipments rotting at remote railway junctions while the cities and the army starved, and, finally, the former village ne'er-do-well and horse thief, Rasputin, enshrined at Tsarskoye-Selo, bossed the game and moved cabinet ministers and bishops at his own caprice. Rasputin apparently loomed as a giant in that court of intellectual manikins. The neurotic Tsarina was under his thumb. He gave the Tsar magical combs and other blessed trinkets to play with and dosed him and the puny Tsarevitch with magic potions. Between intervals of dispensing his holy office he indulged in drunken orgies at the public baths, at which, as Rodzianko's narrative shows, high ladies of the court did not disdain to join him.

Rodzianko's animosity against Rasputin seemed to be based in large measure on the fact that the monk was of peasant origin and as such he had no business in high circles. The President of the Duma thought that a few honest men in high places would solve Russia's problem, but the mephitic atmosphere did not breed honest men. Rodzianko had an inside view of all the rottenness, but as a landed nobleman, naturally, never permitted himself to think of any fundamental change. When things got particularly bad he would suggest to the Tsar the appointment of a new committee.

Young Youssouppoff's volume is of smaller caliber. He murdered Rasputin, and his book is the story of that deed, told with a sickening wealth of sadistic detail. Did the young man really believe that if Rasputin were put out of the way, in some magical manner the war would be won, the growing popular unrest would disappear, and he and his companions could go on drinking their champagne undisturbed to the end of time?

Of Kerensky's book little need be said. The volume is sufficiently self-revelatory. The people were starving and begging for peace and he and his associates gave them nothing but phrases and more war. The world of unreality in which he lived is illustrated on page 121, where he states that in April, 1917, the Provisional Government solved the land problem. The "solution" was simple. The Government passed a resolution to create a Land Committee which would discuss the question of a new land law at some unnamed future date. This Kerensky styles "a great, real and unprecedented social revolution." It made no change whatever in the vital question of land distribution. It gave not an additional acre to the scores of millions of peasants who tilled the fields of princely absentees for a starvation pittance. The peasants were out of luck. Persons who protested that the pious resolution of the Provisional Government accomplished nothing were conveniently styled German agents. In fact, all the radical opponents of the Provisional Government were called German agents. Kerensky speaks of mysterious documents by which he could prove that Lenin was an agent of the Kaiser, but by ill luck he let these papers get away.

In his account of the attempt of General Kornilov to overthrow the Provisional Government and set up a military dictatorship, Kerensky notes a delicate attention from one of his Allies. He writes:

"On the streets of Moscow pamphlets were being distributed, entitled 'Kornilov, the National Hero.' These pamphlets were printed at the expense of the British Military Mission and had been brought to Moscow from the British Embassy in Petrograd in the railway carriage of General Knox, British military attache. At about the same time, Aladin, . . . an extremely suspicious adventurer, . . . brought to General Kornilov a letter from Lord Milner, British War Minister, expressing his approval of a military dictatorship in Russia and giving his blessing to the enterprise."

Kerensky concludes that there has been "no social or political progress" during the ten years since he lost his political job. The Soviet Union has reached a "severe economic crisis," and, he intimates, the populace will soon be ready to summon him back for more oratory. Kerensky has been making similar predictions, with very poor luck, for the past ten years.



## Miscellaneous News

### Progress of Soviet Commercial Aviation

Planes of the commercial air fleet of the Soviet Union made 2,392 trips in 1927, carrying 6,977 passengers and 160 metric tons of freight and mail. The planes covered a total of 1,122,687 miles in their various trips. As compared with 1923, the number of trips and the mileage traversed increased six-fold, the number of passengers seven-fold. The amount of freight and mail carried, six-fold.

In the recent growth of airlines in the Soviet Union progress has been particularly marked in linking remote places in Eastern Siberia and Central Asia, which have never been touched by modern transportation lines, with points on the railway. Transport to the region of Khiva in Soviet Central Asia has always involved a camel journey of from ten to fourteen days from the railway. The airplane now bridges this gap in 3½ hours.

Soviet airplane lines are run by the German-Russian Aviation Company (Deruluft), by the Volunteer Air Fleet (Dobrolot), and by the Ukrainian Air Transport Company, (Ukrvozdukhput).

Soviet planes sprayed with chemicals during 1927, nearly 77,000 acres of agricultural lands infested by locusts, as compared with 2,700 acres in 1925. They were also used intensively in taking airplane photographs, to facilitate cartographical work. In 1927, about 6,400 square miles of territory were photographed, compared with 2,400 square miles in 1926.

### Soviet Agreement with Spanish Oil Monopoly

Recent issues of Soviet newspapers contain definite statements that an agreement has been concluded between Soviet oil executives and the Spanish Oil Monopoly, whereby the Soviet Naphtha Syndicate will furnish to Spain 520,000 tons of oil during the present year. The statement is made on the authority of S. P. Batulin, Managing Director of the Society for Russian Naphtha Products in France, who conducted the negotiations in Spain. The amount contracted for includes "various oil products" and is said to represent 60 per cent of Spanish oil requirements for the year.

Mr. Batulin states that the contract has been ratified both by the Spanish Government and the Soviet Naphtha Syndicate. It became operative January 1. Hitherto the Naphtha Syndicate has furnished only 10 to 12 per cent of the Spanish oil supply, and this through foreign firms. The new contract represents the first direct contact with the Spanish market.

The Soviet press asserts that the contract opens new vistas of Spanish trade. Soviet syndicates expect to make considerable purchases of fine wool and lead in Spain.

### Electrification in the U. S. S. R.

The output of electric energy by all power stations in the Soviet Union during the fiscal year 1926-27 was 4,050,000,000 kilowatt hours, about three times the pre-war production. General public service plants furnished 2,100,000,000 kilowatt hours, and factory plants furnished the remainder. Under the plans for electric power construction it is anticipated that by 1930-31 the annual output will reach ten billion kilowatt hours.

The capacity of general public service stations at the close of 1927, was 733,635 kilowatts, as compared with 328,000 kilowatts in 1913. There were 18 large urban and regional plants with an aggregate capacity of 498,635 kilowatts, and 640 local stations with a total capacity of 235,000 kilowatts.

New plants now under construction, as well as additions to existing plants, will increase the capacity of public service plants by over a million kilowatts. Four new regional plants to be completed during the current fiscal year have an aggregate capacity of 121,000 kilowatts. Work on the Dnieper River hydro-electric project, which will have an ultimate capacity of 650,000 horse power, was started last summer. During the past five years the Soviet Government has expended \$190,000,000 on power development and \$75,000,000 will be expended during 1928.

### Five-Year Program of Merchant Marine Construction

The five-year merchant marine building program provides for the construction of 299 vessels with a total dead weight of 994,000 tons and an estimated cost of 397 million rubles (over 200 million dollars).

### The Fifteenth Congress of the Communist Party of the U. S. S. R.

The Central Committee of the All-Union Communist Party, elected at the fifteenth congress held in the course of December, 1927, consists of 71 members and 50 alternates. The Central Control Commission elected at the same time, consists of 195 members.

On December 19, 1927, the plenary meeting of the Central Committee in which the members of the Presidium of the Central Control Commission and the members of the Central Revision Commission also participated, elected the Political Bureau and the Secretariat of the Central Committee.

The Political Bureau consists of nine members and seven alternates ("candidates"). Members: N. Bukharin, K. Voroshilov, M. Kalinin, V. Kuybyshev, V. Molotov, A. Rykov, J. Rudzutak, J. Stalin, M. Tomskey. Alternates: G. Petrovsky, N. Uglanov.

nov, A. Andreyev, S. Kirov, A. Mikoyan, L. Kaganovich, V. Chubar, St. Kossior.

Secretaries of the Central Committee: J. Stalin, V. Molotov, N. Uglanov, St. Kossior, N. Kubiak. General Secretary of the Central Committee of the All-Union Communist Party: Joseph Stalin.

N. Bukharin was reelected editor-in-chief of "Pravda," the central organ of the Party.

The Central Control Commission of the Party, at its plenary meeting, elected S. Orjonikidze Chairman of the Commission.

### Spurious "Stalin Articles"

With reference to articles on the "Air Forces of the U. S. S. R.," on the "Reconciliation of the Soviet Government with the Russian Orthodox Church," on the "Return of the oil fields to foreign capitalists," etc., which some time ago appeared in certain American papers under the name of Joseph Stalin, General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, Mr. Stalin published a statement in the Soviet press, as well as in the American press, declaring that all the articles in question were spurious.

### The State Debt of the U. S. S. R.

On December 1, 1927, the national debt of the Soviet Union, contracted under State loans, as well as loans guaranteed by the Government, amounted to 1,163,900,000 rubles (\$599,500,000). The indebtedness under State loans amounted to 882,200,000 rubles, with 389,200,000 rubles subscribed by economic and public organizations, and 493,000,000 rubles by private persons. The number of small holders of State bonds amounts to 8,000,000, the Industrialization Loan alone (200 million rubles) numbering about six million bond holders. The budget of the current fiscal year, 1927-28 (beginning October 1, 1927), provides for 500 million rubles to be derived from State loans. Of this amount, 200 million have already been subscribed by the urban population, while another 200 million will be yielded by the reserve funds of the economic organizations. It is expected that about 100 million rubles will be obtained through subscription in the rural districts.

### Soviet Technical and Commercial Experts in U. S. A.

Prof. L. K. Ramzin, director of the Thermotechnical Institute of Moscow, one of the few institutions of its nature in the world, arrived late in September to make a study of American electric power stations. The Thermotechnical Institute which was opened in 1925 is doing extensive research work, evolving the most economical ways of fuel utilization.

A delegation from the Soviet Sugar Trust, which in November, 1927, was touring the United States,

was making a first-hand study of sugar beet factories and sugar factory machinery plants.

Last fall a delegation of fruit experts representing Soviet trading organizations which market about 400,000 metric tons of fruit yearly, arrived in this country to make a study of the American fruit industry and to place orders for fruit canning and drying equipment. "The United States with its highly developed fruit canning and drying industry has been naturally chosen for our study of production methods. We expect also to purchase in this country machinery for several fruit canneries and drying plants"—stated Mr. N. Zlotin, member of the delegation.

A delegation of Soviet bridge builders headed by Prof. V. P. Nikolayev, manager of the bridge-building section of the Metal Administration of the Soviet Union, recently visited the United States for a study of American bridge building.

According to the delegation, the restoration of bridges destroyed in Russia during the war has practically been completed. An extensive program of bridge construction is planned, both for the existing lines and for new railroads.

Mr. A. P. Serebrovsky, member of the Presidium of the Supreme Economic Council of the U. S. S. R., and a representative of the Soviet Gold Trust, recently arrived from the Soviet Union for a stay of about three months. American methods and machinery will be used for developing the Soviet gold industry.

### Soviet Industries

The value of the total output of the large scale State industries of the Soviet Union for November, 1927, amounted to 736,700,000 gold rubles (\$375,400,000), a decrease of 1.9 per cent, as compared with the preceding month, and an increase of 2.8 per cent over November, 1926. The decrease, as compared with the preceding month, was due entirely to the smaller number of working days in November (24 as against 26).

The following figures show the total output of some of the most important industries for November, 1927, and the percentage increase over the output for the same month in 1926: Coal—2,958,200 metric tons, increase 10.2 per cent; oil—925,800 metric tons, increase 12.5 per cent; cast iron—252,000 metric tons, increase 7.9 per cent; Martin steel—335,800 metric tons, increase 13.9 per cent; rolled iron—258,700 metric tons, increase 15.4 per cent; cotton fabrics—205,600,000 meters, increase 0.2 per cent.

*The Index to the fifth volume of the "Soviet Union Review" has just been published. On request it will be sent free of charge to all readers of the Review.*



# SOVIET UNION REVIEW

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## Organization of Science in the Soviet Union

## Soviet Democracy

## The Government Personnel of the Soviet Union

## The Legal System of the Soviet Union

## Emancipation of Eastern Women in the U. S. S. R.

## Soviet Children's Theater in Moscow

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# SOVIET UNION REVIEW

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## Organization of Science in the Soviet Union

**T**HERE are at present about 2,500 scientific institutions in the Soviet Union \* including 1,500 local geographic societies. The total number of scientific workers is 20,000. About 40 per cent of them are engaged in the field of natural sciences and mathematics, 30 per cent in social sciences, 15 per cent in medical science, 10 per cent in the technical sciences, and only 5 per cent in agriculture. About 80,000 pages of printed matter are published annually, presenting the results of scientific work, and approximately an equal number of pages of periodicals and books are published annually for the purpose of popularizing science and introducing it among the working masses.

The largest scientific body is the Academy of Sciences of the U. S. S. R., which is made up of forty institutions of various types, beginning with a large museum of world-wide significance, such as the Zoological Museum, and ending with special commissions of various institutions, laboratories, etc.

The larger constituent republics of the Soviet Union have organized during the past decade academies or higher scientific institutions of a type analogous to the Academy of Sciences of the U. S. S. R., such as the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences in Kiev, which is composed of about 65 scientific organizations and commissions. Similarly the Institute of White-Russian Culture is rapidly developing. It comprises about 30 commissions and institutions, having in its ranks more than 400 scientific workers.

The major part of scientific institutions, some of them of national scope, are united under the Chief Department of Science of the R. S. F. S. R. (Soviet Russia proper). It is sufficient to point out that this Department embraces 190 scientific institutions with a trained staff of 7,000 scientific and technical workers. These institutions include the Pulkovo Astronomical Observatory, the Geophysical Observatory, the Hermitage Museum and other establishments. Directly related to it is also the Bureau of Local Geography, with which are affiliated about 1,500 local geographic organizations. In order to elucidate the growth of the scientific organizations of this Chief Department of Science, the following data may be quoted: In 1918 the Section of Science comprised 21 scientific institutions and 200 societies. In 1927 there were already 84 institutions and 663 societies.

\* This article was written by Professor A. Fersman, Member of the Academy of Sciences of the Soviet Union.

Of particular interest during the past decade was the movement for the organization of local geographic societies, which penetrate into the most remote corners of the Union. The Central Bureau of Local Geography reports the following:

	Registered at present	Prior to 1890	Prior to 1916	Prior to 1924
Museums	559	34	94	294
Circles and Societies	1042	16	61	329

A third large scientific unit is connected with the Supreme Council of National Economy of the U. S. S. R. and is called the Scientific Technical Administration. It unites about 28 large scientific industrial institutions, about 20 scientific industrial councils and 10 institutions of another type, of which the majority pursue the task of serving definite branches of industry through the study of the various industrial processes. Uniting 50 institutions in all, the Scientific Technical Administration is organizing at present 8 additional research institutes for separate branches of national economy.

However, the above-mentioned large units do not exhaust the list of the chief scientific research institutions. A number of them are scattered among various People's Commissariats or connected directly with the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. Some of them are attached to the various Government Departments, such as the People's Commissariat for Health of the R. S. F. S. R. (Soviet Russia proper), etc.

Such is the bare statistical aspect of the question.

Within the province of humanistic, social and economic sciences an enormous ideological change may be observed, which had changed entirely the structure and the aspect of the activities of the scientific institutions. The founding of such large research institutes as the Marx and Engels Institute, the Lenin Institute, and the complete reorganization of the humanistic faculties of the higher educational establishments, the organization of new research institutes, etc., are stages on the path of development.

The study of arts brought forward first the Institute of the History of Arts, with an elaborate and comprehensive program, and then a still broader organization called the Academy of Art Sciences. The problems of oriental research, which are of such importance to the Union, called

forth a thorough reorganization of the old Moscow Lazarev Institute and the creation of the Institutes of the Living Eastern Languages in Leningrad and Moscow, and of the All-Union Oriental Association, a special scientific and scientific-practical institution.

Particular attention was also paid to the libraries and to library work. The enormous extension of the State Public Library in Leningrad, the Lenin Library in Moscow and the Library of the Academy of Sciences in Leningrad; the enormous work of uniting a number of book collections into special libraries; the creation of the "Book Fund," and finally the extensive activities of the Bibliographical Institute of the Soviet Union in registering all books as they are published and thus giving a bibliography of the whole country—are the outstanding achievements in library work.

At the same time serious attention was paid to the museums and to museum instruction.

The Museum Conference which took place in 1920 initiated a number of general principles of museum reform, and the creation of a State Museum Fund, uniting all museum property and facilitating its distribution in accordance with the general scientific principles of museum construction. All the museums were enriched by so many new objects that the available personnel was unable to cope with the enormous task of registering all the acquisitions.

An entirely new branch of museum work was created due to the conversion of the former Tsarist and ducal palaces with their art treasures into special museums.

In various centers of the country, particularly in Moscow and Leningrad, Museums of the Revolution were founded. They are of great historical and cultural significance.

With the aid and the united efforts of scientists, the "Hermitage" which formerly constituted part of the court palaces has been thoroughly reorganized and transformed into one of the world's greatest museums of history of art and culture.

A great amount of energy and work was applied to the task of combining the Russian archives and of summarizing the achievements of the country's scientific life, of which the publications of the Academy of Sciences issued under the collective title "Science in Russia" are indicative.

The Academy of the History of Material Culture, founded as a result of the reorganization of the former Archaeological Commission, has undertaken the solution of a number of scientific problems and contributed to the organization of the Institute of Technical Archaeology, where direct cooperation of representatives of the natural sciences and of the humanistic sciences is taking place for the first time.

The Russian Academy of Sciences which in 1925 was reorganized by the Soviet Government into

an institution extending its activities over the whole Soviet Union, created a number of new special commissions, the aim of which is to apply pure science to practical problems. Among these commissions there is to be noted the Commission for the Study of the Racial Composition of the Population of the U. S. S. R. It is entrusted with the task of determining the racial composition of the whole population of the U. S. S. R. and it is to prepare the first map showing the distribution of nearly two hundred nationalities upon the territory of the U. S. S. R.

The Japhetic Institute founded by the Academician Marr has undertaken the task of studying the languages of the various peoples of the U. S. S. R.

Great work of organization has been accomplished in recent years in the field of natural science which is so closely related to the technical problems of practical application.

The Geological Committee has developed from a small institution into a very large organization. It has now constituted a number of special sections, and has laid the basis for systematic and complete recording of the country's natural resources. No other geological institution in Europe is engaged in such work.

The problem of the development and improvement of agriculture called for the broadening of the activities of the former Scientific Agricultural Committee and its conversion into an Institute of Experimental Agronomy, the creation of new agricultural schools along new scientific and pedagogical principles and the establishment of closer relations between the central scientific organs and the many local experimental stations and fields.

The new Institute of Applied Botany has unified all the important scientific forces of the country, with a view to presenting a summary of all the knowledge in agronomy and the grain cultures of the U. S. S. R. The Institute is based on the latest ideas of heredity and genetics, and stands out among the other institutes of this kind because of the depth and the extent of its investigations. This Institute has published the first agricultural map of the U. S. S. R. giving a comprehensive view of the geographical distribution of Soviet agriculture. Considerable results have been attained through research in the field of fertilizers.

Simultaneously a whole system of biological stations sprang up throughout the territory of the Soviet Union. In a brief space of time some of them, such as the Volga Station at Saratov, and the Peterhof Station at Leningrad, demonstrated their great scientific significance. In addition to these mention should be made of a new system of scientific industrial stations which were recently organized on the Murman coast, on the White and Black Seas, and the Pacific Ocean, as well as the floating marine institutes.

The State Botanical Garden has developed a

new branch of scientific research which is concerned with the medical plants and the technical utilization of the wildly growing flora of the Union. For the first time the special Chemico-Pharmaceutical Laboratory organized in Moscow placed the output of the medicinal herbs in question upon a firm basis.

The Forestry Institute has been changed organically into a Forestry Polytechnicum, embracing the experimental activities and the other aspects of this important branch of the Soviet Union's economy.

New principles of scientific activities were laid at the basis of the development of the museums of natural history and technical sciences. The revolutionary reconstruction has substituted the scientifically organized research institutes for the former individual studies and laboratories. In a short time a whole system of such research institutes sprang up in the U. S. S. R.

The various aspects of the X-Ray science which is of equal importance for the practical needs of life as well as for the solution of the theoretical problem of the structure of matter, called for the creation of a special X-Ray Institute in Leningrad. Problems of optics and the development of the optical industry in the U. S. S. R. led to the organization of a new Optical Institute.

The Academician Ioffe laid the foundations for the establishment of a special Physiotechnical Institute organized in Leningrad in 1918. Its work in the field of electric insulating material and the structure of matter has obtained world recognition and has given the initiative for the creation of similar laboratories in other countries. The complexity of the problems of industry and natural science called for the organization of a special Institute of Economic Research. The Scientific Technical Councils attached to the Scientific-Technical Administration of the Supreme Council of National Economy in Moscow and Leningrad included many specialists in the field of applied science. Scientific questions of a practical nature were submitted to and solved by these bodies, to whose initiative is also due the establishment of a number of special institutions, such as the Institute of Applied Chemistry, which has at its disposal large laboratories and an experimental plant, the Committee on Inventions, the Institute for the Study and the Utilization of the Wealth of the North, and other institutes.

A scientific study of the practical questions of industry also engaged the attention of the Academy of Sciences, although from a somewhat different angle. A special Commission on Productive Forces was in charge of this work. New research institutes branched forth from this Commission. Among the institutes the following deserve special mention: The Ceramic Institute, founded in 1921, which is closely connected with the State Porcelain Factory, and is the first one

in the country to have undertaken a systematic study of the glass, ceramic, and partly of the building industry; the Hydrological Institute, founded in 1919, which pursues a many-sided study of water as an element of national economy; the Radium Institute, founded in 1922, which is organizing the first special radium plant for the U. S. S. R. and is studying the radium ores. Out of the same Commission there developed also the new Soils Institute with its Soils Museum, the only one of its kind in the world, engaged in the study of the soil of the country. Within the Commission itself three other institutes are at work—the Platinum and Rare Metals Institute, the Institute of Physio-Chemical Analysis and the Polytechnical Institute. To the efforts of the latter two is due the discovery of the vast potassium salt deposits in the Perm Province, which are of great importance to the agriculture of the country. A special Institute for Chicken Breeding was organized upon two farms in Central Russia. It applies the contemporary principles of heredity to the development of this branch of farming.

Among the new institutes in the field of technical research, the special laboratories of radio-telephony and radio-telegraphy organized in Nizhni-Novgorod are noteworthy.

As regards the progress in medical research it may be stated that the epidemics and mass diseases, the exhaustion caused by the war and the revolution brought to the forefront a number of very serious problems. Practical surgery work was greatly extended. Advances were made in the investigation of the etiology of the Spanish influenza, and the diagnosis of spotted typhus. On the basis of scientific researches mass vaccination against cholera and chlorizing of drinking water was undertaken.

The psychic abnormalities of the war period brought to the front a number of pressing problems in the domain of psychiatry. A number of important discoveries were made as a result of scientific studies in this field.

A Physio-Therapeutic Institute which is concerned with the problem of restoring impaired working efficiency, was founded in Leningrad. In this connection preparations are being made for the establishment of a Chemico-Pharmaceutical Institute.

New scientific institutions such as the Brain Institute, engaged in the study of the problems of nerve activity, and the X-Ray Institute concerned with the action of rays upon life in its various manifestations have sprung up since the Revolution. A number of scientific institutions have been organized in Moscow in close connection with the Health Commissariat. They have to their credit great achievements in the field of physiology, eugenics and the physical study of life.

In the field of astronomy an extension of the activities of the Pulkovo Observatory and of its

departments is to be noted. A new independent Institute of Astrophysics has been created in Moscow.

Problems of biology and evolution are being studied in the Timiryazev Institute in Moscow.

The new Physiotchnical Institute has taken up the abstract problem of the structure of the atom and of light.

The laws of life and of its development were the subjects of the investigation by a number of special institutes of the People's Commissariat for Health.

## Soviet Democracy

**A**T the All-Union Congress of Working and Peasant Women, held in Moscow in the middle of October, 1927, Mr. Enukidze, Secretary of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union, produced figures showing that 1,539,458 persons were engaged in Soviet activities as elected delegates.

Thus one million and a half of the most active, politically educated citizens are ruling the country directly through the Soviets. This constitutes over 1 per cent of the total population (145,900,000) and 2.5 per cent of the total number of persons entitled to vote (68,000,000). About 10 to 12 per cent of the 1,539,458 delegates are women. To this enormous number of delegates should be added a considerable number of workers and peasants who are taking part in the activities of the various committees, commissions, circles, and other bodies created by the Soviets, for the purpose of investigation, study, and supervision of various branches of Soviet activities. All of these elements which are closely connected with the Soviets, together with the above mentioned number of delegates to the Soviets, make up the imposing figure of not less than two and a half to three million persons who are taking part in the administration of the country through the Soviets alone. In close connection with the Soviets meetings of delegates of working and peasant women are being held. In the cities there are no less than 100,000 working women delegates, while in the villages there are up to 400,000 peasant women delegates, constituting an aggregate number of 500,000 women organized in connection with Soviet activities.

The second line of Soviet democracy is represented by the trade unions with over 10,000,000 members, women constituting 25 per cent of the total. The central organs of the trade unions alone include about 2,000 elected officials. If all the trade union boards are considered, much larger figures running into the thousands and tens of thousands will be obtained. Of the greatest importance, however, are those local bodies which are created in connection with the trade unions and are engaged in the control of the industries and in

cultural and educational activities, etc. There are about 226,000 members in the 56,000 factory and local committees. The various local and factory subcommittees include about 450,000 members, according to figures compiled in 1926. The percentage of women in the elective trade union bodies is 19—higher than the corresponding percentage in the Soviets. The number of factory and office delegates—there is one delegate to about ten workers—exceeded 870,000 in 1926. Thus, about one and a half million persons are actively engaged in trade union work.

About 15 per cent of all workers and office employees are taking part in the factory and office conferences for the discussion of problems of production. This constitutes again one and a half million of persons who, however, are not entirely identical with an equal number of persons taking an active part in the trade union movement. In a number of industrial districts this percentage is higher and reaches 30 to 40 per cent of the force. Thus there are not less than 2,000,000 to 2,500,000 trade union members, both workers and office employees, who are taking an active part in the workers' control of the economic life and in the country's administration.

According to the latest data, as of October 1, 1927, the various kinds of cooperatives include about 24,000,000 share-holders who are members of 99,500 individual cooperatives. Granting that the managing boards and the auditing commissions of the cooperatives include on an average only five elective members, the number of persons actively engaged in cooperative work would be not less than half a million. But in reality the number of these active members is larger. To this total number of persons actively engaged in the cooperative movement are to be added the store commissions including considerable numbers of workers, peasants, and farm laborers who, through these commissions, control the activity of the cooperative organizations, mainly towards the end of reducing prices and curtailing the overhead expenses.

Finally mention should be made of the Communist Party, the Communist Youth League, and the Young Pioneers (corresponding to the Boy and Girl Scouts in the other countries). According to recent figures, the All-Union Communist Party includes 1,199,616 members and applicants on probation. They are the most active element in the country, whose lead the other active elements are following. The Communist Youth League includes at present about 2,000,000 members between the ages of 16 and 23. The "Pioneers" embrace 1,700,000 children between 8 and 15 years of age. At least 40 to 50 per cent of the membership of these organizations, that is, 1,500,000 to 2,000,000 young people, are engaged in various public activities.

In addition to the above there are a number of public organizations, such as the Society of the

Friends of Aviation and Chemical Defense, the International Society for the Defense of Political Prisoners, all kinds of mutual aid committees in the villages, "patronage" societies engaged in giving cultural and material help to various villages or army detachments, etc. The membership of all kinds of voluntary societies is estimated at 10,500,000; that of "patronage" societies has recently increased to 1,500,000. The workers' and peasants' correspondents for the Soviet press, who represent a powerful social factor, are a class by themselves.

This list could be extended through the addition of a number of less numerous organizations doing quite important work. But those organizations alone which have been enumerated above, give an aggregate of nine to ten million persons actively engaged in the administration of the country.

## The Soviet Government Personnel

**G**REAT changes have taken place in the Soviet Government apparatus in the course of the ten years since the Revolution, particularly in the composition of its personnel. The overwhelming majority of the latter consists of representatives of the younger generation that grew up and was brought up during the Revolution.

On April 1, 1927, the number of employees working in the Soviet administrative offices and trade apparatus was 963,000. Of this number only 12.6 per cent fell to the share of the higher executive personnel, while the remainder of the employees was made up of the subordinate force.

The Soviet employees are divided into the following main categories: The mercantile and warehouse group, consisting of salesmen, store managers, shipping clerks and other store employees; this group is numerically the largest and constitutes 18.5 per cent of the total number of employees. Next comes the office and clerical personnel, with 17.9 per cent. The bookkeeping and accounting group includes 16.5 per cent of the total. The remainder consists of the public safety personnel, the minor employees, the supervising and inspecting personnel, the statistical group, the judiciary, etc.

As regards the age of the employees, the overwhelming majority, 66 per cent, are between 17 and 34 years of age, those under 29 constituting 49 per cent. This shows that at the time of the March and November Revolutions of 1917, the major part of the present Soviet employees were children or adolescents. Thus, the overwhelming majority of the employees were brought up under the Soviet system and entered the Soviet Government apparatus free of the habits and traditions of the officials of the Tsarist regime.

It is interesting to note that the younger generation of employees makes up more than half of

the higher executive staff of the Soviet apparatus and fills 70 to 80 per cent of the intermediate and lower positions.

The number of former Tsarist officials within the Soviet government apparatus is insignificant. In all the various branches of the Soviet government apparatus there are altogether 27.8 per cent employees who were salaried employees in 1913, but the major part of these had been working in private enterprises, credit establishments, railroads, cooperatives, etc. Only 4.2 per cent of the personnel, or 40,000 employees altogether, had been occupied in the Tsarist administrative apparatus proper. With regard to the salaries which these former Tsarist employees had been receiving under the old regime, it has been established that 46 per cent of them were getting from 15 to 50 rubles (\$7.50 to \$25) monthly; 29 per cent—from 50 to 100 rubles monthly, and the remainder over 100 rubles monthly. Thus the major part of these employees occupied lower and intermediate positions under the old system. The present Soviet apparatus includes only a very small number of persons who occupied responsible positions under the old regime. The major part of the former Tsarist officials now in Soviet service are working at present in the economic organizations. Former Tsarist officials constitute at present only 5.9 per cent of the force employed in the People's Commissariats, i. e., in the leading Soviet departments.

Thus, the basic characteristic features of the composition of the Soviet apparatus are as follows:

1. In the course of the ten years since the Revolution the Soviet apparatus has absorbed mostly representatives of the younger generation.

2. Former Tsarist officials constitute an insignificant part of the Soviet apparatus.

3. The bulk of the Soviet employees belong to the lower and intermediate personnel.

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## The Legal System of the U. S. S. R.

**T**HE organization of the legal system and the establishment of law courts, civil and criminal, are under the control of the supreme organs of the U. S. S. R. The supervision of the legal system of each Constituent Republic is entrusted to the People's Commissar for Justice in each Republic.

The law courts of each Constituent Republic are divided into ordinary and special courts. Of the ordinary courts the People's Court is the court of first instance. It is presided over by a People's Judge, assisted by two assessors. The Provincial (Gubernia) Courts and the Supreme Court of the Constituent Republic, are the higher tribunals. There is also a Federal Supreme Court.

In addition there are the following special courts:

1. Labor Section of the People's Court.
2. Rural Commissions.
3. Arbitration Committees.
4. Military Tribunals.
5. Disciplinary Courts.

The functions of the People's Judge are to give judgment in:

(a) Criminal cases of minor offences, such as breach of regulations relating to the registration of persons liable to serve in the Army, infringement of excise regulations, violation of regulations set up to safeguard the people's health, social welfare and public order, and others.

(b) Civil cases: (1) Property left by deceased persons; (2) arbitration deeds and decisions; (3) securities deposited at the court; (4) the issue of decree records; (5) cases concerning the dissolution of marriage; (6) complaints against acts of notaries.

The People's Court, consisting of the People's Judge and two assessors, examines as the First Instance most of the civil and criminal cases, except the more important ones, some of which are tried at the Provincial Courts and those of the highest importance at the Supreme Court.

The functions of the Provincial Courts are as follows:

1. To supervise the activities of the People's Courts situated within their province or territory.
2. To examine decisions, as Courts of Appeal, of cases appealing against verdicts made by the People's Courts.

The Provincial Courts consist of the President of the Court, two appointed deputies (one for civil cases, the other for criminal cases), permanent members, and provincial people's deputies (assessors), called to participate in the sittings of the Court according to special procedure. The President, his deputies and the members of the Provincial Courts are elected by the Provincial Executive Committee for the duration of one year

and confirmed by the People's Commissariat for Justice.

A number of District Judges are chosen as representatives of the Provincial Courts, with the rights of members of Provincial Courts. These judges control the activities of the District Notary, the Members of the Lawyers' Collegium and of the bailiffs.

The functions of the Supreme Court of a Constituent Republic are as follows:

(a) To supervise all law courts of the Republic without any exception.

(b) To act as a Cassation Court with regard to verdicts given by Provincial Courts, and as a controlling court concerning verdicts given by the law courts of the Constituent Republic.

(c) To give verdicts as the First Instance in important civil and criminal cases.

### Special Courts

Military Tribunals deal with:

(a) Military delinquencies and crimes committed by military persons (counter-revolutionary plots, formation of terroristic bands, grave delinquencies in military duties, theft, falsification of documents).

(b) Espionage; desertion from military service; intentional nonfulfilment of agreements with State enterprises; theft—committed by civilians and punishable if these offences are of immediate danger to the Red Army.

(c) All classes of crime, provided there is no other law court upon the spot but a Military Tribunal.

The duties of the Labor Sections of the People's Courts consist of the supervision of the regulations relating to working conditions and protection of labor. These courts give verdicts in civil cases—disputes and conflicts arising between employers and employees, and in criminal cases; absence; violation of regulations set up to safeguard workmen, and non-payment of wages, according to union scales; interference with the working of Works' Committees, etc., in cases concerning conditions detrimental to the welfare of workers.

Agrarian Commissions settle disputes concerning agrarian matters such as claims relating to the use of land, etc. These commissions are divided into Circuit, District and Provincial Agrarian Commissions. The first are subordinate to the Circuit Executive Committees, and consist of the president, elected by the members of the Executive Committee, two members elected by the members of the Circuit Council and two deputies.

The Supreme control over all agrarian matters belongs to the Supreme Agrarian Control Board.

The Supreme Arbitration Commission which is subordinated to the Council for Labor and Defence of its Constituent Republic, and the local arbitration commissions which are subordinated to the district and provincial economic advisory organs



(Economic Conferences) settle all disputes arising between separate State organs concerning property rights (as far as these disputes do not come under the jurisdiction of the corresponding competent courts) and disputes between State organs and trade unions.

The Supreme Court of the Union, attached to the Central Executive Committee, includes in its functions the following:

To give the Supreme Courts of the Constituent Republics guiding interpretations on federal legislation.

To render to the Central Executive Committee opinions on decisions of the Supreme Courts of the Constituent Republics which may seem in contradiction to the general legislation of the Union, or to affect the interests of the other republics.

To give opinions, on demand of the Central Executive Committee, on the constitutionality of legislation of the Constituent Republics.

To decide legal conflicts between the Constituent Republics.

To examine cases of accusation against high officials of the Union.

#### **Simplification of Court Procedure in Soviet Russia**

The People's Commissariat for Justice of the R. S. F. S. R. (Soviet Russia proper) is at present undertaking a number of measures designed to speed up and simplify court procedure.

As a rule every case will have to be tried during the first court session after the filing of the law suit. Only in exceptional cases may the trial be postponed. Complaints and statements by individuals and institutions must be scheduled to be heard by the court on the very day the complaint has been filed. Generally, the term within which final decision must be rendered in any given case is not more than one month and a half for the People's Court, and not more than two months for the Provincial Court.

Up to the present time it used to occur frequently that the court summons sent to the defendant would mention only the section of the code under which he was sued. The overwhelming part of the population are, however, ignorant of the provisions of the various sections of the Code. According to the new rules, the summons sent to the defendant must contain a minute explanation of the charges brought against him.

Whenever action is brought before the court concerning labor wages or alimony, it must first of all take care that the funds claimed should be safeguarded. This must be done regardless of whether or not the claim will be found justified.

The Judges have been instructed to conduct the proceedings in such a way as to render them comprehensible to the masses of the population. In putting questions and giving explanations to the persons taking part in the case, the Judges are to use simple language, comprehensible to the parties concerned.

The sentence is to be carried out within forty-eight hours in those cases in which no arrests are involved, and within twenty-four hours in cases requiring arrest.

The Code of Criminal Procedure, which determines the technique of the investigating and judiciary apparatus will be radically changed. Under the Tsarist regime the Code of Criminal Procedure contained about 1,500 articles. At present it contains about 450. But even this number often gives rise to confusion. To render it more comprehensible to the population, the Code will be reduced from 450 to 88 articles.

## **Social Composition of the Rural Population**

THE proportion of the rural population to the total population of the Soviet Union has lately begun to decrease as compared with the pre-war time. Between 1924-25 and 1926-27 about six million persons have changed from agricultural pursuits to other occupations, as far as their main source of income is concerned.

The rural population numbering about 122 millions, consists of three basic social groups, namely, proletarians, i. e., farm laborers; small producers, i. e., poor and middle peasants, and "kulaks," i. e. the rich peasants, representing the capitalist group.

The bulk of the rural population consists of the small non-capitalist producers—the middle and the poorer peasants—constituting 90 per cent of the entire agricultural population, altogether 99 million persons. The most important part of this group of small producers, numbering about 77 million persons, consists of middle peasants. The middle farms represent the prevailing type in Soviet agriculture. The group of the poorer peasants who are least provided with land, cattle and implements, embraces over 22 million persons.

The proportion of the middle peasants has more than doubled as compared with the pre-revolutionary period. In the course of the last few years a partial rise of the middle peasants to the more prosperous groups became noticeable. This process is accompanied by a simultaneous advancement of poorer peasants to the ranks of the middle peasants. The number of poorer peasants has decreased as compared with the pre-revolutionary period. This process of decrease is still going on, part of that group passing over to non-agricultural pursuits, while a smaller section either rises into the ranks of the middle peasants, or swells the number of the agricultural laborers.

The other fundamental class in the Soviet Union's agriculture is the rural proletariat. In this group are included at present 3,200,000 farm laborers. Of this number, 900,000 are occupied in State enterprises, such as Soviet farms and forestry,

about 700,000 in communal services (employees of agricultural cooperatives, herdsmen of village communities, etc.); next there are 1,200,000 laborers working for the "kulaks," i. e., the rich farmers, (this number includes also the workers employed in the rural industries owned by the "kulaks"); and finally 400,000 laborers working for middle peasants, who cannot be included in the "kulak" group, as they are producing for their own needs only. Together with their dependents, the proletarian elements of the village constitute somewhat over 5 per cent of the agricultural population of the U. S. S. R.

The third social class of the Soviet village consists of the capitalist "kulak" farmers. About 4 per cent of the farms and about 4.5 per cent of the agricultural population (in round figures about 5,000,000 persons) are included in this category. The number of "kulaks" has been greatly reduced since the Revolution, constituting at present even less than one-third of the pre-war proportion. Directly and indirectly the "kulaks" concentrate in their hands about one-fifth of the agricultural produce destined for the market, particularly grain, about one-sixth of the sowings and about one-ninth of the draft animals. The average annual income of a "kulak" farm amounts to about 2,000 rubles (over \$1,000).

Such is in general outline the social composition of the agricultural population of the Soviet Union.

## Position of Eastern Women in U. S. S. R.

**T**HE Central Asiatic Soviet Republics witnessed recently a vigorous campaign for the emancipation of women. The campaign which was conducted under the slogan of an attack upon the old customs, called forth a tremendous activity among the women of those regions.

The following facts show the great progress achieved by the Soviet authorities as well as by public opinion in the cause of the emancipation of the women of the East.

In 1925-26 50,000 women took part in the elections in the Uzbek Republic; in 1926-27, the number of women who voted in that Republic reached 128,000—an increase of over 150 per cent.

The number of women in the Soviets of the Uzbek Republic amounted to 1,400 in 1926; in 1927 that number had risen to 4,000. As regards the Turkoman Republic, the number of women delegates in the Soviets increased for the same period from 170 to 600.

An increase was also noted in the number of native women engaged in industry. At the present time about 3,000 women are working in the factories and plants. In some of the plants the native women constitute a considerable proportion of the workers. Thus, in the silk winding factory in Kokand native women constitute more than half of

the working force, while in a similar factory in Samarkand they constitute more than 40 per cent of all the employees.

The women of the East who were hitherto denied education are penetrating into the schools as well. There are at present 810 native pupils in 17 secondary educational establishments for women.

If one considers the extreme backwardness of the Central Asiatic nationalities particularly with regard to cultural and family relations, it must be admitted that the results achieved are enormous. Workers of the Eastern nationalities are taking an active part in the struggle for the emancipation of their women. It is on their own initiative that they induce their womenfolk to take off their veils, to go to school and to frequent clubs and meetings.

At the present time the Soviet public work of the Central Asiatic Republics is passing from the stage of campaigns to that of persistent everyday work tending towards the consolidation and extension of the achievements made in the matter of winning over the population to the new forms of life.

## All-Union Conference For the Improvement of the Situation of Eastern Women

Upon the initiative of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R., an All-Union Conference for the improvement of the Living Conditions of the Women of the East was opened in Moscow during the first part of January. Women delegates from Azerbaijan, the Turkoman and the Uzbek Republics, as well as from other Eastern autonomous republics and areas of the U. S. S. R. took part in the conference. They painted a vivid picture of the situation of women in the eastern regions of the Soviet Union. The delegate from Azerbaijan presented the extremely hard lot of the Turko-Tatar women in Transcaucasia. Cases of women being killed by their husbands for participation in Soviet and public activities still occur. Often one may hear the popular saying in Azerbaijan that it is "easier to kill a woman than to squander government money." The campaign against the wearing of the veil is meeting with great difficulties. The delegates of the Tatar Republic and of other localities presented the situation in a similar spirit. The various reports pointed out that a vigorous activity is being carried on in the localities by the "Commissions for the Improvement of the Living Conditions of the Women of the East." These Commissions organize industrial enterprises for women, ambulant medical dispensaries, stations for the elimination of illiteracy, kindergartens, day nurseries, etc. The conference emphasized the necessity of safeguarding the interests of women by extending legislation with regard to matrimonial and family relations. A more vigorous campaign aiming at the protection of mothers and children was likewise advocated.

### The Women's Press in the U. S. S. R.

At the present time sixteen papers and magazines for women are being published in the U. S. S. R., with an aggregate circulation of 397,000 copies. In the course of 1925-26, 359 various non-periodical publications for women were printed in Soviet Russia proper. In addition, 73 various non-periodical publications were printed last year in the languages of the national minorities. Six magazines with an average circulation of 2,000 copies each, are being published for the women of the East. By the end of 1926 the number of women workers' correspondents for the Soviet press was 12,500 in the entire Soviet Union, while the number of women correspondents from the villages was 8,000, a considerable progress over 1925, when the figures in question were 9,000 and 4,500, respectively.

### Children's Theater

**I**N the course of the six years of its existence the Children's Theater of Moscow has developed into an institution devoted to education and art, which has been cultivating a sound understanding and appreciation of art in thousands of future citizens of the Soviet Republic.

The Moscow Children's Theater is not confined to mere performances for children. It is also endeavoring to attract children into the circle of activities centering about the theater. It uses them as material for scientific pedagogical investigations. It gives to the children performances which are in accordance with their tastes, their desires and needs, and directs those tastes into sound ideological and artistic channels. To achieve this aim the stage, the actors and the audience—the necessary elements of the theater—are represented as only one of the fundamental parts of a large social and scientific-research apparatus. The theater has become the center of activities of a great number of educators, parents and principals of the children's institutions, which are being served by the theater. There has also been created a group of particularly interested children from among the constant visitors of the theater. Pedagogical groups have been organized which are engaged in registering the reactions of the youthful audience to the performances of the theater both in the theater itself as well as in the home, the school, in the "Pioneer" \* detachment, on the children's playground, etc.

The Theater collects everything—drawings by the children, reproducing separate scenes of the performances, drawings inspired by the performances, notes referring to the children's games, and to their general behavior, insofar as it was influenced by some performance or other, and finally the opinions of the children. This is all

\*The "Young Pioneers" are an organization corresponding to the Boy and Girl Scouts of other countries.

being studied, systematized and considered in the choice of the new productions.

Conferences of the most interested children are being held at definite intervals. On these occasions new plays are being read and discussed; previous performances are also being discussed, and subjects for the further activities of the theater are being proposed. Thus, the forthcoming production of the theater, entitled, "The Little Communist," based upon the life of the proletarian youth of the western countries, has been selected entirely in response to the desires of the audience.

The children who are actively interested in the theater, are publishing a poster paper devoted to problems of art relating not only to the Moscow Children's Theater and to other children's theaters, but also to their school life and to "Pioneer" activities.

The following fact, which by no means represents a solitary occurrence, may serve as an example of the educational importance of the Children's Theater. The teachers in charge of one of the most riotous receiving stations for the homeless children have established the fact that these children behaved much better after having attended a performance of "Hiawatha" at the Moscow Children's Theater. The performance occupied the imagination of the children directing their creative energy towards art.

If it is taken into consideration that the activities of the Moscow Children's Theater have no precedents to look back to either in the history of the theater or of pedagogy, the cultural significance of this undertaking will not fail to stand out in all its greatness.

### The Theatrical Museum of Moscow

The Theatrical Museum of Moscow is an institution of great cultural importance. It has no equal in Europe as regards the abundance of its exhibits.

The activities of the Museum aim at acquainting the masses with the history of the theater, and for this purpose periodical exhibitions are being organized. In the course of 1927 the Museum arranged a large and interesting exhibition devoted to the theater of the period of serfdom. In addition to this, the Museum is connected with many clubs and circles; it familiarizes them with the history of theatrical culture and conducts scientific research work jointly with them.

The Museum has been in existence since 1894. It commenced, however, to assume greater importance only after the November Revolution of 1917, when all the State Museums began to put aside their exhibits referring to the theater in order to incorporate them in the Theatrical Museum named after Bakhrushin.

The Museum has assigned a few rooms to the theater of the period of serfdom, to the State theaters of the past century, and to the provincial and private theaters.

Of particular interest are the puppet shows, including puppets of the Chinese and Malay theaters.

The Museum affords the possibility of getting acquainted with the history of the development of decorative arts and theatrical costumes; paintings by the best artists, from the eighteenth century down to the present time, are exhibited there.

Separate rooms are dedicated to the ballet, to the theatrical life of the famous artist Mme. Komissarzhevskaya and to the musical section showing all the musical instruments of olden times.

Of great interest are the letters and manuscripts of famous writers and artists collected by the Museum, including such names as Gogol, Pushkin, Tolstoy, Chekhov, Griboyedov, Volkov, Mochalov and others, illustrating their love of, interest in, and devotion to the theater.

Recently the Museum was enriched by a new department, devoted to the history of the first decade of the Soviet Theater.

## General Primary Education in Soviet Russia

THE Collegium of the Commissariat for Education of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (Soviet Russia proper), has ratified a plan for the introduction of universal primary education in the R. S. F. S. R. The plan is to be carried out within five years. During the first school year, 1927-28, the schools are to take in 71.1 per cent of all children of school age; in 1928-29, 80.4 per cent; in 1929-30, 84.2 per cent; in 1930-31, 88 per cent; in 1931-32, 90.9 per cent; in 1932-33, 93.9 per cent, and in 1933-34, 97.1 per cent.

The carrying out of this plan of universal primary education, including the building of new schools, their equipment, the maintenance of the teachers, etc., will require an expenditure of 2,758,000,000 rubles (\$1,420,000,000).

According to the plan, these expenditures are to be covered as follows: Local budgets, 1,755,000,000 rubles; subsidies from the local population, 114,800,000 rubles; subsidies from the various public and State organizations, 21,950,000 rubles; special tax added to the transport charges, 137,500,000 rubles; federal budget, on the basis of the present appropriations, 153,500,000 rubles; credits for school construction, 137,500,000 rubles. All these items give a total of 2,320,000,000 rubles, i. e., 84.1 per cent of the required amount.

According to the People's Commissariat for Education, the deficiency amounting to 438,000,000 rubles will have to be covered by federal funds which may be obtained either by the introduction of a special tax or through subsidies from the federal budget.

Hand in hand with the numerical extension of the schools, the plan contemplates also a qualita-

tive improvement of their activities. This is also connected with a great increase of expenditures. By 1933-34 the average number of pupils per teacher will be reduced to forty, thus doing away with the present situation in which the number of pupils per teacher is excessive. The expenditures for education are increasing from year to year. The same is the case with regard to the salaries of the teachers.

## Literacy of the Population of Soviet Russia

According to the data of the census of December, 1926, 568 out of every 1,000 men are able to read and to write in Soviet Russia proper, the proportion of literates among women being 336 out of every 1,000. The Leningrad region and the Central Industrial region (including the Moscow, Tver, Kostroma, Vladimir, Ivanovo-Voznessensk, Kaluga, Yaroslavl, Ryazan, Nizhni Novgorod and Tula Provinces) show the highest percentage of literacy. There are practically no illiterates among men between the ages of 20 and 24.

## Ten Years of Soviet Banking

TEN years had elapsed in December, 1927, since the issuance of the decree on the nationalization of the banks. In accordance with that decree, all the joint stock banks were merged into one State bank which subsequently was renamed the National Bank of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic. The land banks were liquidated entirely. The other credit establishments were rapidly dying out during the period of war-time communism and finally disappeared altogether.

The transition to the new economic policy called forth the need of organized credit. On November 16, 1921, the State Bank began to operate. The All-Russian Cooperative Bank was organized in January, 1922. The development of the mutual credit societies and of the large joint stock banks started in the same year. One of these banks, The Russian Commercial Bank (later changed into the Bank for Foreign Trade), was organized with the participation of foreign capital.

The credit system of the Soviet Union underwent a particularly vigorous development after the inauguration of the currency reform. Since that time up to 1926-27, the number of credit establishments kept on growing apace with their loan and discount operations, their deposits and current accounts.

The growth of the bank transactions is shown by the following figures: The indebtedness to the five largest banks, viz., the State Bank, the Moscow City Bank, the Industrial Bank, the Bank for Foreign Trade and the All-Russian Cooperative Bank, increased from 406,500,000 rubles (\$209,000,000), on October 1, 1923, to 3,206,300,000 rubles (\$1,651,000,000), on December 1, 1927. During the period between October 1, 1924, and

December 1, 1927, the current accounts in the same banks grew from 400,700,000 to 922,800,000 rubles.

Beginning with 1926-27, the credit system of the U. S. S. R. has been placed on a more efficient basis, by consolidating and reducing the number of branches (particularly in those places where branches of several banks were in existence), and by a strict division of functions among the various banks.

At the present moment, that is at the beginning of 1928, the credit system of the Soviet Union presents the following aspect. The first place is occupied by the State Bank, the directing center of the Soviet credit system. Next come the five so-called special banks—the Commercial-Industrial Bank, engaged in advancing long-term credits to industries, the Bank for Foreign Trade, which advances credits chiefly for export and import operations, the All-Russian Cooperative Bank, the Moscow City Bank and the Electro-Bank. In addition, there are two long-term credit banks—the Central Agricultural Bank, and the Central Bank for Municipal Economy and Housing Construction.

The credit system of the U. S. S. R. includes also the Ukrainian Cooperative Bank, which advances credits to all kinds of cooperatives, three provincial commercial banks, viz., the Central Asiatic Bank, the North Caucasian Bank and the Far Eastern Bank, 49 local municipal banks and 285 mutual credit societies.

## Soviet Oil Industry

**S**OVIET oil production for the calendar year 1927 was 10,413,000 metric tons, the largest annual output for twenty-five years, while exports amounted to 2,135,000 tons, and were the largest on record. Production of oil was 18.4 per cent greater than in 1926, while exports showed an increase of 30 per cent over the preceding year. In 1927 Russia produced 1,200,000 tons more than in 1913, and oil exports were more than double those for the last pre-war year.

The Soviet oil industry, which had received a severe setback during the years of civil war and intervention in Russia, has been reconstructed by the Soviet Government during the past four years at a cost of over \$300,000,000. A considerable quantity of oil-well equipment for the Soviet oil industry has been purchased in this country. In 1927 the Amtorg Trading Corporation placed orders for drilling and refinery equipment amounting to \$4,646,176, several times in excess of the purchases made in the preceding year.

In September, 1927, there were 3,365 wells in operation in the Soviet Republics as compared with 2,965 in the same month of the preceding year. Drilling was carried on at 600 wells in September

as compared with 430 two years ago. Total drillings for the Soviet fiscal year 1926-27, ending September 30, 1927, amounted to 367,567 meters, 100,000 meters more than in 1913.

Considerable drilling for prospecting purposes was carried on last year. The Soviet Geological Survey estimates now the oil reserves of the Baku region alone at 1,500,000,000 tons.

The Soviet oil industry effected notable economies in management and methods during the past year, as indicated by a decline in the number of workers employed, from 37,388 to 36,598, in spite of the 18 per cent increase in production. Important savings were made through the introduction of modern drilling and refining methods entirely new to the pre-war Russian oil industry. Rotary drills accounted last year for 216,700 meters in the Baku and Grozny fields, as against 145,000 meters in the preceding year. The share of production accounted for by deep pumping in Baku was 36 per cent last year as against 1.6 per cent in 1923. The proportion of oil produced by bailing showed a drop from 54 to 15.8 per cent during the same period. New refineries were opened during the past year at Baku and Grozny, and as a result production of refined oils increased 17.8 per cent over the preceding year. Among other economies is the utilization of gases which were entirely wasted under the old management. The Baku oil fields have been electrified to the extent of 93 per cent as compared with 30 per cent in 1913. Consumption of oil at the fields declined considerably in 1927, contributing to a decrease of production costs.

The Soviet oil industry spent last year \$95,000,000 for construction of refineries, drilling of new wells, laying of pipe lines, purchases of equipment in the country and abroad and for other capital outlays. This was an increase of \$20,000,000 over the preceding year.

The modernization of the Soviet oil industry has resulted in increased gross profits for oil trusts, amounting last year, according to preliminary data, to 100,000,000 rubles.

The bulk of Soviet exports in 1927 went to Europe, principally, Italy, France, England, Germany and Spain. Exports to Egypt and India are now assuming larger proportions.

### PUBLICATIONS OF THE SOVIET UNION INFORMATION BUREAU

The Agrarian Revolution in Russia.....	25c
The Financial Policies of Russia.....	25c
New Constitution of the Soviet Union.....	15c
Patent Law of the U. S. S. R.....	15c
Commercial Handbook of the Soviet Union..	30c

# Foreign Relations of the Soviet Union

ON January 23, 1928, Mr. V. S. Dovgalevsky, Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in France, handed his credentials to Mr. Doumergue, President of the French Republic, and delivered the following speech on that occasion:

"Mr. President: I have the honor of transmitting to you the document containing the recall of my predecessor, Rakovsky, and the credentials through which the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union accredits me to you in the capacity of Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary. The Government and the peoples of the Soviet Union are firmly determined to preserve peace, and for this reason I will devote myself entirely to the consolidation and to the further strengthening of those ties of friendship which at present are so fortunately uniting our countries, in the conviction that a good understanding between our nations is an essential guaranty of their prosperity and of general peace. The Soviet Government, noting with satisfaction the favorable development of the economic relations between the two countries, has entrusted me with the essential task of removing all the obstacles in this field and of promoting, to the best of my abilities, the further extension and development of these relations. It is in the spirit of these ideas that I am expressing the hope that the negotiations which had so auspiciously been started with the participation of my predecessor and have already yielded certain tangible results, will be continued so that complete success may be achieved in the mutual interests of our peoples. Assuring you that all my efforts will be directed towards these aims, I beg you, Mr. President, to honor me with your confidence, and I hope that the Government of the French Republic will lend me the assistance necessary for the realization of the high mission which has been entrusted to me."

In reply to Mr. Dovgalevsky's speech, President Doumergue made the following speech:

"Mr. Ambassador: In accepting your credentials wherewith the Central Executive Committee has accredited you to me in the capacity of Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, I am glad to hear your assurances that you are determined to devote all your activity to the preservation of general peace and to the establishment of closer mutual relations between our countries. I gladly assure you that the Government of the Republic will be happy to have the opportunity of assisting you in the carrying out of this task. The Government of the Republic desires, just as much as you do, that the questions at issue between the two nations should be settled on such conditions,

as would permit the development, in an atmosphere of confidence, of ties connecting the two governments. Placing for the sake of our common interests, our collaboration above all other considerations, we will thereby render a most useful service to the cause of peace. I am convinced that those personal intentions which were expressed in the words uttered by you here, will facilitate the carrying out of this double task. You may be assured, Mr. Ambassador, that I, as well as all the members of the Government of the Republic, will always render to you all assistance which you will require for the carrying out of your high mission."

## Catholic Priests in the U. S. S. R. as Polish Agents

Recently a group of Polish priests in the Ukraine published a statement in the Ukrainian Soviet press declaring categorically that they refused to take any further part in anti-Soviet activities. After stating that the Soviet Government, having separated the Church from the State and established full religious liberty, has granted full independence and freedom of action to the Catholic Church, the declaration points out that part of the Catholic clergy were openly and secretly opposing the Soviet authorities.

"In several cases" the priests admitted "we were directly guilty of transgressions by going too far in the direction of chauvinism. We yielded to the fascination of political intrigues, and we were often consciously implicated in relations with agents of the Polish bourgeoisie and representatives of the Polish Government. Part of the Polish clergy were helping in espionage activities, sending people across the border to Poland, conducting anti-Soviet propaganda, etc. While legal means of communication with Poland and the Vatican were available, some of the clergy were often making use of illegal connections through the intermediary of Polish diplomatic representatives. . ."

"We decisively protest" the declaration continues "against the Polish Government and the Polish bourgeoisie considering us, Polish priests in the U. S. S. R., as their agents, and against their using us for all kinds of anti-Soviet activities."

The statement concludes with a promise on the part of the priests to pursue a sincerely law-abiding attitude with regard to the Soviet authorities, to renounce all political activities in the future, to discontinue all underground conspiracies and connections with anyone in Poland, and to desist from using religion and the pulpit for anti-Soviet sermons and Polish patriotic propaganda. The priests appealed to the entire Polish population in the Soviet Union honestly to fulfill their civic duties with regard to the Soviet Republic.



### **Signing of the Fisheries Convention Between the Soviet Union and Japan**

The Fisheries Convention between the Soviet Union and Japan was signed in Moscow on January 23, 1928. The convention was concluded under the stipulations of the Soviet-Japanese agreement, signed in 1925, concerning the general principles governing the mutual relations of the two countries.

The Convention settles a number of questions connected with the operation of fisheries in Soviet Pacific waters, which had been carried on for years by Japanese subjects.

Early in 1928 Viscount Goto, Chairman of the Soviet-Japanese Rapprochement Society, heading a delegation of representative Japanese, had visited Moscow on a friendly mission.

In the course of the twenty years' activities on the shores of Kamchatka, which is the center of the Japanese fishing industry on Soviet territory, Japan created a quite powerful base for catching and canning salmon. The output amounts to from 40 to 50 million yen annually.

### **Protest of the Soviet Government to the Government of the United States**

On February 6, 1928, Mr. M. M. Litvinov, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, in behalf of the Soviet Government, sent a cablegram to the State Department of the United States, relative to the payment of compensation for the destruction, during an explosion in 1916, of military equipment which belonged to the former Tsarist and Provisional Governments. The compensation was paid to a certain Serge Ughet, former financial attache of the Bakhmetiev embassy in Washington. It was pointed out in the cablegram that the court decision concerning the suit against the Lehigh Valley Railroad Company which was responsible for the property, was rendered in favor of Ughet on the basis of documents issued by the State Department, which recognized Ughet as the "legal custodian" of the property formerly belonging to the Tsarist Government.

In behalf of the Soviet Government, Mr. Litvinov protested against the payment to a private person, of sums belonging to the former Russian Treasury, and emphasized the fact that Ughet has received no powers whatever from the Soviet Government.

Pointing out further that the only legitimate owner of these sums is the U. S. S. R., without whose sanction nobody could claim these amounts, Mr. Litvinov declared that the Soviet Government reserves for itself the full right of presenting its claim to the Government of the United States, especially as the decision of the court relative to the payment of those sums, was rendered on the basis of Serge Ughet's correspondence with the Government of the United States.

### **Changes in Soviet Diplomatic Service**

Mr. D. I. Kursky was relieved of his post of People's Commissar for Justice of the R. S. F. S. R. and appointed Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in Italy.

### **Japanese Concessions in Sakhalin and Eastern Siberia**

**I**N the course of the three years which passed since the conclusion of the Soviet-Japanese Agreement in January, 1925, the economic relations between the two countries produced favorable results.

These relations center chiefly around the activities of the Japanese concession enterprises on Soviet territory, which began after the signing of the concession agreements relative to the exploitation of oil and coal resources of Sakhalin.

At the present time the Japanese concessionaries in Sakhalin are exploiting the oil resources through a powerful concern called the North-Sakhalin Petroleum Joint Stock Company, which has a capital stock of 10,000,000 yen, while the coal mines are being exploited by them through the North-Sakhalin Mining Joint Stock Co., with a capital stock likewise amounting to 10,000,000 yen.

In view of the exceptional importance of the liquid fuel problem for Japan and of the necessity of importing annually about 750,000 metric tons of oil products, the activities of the Japanese oil concessions in Sakhalin have produced tangible results in spite of the short period of their operation. Thus, according to Japanese data, the output of oil for the past fiscal year amounted to 67,194 metric tons. The output for the current year is calculated to reach 78,000 metric tons, according to the plans of the concessionaries.

The favorable results of the activities of the Japanese concessionaries will stand out all the more prominently if it is considered that at the present time only part of the oil fields for which concessions were obtained from the Soviet Government, are being exploited.

Aside from the Sakhalin petroleum and coal concessions, the Japanese Far Eastern Timber Syndicate, which has a capital stock of 5,000,000 yen, obtained, in April, 1927, a vast timber concession in the Maritime Province (Russian Far East) in the region of the Soviet Harbor (formerly "Imperial Harbor"). In July, 1927, the Council of People's Commissars of the Soviet Union ratified a concession granted to the joint stock company Siova Kinko Kabusiki Kaisia (capital stock 1,000,000 yen) in the district of Okhotsk, North Eastern Siberia, for the prospecting and exploitation of gold bearing areas. Aside from these large scale concessions, a number of less important concessions were granted to individual Japanese citizens during the past three years.



## Miscellaneous News

### Soviet Exhibition in New York

Exhibitions showing the progress of the Soviet Union for the last ten years were recently arranged in various countries by the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries. In New York an exhibition of this kind was held between January 28 and February 15, of the current year. The exhibits attracted great interest on the part of the visitors whose number is estimated at 75,000. All the exhibits of the textile and peasant handicraft departments were sold during the first days. Lectures were held by Prof. L. Theremin, Col. Cooper, the builder of Muscle Shoals, and at present chief consulting engineer of the Dnieper Super-Power Plant in the Soviet Ukraine; Albert Rhys Williams, Avram Yarmolinsky, Babette Deutsch, Dr. Lucy Wilson and others. Concerts were given by Prof. Theremin, inventor of the apparatus producing "Music from the ether"; by Prof. Naoum Blinder, violinist, and others. Some of the speeches and concerts were broadcasted.

### The First Decade of Soviet Medicine

In July of the current year, ten years will have elapsed since the establishment of the People's Commissariat for Health which laid the foundations of a unified system of health protection. Preparations for the celebration of this anniversary have been started in the capital and in the provinces.

It is intended to organize a "Week of Soviet Medicine" between the 11th and the 18th of July, 1928, for the purpose of popularizing the prophylactic methods evolved by Soviet medicine, and of testing the achievements of the local bodies for health protection. That "Week" will be marked by a country-wide campaign of information about health protection in all cultural and educational establishments, such as schools, clubs, reading-cabins, exhibitions, etc., as well as by the calling of conferences of health workers, by the inauguration of new medical establishments, etc.

In addition to these features, plans are being made for the best possible scheme of organization of the medico-sanitary system in the villages and the creation of both permanent and ambulant local exhibitions showing the achievements of Soviet medicine for the last ten years in the field of workers' health protection and the improvement of general living conditions of the population.

### A Campaign Against Alcoholism

A number of medical institutions of the Soviet Union are conducting a stubborn struggle against alcoholism, in which they have the support of the Soviet public organizations. This campaign is conducted chiefly through special dispensaries.

The central "Narco-Dispensary" (dispensary

for the victims of narcotics) has a daily attendance of 400 alcoholic patients. The course of treatment lasts from two to six weeks, various methods of treatment being applied, such as the injection of arsenic, morphine, the inhalation of oxygen, hypnotic treatment, electrical treatment, etc.

Over 80 per cent of the patients are being cured completely and their places are taken by new hosts of patients.

The Soviet dispensaries are not only medical institutions, but also public prophylactic establishments. First of all, the social causes of alcoholism are being studied. A special staff of investigating nurses is in charge of this activity. The physicians are endeavoring not to lose sight of the patients who have passed through the dispensary. The investigating nurses call on the patient at his house, to get acquainted with the housing and general living conditions and to give him advice.

Moreover, every physician of the dispensary is closely connected with some factory or institution where he delivers lectures to, and conducts discussions on medical topics with the workers. Anti-alcoholic circles are in existence in those factories or institutions which are likewise in close contact with physicians and dispensaries.

### Foreign Delegates in the U. S. S. R.

A great number of foreign delegations visited the Soviet Union during the celebration of the November Revolution. In the course of the last two months of 1927, over 1,200 foreigners had come to the U. S. S. R., having been delegated by all kinds of organizations. Most numerous of all, were the labor delegations coming from Germany, England and France, Germany holding the first place with regard to the number of delegates.

The delegates of various organizations from Egypt, Syria, Palestine, Brazil, Cuba, Java and India were in the U. S. S. R. for the first time. Altogether 39 countries were represented by the various delegations.

The overwhelming majority of the foreign delegates belonged to no party. Next in number were Socialists (Social-Democrats), while Communists constituted the smallest number among the delegates.

According to approximate estimates, 140 various occupations and professions were represented by the delegations. It is noteworthy that scholars and professors of world renown were among the foreigners visiting the U. S. S. R.

The labor delegations were composed to an overwhelming extent of industrial workers, while the prevailing element among the representatives of public organizations were educational workers, representatives of the press, and physicians, also members of anti-imperialist leagues and societies for cultural rapprochement with the U. S. S. R.

### Construction of New Enterprises

In the course of 1927-28 the construction of 84 new enterprises in ten of the main branches of industry will be started. In addition, the construction of the 40 factories and plants, began in the previous years, will be continued. Moreover, large scale re-equipment of operating plants as well as the equipment of additional departments thereof, is contemplated.

The new plants will be able to provide work for 200,000 unemployed.

The largest number of new enterprises will be constructed, in the course of this year, in the metal industry. Out of the twenty new large metallurgical plants which are to be built, ten will be put into operation by the middle or by the end of the current year. The largest among these are the wharf of the Sormov plant, which, by the end of the year, will be able to launch new ships, and a bolt plant with an annual output representing a value of 7,500,000 rubles.

Large re-equipment will be carried out in the current year in 80 metal-working plants. The expenditures necessitated by the re-equipment of some of these factories are in some cases as considerable as those caused by the construction of new plants. Thus about 10 million rubles will be spent on the re-equipment of the Dzerzhinsky plant in the Ukraine.

Extensive new construction and re-equipment activities will likewise be carried on in other branches of industry. The electrical industry in particular will be enriched in 1927-28 through the addition of three new large plants.

### The Turkestan-Siberian Railroad

In the course of last January, the first railway delegation of the Soviet Union, which recently arrived in the United States, purchased a number of steam shovels and gas locomotives, drilling supplies, and a number of automobiles, all of which will be used on the construction of the Turkestan-Siberian Railway in the Soviet Union.

The Turkestan-Siberian Railroad will cost about \$110,000,000, according to a statement made by Mr. Ivanoff, a member of the delegation who is Vice-President of the Railroad, will be about 900 miles long and will connect the sub-tropical region of Soviet Turkestan with Southern Siberia. The road will shorten by two-thirds the railway distance from Tashkent, the center of Turkestan, to Novosibirsk, the capital of Siberia. The new railroad will carry grain, timber and other much needed products to Central Asia, which in turn, will be able to devote more of its valuable land to the growing of cotton, tobacco and other industrial crops.

The road will cross the Kazak Republic (formerly called Kirghiz Republic) which, although equaling in area France, Germany and Italy combined, has only 1,300 miles of railways. The construc-

tion of the Turkestan-Siberian Railway is a difficult engineering project as the southern portion of the road will pass through mountainous regions. Although the plans provide for no tunnels in this section, the grade of the road will not exceed 0.8 per cent.

The new railway, according to estimates, will not only help to develop potentially important sections of the Soviet Union, but will also prove commercially profitable. During the first year of operations revenue from the Railway is expected to be 30,000,000 rubles (\$15,400,000), while expenditure will not exceed 18,000,000 rubles (\$9,300,000). The margin of profit is estimated to double in the following five years.

### Foreign Trade of the U. S. S. R.

The foreign trade turnover of the Soviet Union across the European frontier, for the first three months of the current fiscal year beginning October 1, 1927, amounted to 325,300,000 rubles (\$167,500,000), as against 300,200,000 rubles for the first three months of the preceding fiscal year. Of this amount, 164,800,000 rubles fell to the share of exports and 160,500,000 rubles to imports, giving a favorable balance of 4,300,000 rubles.

The foreign trade turnover across the Asiatic frontier for the first two months of the current fiscal year (October and November), amounted to 40,900,000 rubles, as against 28,900,000 rubles for the same period of the preceding year. Exports equaled 17,800,000 rubles and imports 23,100,000 rubles, with an adverse balance of 5,300,000 rubles.

### Transit of Foreign Goods Through the U. S. S. R.

The People's Commissariat for Trade of the U. S. S. R. has issued a decree laying down the rules governing the transit of goods from countries entertaining treaty relations with the U. S. S. R., through the territory of the Soviet Union over the routes open for transit.

Transit of goods, except freight not admitted to transit, coming from the following countries is permitted without any special license and without any quota restrictions: Austria, Afghanistan, Hedjas, Germany, Greece, Denmark, Italy, China, Latvia, Lithuania, Mexico, Mongolia, Norway, Persia, Poland, Turkey, Uruguay, Finland, France, Sweden, Esthonia and Japan. Certificates of origin are to be submitted to the Soviet customs houses for transit goods carried from the aforesaid countries across the territory of the U. S. S. R. over roads open for transit.

### Administrative Appointments

Mr. N. K. Antipov was appointed People's Commissar for Posts and Telegraphs of the Soviet Union.

Mr. N. M. Yanson was appointed People's Commissar for Justice and Attorney General of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (Soviet Russia proper,) a post formerly held by Mr. D. I. Kursky.

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## The Soviet Disarmament Proposal

ON February 15, 1928, Mr. M. M. Litvinov, Chairman of the Soviet Delegation at the Preparatory Commission for a Disarmament Conference, submitted to the Secretary of the League of Nations the draft of a disarmament convention, embodying, in the form of a convention, those proposals which he had submitted in his declaration of November 30th, 1927, at the fourth session of the Commission.

The draft aims at general, complete and immediate disarmament within a period of four years, the possibility of armed clashes to be limited after the first year.

Accordingly the Soviet Draft Convention provides for the demobilization of the armies by 50 per cent, for the destruction of all supplies of arms, for the dismantlement of the more important types of war ships and air craft and the abolition of the military establishments to be carried out within the first year. In the course of the subsequent three years the following is to be carried into effect: The complete abolition of the armies, the destruction of the weapons belonging to the various military units, the destruction or adaptation for peaceful purposes of all war ships and military aircraft, as well as of the devices used in the manufacture of military equipment, the abrogation of military budgets, and the transfer of all matters connected with disarmament to the civil government departments. Only a certain number of forces are to be maintained for protection, such as customs and forest guards, police, etc., also a limited number of small craft for protection against pirates, etc., as well as a small quantity of weapons for private needs, such as hunting, self-defense, etc.

The personnel of the demobilized armies and the workers engaged in the military industries are to be used for cultural and economic construction work, and are to be taken care of at the expense of the state until such time as they will be able to obtain employment at peaceful pursuits.

The control over the carrying out of the Convention is to be entrusted to an International Permanent Control Commission, to commissions in every individual country, and to regional commissions organized on the principles of equality and the participation of the representatives of legislative bodies, public organizations and of the working classes.

The full text of the Soviet disarmament proposal reads as follows:

### Draft Convention on Immediate, Complete and General Disarmament

Prompted by the firm desire to preserve universal peace,

Considering that the existence and the increase of armed forces represent the greatest danger and are inevitably fraught with new armed conflicts,

Considering that the attempts to penetrate to the bottom, and to embrace in all their details all the factors influencing the existence and the growth of armaments, have been leading only to failure and to the postponement of the solution of the disarmament problems,

The Contracting States .....

Solemnly declare that general and complete abolition of all armed forces is the only real means conducive to the preservation of peace, and they conclude the present convention, after appointing for this purpose their plenipotentiary representatives, viz.: .....

Who, after duly exchanging their credentials, recognized to be in due and proper form, have agreed as follows: beginning with the day the present Convention goes into effect, activities for complete disarmament will be started, the latter to be accomplished within a term of four years, in a manner aiming at the limitation of the possibility of armed conflicts upon the expiration of the first year.

### I. Personnel of Armed Forces

ART. 1. All organizational units and the entire personnel of the land, sea and air forces, both of the mother countries and of the over-sea possessions, are to be disbanded within four years from the day the present Convention goes into effect and henceforth their existence is not to be permitted in any form whatsoever, either open or concealed.

The disbandment of the armed forces is to take place in four successive stages:

(a) In the course of the first year from the day the present Convention goes into effect, half of the entire personnel of officers, officials and private soldiers are to be disbanded, and

(b) During the subsequent years the entire re-

maintaining personnel is to be disbanded, in equal portions.

**Note.**—Under the personnel of the armed forces are to be understood both the personnel in active military service and the trained military reserves listed in each of the Contracting States on the rolls of any military or public organization whatsoever.

**ART. 2.** All ministries of war, navy and military aviation, the general staffs, all military schools and all kinds of military administrations, institutions and establishments are to be abolished within one year of the entry into force of the present Convention, except as provided for by Art. 5 of the present Convention, and are not to be re-established in the future.

**ART. 3.** In the course of one year since the entry into force of the present Convention all the records concerning the trained military reserves, both in state and in public institutions, are to be destroyed. Within the same period all the legislative acts referring to the organization of military registration are to be likewise abrogated.

**ART. 4.** Within one year of the entry into force of the present Convention all documents concerning the mobilization of armed forces are to be destroyed; in the future all mobilization measures are to be prohibited.

**ART. 5.** In the course of four years since the entry into force of the present Convention, the maintenance of a strictly necessary number of staffs, administrations, institutions and establishments will be permitted in accordance with a separate convention, for the technical execution of the measures aiming at the liquidation of armed forces, as well as for the termination of all the necessary activities of an administrative and economic character connected with disarmament.

**ART. 6.** After the expiration of four years since the entry into force of the present Convention all matters concerning the liquidation of armed forces are to be turned over to the civil ministries. All files and archives of the ministries of war, navy and military aviation, of military units, staffs, administrations institutions and establishments, are to be destroyed after the expiration of the same period.

**ART. 7.** Persons constituting the cadres of the armed forces which are being dissolved, are to be provided with work in the cultural or economic field.

Until they secure work, the above mentioned persons may temporarily be maintained at the expense of the state budget, according to general regulations.

When the above persons become subject to pension, having served the necessary number of years, the time which they spent in the ranks of the armed forces is to be included in the total number of years of government service.

**ART. 8.** The appropriations of resources for the maintenance of armed forces both from the general state budget and from the funds of public

bodies, are to be limited to amounts strictly necessary for the maintenance of the personnel remaining in active service, in accordance with a special convention.

After the expiration of four years, the budget for the maintenance of armed forces is to be abrogated and must not appear under any head of the state budget.

**ART. 9.** After the expiration of one year from the day the present Convention goes into effect all legislative acts concerning military service, whether compulsory, voluntary or recruited, are to be abrogated. The principles of military service until complete disarmament has been achieved are to be laid down by special stipulations issued by each of the Contracting States.

**ART. 10.** Immediately after the present Convention has gone into effect the following activities are to be forbidden by legislative act:

1. The publication of special military literature:

(a) Military scientific investigations and theoretical treatises.

(b) Military-historical works.

(c) Military textbooks.

(d) Military statutes.

(e) All kinds of manuals for the study of the technical means of armament.

2. Military training of the population, including the calling of trained reserves, as well as military propaganda among the population.

3. Military instruction of youth, either by the State or by public organizations.

## II. Material

### 1. Land Armaments

**ART. 11.** Within a year of the entry into force of the present Convention all supplies of arms, of ammunition, and other means of armament and destruction, as per annexed list, at the disposal of the War Department, are to be destroyed. Tanks, poison gases, and appliances for releasing them (gas-projectors, cylinders and other appliances), whether kept in reserve or actually forming part of the equipment of the armies, are to be destroyed in the first place.

Only that quantity of arms which is strictly necessary for the actual forces remaining in the service may be retained as part of the armed forces of each of the Contracting States. The degree to which the armed forces of each of the Contracting States may be provided with technical military equipment enumerated in the annexed list, is to be laid down in a separate convention.

In the course of the second, third and fourth year since the entry into force of the present Convention, the destruction of all arms is to be carried out by successive stages corresponding to the reduction of the armed forces.

After disarmament has been completed each of the Contracting States will retain a minimum quantity of arms and ammunition necessary for all

kinds of protection and for personal use, in accordance with articles 39, 43 and 44.

*Military Material Subject to Destruction*

1. Magazine and automatic rifles.
2. All kinds of machine guns, including automatic rifles, as well as light and heavy machine guns.
3. Trench mortars, grenade throwers and bomb throwers.
4. Revolvers and automatic pistols constituting part of the army equipment.
5. Hand and rifle grenades.
6. Military rifle and revolver cartridges.
7. Artillery cannon of every calibre and type as well as ammunition therefor, both in ready projectiles and their component parts.
8. Tanks.
9. Gunpowder and explosives used exclusively for military purposes.
10. All poisonous materials prepared for military purposes, as well as appliances for releasing them, such as gas projectors, cylinders and other apparatus.
11. Flame projectors.
12. All instruments of military technique not included in the present list, the purpose of which is the wounding and destruction of man by man as well as all the separate parts relating to each of the objects mentioned.

ART. 12. All the orders placed by the ministries of war, navy and military aviation, for military supplies mentioned in the list attached to article 11 of the present Convention, are to be cancelled.

Articles of armament in the process of manufacture under orders placed abroad, are to be destroyed in the country in which they are being manufactured.

ART. 13. Losses caused by the cancellation of orders mentioned in article 12, as well as of orders placed by the ministries of war, navy and military aviation for special equipment of the navy and the airfleet, as enumerated in articles 21 and 27, are to be compensated. This compensation is to be carried out either in conformity with the legislative practice of each of the Contracting States or in accordance with the terms of the orders.

ART. 14. Armored automobiles and all other armored means of transportation, with the exception of tanks, are to be dismantled, that process consisting in the removal and destruction of the armors and of the weapons—all this to be effected within a year from the day the present Convention goes into effect.

ART. 15. Revolvers and sporting rifles (of non-military model) destined for purposes of self-defense and hunting, may be left in the hands of private persons on the basis of permit certificates. The number of these revolvers and rifles for each of the Contracting States is to be stipulated by a separate convention, in proportion to the number of the population.

ART. 16. Explosives which can be used for industrial, agricultural and other cultural purposes are not subject to destruction and, within a year of the entry into force of the present Convention, are to be delivered by the organs of the ministries of war, navy and of military aviation to the corresponding economic organizations.

*2. Naval Armaments*

ART. 17. In the course of one year from the day the present Convention goes into effect, all liners, cruisers, airplane carriers, and submarines are to be removed from the regular navy.

ART. 18. Under a special convention all the remaining vessels and floating devices constructed for the special purposes of warfare, as recorded in the list annexed to this article, as well as naval aircraft are to be excluded from the regular navy in the course of four years, in equal yearly instalments.

*List of Vessels Subject to Dismantlement*

1. Armored Coast Defense Vessels.
2. Torpedo planters of all kinds.
3. Monitors.
4. Gun-boats of over 3,000 tons.
5. Batteries on rafts or flat-bottomed boats.
6. Hydroplanes of all types.

Note.—In accordance with the terms stipulated by Articles 43 and 44 of the present Convention, vessels and their armament may be retained for the purpose of forming a maritime police and for the requirements of frontier protection.

ART. 19. The crews of the vessels excluded from the regular navy are to be discharged immediately.

After the expiration of three months from the exclusion of the vessels from the regular navy, the entire equipment of the naval artillery as well as the mine and torpedo equipment are to be disabled in accordance with special technical regulations, all naval artillery ammunition supplies, destined for those vessels, as well as mines and torpedoes are to be destroyed.

In the course of the subsequent nine months, the naval artillery, and the mine and torpedo apparatus which had been disabled, are to be removed from the warships and destroyed.

ART. 20. In the course of three months after the vessels which could not be used for peaceful pursuits had been excluded from the regular navy, all the ship mechanisms are to be disabled in accordance with special technical regulations.

In the course of the subsequent nine months the ship mechanisms are to be removed whereupon the boats themselves are to be completely dismantled.

ART. 21. From the moment the present Convention goes into effect, the existing ship-building programs are to be annulled and the construction of any new warships is to be prohibited.

All war ships, in the process of construction or of repair, under domestic or foreign orders, are

to be dismantled in the same way as the regular ships of the navy of the Contracting States.

ART. 22. In the course of the first year from the day the present Convention goes into effect, armaments of merchant ships are to be destroyed on the same principles as the armament of the navies.

The adaptation and arming of merchant ships for war purposes is henceforth prohibited.

### 3. Air Armaments

ART. 23. Within one year from the day the present Convention goes into effect, the heavy bombing planes, the torpedo carriers and the dirigibles are to be excluded from the active military air forces.

ART. 24. All the other military aircraft, not mentioned in the preceding Art. 23, which on account of their specific military features cannot be used in the cultural and economic field, are to be destroyed in the course of four years in equal yearly instalments, in accordance with special technical regulations.

ART. 25. All the supplies of air bombs and of other devices destined to be dropped from aircraft are to be destroyed in the course of one year from the day the present Convention goes into effect.

ART. 26. All the military equipment of such military aircraft as are to be retained for use in the cultural and economic fields, is to be removed and destroyed within three months from the moment they are excluded from the regular military air forces. Thereafter these craft are to be turned over to the respective civil organizations.

ART. 27. All military aircraft, whether in regular service or in reserve, or in the process of manufacture under domestic or foreign orders, are subject to disarmament.

ART. 28. The arming of aircraft and their adaptation for mounting armaments is henceforth forbidden.

Aircraft destined for peaceful purposes may be retained only in strict accordance with the actual cultural and economic requirements of each country. A special convention is to determine their number for each of the Contracting States.

### 4. Fortifications and Bases

ART. 29. In the course of three years from the day the present Convention goes into effect, all the military armament of fortresses and of other fortifications, of naval and aircraft bases, is to be disabled in accordance with a list to be established by a special convention.

In the course of the subsequent year the military equipment is to be removed and destroyed, while the fortifications are to be broken up and destroyed; the building of any new fortified structures is not to be permitted henceforth.

### 5. Military Industries

ART. 30. Immediately after the present Convention goes into effect the manufacture of military

equipment enumerated in the list appended to Art. 11, and mentioned likewise in Arts. 19, 23, 24 and 25, is to be discontinued entirely in all industrial establishments, whether State or private; these enterprises are to be reequipped in order to take up production for peace-time needs.

Until the reequipping of these enterprises for peaceful purposes, or until the workers of the military industrial enterprises can be employed in other enterprises, these workers are to be taken care of by the State at the expense of the military budget.

ART. 31. In the course of the first year from the day the present Convention goes into effect, the drawings, gauges and caliber scales intended for the military industries are to be destroyed.

ART. 32. In the course of two years since the entry into force of the present Convention the plants and enterprises of the military industries and the arsenals are to be dismantled, except as provided for in Art. 34 of the present Convention.

In all the State and private enterprises, the lathes, machines, automats and apparatus designed exclusively for the output of military equipment, as enumerated in the list annexed to Art. 11 of the present Convention and in articles 19, 23, 24 and 25, are to be destroyed.

ART. 33. Henceforth it is forbidden to reestablish the equipment of plants, enterprises and arsenals of the military industry, as well to prepare the manufacturing enterprises of the State or private industry for the production of articles of military equipment, as enumerated in articles 11, 19, 23, 24 and 25.

ART. 34. For the purpose of manufacturing the minimum amount of arms and ammunition necessary for all kinds of defense provided for in Chapter III of the present Convention, as well as for the personal use of the citizens, for purposes provided for in Art. 15 of the present Convention, each of the Contracting States is permitted to retain the necessary enterprises. Their number, capacity and mode of production, as well as the rules governing the traffic in arms are to be established by a separate convention.

ART. 35. The output of explosives needed for the building and mining industries is to be established by each of the Contracting States strictly in accordance with the economic requirements, and is subject to control on the basis of a special convention.

ART. 36. The patenting of all kinds of armament and means of destruction is to be forbidden by legislative act.

## III. Organization of Protection

### 1. On Land.

ART. 37. In the course of four years from the day of the conclusion of the present Convention, the number of customs guards, of municipal police, of forest and other kinds of guards, as well as the quantity of their arms existing at present in



each of the Contracting States, are not to exceed the numbers fixed for January 1, 1928; the organization of the aforesaid bodies must not permit the possibility of their use for war purposes.

ART. 38. After the expiration of the four years' term stipulated by the present Convention for carrying out complete and general disarmament, it is permitted, for the requirements of customs and fiscal protection, for the protection of internal order, as well as for the protection of State or private property on the territory of each of the Contracting States, to maintain a guard and a police force whose personnel is to be engaged on the basis of free contract, and the retention of the smallest possible quantity of the proper military equipment of the simplest kind is likewise permitted.

The numbers of the said protective forces are to be established by a special convention, in proportion to the number of the population of each of the Contracting States, to the length of the ways of communication, to the number of objects of State importance requiring protection, to the development of forestry, etc.

ART. 39. Ten-shot magazine rifles and pistols of a caliber not exceeding 0.8 centimeters may be retained for the armament of the police and the guard.

The cartridge supply may be kept in special places stipulated by a separate convention and is not to exceed 1,000 cartridges per rifle and 100 cartridges per pistol.

The annual replenishment of supplies is not to exceed the actual deterioration of the arms and the actual expenditure of ammunition.

## 2. Maritime Protection

ART. 40. After the expiration of the four years' period established by the present Convention for carrying out complete and general disarmament, a maritime police, operating in accordance with a special convention, is to be organized for the protection of the maritime natural resources, of the undersea cables, for the struggle against piracy and against the slave traffic, as well as for other purposes which in the future may become the subject of international protection in the open sea.

ART. 41. For purposes of maritime protection all seas are to be divided into 16 zones in accordance with the attached list:

### *List of Maritime Protection Zones \**

1. The Baltic Sea.
2. The North Sea.
3. The eastern part of the Arctic Ocean.
4. The western part of the Arctic Ocean.
5. The Mediterranean Sea.
6. The north-eastern part of the Atlantic Ocean.
7. The north-western part of the Atlantic.

\* The geographical boundaries of each zone, as contained in the original text of the Draft Convention, are omitted here due to lack of space.

8. The south-eastern part of the Atlantic.

9. The south-western part of the Atlantic.

10. The Black Sea.

11. The northern part of the Indian Ocean.

12. The southern part of the Indian Ocean.

13. The north-western part of the Pacific Ocean.

14. The north-eastern part of the Pacific Ocean.

15. The south-western part of the Pacific Ocean.

16. The south-eastern part of the Pacific Ocean.

Note.—Maritime protection of inland seas extending over the shores of two or more states is to be established by a special agreement between those states.

ART. 42. In accordance with a special convention, the protection of international interests, as enumerated in Art. 40, is to be entrusted to groups of states having an outlet to the sea zones mentioned in the list annexed to Art. 41 of the present Convention.

ART. 43. The protection is to be carried on by the vessels of the maritime police, of not more than 3,000 tons each, armed with not more than two guns of a caliber not exceeding 50 millimeters.

The personnel of the police vessels is to be recruited on the basis of voluntary enlistment.

To arm the crew of each vessel, it is permitted to retain not more than 20 rifles or pistols, in accordance with Article 39 of the present Convention.

ART. 44. Customs protection in the territorial waters is to be carried out by unarmed vessels of the maritime customs police, of not over 100 tons each.

The number of the aforesaid vessels to be used by each of the Contracting States is to be stipulated by a separate convention, in accordance with the length of the coast line.

The personnel of the maritime customs police may be armed either with rifles or with pistols, and is to be maintained on the basis of the principles indicated in Art. 43 of the present Convention.

Note.—The limits of the territorial waters are to be established by special agreement.

## IV. Control

ART. 45. Within three months of the entry into force of the present Convention a Permanent International Control Commission, Control Commissions in each of the Contracting States, and Local Control Commissions are to be organized.

ART. 46. The Permanent International Control Commission is to be entrusted with the following duties:

(a) Supervision and control over the normal and proportional process of disarmament; general co-ordination of the measures pertaining to the carrying out of the present Convention, and notification of the various States in case of violation of the stipulations of the present Convention.

(b) The establishment of an agreement con-

cerning non-military measures calculated to bring pressure upon the separate states disturbing the normal progress of disarmament, provided for by the present Convention and the supplementary conventions completing it.

(c) The designation of the localities, the regulations and the technical conditions of the destruction of the material, as well as the working out of all necessary additional technical conventions.

(d) The designation of the location and of the extent of the military industries and of the rules governing the traffic in arms.

(e) Informing public opinion about the progress of the disarmament activities.

ART. 47. The Permanent International Control Commission is to be composed, on the basis of equal representation, of the representatives of legislative bodies and trade union or other workers' organizations of all States participating in the present Convention.

Subsequently the Permanent International Control Commission may add to its membership representatives of international public organizations pursuing the aim of establishing peaceful relations between the various States and justifying these aims by their activities—provided these organizations express the desire to enter the Permanent International Control Commission.

The seat of the Permanent International Control Commission is .....

ART. 48. A Permanent International Committee of Experts, composed, on the basis of equal representation, of military, naval, aircraft and other specialists of all States taking part in the present Convention, is to be attached to the Permanent International Control Commission.

ART. 49. The Permanent International Committee of Experts acts in accordance with the instructions of the Permanent International Control Commission; it furnishes expert advice on, and elaborates all special technical questions connected with the carrying out of the present Convention.

ART. 50. The Control Commission in each individual State is composed of representatives of the Permanent International Control Commission appointed by the latter, of representatives of public, trade union and workers' organizations, as well as of representatives of the peasants and of the rank and file of the armed forces of the State in question.

The personnel of the Control Commission is to be ratified by the Permanent International Control Commission.

The capital of each given State is the seat of its Control Commission.

ART. 51. The Control Commission in every State coordinates the disarmament activities of the Local Control Commissions in full agreement with the spirit of the present Convention and the instructions of the International Permanent Control Commission.

ART. 52. The Local Control Commissions are composed of representatives of the municipal, public, trade union and workers' organizations, as well as of representatives of the peasants and of the rank and file of the armed forces.

The number of the Local Control Commissions, their residence and the zones of their activities are determined by the Control Commission of the State concerned. The latter ratifies the membership of the Local Control Commissions.

ART. 53. The Local Control Commissions are to carry out the disarmament directly in the zones of their activities, in accordance with the instructions of the Control Commission of their State.

ART. 54. The following persons are excluded from the membership of all control commissions, central and local:

(a) Former professional military men, as well as officials of the ministries of war, navy and military aviation.

(b) Persons who are owners or large stock-holders of enterprises engaged in military production, owners and large stock-holders of banking and trading enterprises interested in the military industries and the arms traffic, as well as responsible employees of all these enterprises.

ART. 55. All the Contracting States, proceeding from the principle of the broadest publicity on the disarmament activities, are to render every assistance to the organs of the Permanent Control Commission for the purpose of an all-sided investigation of those branches of state, public and private activities which are connected with the carrying out of disarmament, or which, in the judgment of the Permanent International Control Commission or of its organs arouse doubts as to the possibility of fulfilling the solemnly assumed obligations concerning disarmament and the cessation of all kinds of military preparations.

ART. 56. The decisions of the Permanent International Control Commission are being adopted by a majority of votes and are binding upon all Contracting States.

ART. 57. The expenditures connected with the maintenance of the Permanent International Control Commission and of its organs, as well as the disbursements connected with the control activities are to be covered by all the Contracting States in a proportion to be laid down by a separate convention.

The State and Local Control Commissions are maintained by the resources of each of the Contracting States.

#### V. Additional Conventions, Violations of the Convention, Ratification

ART. 58. Within a year from the day the present Convention goes into effect all the Contracting States are to issue legislative acts according to which the violation of any of the stipulations of the Convention would be considered a very grave crime against the State.

At the same time all the laws of national or international scope which are in contradiction to the above mentioned stipulations, are to be abrogated or modified accordingly.

ART. 59. Within nine months of the entry into force of the present Convention, the following additional conventions are to be concluded:

(a) In accordance with Art. 8 of the present Convention—a convention on the number of staffs, administrations, institutions, and establishments to be retained in each of the Contracting States until complete and general disarmament has been carried out.

(b) In accordance with Art. 15 of the present Convention—a convention on laying down the limits of the quantities of weapons for self-defense and hunting.

(c) In accordance with Art. 28 of the present Convention—a convention on the number of aircraft intended to cater to the cultural and economic needs of each of the Contracting States.

(d) In accordance with Art. 29 of the present Convention—a convention on the establishment of a list of fortresses, fortified structures and maritime and aircraft bases, to be demolished.

(e) In accordance with Articles 34, 35 and 39 of the present Convention—a convention on the storing and the manufacture of, and the traffic in the minimum quantity of necessary arms.

(f) In accordance with Articles 41, 42, 43 and 44 of the present Convention—a convention on maritime protection, the distribution of the zones of maritime protection, and the number of vessels necessary for the maritime police and for customs protection.

(g) A convention providing for the statutes of the Permanent International Control Commission and of its organs, as well as establishing the proportion of expenditures for its maintenance.

(h) A convention on non-military measures of pressure upon the individual States which would disturb the normal process of disarmament, as provided for by the present Convention and the supplementary conventions completing it.

*Note.*—The Permanent International Control Commission is to undertake all the necessary measures for calling a conference of the participants of the present Convention for the purpose of concluding all the additional conventions mentioned in this article.

ART. 60. In case it is established that one of the Contracting States has directly violated the present Convention, the Permanent International Control Commission is to call, within the shortest possible term, an extraordinary assembly of the representatives of all Contracting States—the participants of the present Convention—for the purpose of deciding about the necessary measures to be adopted.

The above mentioned measures of pressure are not to be of a military character.

All the questions at issue between the various

states are to be settled by the Permanent International Control Commission.

ART. 61. The present Convention goes into effect the moment it is ratified by all States in accordance with the legislative practice of each of the Contracting States.

ART. 62. For the purpose of establishing the course to be taken with regard to the states which decline to ratify the present Convention, the Contracting States are to call a World Congress in the month of ....., 19....., in the city of.....

ART. 63. The ratification acts are to be drawn up in five copies and are to be deposited in the capital of one of the countries of each of the five continents.

The obligation to notify all the Contracting States of the ratification of the present Convention in accordance with the procedure laid down in article 61, rests upon .....

### INVITATION TO TURKEY

ON March 6, 1928, Mr. M. Litvinov, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, sent the following telegram to the General Secretary of the League of Nations:

Considering the importance of the part played by Turkey in world politics, as well as her geographical situation, the Delegation of the U. S. S. R. believes that the activities of the Preparatory Commission on Disarmament would gain in significance through the participation of the Turkish Republic in the activities of the aforesaid Commission. The Delegation of the U. S. S. R. to the aforesaid Commission, therefore takes the liberty of proposing that Turkey be invited to take part in that Commission beginning with the forthcoming session.

### Use of Chemical and Bacteriological Substances

On March 7, 1928, the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union decided as follows:

To ratify the act whereby the Government of the Soviet Union joins in the Protocol on the prohibition of application for military purposes of asphyxiating, poisonous and similar gases as well as bacteriological substances, as of June 17, 1927.

To empower the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs, on the occasion of depositing the ratification document, to declare:

(a) That the aforesaid Protocol is binding upon the Government of the U. S. S. R. only with regard to the states which have signed and ratified the Protocol or which have finally joined therein;

(b) That the aforesaid Protocol will cease to be binding upon the Government of the U. S. S. R. with regard to any hostile state whose armed forces or whose formal and actual allies will not observe the prohibition constituting the substance of the aforesaid Protocol.

# Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries

**I**N 1928 one may speak of the U. S. S. R. Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries,\* as an organization which has already made its existence known in all parts of the world. There is not a country in the world which does not benefit by the services of the Society in one shape or another.

The scientific and cultural centers of most countries, and the vanguard of the intellectuals, are constantly in contact with the Society. An exchange of publications is going on continually, over 700,000 units of printed matter having been exchanged during the last two-and-a-half years. These scientific and cultural centers are regularly receiving the "Weekly News Bulletin" of the Society, which is published in the three leading European languages—English, French and German—and carry on an extensive correspondence with the Society on various practical questions relating to scientific research and cultural activity. The exchange of scientific publications helps in gathering material for research purposes, in procuring the necessary literature for research work, and in supplying the press with articles and illustrative matter on creative work in the different branches of science, art and culture. The Society organizes trips of Soviet scientists and artists to other countries, and in various ways assists those visiting the U. S. S. R., by furnishing them with information as to how to travel to and in the U. S. S. R. as well as by supplying them with material and data on various subjects, and so on.

It is the aspiration of the Society that the idea of international cultural cooperation, which constitutes the basis of its activities, should become universally popular. This cooperation is a vital issue to intellectuals throughout the world. The Societies for Cultural Relations with the U. S. S. R. now existing in a number of countries—there are twenty societies of this kind at present—have a great future before them. While at present they embrace only the more advanced intellectuals, who have not yet formed a clear-cut program of activity, the day is not far distant when the wide scope of the work outlined above will attract all intellectuals.

The strength of the Society's program consists in that it sets for itself comprehensive tasks which appeal to people of all shades of political opinion, except to the most rabid reactionaries. The Society gives an impartial account of the conditions, without going into any specific comments, allowing the facts to speak for themselves. The Society has nothing to conceal, nothing to disguise.

\*This is an extract from an article written by Mme. O. D. Kameneva, President of the U. S. S. R. Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries.

It has a uniform method of information both in the U. S. S. R. and abroad: describing the actual conditions and affording the opportunity of comparing the past with the present. Western scientists were given the opportunity to participate in Soviet scientific expeditions; foreign historians were enabled to look up the original material in the archives of the Soviet Union; some foreign universities carried out research in various lines with the aid of material furnished by the Society—e. g., the cycle of lectures at Lyons University on the Soviet Constitution, etc. Numerous publishing firms abroad consult the Society on the publication of albums, monographs, etc., while many periodicals abroad have published special issues dedicated either to the U. S. S. R. or to the several republics of the Soviet Union. The Society has contributed to the participation of Soviet scientists in international congresses and has held about 50 large and small exhibitions.

Exhibitions constitute one of the most effective mediums enabling people of different countries to get acquainted with one another. It is for this reason that the exhibitions occupy such an important place in the activities of the Society. In the course of 1927, over twenty exhibitions were organized: the Book Show in Leipzig, the Poster Show in Berlin, the Poster and Book Show in Belgium, the Soviet School Exhibition in Denmark, Germany and Latvia, the Pictorial Arts Exhibition in Japan, the Printing Show in Greece, the Soviet Pavilion and concerts by Soviet artists in Frankfurt, the Soviet Architectural Exhibition in America, the Children's Work Exhibition in Japan, and so forth. The principles on which these exhibitions were organized are in themselves characteristic, as the various public organizations of the Soviet Union took part in collecting exhibits, whilst the foremost intellectuals in the respective countries materially contributed to the success of the exhibitions.

The Societies of Friends of the U. S. S. R. in the different countries have now set for themselves a number of new practical tasks: (1) the establishment of regular contact among the Societies in the different countries, and with the Society for Cultural Relations, for the purpose of exchanging data and experiences, and of placing the work on a more efficient basis (arranging for the exchange of publications, lecturers, exhibits, etc.); (2) the rendering of practical aid to scientific, art and cultural institutions in the U. S. S. R. by similar bodies in other countries.

Of particular importance in this program of activity is the exchange of scientific and technical forces, the organization of students' excursions, practical research work by young scientists coming from other countries, and so on.

From the point of view of one particular aspect of the Society's activities, the help of the cultural workers of other countries is especially valuable and indispensable—namely for the popularization, among the peoples of the U. S. S. R., of the achievements of foreign countries in the domain of culture, science, and technique.

The Society does its utmost to keep the peoples of the West and the East informed on the cultural progress of the Soviet Union. On the other hand, the Society is in a position to supply the peoples of the U. S. S. R. with information on the progress of art and science in other countries. The scope of this information will, of course, depend to a great extent upon the amount of information the Society will obtain from scientists and artists of the Western and Eastern countries. In this respect there is a wide field of activity for intellectual workers in all countries, to the mutual advantage of the peoples concerned.

The active assistance on the part of volunteer correspondents both in the U. S. S. R., and in other countries is needed to carry out all these vital tasks.

#### **Resolution of Societies for Cultural Rapprochement with U. S. S. R.**

On November 14 and 15, 1927, delegates of various societies for cultural rapprochement with the Soviet Union, representing a number of foreign countries, convened in Moscow on the occasion of the Tenth Anniversary of the November Revolution. The most salient points of the resolution adopted are given below:

The delegates consider it appropriate to call periodical congresses of the Societies for Cultural Rapprochement with the U. S. S. R. in the respective countries, and to establish a regular exchange of materials bearing on their work. They are also in favor of maintaining connections between the various societies with a view to the organization of lectures, exhibitions and joint affairs. The All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries is to be entrusted with the task of preparing the organization of an International Federation of Friends of the Soviet Union.

The delegates are to call upon the existing Societies for Cultural Rapprochement with the Soviet Union to extend their activities. It is also to be suggested to the above mentioned societies that they get in touch with other organizations interested in the cultural and economic life of the U. S. S. R. In larger countries subdivisions and branches may be organized, insofar as this is possible and expedient.

The distribution of literary, art and scientific material, the arrangement of lectures and other similar activities are to be organized through collaboration between the Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries and the Societies of Friends of the U. S. S. R.

The delegates were unanimous in their opinion

that greater results will be obtained, if the activities are carried on separately by the various subdivisions. They suggested the creation of a musical section, a theatrical section, a section on graphic arts, a scientific section with various subdivisions, also the organization of student sections.

For the purpose of establishing closer connections, the various Societies are to send regular reports on their activities to the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations.

The delegates took cognizance of the fact that the Berlin magazine "Das Neue Russland" is the official organ of the German-Austrian Society of the Friends of the U. S. S. R. In a similar way it was suggested, the bulletin issued in Belgium could be used for France. The Czecho-Slovak Society is publishing "Novo Rusko." It is in the interest of the work carried on by the Societies that these publications be circulated in all countries.

The delegates hope for an extension of the international cultural connections through the information received not only from the Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries, but also from individual correspondents reporting on their specialties. Thus, jurists, interested in Soviet law, could establish regular connections with Soviet jurists through the intermediary of the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries. The same refers likewise to all other fields of science and art.

Particular attention is to be paid to the exchange of books, magazines, music, photographs, films, etc.

In order to facilitate their work the delegates consider it necessary that the various societies concerned be notified about the forthcoming exhibitions, lectures and other plans of the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations. They are to be supplied with all information necessary for the proper organization of the affairs in question, such as names of prospective lecturers, etc. In this connection it is very important to organize special theatrical and art agencies attached to the All-Union Society and to the corresponding societies in other countries.

In order to enable other nations to become familiar with Russian cultural life, the various societies are to organize language courses, such as are already in existence in Austria and Belgium. The publication of a special condensed textbook, prepared according to modern didactical methods, is likewise advisable.

In the opinion of the delegates it would be desirable to organize a bibliographical institute with a chair for lectures on the various branches of Soviet culture. Such an undertaking would fill a much-felt gap in international cultural life.

In conclusion the delegates thanked the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations for having undertaken the big task of organizing the International Congress of the Societies of Friends of New Russia.

## Education Among the National Minorities

**T**HE Soviet Government's policy with regard to the national minorities has brought to the fore a number of important problems in the field of public education, whose solution will demand tremendous efforts over a considerably long period of time.

The exceptional difficulties consist not only in the fact that the Soviet Union comprises a large number of various nationalities, but also in the great divergency between the cultural level of the different nationalities, their economic conditions, and their mode of living, demanding a peculiar manner of approach in every particular case.

It was only since the advent of the Soviet power that the organization of schools of the national minorities has been started in all corners of the Soviet Union. The establishment of the school system for the national minorities required the solution of some of the basic problems, such as the use of the native language (which in some cases involved the problem of the creation of an alphabet and of a written language), the use of the Russian language, and finally the length of the native school courses.

There are at present in operation 28,284 schools of the national minorities, teaching in 64 different languages. The number of pupils in these schools is 2,183,700. The Russian language is being taught in these schools as a separate subject, and only in a few instances, in the case of those nationalities whose written language and alphabet are still in the making, all subjects are temporarily being taught in the Russian language.

The educational activities among the national minorities of the U. S. S. R. are being directed by the Central Council of National Minorities attached to the People's Commissariat for Education. The Council adheres to the principle of the greatest possible autonomy of the localities and the creation of a staff of teachers from among the national minorities themselves. In the course of the past year national congresses and conferences of educational workers of ten nationalities were held. These conferences facilitated the solution of very important problems concerning the education of the various nationalities. The working out of the educational problems of the Tats (Mountain Jews) in the Caucasus, of the smaller Turko-Tatar nationalities, etc., are noteworthy. The Finno-Karelian congress of educational workers discussed not only the conditions and the prospects of Finno-Karelian education, but also the methods of working among the Karelians living outside of the Karelian Soviet Republic. The Lettish (Latvian), German and Polish educational congresses decided a number of vital problems, such as the method of activities in the rural districts, publications, universal compulsory education

and the question of language and of spelling. A written language for the Gypsies has been worked out, Greek\* spelling was revised and a Greek primer published.

In the course of 1927, special courses were organized for 30 nationalities for the purpose of giving additional instruction to the teachers (1,555 persons); there were also courses for teachers (1,773 persons) engaged in adult education. Measures aiming at the struggle against the influence of the clergy among the national minorities have also been worked out.

Pre-school activities among the national minorities have recently been greatly extended. This has been demonstrated particularly by the wide sweep of pre-school activities undertaken in summer. Simultaneously there is to be noticed a continuous growth of the system of permanent pre-school institutions. Last year books and other supplies relating to pre-school education were issued in 25 languages.

The primary school occupies the central place in the educational activities among the national minorities. The public school system of the national minorities grows at a comparatively quicker rate than the public school system of the Soviet Union at large. The percentage of children attending the schools varies according to nationality; it is higher among the western and northwestern nationalities, and lower in the extreme North, among the Turko-Tatar nationalities and among the nomadic peoples.

In 1927, the People's Commissariat for Education issued 66 textbooks for Tatars, Assyrians (Aisors), Kalmucks, Mari, Chuvashes, Votiaks, Letts, Chechens, Bashkirs, Mordvinians, Greeks, Yakuts, etc.

The secondary schools of many nationalities are still in their incipient stage. Under the old regime the non-Russian nationalities of the empire had no schools of their own, and only now children of the national minorities are being prepared for the higher schools. However, the number of the secondary schools of the national minorities is growing continuously.

The national minorities have at their disposal a great number of vocational schools and of evening schools for workers. Workers' Colleges have likewise been organized in the capitals of the various autonomous republics and areas.

Particular attention is being paid to the pedagogical establishments with a view to supplying the schools of the national minorities with sufficient numbers of teachers. All higher establishments of this kind are provided with special sections for national minorities.

In order to provide native forces for the State and industrial apparatus in the various non-Russian localities intensive activities are being carried on for the improvement of the technical standard

\* Great numbers of Greeks are living in the south of the European part of the Soviet Union.



of the workers and employees of the national minorities. In 1927, there were 760 central and 795 local courses on various branches of industry and science, the major part of them arranged for the active trade union workers and Soviet employees of the national minorities.

The backward nationalities are being continuously drawn into scientific activities. Scientific organizations are being created among national minorities, which serve as the rallying points for the young scientific forces. In the central scientific research institutes the number of students from among the national minorities is growing. Expeditions into the distant sections of the Soviet Union are being organized with the participation of native scientific workers.

Museums and libraries of the national minorities are being improved and new ones constructed everywhere. Their historical monuments are being recorded and protected.

The Central Council of National Minorities is likewise carrying on an extensive publishing activity for the purpose of supplying the backward nationalities with books and newspapers in their native languages, either free of charge or at nominal prices.

## Soviet Municipal Economy

**T**HE cities which Soviet Russia inherited from the old regime were provided with very few of the modern technical improvements. Their economic basis was shaky. The crises through which the Soviet Union passed during the Civil War added to the disorganization of the municipal economy of the cities, a great number of enterprises having come to a standstill. An investigation made in 1922 established that at that time 25 per cent of municipal bath houses, 22 per cent of the street railways, 20 per cent of the electric power plants, 11 per cent of the flour mills, 10 per cent of the municipal slaughter houses, 4 per cent of the water systems, etc., had ceased to operate. All in all, 18 per cent of all municipal enterprises of the country had suspended their operation. Those enterprises which managed to hold out, were working on a very insignificant scale due to the absence of fuel, fodder and other necessary materials.

The recovery of Soviet municipal economy began in 1923 after the reestablishment of the local budget and the introduction of payment for municipal services. Due to extensive credits granted by the Federal Government the disintegration of the municipal enterprises was stopped. The figures of the municipal budget increased to a considerable extent. Since the fiscal year 1923-24, 475,000,000 rubles (about \$240,000,000) were expended for the reestablishment and the development of municipal economy; nearly half of this amount was expended for new construction and the extension of the existing enterprises. In the course of four years,

considerable success was achieved in the reestablishment of almost all branches of municipal economy.

The following are the main achievements effected during that period: Prior to the Revolution very little had been done in the way of city planning—the basis of municipal economy. At the present time nearly one hundred cities of the Soviet Union are engaged in preparing layouts of their localities. Moreover in a few scores of cities projects for replanning are being worked out, while in other cities these projects have been completed or are being carried out, such as in Tiflis and Baku.

While formerly the fire departments were using chiefly horses for the transport of their engines, at present a great number of cities have adopted the motor transport system and acquired the latest mechanical equipment.

Prior to the revolution, water pipe systems were in operation in 33 per cent of the cities. Since the revolution new water pipe systems were installed in 30 cities. In addition to this the water pipe systems were restored in those cities in which they had ceased to operate. The total number of cities which are at present provided with a regular water pipe system has reached 283, i. e., 40 per cent of all urban centers. In addition new water systems are at present being constructed in 15 cities of the Soviet Union. The sewer system has also been greatly extended.

The area occupied by parks and public squares has doubled in the cities since the revolution; it constitutes at present 1.5 per cent of the municipal territory, as against 0.8 per cent prior to the revolution. The parks and the squares have been established mainly in the workers districts which, in the olden times, had been completely neglected in this respect.

The system of public lighting was very poor in the Russian cities prior to the world war. Over 15 per cent of the cities had no public lighting at all. Only ten per cent of the cities had electric light, while in the other cities kerosene light and partly gas light prevailed. At the present time the quality of light greatly exceeds that of the pre-revolutionary period—90 per cent of the cities using electric light. At the time of the revolution Russia had 460 urban electric plants with a total capacity of 373,000 kw. That number has grown to 693 plants with a total capacity of 530,000 kw.

Trolley systems were in existence in 37 cities before the revolution. In spite of the difficulties inherent in the reestablishment of this kind of urban transport, five new trolley car systems have been introduced since the revolution and the trolley car lines were extended in the direction of the workers' districts. A new medium of public transport are the motor busses and the taxicabs which have first made their appearance in 1924-25 and have since been adopted in 27 cities of the Soviet Union.



Among the other achievements are to be mentioned the extension of the telephone system of the cities, the improvement of the sidewalks, the construction of public baths, slaughter houses, and other establishments.

Thus, in spite of the fact that the municipal establishments had practically disintegrated during the period of the world war and civil strife, the Soviet authorities have already surpassed the pre-revolutionary period in many branches of municipal economy and are engaged in their further development.

## State Insurance in the Soviet Union

**S**TATE INSURANCE, which plays an important part in the Soviet economic system, has been growing and developing simultaneously with the entire national economy of the U. S. S. R. Though it came into existence only six years ago, State Insurance has achieved great success. The organization of peasant insurance, to secure the stability of the individual agricultural enterprises, is one of the main achievements of the Soviet State Insurance Department.

By extending annually the scope of obligatory agricultural insurance, the system of State Insurance has at present succeeded in covering an overwhelming part of the peasant population with obligatory rural insurance.

Thus about 17 million peasant farms were insured against fire in 1922-23, while during the current fiscal year 1927-28 fire insurance is covering over 20 million farms, which is about 92 per cent of all peasant farms of the U. S. S. R.

Live stock insurance has likewise been growing continuously. In 1922-23 about 11 million head of cattle were insured. In 1926-27 that number rose to 37,700,000 head, while during the current year insurance covers 40,400,000 head, that is 66 per cent of the total number of cattle. The insurance of horses, likewise shows a rapid increase—from 200,000 head in 1922-23 to 13,400,000 head in 1926-27, and 18,800,000 head in 1927-28.

A similar increase took place in the insurance of crops against destruction by hail. During the first year of the State Insurance Monopoly, hail insurance had covered about 42,000,000 dessiatins (113,400,000 acres). The insured area grew from year to year and reached this year the figure 78,700,000 dessiatins (212,500,000 acres), as against 73,000,000 dessiatins for the preceding year.

It is obvious that this development of all branches of rural insurance has brought about a growth of the insurance amounts. Thus, while in 1923-24, the liabilities of the State Insurance Department, under the head of obligatory agricultural insurance, aggregated 2,525,000,000 rubles (\$1,300,000,000), last year that amount increased by 150 per cent, having reached 6,067,000,000

rubles (\$3,125,000,000), and during the current year it will aggregate 7,114,000,000 rubles (\$3,664,000,000).

Simultaneously with the extension of rural insurance and the increase of its liabilities, the State Insurance Department proceeded to effect the greatest possible reduction of its insurance premiums. Thus at the present time the fire insurance rate has been reduced by more than one-third, as against the average pre-war rate of 1914. Moreover, the State Insurance Department is granting, from year to year, greater reductions in the payment of insurance premiums in the case of the poorer peasant farms. In 1927-28 15 per cent of all peasant farms of the U. S. S. R. are to be entirely exempted from the payment of the insurance premiums. Hand in hand with these exemptions, the average insurance amount per farm was growing. Thus, in 1922-23, a farmstead was, on an average, insured for the comparatively small amount of 94 rubles (\$48). This amount was increasing continually from year to year, until in 1926-27, it constituted 183 rubles, while for the current year it increased to 203 rubles.

As regards the other branches of obligatory insurance, it is to be noted that the number of urban properties covered by them has reached large proportions, embracing over 1,330,000 properties in 1926-27.

As regards voluntary insurance it is to be noted that in this respect the activities of the State Insurance Department show a gradual increase in the field of industry, commerce, municipal economy and transport. Voluntary fire insurance which is serving chiefly the needs of trade and industry, covers at present about 65 per cent of the actual capital of industry, about 50 per cent of the estimated value of goods in all classes of industry, and about 63 per cent of the available housing. Life insurance which has been started in 1924, likewise shows a comparatively large increase. In 1924-25, the total amount of premiums paid for life insurance of workers and office employees amounted to the insignificant sum of 840,000 rubles (\$432,000), while last year this amount rose to 2,700,000 rubles (\$1,390,000).

Finally, it may be interesting to note the growth of the amounts of premiums paid in the course of the last five years in all branches of State Insurance:

### *Premiums Paid to State Insurance Department*

Year.	Rubles.
1922-23 .....	19,600,000
1923-24 .....	66,100,000
1924-25 .....	95,700,000
1925-26 .....	135,800,000
1926-27 .....	164,800,000

Thus, in the course of five years, the total amount of premiums paid in all branches of insurance increased more than eight-fold. The amounts of insurance indemnities paid out likewise show a considerable increase. In 1926-27,

the State Insurance Department paid out 84,500,000 rubles (\$43,300,000), that is 24 per cent more than was paid out under this head in 1925-26.

The above data testify to the fact that during the reconstructive process of Soviet economy the system of State Insurance was steadily progressing, and that it was keeping pace with, if not surpassing the advance of the other branches of the Soviet Union's economic life.

## Soviet Agriculture in Figures

**T**HE last three years witnessed a continuous increase of the area under grain crops, the figure for 1927 having reached practically the pre-war standard.

The figures for the total sown area, including peasant farms as well as Soviet and collective farms, follow:

### Total Sown Area Under Grain Crops

	Acres
1913 .....	257,013,000
1925 .....	217,465,400
1926 .....	234,222,800
1927 .....	240,304,500

As regards the various grain crops, the sown area of the peasant farms was distributed as follows (in thousands of acres):

### Sown Area of Peasant Farms According to Crops, in Thousands of Acres

	1925	1926	1927
Rye .....	70,287.8	69,790.2	69,586.6
Wheat .....	59,771.0	70,874.4	75,942.3
Barley .....	15,715.6	18,217.7	17,479.6
Oats .....	31,414.2	37,573.6	42,955.5
Buckwheat .....	7,057.3	6,999.3	6,811.1
Millet .....	15,276.9	13,061.0	10,512.2
Corn (Maize) .....	8,287.9	7,294.9	7,131.3
Other grain crops .....	5,603.3	6,344.9	5,804.7

Total grain crops ..... 213,414.0    230,156.0    236,223.3

The sown area under grain crops is increasing from year to year. The greatest increase is noted with regard to wheat and oats. The area under these crops is increasing at the expense of buckwheat, millet and corn (maize).

The gross grain crops, in thousands of metric tons, for the last three years (for peasant farms only) were as follows:

	1925	1926	1927
Rye .....	22,290	22,944	24,579
Wheat .....	19,868	22,314	20,389
Barley .....	6,081	5,515	4,677
Oats .....	11,584	14,340	13,035
Buckwheat .....	1,653	1,891	1,938
Millet .....	4,607	3,295	3,684
Corn (Maize) .....	4,488	3,644	3,782
Other grain crops .....	1,859	2,341	2,044
Total grain crops .....	72,430	76,284	74,128

## Technical Crops

The planted area under the various technical crops, as expressed in thousands of acres, was as follows (for peasant farms only, except in the case of sugar beets):

	1913	1925	1926	1927
All sorts of flax* .....	4,589.5	4,241.5	4,168.4	4,350.9
Long-fibre flax region only .....	3,293.7	2,926.8	2,892.7	2,841.2
Hemp .....	1,781.8	2,333.6	2,345.5	2,321.2
Sunflower .....	3,455.6	7,984.7	6,677.5	7,479.3
Sugar beets† .....	1,538.8	1,319.1	1,329.1	1,642.8
Cotton .....	1,727.8	1,612.5	1,731.1	1,987.5

The area under potatoes was 12,404,900 acres in 1925, 12,849,900 acres in 1926, and 13,615,000 acres in 1927.

In 1927 the gross production of technical crops, both as regards oil seeds and fibre, exceeded that of 1926. Sunflower seeds showed an increase of 59 per cent, while the production of sugar beets was 60.6 per cent above that of the previous year.

Production of oil seeds in thousands of metric tons:

	1925	1926	1927
Flax .....	610	520	571
Hemp .....	559	504	555
Sunflower .....	2,656	1,557	2,481

Production of fibre in thousands of metric tons:

	1925	1926	1927
Flax .....	374	331	343
Long-fibre region only .....	287	243	249
Hemp .....	486	436	512
Cotton (raw) .....	544	540	632

Sugar beets in thousands of metric tons:

	1925	1926	1927
Sugar beets .....	8,389	6,138	9,863

Production of potatoes was 41,712,000 metric tons in 1925 and 44,812,000 metric tons in 1926.

## Live Stock and Dairy Products

The increase of the numbers of live stock is shown by the following figures, covering peasant, Soviet and collective farms (in thousands of head):

Year	Horses	Cattle	Sheep	Goats	Hogs
1916 .....	35,523	60,280	111,051	9,782	20,336
1923 .....	23,160	52,632	78,621	5,651	11,278
1924 .....	25,158	58,055	92,081	6,831	19,403
1925 .....	26,618	61,146	106,800	8,226	19,095
1926 .....	28,950	64,439	113,600	8,594	18,398
1927 .....	30,931	67,327	121,739	9,340	20,222

The progress of milk production is shown by the following figures:

Year	Metric tons	Index
1916 .....	24,659,400	100.0
1923-24 .....	27,527,400	111.6
1924-25 .....	27,825,000	112.8
1925-26 .....	31,210,600	126.6
1926-27 .....	31,411,000	127.4

\*Fibre producing flax area: 1925 — 3,974,500 acres; 1926 — 3,889,500 acres; and 1927 — 3,946,500 acres.

†Sugar-beet area and production on both peasant farms and State enterprises.

## Miscellaneous News

### The Red Army After Ten Years

On occasion of the tenth anniversary of the Red Army, which was celebrated on February 23, 1928, the following statistical data were published, showing the development of the armed forces of the Republic:

In 1914, the Russian army included 1,423,000 soldiers. In 1918, the Red Army consisted of 106,000 men; in 1919, it numbered 435,000; in 1920, 3,538,000; in 1921, 4,110,000; in 1922, 1,590,000; in 1923, 703,000; during the period between 1924 and 1927, the figure remained stationary at 562,000.

The social composition of the armed forces of the Tsarist Army in 1913, was as follows: 14.1 per cent workers, 69.3 per cent peasants, and 16.6 per cent other elements. In 1926, the composition of the Red Army showed the following percentages: 18.1 per cent workers; 71.3 per cent peasants, and 10.6 per cent other elements.

The number of Communists in the Red Army was highest in 1920, the most difficult period of the Soviet Republic. At that time 34 per cent of the total membership of the party was serving in the ranks of the armed forces. In 1918, there were 35,000 Communists in the Red Army; in 1919, 121,681; in 1920, 278,040; in 1921, 192,427; in 1927, 90,583. In 1927, the commanding staff of the Red Army showed the following composition as regards party affiliation: 48.1 per cent Communists, 4.8 per cent members of the Young Communist League ("Komsomol"), and 47.1 per cent non-partisans.

National composition of the Red Army: Great-Russians (i. e. Russians proper), 64.8 per cent; Ukrainians, 17.4 per cent; White-Russians, 4.2 per cent; Jews, 2.1 per cent; Tatars, 2 per cent. Each of the other nationalities makes up less than 2 per cent of the total.

Since the organization of the Red Army, about 515,000 illiterates were taught how to read and write. In 1919, 60,000 were taught; in 1920, 120,000; in 1921, 100,000; in 1922, 82,000; in 1923, 40,000; in 1924, 29,000; in 1925, 30,000; in 1926, 32,000 and in 1927, 22,000.

With regard to political education in the Red Army, the figures show that in 1918, there were 383 clubs and 1,795 libraries, while in 1927, the number of clubs and libraries in the Red Army had risen to 710 and 9,546 respectively.

### Mortality and Birthrate in the Soviet Union

According to the latest statistical data, the total mortality of the population in the U. S. S. R. has decreased by 31 per cent as compared with 1913. For the European part of the U. S. S. R., the total mortality index per 1,000 persons was 19.5 in 1926, as against 28.3 in 1913. Infant mortal-

ity during the same period decreased from 21.7 per hundred births to 17. The greatest rate of general mortality reduction was noticed in Moscow, Leningrad and the other industrial centers of the U. S. S. R. In 1926 the number of infants who died in the U. S. S. R. was 600,000 less than in 1913.

In 1926 the natural increase of the population constituted 21.9 per thousand inhabitants of the European part of Soviet Russia proper, the Ukraine and White Russia.

### Population of Moscow and Leningrad

On January 1, 1928, Moscow numbered 2,142,000 inhabitants, having increased by 112,400 in the course of the year. During the past year 53,100 births were recorded in Moscow, out of whom 27,068 were males and 26,032 females. During the same period 28,209 persons died, 15,548 males and 12,661 females.

On January 1, the population of Leningrad reached the figure of 1,676,800. In the course of 1927 the population of Leningrad had increased by 58,200 persons.

### Foreign Trade of the Soviet Union

The total foreign trade turnover of the Soviet Union for the first four months of the current fiscal year (beginning October 1, 1927), amounted to 492,300,000 rubles (\$253,500,000), exports totalling 238,400,000 rubles (\$122,800,000) and imports 253,900,000 rubles (\$130,700,000), resulting in an unfavorable balance of 15,500,000 rubles (\$7,980,000). These totals do not include, however, the January figures for the exports and imports across the Asiatic frontier. The foreign trade figures for January, 1928, across the European frontiers were: Exports 43,900,000 rubles and imports 58,200,000 rubles, making a total of 102,100,000 rubles (\$52,580,000) as against 55,400,000 rubles' worth of exports and 38,500,000 rubles' worth of imports for the same month of the preceding year.

### Foreign Specialists in the U. S. S. R.

In the course of the last few years the Soviet industry has begun to avail itself of foreign scientific experience and technique by making use of the services of consulting engineers and experts, by engaging individual foreign engineers and technicians, etc.

According to the data published by the Supreme Council of National Economy of the Soviet Union, 259 foreign specialists are at present working in the U. S. S. R. Of this number, 127 are engineers, 70 are skilled mechanics, and 62 workers. The average monthly salary amounts to 611.50 rubles (\$315) for the foreign engineers work-

ing in the U. S. S. R., 250 rubles (\$129) for skilled mechanics, and 170 rubles (\$87.50) for workers.

All the foreign specialists working in the U. S. S. R. are allowed to send abroad 50 per cent, and sometimes even more of their salaries, at a firm rate of exchange. They are granted the best possible terms with regard to working conditions, housing, etc.

Due to this fact, Soviet industry is continuously forming new connections with foreign specialists. Recently the Austrian Engineers Association, as well as similar organizations in other countries, have offered the services of their members to the Soviet Union.

### Soviet Industries

The output of the most important industries of the Soviet Union for January, as compared with the preceding month, as well as the percentage increase in January, 1928, as against the same month of the preceding year, is shown in the following table:

#### *Fuel, Metal and Ore in Metric Tons*

Industry	January, 1928	December, 1927	Percentage Increase of Jan., 1928, Over Jan., 1927
Coal .....	3,109,000	3,147,000	23.8
Oil .....	862,900	901,700	3.9
Pig iron .....	276,700	275,900	13.1
Martin steel .....	853,000	357,000	19.9
Rolled iron .....	281,000	275,800	25.7
Iron ore .....	496,200	440,700	57.3
Cement .....	135,200	123,700	34.8

#### *Fabrics in Millions of Meters*

Cotton fabrics .....	227,700	221,300	18.7
Woolen fabrics .....	8,230	7,820	25.4
Linen fabrics .....	18,160	17,910	11.8

### Private Capital in the Soviet Union

Ever since the fiscal year 1923-24, the part played by private capital in the economic life of the Soviet Union has been steadily decreasing due to the growing importance of State and co-operative enterprises.

The following figures are illustrative of the general turnover of the commercial and industrial enterprises of the Soviet Union (in millions of gold rubles):

Year	State	Cooperative	Private	Total
1923-24 .....	6,500	2,934	5,814	15,248
1924-25 .....	10,151	5,706	5,287	21,144
1925-26 .....	15,469	10,157	7,607	33,233
1926-27 .....	18,123	14,255	7,197	39,575

Thus, in 1926-27 the turnover of private enterprises decreased by 410 million rubles (5.4 per cent), as compared with the preceding year.

The decrease of the share of private capital was particularly rapid in the purely commercial turnover, showing a reduction of 570 million rubles (9.9 per cent) for 1926-27, as compared with the preceding fiscal year. The total number of private commercial enterprises, decreased by

84,835 (14.7 per cent) in 1926-27, as compared with 1925-26. This decrease took place both in the urban and rural localities.

The first few months of the current fiscal year 1927-28 (beginning October 1, 1927), show a further decrease in the number of private enterprises, especially in the cities. Thus, according to the statistical data of the Licensing Bureau, the number of licenses for which application was made by private traders during the first two months of the fiscal year, was 29.9 per cent less than for the same period of the preceding year.

### State Assistance to the Peasant Population

In the course of 1928, the Soviet Government will expend 715 million rubles (368 million dollars) for the development of agriculture. These sums are to be used entirely for the satisfaction of the productive needs of the peasant population, for supplying it with seed, agricultural machinery, implements and fertilizers, for land improvement and regrouping activities, for the purchase and hiring of draught animals, for the promotion of livestock breeding, etc.

In connection with the decision to expend the above-mentioned amount for the development of agriculture the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union issued an appeal to the peasantry calling for more extensive spring sowings.

### Administrative Appointments

Mr. N. A. Kubiak was appointed People's Commissar for Agriculture of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic, Mr. A. P. Smirnov having been relieved of this post.

Mr. V. V. Ossinsky was relieved of the post of Director of the Central Statistical Administration of the Soviet Union and Mr. V. P. Miliutin was appointed in his stead.

Mr. A. M. Tamarin was appointed Trade Delegate of the Soviet Union in Persia.

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## The Soviet Disarmament Proposal at Geneva

**I**N presenting the Soviet disarmament proposal before the session of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission, held in Geneva under the auspices of the League of Nations, Mr. M. M. Litvinov, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union and head of the Soviet delegation, made the following speech on March 19, 1928:

### Mr. Litvinov's Speech

The Soviet Draft Convention on General, Complete and Immediate Disarmament, which a month ago was submitted by the Soviet delegation to the General Secretary of the League of Nations, is entirely based upon those principles which the Soviet delegation advanced at the November session of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission. I have the honor of calling the particular attention of the Commission to the fact that the Draft Convention provides that upon expiration of one year after the entry into force of the Convention, the land, naval and air forces of all countries should be put into a condition rendering it difficult to use them for war purposes. This would considerably restrict the possibilities of armed conflicts, even prior to the carrying out of complete disarmament.

I do not consider it necessary to give a detailed presentation of our project, as it was accompanied by a special explanatory note which was sent to all members of the Commission simultaneously with the proposal. I will only take the liberty of reminding the Commission that no attempt was made at the fourth session of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission seriously to discuss the Soviet proposals. During the extremely short discussion on that subject not a single serious argument against the Soviet proposal was brought forward. No practical criticism of the Soviet proposal was advanced. The Soviet delegation obviously cannot consider as serious criticism statements to the effect that the Soviet proposal is too simple, or that, in case of general disarmament the nations would nevertheless continue to conduct war among themselves by arraying against each other unarmed and unorganized masses using clubs, pen-knives or fists.

Such an attitude and the refusal of some of the delegations to discuss the proposals submitted by us at the fourth session of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission could partly be explained by the novelty and the unexpected character of the Soviet proposals. True, attempts were made at the fourth session of the Preparatory Commis-

sion even to dispute the novelty of our proposals, and Mr. Benes mentioned some Norwegian proposal, analogous to ours, which had allegedly been submitted to the League of Nations.

### Previous "Disarmament" Proposals

I took the trouble to verify that assertion on the basis of the material of the League of Nations, which upon my request was placed at my disposal by the Disarmament Section of the League. I have decidedly found no traces of any general and complete disarmament proposal. At the session of the third commission of the League of Nations (on disarmament questions), held in 1924, the Norwegian delegation referred to the desire expressed by the Inter-Parliamentary Committee concerning the reduction of the military budgets by one-half in the course of ten years; this was qualified by the reservation that the military expenditures made by the separate states under the requirements of the Covenant of the League of Nations, were not to be included in the budgets subject to reduction. The abrogation of the remaining half of the budget was not even mentioned, nor was there any mention of any reduction of the armed forces and armaments.

Referring to the same Inter-Parliamentary Committee the Danish delegation expressed the desire for the reduction of the land forces of all countries in accordance with the stipulations of the Peace Treaty of Saint-Germain, to the effect that each state should have the right to maintain an army of 5,000 soldiers per million inhabitants, and for the reduction of the naval forces in accordance with the Treaty of Versailles, that is, by maintaining 2,000 or 4,000 tons per million inhabitants. Thus, in accordance with this calculation, the Soviet Union could have an army of nearly 735,000 men, i. e., it could increase its present standing army by 175,000 men and its navy by 200,000 tons. China could have a standing army of nearly 2,000,000 men. These are the most radical thoughts that have ever been expressed in the League of Nations with regard to disarmament. I said "thoughts" because these thoughts were never embodied in the form of proposals or resolutions and were never discussed seriously. Lord Esher's plan aiming only at the reduction of land and air forces had likewise nothing to do with the idea of complete and general disarmament. Thus, it may be considered as absolutely undeniable that it was for the first time that a proposal on complete and general disarmament embodied in concrete form, was submitted to the

League of Nations, and introduced in the field of international relations in general. The Soviet Union takes pride and always will take pride in the fact that this was irrefutably due to its initiative. However, I am dwelling upon this subject not for sentimental reasons, but because, as far as I am aware, some spheres within the League of Nations are under the wrong impression that the Soviet delegation is wasting the time of the Disarmament Commission with proposals which had either been discussed in the League or had been rejected. If not dispelled, such a false impression might have an unfavorable influence upon the further discussion of our proposals.

The Soviet delegation, anxious to speed up the consideration of its proposal and thus to hasten the beginning of real disarmament, nevertheless consented to the postponement of the discussion of its proposals until the current session, making allowances for the novelty of the proposals and proceeding from the desire to afford to all members of the Commission and to their Governments the opportunity of preparing themselves for a practical discussion of these proposals. It was with this aim in view that a month prior to the beginning of the activities of the fifth session the Soviet delegation submitted the draft convention accompanied by an explanatory note, to the General Secretary of the League of Nations for dispatch to all governments. Having, on its part, done all that was possible for facilitating the practical discussion, the Soviet delegation has the right to insist that this discussion should no longer be delayed.

The Soviet delegation considers it necessary again to emphasize the fact that only the fulfillment of the convention on general, simultaneous and complete disarmament, as submitted by the Government of the U. S. S. R., is capable of solving in a satisfactory manner the problem of general security and peace. Incidentally, it would likewise solve a number of other very difficult international problems, such as the problem of the freedom of the seas, which, as has been shown by experience, is meeting with insuperable obstacles. At the same time the carrying out of the Soviet proposal providing for general disarmament would not come up against the difficulties which are inevitable in case of a partial reduction of armaments. As a specific example I may adduce the question of control. It is absolutely obvious that the control over the carrying out of complete disarmament is considerably easier than the control over partial disarmament.

#### **Simplicity of Soviet Proposal**

Furthermore, I wish to emphasize the fact that the basis of disarmament, as proposed by the Soviet delegation, being uniform and applicable to all states, is for this reason the most equitable and should not call forth any objections on the part of individual states. It is precisely this which, in my opinion, constitutes the obvious sim-

plicity of our proposal which, strange to say, some are trying to use as an argument against the proposal. The proposal of the Soviet delegation, as submitted for consideration to the Commission, constitutes one organic entity which cannot be split up into several parts. It is permeated throughout with one single idea, and for this reason the basic principle underlying it must be first discussed and adopted. Proceeding from this point of view, the Soviet delegation will insist upon a preliminary answer with regard to the results of the general discussion as to whether the Commission accepts the principle of general disarmament within the period stipulated in the proposal, and second, whether it accepts the proposal as to such a rate of disarmament as would render wars impossible after the expiration of the first year. In addition, the Soviet delegation will insist upon obtaining a reply which should be not only of a theoretical nature, but also entirely clear and concrete.

#### **Popular Response to Soviet Proposal**

The Soviet delegation believes that both the delegations and their governments have had time enough, if they so decided, to study both the underlying idea of the proposal and the technically elaborated draft convention. In the course of the three months which elapsed since the fourth session of the Preparatory Commission, the delegation had occasion to convince itself that the idea of complete disarmament has been met and received with enthusiasm by the broadest masses of both hemispheres and by all progressive peace-loving elements of human society. This is, by the way, attested by numerous communications and sympathetic resolutions which I have received from labor parties and numerous organizations, groups and societies from all parts of the world. In order not to distract your attention I am not going to enumerate them all, but I will take the liberty of reading to you only one of these collective addresses which I received yesterday, as it bears the signatures of representatives of 124 organizations (mostly women's) with a membership of many millions, from thirteen different countries. This document which proves that women's opinion is in full agreement with the Soviet proposals, deserves particular mention in view of the fact that an extension of woman suffrage is now taking place in some countries. The statement reads as follows:

"In the name of the growing world opinion, embodied in the organizations represented by us, we gratefully hail the courageous proposals of the Soviet Government on complete and general disarmament, and we note with satisfaction that they will be discussed in detail by the Preparatory Disarmament Commission at its forthcoming session on March 15. Convinced that these proposals represent the will of the great masses of the people in every country, who are determined to put a stop to war, and that, once there is a will,



practical means will be found for realizing it, we insist with all the power at our disposal, that the members of the Commission should consider the Soviet proposals with the greatest care, and with the determination to submit to the International Disarmament Conference, when it convenes, a concrete plan for complete disarmament of the whole world in the course of a definite period."

The document was signed by 163 secretaries of the respective organizations. The Soviet delegation has not the slightest doubt that its proposal is acceptable and desirable to the masses of the population who take it for granted that the matter depends now only upon the Governments and the bourgeois groups standing behind them. It is no longer a question of mere theoretical discussions and conversations about disarmament, but of the taking of practical steps toward the realization of disarmament. We believe that there have been more than enough discussions about disarmament, especially within the League of Nations. I will take the liberty of distributing a few data among the members of the Commission, from which they will see that, aside from the General Assemblies of the League of Nations and the Council of the League of Nations, which considered the disarmament problem at their thirty-eight sessions, various commissions and other organs of the League of Nations, numbering not less than fourteen, devoted to that problem over 120 sessions—mind you, not sittings but sessions—and the General Assembly and the Council of the League alone passed 111 resolutions on the disarmament problem.

#### **Attitude of Soviet Government with Regard to Disarmament**

Considering the results of that enormous volume of work whose description fills thousands and thousands of pages, one cannot help concluding that not a single serious step has been taken towards the establishment of disarmament. The Soviet delegation believes that it is time to put an end to this situation which is likely to discredit the very idea of disarmament. It is not its desire to have its proposals serve merely as an occasion for creating new commissions and sub-commissions which would adopt a few dozens of new resolutions with such negligible results as those attained up to the present. The Soviet Government did not send its delegation to Geneva for the purpose of engaging in such activities. Absorbed in a tremendous task of building an enormous State with a population of 150,000,000 inhabitants upon an entirely new basis, and in the creation of a new social and economic system in the face of the undisguised opposition of the whole of the rest of the world, in the most unfavorable circumstances, it would not turn its attention from this activity, if it were not for its highly serious, practical and sincere attitude with regard to the problem of peace whose realization is the corner stone of its policy.

May I not be allowed, in this connection, to mention, as an illustration of the earnest attitude of the Soviet Government with regard to the questions discussed here, that although it did not participate in the conference of the League of Nations which adopted the protocol on the prohibition of the use of asphyxiating gases and bacteriological substances for purposes of warfare, and adhered to the protocol in question only at the last session of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission, it has nevertheless proved to be one of the only three countries to ratify that protocol, which has unfortunately remained a dead letter due to the fact that it was not ratified by the other states, the enormous majority of whom are members of the League of Nations.

#### **Soviet Peace Proposals and the Red Army**

We know that superficial people and newspapers of a similar kind affect to see a contradiction between the peaceful proposals of the Soviet Government and the fact that the Red Army is being maintained and improved. In proportion to the population of the Soviet Union and to the length of its boundary line, the army, not to mention the navy of the U. S. S. R., are smaller than those of the other states. If, in addition, one considers the question of individual security which is in such favor at this assembly, then it must be said that in this respect the U. S. S. R. is in a less favorable position than any other state. It is being opposed by practically the rest of the world which does not conceal its hostility to the new State. To understand the extent of that hostility, it suffices to glance any day at the bourgeois press of all countries, which is filled with attacks, inventions and slanders against the U. S. S. R. To this day a very great number of countries have not recognized the Soviet Government which has been in existence for over ten years; and non-recognition is nothing else but an act of hostility. But even those countries which have recognized the Soviet Government, barring a few exceptions, frequently resort to such unfriendly steps with regard to the U. S. S. R. as are often a serious test of the forbearance and peaceableness of the Soviet Government. The new Soviet State has seen its territory invaded by foreign armies which have caused damages from whose consequences the State has not recovered as yet. Part of the territory of the former Russian Empire whose population openly favors reunion with the Soviet State is still occupied by foreign troops which are preventing it from exerting its rights of self-determination.

For all that, the Red Army has during the entire ten years of its existence remained, and is going to remain exclusively a weapon of defense. The U. S. S. R. does not need an army or a navy for any other purposes because it has neither aims of conquest nor imperialist ambitions. At any rate the Soviet Government declared in the past and still declares, through its delegation at Geneva, that it is ready completely to abolish the armed

forces of the Soviet Union in accordance with its draft convention, as soon as such a decision is adopted and carried out simultaneously by the other states. The Soviet Government again declares that it is prepared to act accordingly, and it asks the other states which are represented here, whether they are ready to act likewise. The Soviet Government expects to receive an answer to this question at the plenary meeting of the present session of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission at which all the great and small powers are now represented. Such a reply cannot be given by any sub-commissions or any other auxiliary organs which have less authority than the Preparatory Disarmament Commission. In the opinion of the Soviet delegation a reply to that question should be given quite openly and publicly under the control of public opinion. This reply is, of course, to be submitted, for final confirmation, to the International Disarmament Conference whose early convocation the Soviet delegation is urging, suggesting that the term of its convocation should be fixed right now.

The proposals which I have formulated with regard to the two questions are so clear that they neither require nor admit of preliminary diplomatic conversations and agreements between the various countries and groups of countries, or of other methods of the diplomatic game.

I take the liberty of repeating again that the following are the main problems resulting from our proposals:

1. Is the Preparatory Disarmament Commission ready to base its further activities on the princi-

ple of general and complete disarmament within the period proposed by us? and

2. Is it ready so to carry out the first stage of disarmament as to render difficult, if not entirely impossible, the conduct of war after the expiration of one year?

Only after an unequivocal, affirmative answer has been given to these questions will it be possible to proceed with a detailed discussion of the Soviet Draft Convention.

### The Proposal to Outlaw War

The Soviet delegation considers itself entitled particularly to count upon the support of the delegation of the country which has at present come out publicly with a proposal to outlaw war. The sincerity of that proposal would be enhanced in the most convincing manner, if its authors were to adhere to the Soviet Draft Convention on complete disarmament, which pursues the aim not only of morally outlawing, but also of destroying the possibility of war. As armed forces do not exist for any other purpose than the conduct of war, and as, on the other hand, they would become entirely unnecessary in case wars were outlawed, consistency and logic should obviously impel the Government in question to support our proposal. The Soviet delegation is convinced that all delegations here present are conscious of the responsibility connected with the decision of the question submitted, and of its great importance to the destinies of mankind, and that for that reason not a single delegation will refrain from publicly presenting the point of view of its Government.

## Litvinov's Reply to Critics of Soviet Proposal

ON March 22, Mr. M. Litvinov delivered the following speech in reply to the critics of the Soviet disarmament plan:

In the first place, I would like to express my thanks to the delegates who responded to my invitation to express their attitude with regard to the proposals advanced by the Soviet delegation. I wish to state with satisfaction that this was done by nineteen of the delegations here present. I am particularly obliged to the representative of Great Britain who greatly stimulated the discussion and touched upon a number of important problems connected with our proposals.

I welcome the frankness with which he spoke and I will try to reply in a similar vein, while keeping within the same bounds of courtesy and respect. The representative of Great Britain introduced questions into the debate, which I did not drag in on my own initiative as not having any direct relation to the subject. The initiative was his—and I hope he will not complain if within the scope of these questions I will express the point of view of the Soviet delegation and of my

Government. Lord Cushendun did not limit himself to a consideration of the draft convention; he deviated from the subject in order to find out what hidden motives have suggested to the Soviet Government the idea of appearing before the Commission and submitting a radical disarmament proposal; in what disposition the delegation has arrived here; why the Soviet Government was not interested in the disarmament problem until now, or, as he put it, why it sabotaged it.

I am not going to ask the British representative what right he has to put these questions, and whether he thinks I have the same right to question him about the sincerity of his Government and to ask him whether the British Government has sent its delegation to Geneva out of its devotion to peace, or for other reasons; what it has done for the cause of disarmament until now, and whether one may class as sabotage the fact that up to the present it has not removed the differences which had arisen in the Commission and which made it impossible to proceed with the second reading of its own proposal and, in general, to

push the work along the mapped-out course. Such questions would be perfectly justified on my part by virtue of the equal rights of the delegations represented here and on the basis of reciprocity. But instead of putting idle questions I prefer to satisfy the curiosity of Lord Cushendun and to answer his questions.

From the very first day of its existence the Soviet Government was interested in the problem of safeguarding peace and eliminating the scourge of war from the field of international relations. It was the first of all governments to put an end to the participation of its people in the world war and to appeal to all the other warring countries to follow its example. When the Soviet State was attacked by the Allies, including Great Britain, it did not cease to offer peace, and responded immediately to the invitation for a conference on the Prinkipo Island for the conclusion of an armistice, having consented to make the greatest sacrifices for the sake of a speedy cessation of the new bloodshed that was imposed upon it. Independently of the League of Nations it suggested, upon its own initiative, at Genoa, in 1922, at the first international conference in which it took part, that the questions of general disarmament be taken up first of all. Unfortunately the other states considered it of greater importance to take up the question of the reestablishment of private property of foreign firms which had suffered as a result of the Russian Revolution. I am not going to mention the other steps undertaken by the Soviet Government in this direction; I spoke about them in this Commission during the November session. During its ten years of existence the Soviet Government did not attack a single of its neighbors, it did not declare war upon anybody and did not participate in the wars between other countries. Upon the first invitation of the League of Nations it consented to take part in its disarmament activities, in spite of its negative attitude with regard to the League itself. Had it been a member of the League, it would have been bound to do so under the obligations assumed, regardless of whether or not it was sincerely interested in disarmament. The fact that the Soviet Government being free of any obligations with regard to the League, took this course, is sufficient evidence of its sincerity and desire for peace.

### **The Soviet Union and the League of Nations**

At the November session I pointed out that the League of Nations was responsible for the non-participation of the Soviet Government in the first three sessions. Having come here, the Soviet Delegation decided to take an active part in the work of the Commission, by displaying its own initiative where the initiative of others is lacking or is not sufficient, for the purpose of accelerating and advancing the activities on disarmament and the safeguarding of peace. The Soviet Gov-

ernment has no other motives but the desire to be helpful in freeing the peoples from the burden of militarism and the curse of war. At any rate, the past record of the Soviet Government in the matter of peace is of such a nature that it is, more so than any other government, entitled to advance disarmament proposals.

Having voluntarily submitted to the interrogatory on the part of the honorable representative of Great Britain, I am likewise prepared to answer his question whether our attitude towards the League, or, according to his expression, our sabotage of the League, justifies our participation in the consideration of the questions discussed here. The Soviet Government never concealed its negative attitude with regard to the League of Nations; it even spoke about it in its answers to the invitations to take part in the present Commission. The Soviet Government more than once openly stated the reasons for such an attitude towards the League of Nations, and pointed to all that is unjust, unacceptable and reprehensible, both in the very Covenant of the League and in the various decisions of the General Assemblies and of the Council of the League on international problems. It is hardly likely that the prestige of the League of Nations in which Cushendun is so greatly interested, will benefit by the fact that I will once more enumerate here all these things. Suffice it to say that the fact that the Commission is working under the auspices of the League does not, in the eyes of the Soviet Government, constitute an obstacle to its participation in the Commission. This does not imply, of course, that the Soviet Government has obligated itself to submit to any instructions and decisions emanating from the League or from the Council of the League. It will be bound only by those acts to be worked out by the Commission and the Disarmament Conference which it will sign jointly with the other Governments. At any rate, while inviting the U. S. S. R. to take part in the activities of that Commission, the Council of the League was aware of the fact that the Soviet Government was not a member of the League and did not intend to join it.

### **Skepticism With Regard to the League's Disarmament Activities**

Lord Cushendun was displeased with an article he quoted from "Izvestia," which denoted a skeptical or ironical attitude towards the activities of the members of the League on the subject of disarmament. A similar skepticism was expressed here by the Soviet delegation as well. I do not understand, however, why this article should alarm the British representative and the Commission. It is up to the Commission itself, by the results of its activities, either to justify that skepticism or to give that newspaper the lie and to prove that it was wrong. The Soviet delegation will be the first to rejoice if the latter takes place.

However, skepticism with regard to the disarmament activities of the League of Nations is being displayed not only in Soviet spheres. I have before me a Paris newspaper of quite reactionary hue, dated March 20. This is what I read in it: "The League could be a harmless thing only if it would present itself for what it is in reality, namely, an academy of pacifism, and if its protagonists would admit that their lectures against war are just as effective as the conjurations of Negro sorcerers against the storm." It seems to me that this skepticism and irony should be an incentive for the League and our Commission, and encourage them to do their utmost in order to prove that they do not deserve that irony.

### League of Nations Ignored by Other Powers

The representative of Great Britain attempted to prove that a full or partial solution of the disarmament problem outside of the League was something sinful, something quite reprehensible which deserved the severest condemnation. He went so far as to credit the League with the Washington Agreement on the reduction of naval armaments, quite forgetful of the fact that the League had nothing to do with the Washington Conference. Nor was the so-called Three-Power Conference on naval disarmament which took place in Geneva, connected with the League—it was not even served by its organs. If I am not mistaken, the negotiations which continue among the participants of that conference are proceeding outside of the Preparatory Commission.

The British representative, in discussing our Draft Convention, pointed out with great indignation that the proposal did not contain any mention of the League, of the filing of the ratification acts in Geneva and of the registration of the Convention with the League. This lack of mention will, however, be entirely comprehensible, if it is considered that the proposal emanates from a Government which formally does not recognize the League of Nations. On the other hand, the reproaches of Lord Cushendun will appear incomprehensible, if I recall the fact that a number of international acts in which members of the League, including Great Britain, took part, have not been filed with the League of Nations. As far as I am aware, the Straits Convention which was worked out in Lausanne, not far from Geneva, has been filed not in Geneva but in Paris. Nor have the acts of the Washington Naval Conference been filed in Geneva. The Protocol about the use of asphyxiating gases and bacteriological substances for war purposes which has just been ratified by the Soviet Union and Italy (but has not been ratified by England as yet), has likewise been filed in Paris and not in Geneva, in spite of the fact that the Protocol was adopted by a conference called by the League of Nations. The same refers to the Arms Traffic Convention which was initiated by the League of Nations. It was in this conven-

tion, in particular, that upon the direct insistence of the United States any reference to the League was omitted, as otherwise the Government of the United States threatened to refuse its ratification. The note of that Government, as of September 12, 1923, contains, among other things, the following passage: "The stipulations of the Convention with reference to the League are to such an extent tied up with the Convention as a whole as to render it impossible for my Government to ratify the Convention." One may also mention Chamberlain's protest against the registration of the Anglo-Irish Treaty with the League in spite of the fact that both states are members of the League. If, in the opinion of the British delegate, failure to mention the League constitutes an insult and an expression of contempt towards the League on the part of the Soviet Government which is not a member of the League, how much more then should the same reproach be applied by Lord Cushendun to his own Government which participated in the aforesaid act ignoring the League?

### Lord Cushendun's Question on Civil War and Revolution

In his zeal to discover such peculiarities of the Soviet Government as would disqualify it from participation in the Disarmament activities, the representative of the British Government asked the Soviet delegation about the attitude of the Soviet Government with regard to civil war, whether it condemned it or considered it justified. If following the example of the British representative, I would search for the hidden motives of his proposal, I could assume that his question has been put with the purpose of challenging the Soviet delegation openly to defend here civil war and revolution—so as to be able to accuse it of propaganda the next day. But I am far from asserting that his question was dictated by such motives. All the same, the question is quite superfluous, for even from a cursory perusal of our draft convention—and Lord Cushendun has shown that he has studied our proposal—one may gather that it deals only with wars between different countries. It never occurred to us and we had no reasons for supposing that under the problems of disarmament and security guarantees the League of Nations might likewise understand the prevention of civil wars and of the class struggle. I can say, without hesitation, that the Soviet Government would never consent, jointly with the British Government or with the other Governments which are represented here, to participate in the working out of questions concerning the class struggle or the struggle against revolutions. It would be naive to expect such an activity from a Government which emerged out of one of the greatest revolutions, and which is called upon to defend the achievements of the Revolution. Apparently, the Governments of the countries rep-

resented here will have to solve the questions of social pacification without our participation. I admit that it is entirely incomprehensible to me what relation there may exist between this question and our proposal on complete disarmament. Did Lord Cushendun, by putting this question, intend to say or to intimate that it is the purpose of the armies not only to protect national security, but also, if need be, to fight against revolutions? Such an argument against our proposal would be entirely unconvincing from any point of view, for it is generally known that both the March (1917) and the November (1917) Revolutions occurred while enormous armies equipped in war-time fashion were available in the country, and that they occurred with the active participation of the armies themselves. At any rate, if the representative of the British Government and the other delegates who touched upon this subject, attribute a special importance to the question of social security, then they will doubtless, at the proper moment, present their point of view at greater length. I beg the Commission's pardon for having touched upon this subject which it may consider out of place here; and I wish to point out that this occurred not upon my initiative, but upon that of the British delegate.

#### **The Accusation of "Propaganda"**

The representative of the British Government, not only puts questions to us, but also lays down preliminary conditions. He wants to obtain from us certain assurances before he agrees to discuss our draft convention. He says that the Soviet Government must give him guaranties that it will no longer concern itself with provoking armed insurrections in other countries. On this occasion the representative of the British Government tried to make believe that such a practice and policy on the part of the Soviet Government is a positively established and undeniable fact. The British Representative availed himself of the disarmament question for the purpose of once more (his Government has done this many times before) publicly accusing the Soviet Government of so-called propaganda. Lord Cushendun apparently does not feel how unreasonable it is to keep on using this hackneyed argument after it has been found out that scores of establishments and bureaus maintained and served chiefly by Russian emigres in a great number of European capitals, are engaged in making up, and supplying foreign governments with forged documents purporting to prove that the Soviet Government and its agents are conducting propaganda in foreign countries.

One of these documents has already gained historical notoriety as the so-called "Zinoviev letter." Recently there was much talk about this letter in the English House of Commons. The spurious character of this document has long been established by the fact that the British Government declined the request of the Soviet Govern-

ment for an inquiry concerning that document. A few days ago a similar request was made by 132 members of the British Parliament, but has been rejected by the British Government. In Parliament the former Prime Minister of Great Britain expressed himself as follows about this document: "That letter—this is now generally admitted—was a political fraud which in its careful calculation and preparation was perhaps unequalled in our political history." It is upon such documents that the British Government bases its accusation of propaganda and interference in domestic affairs.

#### **"Interference in Domestic Affairs"**

As regards interference in domestic affairs the Soviet and the British Governments have as yet no common language which might render it possible for them to come to an agreement as to precisely what activities may be understood as interference. The British Government is inclined to consider as interference of that kind any article printed, or speech delivered, in Moscow with regard to the policy or the internal affairs of another country; but it does not wish to consider as interference the forcible stationing of naval forces in foreign ports (in Shanghai), the bombardment of foreign ports and cities with all the consequences affecting the population (Nanking in 1927), the request directed to the Government of an independent country as to the cessation of military operations against a mutinous subject (the ultimatum of Sir Percy Lawrence to the Persian Government in November, 1924), and about his reinstatement into his former rights (note to the Persian Government in 1927), about the numerical limitation of the armed forces of that country (note to the Persian Government in 1921), etc., etc. The Soviet Government can obviously not agree with such a conception of interference in the affairs of other nations. But you might ask me what this old Soviet-British controversy has to do with the disarmament question? My answer is—nothing. However, it was not I who brought up this subject, but the representative of Great Britain, and I would consider it a lack of consideration and politeness to ignore a single of the questions which he asked.

#### **General Disarmament and the Covenant of the League**

The delegate of the British Government, as well as the delegates of the Japanese, French, Dutch and other Governments were concerned with the problem whether our proposal for general disarmament is in accordance with the Covenant of the League of Nations, and if not, whether they might and should consider our proposal at all. They all gave, apparently, a negative answer. But if that were an indisputable fact; if general disarmament is at variance with the principles and the aims of the League of Nations, then we

fail to understand why the Commission did not reject our proposal at the November session; why it decided to accept it for examination and why it is at present concerned with that question. However, apparently, the aforementioned delegates are far from being convinced of the correctness of their answer from the political, if not from the technical and legal viewpoint. We have always been told that the League of Nations was founded chiefly, if not exclusively, for the purpose of securing general peace. If Article 8 of the Covenant of the League of Nations speaks only of a reduction of armaments, it seemed to us that it had in view only the minimal obligations and that this article was not to be an obstacle to further complete disarmament, should members of the League of Nations so desire. It seems to me that it would be difficult to devise a better method of discrediting the League than by asserting that it is a barrier in the path of complete disarmament. You will render a poor service to your League if you make a fetish out of it and submit to it completely the desires of your governments. The Covenant of the League is not a law for all times to come. Besides, changes of the Covenant of the League have been repeatedly contemplated by the League. Suffice it to mention the fact that on occasion of the confirmation of the Geneva Protocol by the fifth assembly of the League (October 2, 1924), the Assembly decided to propose to the Council of the League the immediate appointment of a committee for working out the changes in the Covenant called forth by the aforesaid Protocol. If you agree to accept complete disarmament and properly appreciate all the blessings which it would bring in its wake, or rather all the evils which it would remove, you will obviously not refuse to sacrifice some article or other of the Covenant. When people say that our proposal is at variance with the Covenant of the League, for by abolishing armed forces it would deprive the League of the possibility of applying military sanctions, they forget that the sanctions were provided for to apply in the cases of military aggression of one state by another, matters which will be impossible after the abolition of armed forces when that article about the sanctions will have become an anachronism. I am entirely disregarding the fact that the obligation of the various members of the League to take part in the military sanctions is being disputed by the members of the League themselves.

The Soviet delegation does not consider itself bound by any Covenants or decisions of the League, and for this reason it did not deem it necessary to consider them in its proposal. If I take the liberty of commenting upon the Covenant of the League, by referring to some decision of the League or other, I am doing it only in order to understand your point of view and to explain the admissibility of our proposal even from the point of view of the members of the League. As

regards the competence of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission, we are here not as technical specialists, not merely as members of the Commission, but also as members and responsible representatives of governments. If the Commission is authorized to find a way leading to partial disarmament, and if its members appear before their governments and declare that they have found a road leading to complete disarmament, then hardly anybody will blame them for it, especially as the decisions of the Commission are only to serve as recommendations to the governments.

### Soviet Proposal No Panacea

My opponents, perhaps with the only exception of the British delegate, criticized our disarmament proposal not so much for what it contains as for what it fails to include. They pointed out that the proposal does not provide for economic security; that it does not provide for social security; that it does not guarantee a just peace; that it does not abolish mutual suspicion between the nations; that it does not indicate the road towards the settlement of international disputes—in one word that it is not a panacea. This criticism would be justified if we had been instructed, or if it had been our aim to recommend to you a universal remedy against all evils, against all the distressing aspects of human society, a remedy for transforming this vale of tears into a terrestrial paradise. We cannot recommend any such remedies to you, for even if we would do so, you would not consent to discuss them. We are endeavoring to find remedies against one of the evils, one of the greatest evils—the Moloch of War. We are trying to find a common language with you, insofar as you say that you are trying to save humanity from that evil. Within these broad, but still restricted limits, our proposals answer their purpose.

### Objections Against Disarmament

The arguments adduced here against the general idea of our proposal consist either in the assertion that the nations would fight each other without weapons or with primitive weapons—or that the industrial countries would be able, within a short period, to create new weapons in place of the destroyed ones, and to enslave the weaker countries. However, the opponents have renounced the first argument. I would like to recall that the country which I represent borders upon China and India, numerically the strongest states, with populations amounting to hundreds of millions. Nevertheless it is not afraid of an invasion on the part of the unorganized masses of these countries. Other countries have still less to be afraid of that possibility. Nor does the other argument hold water, because, at present, the weaker countries if they are forced to maintain armed forces and to oppose armed aggression on the part of the stronger countries, are entirely dependent upon the latter



with regard to the material end of the armaments. While their resources in fighting men are restricted, they are also weak from the technical point of view. Articles 30 to 36 of the Soviet disarmament plan propose the destruction of the military industries and of all the elements of the military production. The experience of the world war has shown that even in the countries with a powerful industry, twelve to twenty months were necessary for organizing the output of military equipment. New armaments and armies cannot be created within a short period. Carried on for any length of time, it cannot remain unnoticed, if the international and local control commissions, as provided for by our proposal, are well organized. We know that restrictions of military production were carried out as a result of the Treaty of Versailles, and that this was done quite thoroughly even in such a highly developed industrial country as Germany, when the object was to disarm a conquered country. It will be all the easier to control the military industries in case of complete destruction of the respective means of production.

The above objections are rooted in the deep international mistrust in the mutual readiness to abide by international conventions. This argument may be advanced with still greater force against the reduction of armaments; for what is the use for an International Disarmament Conference—even if it adopts the principles of the draft convention worked out by the Preparatory Commission—to establish limits for the personnel and the military equipment of the forces of each country, if we suspect that this convention will not be observed and that the established equilibrium will be violated at will. This is where the fears expressed here concerning the diminution of the security of the various countries are really justified.

#### Italy's "Just Peace" as Against "Peace in General"

The honorable representative of Italy said among other things that it was necessary to have not simply peace in general, but a just peace. I must admit that I am not quite certain that I was able to grasp his thoughts entirely. Did he mean to say that the present peace is unjust and that it is in need of some changes? But a change of the peace is possible only in two ways: Either by war, or by a revision of the existing peace treaties and other international agreements. As I have no right to think that he had in mind the necessity of a forcible change of the present peace, I will take the liberty of telling him that our proposal does not exclude a revision of the peace treaties and that he may bring up this question either in the League, of which Italy is a member, or at another international conference even after the realization of our proposal. If he does not have

in mind a forcible change of peace, then obviously he does not need the maintenance of armed forces for a revision of the treaties.

#### The Soviet "Ultimatum" to the Commission

Now I will pass to the remarks made with reference to the various articles of our draft convention and will for a time return to the speech of the British representative. He found a number of technical and other defects in our proposal; he found that some of the articles do not even tally with the aims of the authors of the proposal; that it was not written in a language suitable for a legislative act; that quite a number of articles deserve serious criticism. He was at a loss to understand how I could even attempt to submit such an imperfect proposal to the Disarmament Conference, proposing that the latter should either accept it as a whole without any discussion, or reject it. Lord Cushendun would not have been at a loss; he would have saved much time and labor and shortened his speech considerably, if he had not started out from a wrong assumption. I do not know how he came to the conclusion that the Soviet delegation decided to submit to the Commission something in the nature of an ultimatum. The Soviet Government has been receiving ultimatums, but it has never sent them to anybody, and it did not occur to the Soviet delegation to come out here with similar proposals in the nature of an ultimatum.

Cushendun himself quite correctly pointed to my accompanying letter to the Secretariat of the League, wherein I suggested the acceptance of our proposals as a basis for discussion. In the speech I made in submitting the proposal, I mentioned no less than three times the conditions under which I would consider as expedient the study and the discussion of our proposal. Thus, I did not even for a minute exclude the discussion of the proposal as a whole and in its details; I only insisted upon one thing, viz., that the discussion of the proposal should not be started unless and until the Commission has accepted the fundamental principles underlying the proposal. Indeed, what would be the use of discussing the question what type of craft should be maintained for maritime protection, if we did not settle the question as to the destruction of the other naval craft? What is the use of discussing the question of international protection of the maritime zones, if it has not been agreed in advance that the individual naval forces of the various countries were to be destroyed? The consideration and the discussion of the proposal without any underlying principles would be a waste of time entirely unworthy of us. As I value the time of the Commission and would like to protect it against being discredited through fruitless activities, I warned against taking up the proposal until an agreement on its basic principles had been reached.



Furthermore, as was rightly noted by the Italian representative, all the articles were adapted by us to one basic idea, the idea of complete abolition of armed forces. If the basic idea is removed, the remaining articles of the proposal lose all their value. It is in this sense that I said that the proposal is an integral whole and cannot be split up. Of course, we do not claim any copyrights with regard to the proposal, and any of its articles may be used by whomsoever it pleases, for any disarmament plans; this, however, would not be the Soviet proposal for which the Soviet delegation and the Soviet Government would assume any responsibility. The proposal may contain articles which concur with the interests of some state or other. England may consider that the article on the abolition of submarines corresponds to her interests; other states may find other suitable articles; and as a result the discussion might lead to controversies, such as you are familiar with from the history of the first reading of your proposal. It is quite another matter if we all agree upon the fundamental principle of complete disarmament; then the controversies about the separate articles would not be of grave significance. I quite admit that our proposal is imperfect, and that by collective effort, in pursuing the single aim of complete disarmament, we could improve it considerably. Now, all the articles which called forth the bewilderment and the criticism, or rather the sneers of Cushendun, are not of basic importance and admit of discussions and compromises.

#### Organization of Protection

Lord Cushendun directed his criticism chiefly against Chapter III of the proposal, entitled "Organization of Protection." I can assure you that in drawing up this chapter we were least of all guided by the special interests of our own country. On the contrary, we would have preferred not to speak of police protection at all. But it is not in vain that this is the second session of the Commission which I am attending and I have been sufficiently imbued with your practical sense and with what you call the sense of realities. I knew what tremendous importance your countries attribute to the questions of internal security, of protection of property, etc. For this reason, taking into consideration the interests of your countries and your possible desires, I managed to draw up a special article on protection. I have absolutely no doubts, that had I neglected to do so, I would have been subjected to still harsher recriminations, possibly on the part of the same British representative, because I had forgotten about such an important institution as the police. Lord Cushendun was particularly interested in the problem of the armament of the police. He attempted to infer that our proposal was adapted to conditions in the U. S. S. R. where the police are allegedly better armed than in other countries. This is not in keeping with the real facts. The

Soviet militia (police) are armed with revolvers like the police of the majority of the European countries. If I am not mistaken, the police of the country in which we are all staying at present (Switzerland) is likewise equipped with firearms. If, as Lord Cushendun assures us, and I do not question it, the police in his country are armed with clubs only, then no doubt troops may be called out to their assistance in case of emergency. As in accordance with our proposal, the armies are to be abolished and the firearms destroyed, it is obvious that it was admissible to provide for the right of arming the police.

Besides, I just read in the "Manchester Guardian" of March 19, the following communication from Belfast: "In connection with the street parades in Moy considerable police forces were concentrated in the district in order to prevent the repetition of the outrages committed in August when a group of Nationalists who marched on the main street in order to take part in a similar parade was fired upon. Police were stationed on the main streets while the armored car 'Crossley' manned with armed constables was moving about incessantly." You see that in Ulster which is part of the British Empire, the constables are armed.

Furthermore, on February 3, the Reuter Agency reported from Bombay: "Armed police who interceded were attacked by paraders and were forced to open fire." Another telegram from Madras reads: "As a result of the fire opened by the police against the insurgents . . ."

Lord Cushendun has probably now satisfied himself that there are armed police, not only in the U. S. S. R., and that, at least in parts of the Empire represented by him, the police are even forced to make use of firearms. I hope he will admit that my forethought with regard to police was not superfluous, even from his own point of view.

Lord Cushendun was also amused by the question as to why the ways of communication were in need of protection. The British delegate naturally has no doubts about the necessity of protecting the sea routes and even—from the point of view of his government—of controlling the countries situated on that route. I will take the liberty of informing him that while there is no need of protecting the ways of communication in those sections of the world in which the railway density is very great, in countries where there are neither cities nor even large villages over distances of hundreds of miles, the presence of at least one policeman on a railroad station, if it were only to interfere in the case of a crime committed on the train, would hardly be considered by him as unnecessary. Under objects in need of protection the proposal understands such establishments as State Banks, treasury departments and mints, which, of course, are in need of special

protection. If during the discussion of our proposal, the representative of Great Britain will propose a maximum reduction of the armed forces for protection and for police purposes, the Soviet delegation will be glad to meet him halfway.

In this connection an entirely legitimate question was asked by the representative of Holland who expressed the apprehension that if the police were armed in proportion to the number of the population, the largest countries would obtain a considerable armed force which could be used for military purposes as well. The Soviet Government is determined in the most energetic manner to protect the interests of the weak states, and for this reason the Soviet delegation is ready to change the proportion of armaments in favor of the weaker states.

If the Soviet delegation were to submit any partial disarmament plan, it would propose the same principle according to which the disarmament ratio for the stronger countries, including the U. S. S. R. would be larger than for the weaker countries.

I wish to add that the forms of protection provided for by our proposal should not have the character of military organizations, and the police should be subordinated to the local autonomous authorities and by no means be united under one joint command. As regards the kind of weapons to be used by the forces retained, it is our opinion that it is a purely technical matter. In some cases, such as for fighting smugglers, rifles may be needed, in other cases revolvers would suffice, while, again in other cases side-arms would answer the purpose, as was pointed out in the speech of the Cuban representative.

### Self-Protection of Citizens

The representative of Great Britain likewise turned his attention to the question of self-protection of citizens. He attempted to insinuate that only citizens of my country may be in need of self-protection, as the Government allegedly does not protect their lives sufficiently. I dare to assure him that in the Soviet Union the citizens do not carry arms and that they are not in need of them, as criminality in the U. S. S. R., if not lower, is certainly not higher than in the other countries. Is Lord Cushendun not aware of the fact that there are stores selling weapons in every country? And are those weapons not being purchased by private citizens for some purpose? The Japanese representative told us that in some tropical countries it is dangerous to go out in the street without weapons. In other countries there are dangers of another kind. I wish to recall that a few representatives of the Soviet Government were murdered in quite civilized countries. Soviet diplomatic couriers had to defend the diplomatic mail and their own lives outside of the boundaries of the Soviet Union, in European countries which are members of the League of Na-

tions. Besides, if the British representative proposes complete prohibition of the carrying of arms by private citizens, including hunting rifles as well, the Soviet Delegation will not object.

### Legislative Measures

In case of its entry into force, our proposal provides for a number of legislative measures to be adopted by each government. Lord Cushendun asked how it is possible "to compel a free legislative assembly to submit to the decisions of the convention." It is now my turn to express my bewilderment and astonishment. For the representative of Great Britain cannot be ignorant of the fact that an international convention, ratified by the legislative assembly of any country becomes a law for the country in question, and that the legislative assembly having ratified the convention, thereby assumes the obligation to pass the legislative acts provided for by the convention.

It might have been possible later to discuss all these questions calmly and from all angles, but as Lord Cushendun has touched upon all these problems, at this particular time, expressing his criticism, I could not leave his remarks unanswered.

I will take the liberty further to point to one quite unjustified remark made by the British representative with regard to Article 10 of the proposal. Speaking of the prohibition of special scientific investigations and theoretical treatises on the question of warfare, as suggested in the proposal, Lord Cushendun did not consider it necessary to point out that the article was dealing with specifically military works and not with scientific works in general. The article dealing with military education seemed to Lord Cushendun very ridiculous. I do not know whether he assumed the same sneering attitude with regard to the proposal submitted at the Assembly of the League of Nations on September 16, 1925. That proposal read as follows: "For the purpose of moral disarmament the League of Nations suggests to all its members the adoption of measures aiming at the revision of the textbooks of history in the direction of a gradual reduction of the number of pages in which wars of conquest are being justified."

Great differences of opinion will hardly be called forth by other articles which attracted the attention of the British representative, such as, e. g., the article concerning the number of copies of ratification acts, concerning the place in which those acts are to be deposited, the meeting place of the International Control Commission and similar articles about which Lord Cushendun spoke with so much feeling.

### Fundamental Principles of Proposal

But in order to discuss all these comparatively unimportant articles, I would like to know whether Cushendun agrees in principle with the first thirty-six articles of the proposal in which the

principle of general disarmament is laid down. Unfortunately Lord Cushendun, declined to commit himself on this point. Lord Cushendun spoke of complete disarmament as an ideal toward which all humanity is striving and has been striving since the dawn of its history. However, we have not convened here for the purpose of discussing remote ideals, but in order to decide which of the ideals towards which humanity has allegedly been striving for thousands of years may be realized at present and which of them may be postponed for some thousands of years.

The representative of Holland asked whether I thought that a further discussion of our proposal was of any use. If the majority or a considerable part of the delegations consider the principle of complete disarmament as unacceptable to their governments, then, of course, any further discussion is superfluous. Unfortunately, not all speakers gave an entirely clear answer to this question. While sharply criticizing our disarmament proposal, many speakers nevertheless made reservations about the usefulness of a further discussion of that proposal. The Soviet delegation attributes such an enormous significance to the idea of general disarmament that, as long as there is even a slight hope of realizing this idea, the delegation will not refuse to give new explanations and to participate in a further discussion of the proposal. But the discussion is desirable and expedient only in case the Commission declares that it accepts the principle of general disarmament. In that case I would move for the reading of our proposal section by section. If, however, the basic principle of the proposal is rejected, I will not only not insist upon its further discussion, but I, myself, will object to a continuation of this discussion, as to an entirely unnecessary waste of time. Thus, the decision on this question rests with the Commission.

Gentlemen, my question may be only a formality, perhaps an unnecessary formality, and I do not entertain any illusions as to the results. The speeches delivered here on disarmament will certainly not strengthen our optimism.

### Outlawing of War, and Disarmament

Nevertheless, this time we started our work in the Commission with a certain amount of hope. We knew that one of the great powers has come out with a proposal for the outlawing of wars, and with our conception of logic and consistency, we believed that we were entitled to expect that Government to support our proposal. But the representative of that country did not even consider it necessary to explain to us his point of view, unless you accept as a convincing explanation the remark he made here to the effect that he believed in the one plan and had no faith in the other. On the one hand the criticism of our proposal was based upon deep international mutual suspicion, upon the assumption that a solemnly

adopted international convention is inevitably bound to be violated. On the other hand we are being told: when two neighbors, armed to the teeth, give a solemn promise not to attack each other, then they believe that a fight is impossible. But when these neighbors, in addition to their solemn promise, engage themselves to disarm and actually do disarm, then we are told that this will not only not increase, but, on the contrary, even diminish the existing security. Thus, it appears that armed nations are more harmless to each other than unarmed nations. One may, of course, believe such an assertion because one may believe anything, but it is hard to understand this. "Credo quia absurdum."

### "The Man in the Street"

I was somewhat taken aback by the speech of the Polish delegate who declared that our idea may seem tempting only to the average man, the man in the street. But the burden of militarism is carried exactly by that average man, by that man in the street; it is exactly he who is being sacrificed to the Moloch of war—this man in the street of whom the Polish delegate spoke so disparagingly. We—the Soviet delegation—do not claim to represent the so-called higher strata of society. We represent here the workers and peasants whose interests we understand and cherish. Our government has not the slightest doubt that their interests require the most radical solution of the problems of disarmament and war. In one respect I may reassure the Polish delegate—the apprehensions expressed by him that the present session of the Preparatory Commission will call forth too great hopes among the friends of peace are undoubtedly exaggerated.

### Sympathies of Population Favor Disarmament

Whatever the fate of our proposal at the present session of the Preparatory Commission, we continue to believe that general immediate disarmament is the only effective guarantee of peace, which corresponds not only to remote ideals, but also to actual present-day demands of humanity. If, at the present moment, the unalterable fact is being disputed here that the sympathies of the great masses of the population are entirely and fully with the idea of complete disarmament, we for our part, are deeply convinced that the time is not remote when all governments represented here will become aware of those sympathies and will be induced to assume another attitude with regard to our proposals.

*The Index to the fifth volume of the "Soviet Union Review" has been published recently. On request it will be sent free of charge to all readers of the Review.*

# Soviet Proposal for Partial Disarmament

IN the evening of March 23, 1928, after it had become apparent that the Preparatory Commission would decline the Soviet proposal for general and complete disarmament, Mr. M. Litvinov took the floor for the purpose of submitting a proposal for partial disarmament. The following is the full text of his speech:

In yesterday's speech I mentioned that the remarks made in the Preparatory Commission by the majority of the delegates with regard to our proposal for complete and general disarmament left no doubts about the fate which the present Commission held in store for our draft convention on disarmament. If there was even the slightest doubt left as to the attitude of the Commission with regard to our proposal, this doubt has been entirely dispelled by the draft resolution submitted today, the plainness of whose wording leaves nothing further to be desired. The Soviet Delegation is compelled to declare to its great regret—I am sure this regret will be shared by the broadest masses whose wishes have been so badly understood by many of the orators who spoke here—that the majority of the delegations represented here, in behalf of their Governments entirely and decisively rejected not only our draft convention but even the very idea of general and complete disarmament. I am using the word "idea" because the resolution rejects our project even as a basis for the further activities of the Commission. The proposals contained in the resolution do not even speak of submitting our proposal for consideration to the Governments or for discussion to the International Disarmament Conference, as was suggested today by the Turkish representative. They speak only of the possibility of extracting separate articles or parts of articles from our proposal to be used as material in discussing other draft conventions which would be entirely alien to the general spirit of our proposal for complete disarmament.

I remarked yesterday in my speech that our draft convention is not protected by copyright, and that therefore anybody was free to use some article or other for whatever purpose he pleased. I then and there gave warning that the Soviet Government could not lend its name to separate parts lifted arbitrarily from our proposal, and that it could not assume any responsibility therefor. Moreover, the Soviet delegation and the Soviet Government cannot consider themselves bound, either formally or politically, by separate disjointed articles of the proposal, if they do not serve the purpose for which the proposal was drawn up, i. e., for complete and general disarmament. Consequently the Soviet Delegation maintains the right to oppose and to vote against separate articles of its own proposal, if these articles

will be included in any other proposal different from our proposal in spirit and ultimate aim.

In its note of January 16, 1926, replying to the Council of the League of Nations which invited the Soviet Government to take part in the Preparatory Disarmament Commission, the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs intimated that the Soviet Government attributed great importance to every attempt to reduce the danger of war and to relieve the burden of armaments weighing upon the peoples. In my declaration of November 30, last, at the fourth session of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission I declared that, while insisting by all means upon the necessity of complete disarmament, "the Soviet delegation was ready to take part in all kinds of discussions on the question of reduction of armaments, insofar as practical measures actually aiming at disarmament are proposed." In accordance with those statements and considering that its proposal for complete and general disarmament was rejected, the Soviet delegation is now faced by the question as to what it may undertake in the way of preparatory steps for the attainment of its aim of complete and general disarmament. As the majority of the delegations represented here opposed our proposal by advancing the idea of partial disarmament, the Soviet delegation decided to attempt to find a common ground with the other delegations in bringing about at least such a partial disarmament. Even if for the other delegations this will be an aim "in itself" beyond which they consider it impossible to go, the Soviet delegation will consider it only as the first step on the road towards complete disarmament. The fact that with regard to this remote aim there is nothing in common between the other delegations and ourselves, should not prevent us from jointly looking for a way towards the attainment of the immediate aim, i. e., the reduction of armaments, if we can find a common ground at least in this limited task.

The Soviet delegation believes that, in counter-distinction to complete disarmament, partial disarmament can not lead to the elimination of armed conflicts between various countries. It may result in a certain reduction of the possibilities of such conflicts, as the growth of armaments is in itself one of the causes bringing about wars. The reduction of armaments may have quite favorable consequences in the matter of lightening the burden of militarism and relieving the pressure of taxation weighing on the peoples of all countries, as well as by liberating the living human forces and the budget resources for more productive work and more useful purposes. A reduction of armaments, if it proceeds along the principles outlined by the Soviet delegation, may likewise result

in a reduction of the horrors of war. The Soviet delegation declares that the Preparatory Disarmament Commission does not have at its disposal such proposals for partial disarmament as might serve as subject for immediate discussion. Without entering into any criticism of those proposals which have already passed the first reading in the Commission—the Soviet delegation could say very much about those proposals if it were given the opportunity—we consider it as an established fact that they have aroused differences of opinion within the Commission itself, which, up to the present, it was not possible to remove in spite of the fact that twelve months have elapsed since the first reading. Furthermore, the Preparatory Disarmament Commission has assembled twice during that period, but due to these differences of opinion it was not in a position to occupy itself with those proposals.

It is possible that I am forestalling your decision as to the third point of the agenda now being discussed, but it is quite clear from the resolution proposed that there is practically no hope for a second reading of the aforesaid proposals at the present session. Furthermore, some delegates, basing themselves upon the knowledge of the matter and upon the suppositions of their governments, proposed to close today's session of the Commission without fixing the term for convening the next session. This shows clearly that neither in the near future nor within a measurable space of time do they entertain great hopes for the adjustment of the existing differences of opinion. If it was impossible to remove these differences in the course of the past twelve months (and we have not heard of even one of the points at issue having been settled during that period)—where are the guaranties that they will be settled within the next twelve months, or that they will be settled at all? In fact, we are facing the winding up of the activities of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission which may be temporary or final, because in future the calling of the Commission will be dependent not upon the will of the Commission and of its Chairman who is entrusted with its convocation, but upon such external facts as are beyond the control of the Commission and of its Chairman.

For this reason the presentation of a new draft convention seems to us to be all the more fitting and timely. I am, therefore, bringing to the cognizance of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission the fact that, possibly tomorrow, maybe even tonight, a proposal of this kind will be submitted by the Soviet delegation and distributed among the delegations through the apparatus of the League of Nations. After the distribution of that proposal I will take the liberty of giving you some explanations concerning the principles upon which it was drawn up and concerning separate parts of the proposal. The Soviet delegation will ask the Preparatory Disarmament Commission to proceed at this session with the first reading of the pro-

posal, after having first expressed its opinion about the basic principles of that proposal. In order to avoid any possible misunderstandings, I wish to declare right here that I am submitting our proposal as a basis for discussion and that I attribute the greatest importance to the adoption of the basic principles of the proposal, leaving the less important articles of the proposal open to all kinds of corrections, changes, additions and even to substitution by other articles.

In conclusion, I consider it necessary again to declare that we look upon our proposal as the first step towards the accomplishment of complete disarmament and that the Soviet Delegation reserves for itself the right not later than within two years after the adoption of the proposal, to come out with new proposals for further reductions of armaments. The delegation reserves for itself the right, regardless of the adoption or rejection of the proposal, again to take up the original proposal for complete and general disarmament at the next International Disarmament Conference.

## Soviet Draft Convention on Partial Disarmament

THE following is the full text of the Soviet proposal for partial disarmament:

Considering that the enormous growth of armaments and of militarism in general constitutes a heavy burden upon the peoples of the entire world and is reducing the standard of their culture and material well-being;

Considering that the mad struggle among the various countries for supremacy in the field of armaments, and the endeavor to increase the deadly and destructive character of the war implements are among the factors which increase the possibility and probability of armed conflicts;

Prompted by the desire to protect the peaceful toiling population to the greatest extent against the immediate danger to their life and property in the case of armed conflicts, the Contracting States, with a view to effecting the first serious and real step on the way to general and complete disarmament, decided to conclude the present Convention, having for this purpose appointed their plenipotentiary representatives \_\_\_\_\_ who, after having communicated to each other their credentials, found in due and proper form, have agreed as follows:

### General Principles

Proceeding from the opinion that it is only a comparatively small number of the most powerful states aspiring to world domination, which spend a considerable part of their state budgets for land, naval and air armaments, and which are in a position, at any moment, to effect an extraordinary increase of the military means of their aggressive policy, and by utilizing the widely developed industries, have at their disposal by far the major part of land, naval and air armaments, the Contracting

States recognize that the only equitable procedure is a progressive reduction of all kinds of armaments in accordance with their number and composition, insofar as this method causes the least prejudice to the interests of the weaker states which are economically dependent upon the stronger powers; and they agree to lay down this principle as a basis for the reduction of armaments.

### I. Land Forces Personnel

ART. 1. In accordance with the preamble to the present Convention, the Contracting States, in carrying out reductions of their land forces, agree to divide all countries into the following basic groups:

(a) Group "A"—States maintaining over 200,000 men in regular land service, or over 10,000 permanent officers in the cadres of their land forces, or over 60 infantry regiments (180 battalions).

(b) Group "B"—States maintaining over 40,000 men in regular land service, or over 2,000 permanent officers in the cadres of their land forces, or over 20 infantry regiments (60 battalions).

(c) Group "C"—All the other states maintaining armed land forces whose number and composition are below the limits indicated in Group "B."

(d) Group "D"—States which were disarmed as a result of the world war.

Note 1. All of the above-mentioned calculations comprise all the land forces of a given state in the mother country, in the occupied regions and in the colonies, including military police, military gendarmerie and guards in charge of the protection of military property.

The numerical strength of bodies organized in military fashion, such as the police forces, the gendarmerie, customs guards, escorts, forest guards and other armed formations established for the needs of customs and fiscal protection, for the protection of internal order and of state or public property, is to be established on the basis of a separate Convention.

2. Under "persons engaged in regular military service" are to be understood all persons engaged in permanent service in the cadres of armed forces, and all drafted men in the regular armies.

3. Under "officers" ("commanders") should be understood all persons who received special military training, and upon whom, in accordance with the military regulations of the Contracting States has been bestowed the title of "officer" ("commander").

ART. 2. Recognizing that among the methods of reducing land forces the simplest as well as the one which is equally just with regard to all interested states, and which at the same time least of all disarranges the organization, recruiting and service of the land forces—is the system of applying the same coefficient of reduction to all states of the same group (Art. 1, of the present Convention), the Contracting States have agreed to stipulate that coefficient as follows:

(a) The states of Group "A" are to reduce their land forces by one-half;

(b) The states of Group "B" are to reduce them by one-third;

(c) The states of Group "C" by one-fourth.

Note. The extent of the land forces of Group "D" is to be determined on the basis of special principles to be established by the Disarmament Conference.

ART. 3. The land forces of the Contracting States are subject to reduction in accordance with the coefficient mentioned in Art. 2, of the present Convention with regard to the following items:

(a) The total numerical strength of the personnel engaged in regular service, the territorial-militia formations, the organized reserves and other military formations undergoing military training either through army or non-army methods, recording in each case the officers, the non-commissioned officers and the privates separately.

(b) The number of organizational units and formations of the basic classes of field troops in regular, territorial-militia armies, organized reserves and other military formations which could be used immediately without declaring a mobilization, or formations existing in time of peace and declared as cadres of armed forces in time of war.

ART. 4. The maximum numerical strength of the personnel and of the organizational units as well as of the formations of land forces, which must not be exceeded by the Contracting States, is to be laid down in a supplementary Convention, based upon the following principles:

(a) The coefficients of reduction, as presented in Art. 2 of the present Convention, are to be applied to each state separately according to the definite group to which it belongs (Art. 1 of the present Convention):

(1) With regard to each class of land forces (regular army, territorial-militia army, organized reserves, etc.);

(2) With regard to the total numerical strength of land forces stationed in the mother country, the occupied territories and in the colonies;

(3) With regard to the total numerical strength and to the number of officers and non-commissioned officers in permanent service, and the officers of the reserve;

(4) With regard to the number of units and formations of each class of troops.

(b) In accordance with the aforesaid, the following tables are to be annexed to the supplementary convention, each of the tables to fix—after the reduction of each category of the armed forces—the number of organizational units and formations of the infantry, field artillery and cavalry and the total number of the personnel, with subdivisions into officers, non-commissioned officers and all (the total number) of the voluntary army employees of the administrative, politico-educational and economic services, of the religious cults, etc.

Table 1. Maximum numerical strength of armed forces in the mother country.

Table 2. Maximum numerical strength of armed overseas forces stationed in the mother country.

Table 3. Maximum numerical strength of the armed forces of the dominions and the other overseas possessions.



Table 4. Maximum numerical strength of armed forces of the mother country, stationed in each colony, in each dominion and the other oversea possessions.

Table 5. The maximum numerical strength of the total forces of each state.

(c) In applying the aforesaid coefficients of reduction, the data about the numerical strength of the staff and the composition of the armed forces, as of January 1, 1928, are to serve as the starting point for the calculations.

ART. 5. For the purpose of limiting the accumulation of trained reserves the Contracting States agree:

(a) In each age class to reduce, in accordance with the aforesaid coefficients of reduction, the total number of trained men and officers, whether undergoing military training in the army or outside of it;

(b) To prohibit by legislative measures the existence of any public formations, organized in military fashion with the help of specialists-instructors detailed from the army, and their calling for training purposes, as well as the military training of the civilian population carried on in the form of independent public activities.

#### Material

ART. 6. In the armaments of the land forces may be retained the types of armament existing according to the tables as of January 1, 1928, except tanks and super-long-range high power artillery, as they are intended chiefly for aggressive purposes.

ART. 7. All the instruments of war which especially threaten the non-combatant population not taking any direct part in the armed struggle (instruments of aerial and chemical warfare), are subject to destruction in accordance with a separate convention.

ART. 8. The number of articles of armament of the land forces is to be strictly limited in accordance with:

(a) The requirements of the army in peace time;

(b) The numerical strength of the trained men of the reserve, in accordance with the various age classes; the number of the latter remains the same for all countries of a given group (Art. 1 of the present Convention) not exceeding ten age classes for the states of group "A," while for Group "B" and "C" it is subsequently to increase progressively by 50 and 100 per cent.

ART. 9. The standard supply of equipment per each thousand men of the trained reserves is to be established for each country strictly in accordance with the existing norms concerning the correlation of the various types and kinds of equipment of the basic army branches.

ART. 10. The actual maximum limits of articles of equipment in the armies or in the army stores and, in general, on the territory of the state, which

are not to be exceeded, are to be established on the basis of the principles laid down in Articles 8 and 9 of the present Convention, in the supplementary convention and in the tables appended thereto, according to the list contained in section "b" of Art. 4, of the present Convention.

Every table is to contain total figures under the following heads:

1. Rifles, carbines and pistols:

(a) Automatic;

(b) Non-automatic.

Note. Automatic rifles, carbines, and pistols are considered as light machine guns.

2. Machine guns:

(a) Heavy;

(b) Light.

3. Cannons:

(a) Light field guns (cannons of 76 mm. caliber, and howitzers of 122 mm. caliber);

(b) Heavy field guns (cannons of 105 mm. caliber, and howitzers of 150 mm. caliber);

(c) Heavy guns and howitzers (from 150 to 204 mm. caliber);

(d) Mortars and trench mortars of all types;

(e) Cannons accompanying the infantry troops;

(aa) Cannon and howitzers;

(bb) Mine throwers, grenade throwers and bomb throwers.

4. Armored cars.

5. Spare parts, lathes, gun carriages and cannon bodies.

6. Cartridges, for rifles and revolvers.

7. Hand and rifle grenades.

8. Projectiles for the aforesaid calibers and types of cannon.

9. All kinds of side-arms.

ART. 11. Articles of equipment on the territories of the Contracting States, which are in excess of the standards stipulated in Art. 9 of the present Convention, are subject to destruction.

#### II. Naval Armaments

ART. 12. In accordance with the principles laid down in the preamble to the present Convention, the Contracting States consent to carry out a reduction of their naval forces on the basis of the following principles:

(a) States which, on January 1, 1928, possess a navy with a total displacement of over 200,000 tons are to reduce their naval armaments by half, both with regard to the figure of the aggregate displacement of the entire navy and with regard to the displacement of each of the following categories of warships:

Liners;

Battleships of over 10,000 tons displacement;

Light craft;

Submarines.

(b) States whose navies, on January 1, 1928, had an aggregate displacement of less than 200,000 tons, are to reduce their naval armaments by one-fourth of the total displacement of the entire navy.



(c) Immediately upon the entry into force of the present Convention the aircraft carriers are to be withdrawn from the regular navy. Within six months they are to be disarmed and brought to a condition precluding any possibility of their use for purposes of war.

Note. The determination of the extent of the naval forces of states which have been disarmed as a result of the world war is to be effected on the basis of special principles to be stipulated by the Disarmament Conference.

ART. 13. The actual limits of displacement which are not to be exceeded by the Contracting States are to be stipulated in accordance with the aforesaid principles by a special convention to be concluded within three months from the entry into force of the present Convention.

ART. 14. Each of the Contracting States is to classify the ships of the navy—by enumerating them explicitly—into ships to be withdrawn from the regular navy and ships which are to be retained therein (within the limits of the displacement standard established in accordance with Art. 12 of the present Convention). Within a year of the entry into force of the present Convention warships which each country has decided to withdraw from the regular navy are to be dismantled and brought into a condition precluding any possibility of their use for war purposes.

Note. Under the dismantlement of warships is to be understood the removal of the armor plates, of the artillery and torpedo equipment, the destruction of the special equipment, of the armor-plated turrets, of appliances for directing fire, of means of communication for fighting purposes, and of devices for the launching of airplanes.

ART. 15. The manner of withdrawing ships from the regular navy and of bringing them into a condition precluding the possibility of their use for war purposes is to be determined by a supplementary technical agreement annexed to the convention which is to be concluded in accordance with Article 13 of the present Convention.

ART. 16. The Contracting States agree that from the day of entry into force of the present Convention the construction of all warships (those which are to be built in future as well as those which had been started) should be carried on exclusively for the purpose of turning out substitutes for the corresponding classes or categories of ships which have remained in the regular navies after the reduction stipulated by Articles 12 and 13 was carried out. The following conditions must be observed:

(a) Except in case of wreck, every single ship has to serve the following obligatory term before it can be substituted by another ship:

Liners		
Coast defense vessels	}	25 years
Cruisers of over 7,000 tons		
Cruisers of less than 7,000 tons	}	20 years
Flotilla leaders		
Minelayers		
Submarines		15 years

(b) The displacement of warships is not to exceed 10,000 metric tons. Ships of over 10,000 tons which at the present time form part of the naval forces are to be excluded therefrom after attaining their obligatory term of service stipulated under section "a" of the present article;

(c) 12 inches (305 millimeters), is to represent the highest caliber of artillery mounted on warships;

(d) The construction of devices to be used for the placing of flying apparatus on warships is not permitted;

(e) The limits for the various particulars, according to classes and categories of ships are stipulated as follows:

Classes and Categories of Ships	Displacement	Obligatory Artillery		Term of Service
		Caliber		
Liners	10,000	12 inches		25 years
Coast defense vessels				
Cruisers of over 7,000 tons		10 inches		25 years
Cruisers of less than 7,000 tons		6 inches		20 years
Flotilla leaders, minelayers	500	5 inches		20 years
Submarines	600	5 inches		15 years

Note. As typical displacement of a ship is to be considered that of the completed ship with its entire crew, machinery and boilers, ready to sail, with all the armaments and equipment, appliances, foodstuffs, fresh water for the crew and various supplies which the ship must have on board in war time, including combustibles and reserve water for the machines and the boilers. This estimation is to be made in metric tons.

ART. 17. The Contracting States consent to undertake the following obligations:

(a) Not to use for war purposes those warships which are subject to withdrawal from the regular navy as ships for which new ships were substituted (except in cases which may be mentioned separately in a supplementary technical agreement);

(b) Not to transfer or to sell one's warships to foreign states, if the latter can use them in the capacity of warships—in excess of the standard stipulated for each state by the present Convention;

(c) Not to construct and not to permit on their territory the construction of warships exceeding any one of the limits stipulated in Article 16 of the present Convention;

(d) Not to resort to construction, on foreign wharves, of new ships in excess of the limits stipulated for each of the Contracting States.

(e) Not to place any devices or appliances on merchant vessels, which would facilitate the use of those ships for war purposes.

ART. 18. The Contracting States agree to limit the number of projectiles and torpedoes to the following standards:

(a) For 12-inch guns—200 projectiles per gun;

(b) For other guns—upwards of 75 millimeters—800 projectiles per gun.

(c) For guns of less than 75 millimeters—1,000 projectiles per gun;

(d) For each torpedo apparatus—2 mines.

ART. 19. All the supplies of projectiles and torpedoes above the standards mentioned in Article 18 are subject to destruction.

### III. Air Forces

ART. 20. Within one year from the entry into force of the present Convention all the dirigible aeronautical apparatus are to be disarmed and brought into a condition precluding the possibility of their use for war purposes.

Note. Under the disarmament of the vessels of the air-fleet should be understood the removal of cannons, machine guns and special appliances destined for the dropping of bombs and other means of destruction.

ART. 21. In accordance with the preamble to the present Convention, the Contracting States agree, in carrying out reductions of the air forces, to divide all states into the following fundamental groups:

(a) Group "E"—States disposing of an air force of over 200 operating airplanes.

(b) Group "F"—States disposing of an air force of between 100 and 200 operating airplanes.

(c) Group "H"—States disposing of an air force of less than 100 operating airplanes.

The states of Group "E" are to reduce their air forces by one-half; the states of Group "F" by one-third; and the states of Group "H" by one-fourth, while simultaneously restricting the capacity of each airplane engine to 400 H. P. on the ground.

ART. 22. In excess of the limit of airplanes in operation stipulated by Art. 21, reserve airplanes and motors therefor may be retained as part of the air forces to the extent of not more than 25 per cent of the total number of airplanes in operation after their number had been reduced.

ART. 23. All the remaining airplanes, both in regular service and in the reserve, as well as the motors therefor, in excess of the limit stipulated by Articles 21 and 22 of the present Convention, are subject to destruction.

ART. 24. In applying Articles 21, 22 and 23 of the present Convention, the airplanes provided with motors of over 400 H. P. are to be destroyed in the first place.

ART. 25. Any arming of commercial air vessels, and their adaptation to the mounting of armaments or to military use is prohibited.

ART. 26. With regard to the types of airplanes and their armaments, Article 6 of the present Convention is to be applied. The armament of the air forces is subject to the norms stipulated in Article 10 of the present Convention.

ART. 27. All the supplies of air bombs and other means of destruction intended for dropping from the units of the airfleet, are to be destroyed in the course of three months from the day the present Convention enters into force. Henceforth their manufacture and their maintenance among the armaments or the reserve supplies of the military air forces is prohibited.

ART. 28. The personnel of the military air forces

is subject to reduction in proportion to the diminution of the number of airplanes in operation.

ART. 29. The actual limits of the total number of airplanes in regular service and in the reserve, including the full set of motors provided for them, as well as of the total numerical strength of the personnel of the military air forces subdivided into officers, pilots and the remaining flying force, who are not subject to increase by the Contracting States, are stipulated by a supplementary convention in accordance with Articles 21 and 28 of the present Convention. The following tables are to be appended to that supplementary convention:

Table 1. The maximum numerical strength of armed air forces situated in the mother country.

Table 2. The maximum numerical strength of the armed air forces situated in every colony, in every dominion and in the other oversea countries.

Table 3. The maximum numerical strength of all armed air forces.

ART. 30. For the purpose of restricting the manufacture of military airplanes and the traffic therein the Contracting States agree within three months from the entry into force of the present Convention to conclude a supplementary Convention about the extent of the output of military airplanes and the traffic therein in accordance with the legitimate requirements of the new composition of the military air forces to be fixed in the tables mentioned in Article 29.

### IV. Means of Chemical Warfare

ART. 31. All means and devices of chemical attack (all poisonous war materials, and all appliances for their release, such as gas projectors, cylinders, flame projectors and other appliances) as well as the means of bacteriological warfare, whether forming part of the equipment of the armies, or kept in reserve, or in the process of manufacture, are subject to destruction within three months of the entry into force of the present Convention.

ART. 32. Industrial establishments engaged in, or adapted to, the manufacture of means of chemical attack and bacteriological warfare, as mentioned in Article 31 of the present Convention, are subject to dismantlement within one year from the date of entry into force of the present Convention on the basis of a supplementary technical agreement.

ART. 33. The Contracting States engage themselves within three months from the date of entry into force of the present Convention to ratify the Protocol on the prohibition of chemical warfare, as signed in Geneva in 1925.

### V. Military Budgets

ART. 34. The actual total figures of the military budgets are subject to reduction in proportion to the curtailment effected by the State groups "A," "B," and "C," for the land forces, and by the

State groups "E," "F," and "H" for the air forces, and finally in proportion to the curtailment of naval forces, as provided for in Articles 12 and 13 of the present Convention. The above reduction of the military budgets is to be extended uniformly over the expenditure items providing for the maintenance of the personnel (pay, uniforms, food supplies, quarters), for the purchase of military equipment and ammunition, and for their maintenance.

ART. 35. The secret funds are to be excluded from the state budgets, being in a disguised form destined for extraordinary expenditures connected with special preparations for war and with the increase of armaments.

Accordingly, all the expenditures for the maintenance of the armed forces of every state are to be united in the state budget under one common head; they are to be public in every respect.

ART. 36. Beginning with 1929, the reduction of military budgets is to be carried out parallel with the reduction of armed forces and war material. Beginning with 1930 the actual limits of the military budgets are to be fixed separately for each of the Contracting States. Henceforth the military budgets are not to be increased.

#### VI. Period Within Which the Convention is to be Carried Out

ART. 37. The reduction of the land, naval and air armaments in accordance with Articles 2, 5, 11, 12, 21, 22, 23 and 28, of the present Convention, is to be carried out by the Contracting States within two years, by devoting the first year to the preparatory activities and the second year to the practical realization of all measures connected with the reduction of armaments.

ART. 38. All the other measures connected with the reduction of armaments are to be carried out within the periods stipulated by the respective articles of the present Convention (Articles 20, 27, 31, 32, and 36).

#### VII. Control

ART. 39. Within three months from the day of entry into force of the present Convention, a Permanent International Control Commission is to be organized. It is to be entrusted with the following duties:

(a) Supervision of the manner in which the present Convention is being carried out; control over it and general coordination and notification of the various states about the violation of the terms of the present Convention.

(b) The stipulation of an agreement about the measures of pressure to be exerted upon the separate states violating the decisions of the present Convention and of the supplementary conventions and technical agreements completing it.

(c) The designation of the localities, the regulations and the technical conditions of the destruction of the material, as well as the working

out of all necessary additional technical conventions.

(d) Working out of the questions of further reduction of armaments and the preparation of the corresponding international agreements.

(e) Informing the Contracting States and public opinion about the progress of the activities connected with the reduction of armaments.

ART. 40. The Permanent International Control Commission is to be composed, on the basis of equal representation, of the representatives of legislative bodies and trade union or other workers' organizations of all States participating in the present Convention.

Subsequently the Permanent International Control Commission may add to its membership representatives of international public organizations pursuing the aim of establishing peaceful relations between the various States and justifying these aims by their activities — provided these organizations express the desire to enter the Permanent International Control Commission.

ART. 41. A Permanent International Committee of Experts, composed, on the basis of equal representation, of military, naval, aircraft and other specialists of all States taking part in the present Convention, is to be attached to the Permanent International Control Commission.

The Permanent International Committee of Experts acts in accordance with the instructions of the Permanent International Control Commission.

ART. 42. The following persons are excluded from membership in the Permanent International Control Commission:

(a) Professional military men, as well as officials of the ministries of war, navy and military aviation.

(b) Persons who are owners or large stockholders of enterprises engaged in military production, owners and large stockholders of banking and trading enterprises interested in the military industries and the arms traffic, as well as responsible employees of all these enterprises.

ART. 43. For the purpose of bringing about real control, the Permanent International Control Commission is entitled to carry on an investigation on the spot, in case there are well-founded reasons to assume that the present Convention and the subsequent supplementary agreements on the reduction and limitation of armaments are being violated, and to appoint special investigating commissions for that purpose.

ART. 44. For the purpose of restricting the possibility of a violation of the respective articles of the present Convention, the factory and plant committees or the other organs of the trade unions active in the military industries as well as in the industries which could be used for the manufacture of military equipment, are to organize permanent workers' control in the given enterprises.

Similar control is to be established in the various

branches of the chemical industry to be listed by the Permanent International Control Commission.

ART. 45. The Contracting States engage themselves to submit to the Permanent International Control Commission, within periods appointed at its discretion, all the information about the condition of their armed forces in accordance with the list and the specimens of tables laid down by the present Convention and by the subsequent supplementary agreements on the reduction and limitation of armaments, and likewise to submit information about the number of airplanes and dirigibles of the commercial air fleet, registered as such on the territory of each of the Contracting States.

ART. 46. The Constitution of the Permanent International Control Commission, the method of investigating the complaints concerning the non-observation of the terms agreed upon with reference to the reduction and limitation of armaments; the organization and manner of carrying on the investigations on the spot, as well as the forms of workers' control over the industries (Art. 44), are to be laid down in a supplementary convention not later than three months from the date of the entry into force of the present Convention.

### VIII. Ratification and Carrying Out of the Convention

ART. 47. The present Convention goes into effect the moment it is ratified, in accordance with the legislative practices of the Contracting States, by all states of the Groups "A" and "B" with regard to the reduction of land armaments in accordance with Art. 1 of the present Convention, or by the States of the first Group with regard to the reduction of naval armaments in accordance with section "a" of Article 12 of the present Convention.

ART. 48. All the subsequent supplementary conventions which are to complete the present Convention, are to be concluded and ratified not later than six months from the day of entry into force of the latter.

ART. 49. The ratification acts are to be drawn up in five copies and are to be deposited in the capital of one of the states of each of the five continents.

The obligation to notify all the Contracting States of the ratification of the present Convention in accordance with the procedure laid down in Article 47, rests upon .....

### Final Statement of Soviet Delegate

**A**FTER the Commission had adopted a resolution rejecting the Soviet proposal for complete and general disarmament as a basis for the activities of the Commission, and deferring the discussion of the Soviet proposal for partial disarmament to the next session of the Preparatory Commission, Mr. Litvinov made the following statement:

Before the Commission finally adjourns I consider it my duty to make a statement presenting the point of view of the Soviet delegation concerning the results of that part of the activities of the Preparatory Commission in which the Soviet delegation participated.

Gentlemen, you are aware of the fact that it is not through the fault of the Soviet Government which responded immediately to the invitation of the Council of the League of Nations to take part in the activities of the Commission, that the Soviet delegation was deprived of the possibility of taking part in the first three sessions of the Preparatory Commission.\* Having come to participate in the activities of the fourth session of the Preparatory Commission, the Soviet delegation was endeavoring not to waste any time and submitted its proposal for the discussion of the principle of general, immediate and complete disarmament. The immediate consideration of its proposal was rejected by the Preparatory Commission which only agreed to discuss the Soviet proposal at its subsequent session. This fifth session of the Commission which took place three months after the fourth session, consented after considerable hesitation to discuss the Soviet proposals; but it discussed them only in order to reject them. Thus, I cannot declare that in the course of the fourth and fifth sessions the Commission has done anything substantial towards the accomplishment of the task for the sake of which it was created. During the discussion of the Soviet proposal for complete disarmament we were told that the very principle of complete disarmament was at variance with the Covenant of the League of Nations and the mandate which the Preparatory Commission has received from the League of Nations, and that consequently, the principle of complete disarmament could not be laid down as a basis for the further activities of the Commission. We were told that only by adopting the principle of reduction of armaments would the Commission be able to do fruitful work.

In line with the sincere endeavors of its Government, to do what is in its power for the realization at least of a partial reduction of the burden of militarism, the Soviet delegation lost no time on delay-causing formalities, for it was moved by the firm desire in one way or another to attain the realization of the task at hand—disarmament or reduction of armaments. The Soviet delegation submitted its partial disarmament proposal, drawn up upon principles which, according to the statements of all orators who spoke here, are allegedly underlying the activities of the Preparatory Commission. The Soviet delegation did not

\*At that time the Soviet Union maintained a boycott against Switzerland, due to the failure of the Swiss authorities to offer suitable apologies for the murder of a Soviet diplomat in Lausanne.

and does not see any plausible reasons which would justify any delays in the discussion of the proposal and of the suggestions which could at least partly lighten the burden of militarism and thus reduce the menace of war.

In spite of the endeavors of the Soviet delegation, in spite of the urgent need of hastening the attainment of the proposed aim whose realization is hoped for by all mankind, the Preparatory Commission has found it possible to postpone, for an indefinite term, the discussion of the Soviet proposal for partial disarmament. The majority which adopted that decision is, apparently, of the opinion that the realization of the task of prompt, even if only partial, disarmament may wait. The majority apparently considers that humanity may wait for an indefinite period until the Preparatory Commission considers the moment propitious for the renewal of its activities which might bring about some manner or other of relief from the burden of continuous armaments. The majority obviously considers that it has the right to disregard the interests of the broad masses who are eagerly wishing for the establishment of real guarantees against the possibility of a repetition of a new slaughter which this time might possibly turn out to be still more monstrous.

Opinions expressed here compared the activity of the Preparatory Commission to that of a scholar working in his laboratory. Ironical remarks were ventured here about the non-initiated not understanding the necessity of slow progress in such scientific investigations. I consider it necessary to declare most emphatically that in the opinion of the Soviet delegation the activities aiming at a reduction of the armaments cannot be likened to the researches of an astronomer who tries to find a new star or constellation. Great as are the merits of astronomy, humanity can patiently wait for the discovery of new stars. To accept a similar slow progress in a vital problem of practical politics, such as the problem of disarmament or the reduction of armaments, would mean to ignore the essential interests of humanity and to forget about the danger which confronts it at any moment. Every month which the Commission lets go by is equivalent to the unproductive loss running into millions which the people of all countries are paying. It means the keeping of mankind for another month under the threat of war whose hurricane may wipe out not only all the activities of the Preparatory Commission, but even the Commission itself. The Soviet delegation cannot in any way assume the responsibility for this delay permitted by the Commission in the discussion of the Soviet partial disarmament proposal. It emphasizes with the utmost vigor that the responsibility for this delay, with all the possible consequences deriving therefrom, rests entirely and completely upon the majority of the Commission.

## Tchitcherin's Statement on the "Zinoviev Letter" Debate

**I**N a conversation with representatives of the press Mr. G. Tchitcherin, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, made the following statement with reference to the speech delivered by the British Prime Minister Baldwin in the House of Commons:

The British official radio and the Reuter Agency of March 19, 1928, reported the speech made by Mr. Baldwin, the British Premier, in the House of Commons, containing the reasons for which the British Government rejected the request of the Labor Party for an inquiry into the "Zinoviev letter" affair. In this connection Mr. Baldwin ventured a number of remarks about alleged statements made by Mr. Zinoviev and myself and about alleged decisions of the Soviet Government on that subject. I declare emphatically that there is not a word of truth in the statements made by Mr. Baldwin. From beginning to end they are outright inventions, deprived of any basis in fact, in addition to bearing a decidedly slanderous character and being grossly insulting to the members of our Government. But Mr. Baldwin contrived to show up the mendacity of his own statements. Among other things his speech contains the following glaring contradiction between his assertions and the generally known facts. According to the official British radio version, Mr. Baldwin said that approximately a month after the appearance of the so-called "Zinoviev letter" I allegedly notified my colleagues that the original of the letter had been destroyed and that the Soviet Government could safely insist that an investigation be made. If we turn to the documents referring to this matter, we will find that Mr. Gregory's note to which the so-called "Zinoviev letter" was appended, was delivered to Rakovsky on October 24, 1924, and that immediately after the receipt from London of Mr. Gregory's note and of its enclosure, our Government wired to Rakovsky demanding most insistently and emphatically that an impartial court of arbitration be called upon to establish the spurious character of the alleged "letter of the Communist International" of September 15. In his note of October 27, 1924, Rakovsky transmitted that proposal to the Secretary of Foreign Affairs. Where, then, does the "a month after" come in? Mr. Baldwin invented the period of one month after which the Soviet Government allegedly decided to propose an inquiry into the matter by a court of arbitration, while in fact this proposal was made by our Government immediately after we received the news that the forgery was submitted to Rakovsky.

Rakovsky's note of October 27 was not accepted by the British Government on the ground that it contained the demand to call to account the officials implicated in the fabrication of that forgery.

In his letter of November 1, Rakovsky emphasized the fact that this demand was justified in view of the tremendous moral prejudice caused by Mr. Gregory's note of October 24.

On November 28, 1924, Rakovsky, in behalf of our Government, in a note addressed to Mr. Chamberlain, expressed his utter astonishment at the fact that the British Government, having rejected the proposal for an investigation of the incriminated document by an impartial court of arbitration, without any proofs and on the basis of information which was not made public, declared that the document was genuine. In this connection Rakovsky declared that the Soviet Government was unable to accept such unproven statements and that "the Soviet Government, on its part, must insist upon its offer of arbitration as the sole means of an unbiased settlement of this question. This offer was made in its Note of October 27." Immediately afterwards, following the declaration made by the British Home Secretary in the House of Commons that the proofs of the genuineness of the "Zinoviev letter" could not be presented out of fear for the safety of the persons who turned over that document to the British Government, Rakovsky, upon instructions obtained from our Government, in a note of December 21, 1924, addressed to Mr. Chamberlain, declared that the Soviet Government was prepared to guarantee the unhindered departure of the said person from the territory of the U. S. S. R. Mr. Chamberlain found it, however, possible, in his reply merely to state that he had "nothing to add" to his previous note. At the present time the British Labor Party, on its part, proposed to the British cabinet to start an inquiry with regard to the so-called "Zinoviev letter." The British cabinet declined the proposal because the inquiry would have doubtlessly proved that the document was forged.

It would be all the more important to carry out this inquiry as in the course of the past three-and-a-half years extremely interesting data have been obtained with regard to the origin of that forgery. But the British Government is, of course, all the more afraid of an inquiry, as the proofs of the spurious character of the "letter" are growing stronger. At the time when Druzhilovsky, the manufacturer of forged documents was tried before a Soviet court, it turned out from the defendant's depositions which were embodied in the stenographic court records that he had information about how the so-called "Zinoviev letter" was made up in Berlin. His depositions shed a very bright light upon the matter. In Berlin Druzhilovsky was under the orders of the Polish Captain Paciorkowski who, according to Druzhilovsky's statement, was likewise connected with other intelligence services. In his depositions Druzhilovsky communicated many details about the fabrication of the "Zinoviev letter" by the

Russian emigres Zhemchuzhnikov, Belgardt and Gumansky who worked for Paciorkowski as well as for the British intelligence service, and Zhemchuzhnikov informed Druzhilovsky that the plan of the "Zinoviev letter" was hatched in his apartment by Belgardt and Gumansky. According to information on hand, the "Zinoviev letter" which was made up in Berlin, was delivered to London simultaneously through different channels. The extremely exact and detailed depositions made by Druzhilovsky decidedly refute the mendacious version of the British Government about the genuine character of the so-called "Zinoviev letter."

Later on, in the course of last January, at the trial of Schreck before the Supreme Court of Leipzig, the well-known pacifist Mertens declared under oath that an English publicist living in Geneva, informed him that the so-called "Zinoviev letter" was fabricated by the Polish agent Paciorkowski who worked in close collaboration with the defendant, Schreck. If this matter were inquired into, other proofs might be presented to the effect that the forgery, called the "Zinoviev letter," originated exactly in the afore-mentioned place. But the British cabinet is stubbornly rejecting all demands for such an inquiry. Incidentally, even the well-established English newspaper "Manchester Guardian," in its issue of May 23, 1927, with certain reservations, but quite transparently, pointed out the fact that this forgery, like other forged documents, was made up in Berlin. And the paper added: "There are grounds to assume that this letter originated from Polish sources in Berlin." To this actual origin of the forged document Mr. Baldwin opposes the version that Mr. Im Thurn, a "gentleman from the City," had received it from "a gentleman who is in close touch with the Communists." A bright light upon the position of that other "gentleman" is shed by the fact that to that "gentleman" Zinoviev is known under the name of "Apfelbaum." As a matter of fact, Apfelbaum is not the real name of Zinoviev; under this name he was known to the secret service agents of various countries. At present everybody knows that his real name is Radomyslsky. Thus, the above "gentleman" doubtless showed himself up as a member of the secret service.

The British Government is in an unenviable position and consciously opposes the establishment of the truth which is unwelcome to it. It employs methods which at the religious trials of the past were applied by the Jesuits who were always ready to bring forward the most terrible but entirely unproven accusations against those whom they wanted to destroy. The Jesuits demanded that their words should be taken for granted. But if from the start one is obliged to believe every assertion without any proofs; if it is considered admissible to arbitrarily slander anybody in whatever manner one pleases, then any possibility of good relations with such Jesuits is precluded.



## French Claims to Soviet Gold

**F**RENCH claims to Soviet gold shipped to the U. S. A. by the State Bank of the U. S. S. R. were the subject of a note addressed on April 7, 1928, to the French Foreign Office by Mr. V. S. Dovgalevsky, Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in France. According to the Moscow "Izvestia" of April 8, 1928, the Note stated that on March 24 the Plenipotentiary Representation of the U. S. S. R. addressed a note to the French Foreign Office concerning a claim presented by the Banque de France to a shipment of gold imported into the U. S. A. by the State Bank of the U. S. S. R. In the note of March 24, it was pointed out that the French Ambassador in Moscow denied both the fact that M. Claudel, French Ambassador in the United States, had presented a note to the State Department of the United States, upholding the claims of the Banque de France to the gold of the State Bank of the U. S. S. R., and the fact that the Banque de France had filed a claim with the American courts to that effect; the French Ambassador in Moscow told Mr. Tchitcherin, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, that it was only a matter of ascertaining whether the decision of 1920 as to the non-admission of Soviet gold to the United States was still in force; on the other hand the U. S. A. State Department had confirmed to newspaper correspondents in Washington that on March 6 it received a note from M. Claudel, the French Ambassador in the U. S. A., notifying it of France's special title to the gold of the State Bank and informing it of the claim to that gold filed by the Banque de France.

In the note of March 24, reference was made to the report of the Washington correspondent of the Havas Agency to the effect that "The State Department declared that on Tuesday, March 6, it received a note from the French Ambassador in the U. S. A., stating that, in the Russian State Bank in Petrograd, France owned a deposit amounting to 52,000,000 francs, which it was unable to obtain; and that therefore, France had special claims to the gold which is held by the Soviets. The Ambassador further pointed out in his note that the Banque de France would start court proceedings. For this reason the Ambassador addressed to the American Government the inquiry whether its ruling prohibiting the Assay Office to accept Russian gold still remained in force."

In view of the above, the Plenipotentiary Representation of the U. S. S. R., in its note of March 24, asked the French Foreign Office for information as to whether the report about M. Claudel's note to the U. S. A. Government and about the claim of the Banque de France was correct, and if so, that the Plenipotentiary Representation be apprised of the exact contents of that note. Al-

though the French Foreign Office promised to answer the Soviet note of March 24, in a few days, it failed to do so. In his second note, as of April 7, the Plenipotentiary Representative of the U. S. S. R. reminded the French Foreign Office of the above facts, asking it for a speedy reply.

## Soviet-German Relations

**O**N March 15, 1928, Mr. Tchitcherin, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U.S.S.R., had a conversation with the German Ambassador in Moscow about the Soviet-German economic negotiations in Berlin. On this occasion Mr. Tchitcherin pointed out that the Berlin negotiations were started in November, prior to the Government crisis, upon the direct initiative of the German Government, with a view to a further improvement of the economic relations between the U. S. S. R. and Germany, and to an extension of trade between the two countries.

The Soviet Government concurred in the wishes of the German Government.

However, the Government crisis in Germany, which coincided with the negotiations, apparently stood in the way of their further development. During the negotiations this circumstance was reflected in the pages of the German press. A few days ago the German spheres availing themselves of the arrest of a few German engineers who were accused of participation in economic counter-revolution, suspended the Berlin negotiations. By doing so they assumed the responsibility for the consequences of that suspension.

It is obvious that the arrest of a few German engineers is not a convincing reason for the suspension of negotiations.

The persons in question were arrested upon orders given by the Soviet judicial authorities in strict compliance with the Soviet laws which apply alike to all persons sojourning in the U. S. S. R. All attempts to exert pressure upon Soviet courts are in advance bound to fail.

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# SOVIET UNION REVIEW

Fifteen Cents

June, 1928

Vol. VI. No. 6

## Concession Possibilities in the Soviet Union Ten Years of Soviet Foreign Trade Monopoly The Central Book Chamber Geographical Exploration of the U. S. S. R. National Autonomy in the U. S. S. R. Foreign Relations of the Soviet Union

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## Concession Possibilities in the Soviet Union

THE groundwork of the concession plan of the Soviet Union in the industrial field has recently been completed by the Soviet Government. It is entirely in accord with the five-year development plan of the entire national economy of the Soviet Union, which provides for the organization of new enterprises with a view to the greatest needs of the country's economic life.

The metal industry occupies the first place among the industries in which, in accordance with the plan, the Soviet Government is willing to grant concessions to foreign capitalists. This is easily understood if it is taken into consideration that the industrialization of the U. S. S. R. constitutes the fundamental task of the Soviet economic and planning bodies. The fundamental idea underlying the plans covering the metal industries, was that foreign capital should not own more than 15 per cent of the pig iron smelting industry, and not more than 15 per cent of the various branches of the further industrial processes concerned with the working up of pig iron.

The following are the main concession objects which it is intended to lease to foreign capital: A smelting plant in the Krivoi Rog region in the Ukraine, with an output of over 900,000 metric tons of pig iron, and a smelting plant in the Kuznetz Basin, southwestern Siberia, with an output of upwards of 700,000 metric tons of pig iron. In addition, a number of other concession objects in the steel industry are being contemplated.

In the course of the last few years Soviet industry has achieved great successes in the field of machine building. A number of plants are now in the process of construction, the necessary resources being supplied by the country itself. For this reason it has been considered expedient in most of these cases not to resort to concessions, but to conclude technical service agreements. The concession plan includes only those items whose construction and organization has not been started as yet, due to the lack of resources and of technical experience. They include: The construction of a plant for the manufacture of all kinds of lathes, the cost to amount to from 20 to 25 million rubles; a plant for the turning out of all kinds of printing machines; plants for the manufacture of railway cars, tractors and automobiles; steam boilers, tools, etc. It is pointed out in the plan that it would be extremely desirable to attract foreign capital and technique for the organization of typewriter and watch manufacturing plants.

In the field of non-ferrous metals foreign capital could be applied almost exclusively for the prospecting of recently discovered deposits which have not been explored sufficiently. This category includes the Zangezur copper deposits in the Caucasus, the copper deposits in the Minusinsk region in Western Siberia, the lead and zinc deposits in the Nerchinsk region (Eastern Siberia), etc.

The mining concession openings are directly bound up with the concessions in the metal industry. Concessions in this field will be granted only in conjunction with concessions for the organization of large smelting plants. This refers in the first place to coal concessions, to iron ore concessions, etc. With regard to straight iron ore and coal mining concessions, two or three items might be considered whose exploitation is of particular interest from the point of view of export. In this connection the Dashkesan magnetic iron ores in the Caucasus, and the iron ore mines in the Far East might be mentioned.

The largest concession openings in the gold industry are the Berezhov mines in the Ural region, as well as deposits in Western Siberia and in the Far East.

With regard to oil, no concessions are contemplated in the Baku and Grozny fields. There are, however, openings in a number of oil fields which, so far, have been prospected and investigated but very little. The largest opening is offered by the Ural-Emba fields which—given an investment of from 12 to 15 million dollars—could produce about 500,000 metric tons of oil annually. Other oil concession openings, offered in the Transcaspiian region, in Transcaucasia, etc., are in the nature of prospecting concessions.

The mining concession openings include likewise graphite deposits in the Turukhansk region, northwestern Siberia, as well as phosphorite, tungsten, asbestos and potash deposits.

In the electrical industry the openings for foreign capital are very limited. In the course of the last few years the Soviet electrical industry has achieved great success not only with regard to the volume of its output but also as far as technical progress is concerned. For this reason only a few plants are considered for outright concessions—mainly in the less important branches of the electrical industry, while in general the Soviet Union will restrict itself in this industry to the conclusion of technical service agreements. How-

ever, foreign capital might find its application in financing the imports of electrical supplies. In this connection the Cheliabinsk, Kutais (Rion River), and Svira River electric plants might be mentioned.

The concession possibilities in the field of the timber resources of the U. S. S. R. and in the cellulose and paper industry are vast. The concession plan for the timber industry comprises nineteen openings in Northern Russia including the White Sea region, in the Far East and in Transcaucasia. The concession enterprises in this field would have to undertake not only an efficient exploitation of the sources of raw material but their further working as well. In the cellulose and paper industry the construction of a number of large plants is contemplated. The first place among these enterprises is to be held by the Archangel cellulose and pulp plant with an output of about 100,000 metric tons of cellulose annually; it is to be followed by similar enterprises in the Kotlas and the Mezen regions in Northern Russia.

Concessions in the building materials industry, viz., the cement and the silicates industries, are likewise contemplated. Concessions will likewise be granted in the textile industry (production of artificial silk), as well as in the leather, sugar, canning, and other industries. The concession plan for the chemical industry is being worked out separately.

Thus the door has been opened wide for foreign capital to participate in the economic development of the U. S. S. R. It is understood that nobody expects a complete carrying out of the concession plan which is intended only to serve as a list of the concession openings out of which foreign concerns may select whatever they prefer. It is possible that in the process of carrying out the plan, various offers to foreign concessionaires in some branches will be withdrawn due to changed circumstances.

The plan has not been worked out completely as yet; however, it may be safely stated that it marks a great achievement in the planning activities for the economic life of the Soviet Union.

#### **The Situation of the Concession Enterprises in the U. S. S. R.**

On October 1, 1927, the balance sheets of seventeen manufacturing concession enterprises were submitted to the Chief Concessions Committee. The capital invested in these enterprises amounted to 13,484,000 rubles (\$6,944,000), the fixed capital aggregating 6,213,000 rubles and the circulating capital 7,271,000 rubles. The total annual turnover of these enterprises reached 28,434,000 rubles (\$14,643,000), and their net profits 4,752,000 rubles. Thus the average profitableness of the investments was 76.5 per cent with regard to the fixed capital, and 35.2 per cent with regard to the total capital.

Not one of the above-mentioned seventeen enterprises worked at a loss, and the minimum profit rate with regard to the total capital (fixed and circulating capital) was 12 per cent.

All agreements for these concessions were concluded in 1925.

In the mining and smelting concessions the larger investments of fixed capital require a longer period of development for ascertaining economic results. The Lena Goldfields concession, which is the most important one of this kind, produced 9,300 kilograms of gold in 1926-27. Of this amount 2,413,000 rubles' worth was exported abroad. Its output for 1926-27 aggregated 17,000,000 rubles (over \$8,700,000). During the first two years the Lena Goldfields Company invested half of the capital agreed upon in the contract.

The Tetiukhe Company, which mines lead and zinc in the Russian Far East, exported over 54,000 metric tons in 1926-27, and is actually taking steps towards further development of the industry beyond the stipulations of the contract.

The Harriman Georgian Manganese concession sold 14,000,000 rubles' worth of manganese in 1926-27.

The Japanese concessions are developing favorably, especially the Sakhalin oil concessions. Last year the Kita-Kara-Futo-Seki Concession in Sakhalin produced 70,000 metric tons of oil and expects to produce 150,000 metric tons in the course of the present fiscal year.

In the recent reports to their shareholders the representatives of "Lena Goldfields," "Tetiukhe Mining" and other concessionary enterprises, emphasized the fact that the attitude of the Soviet Government has been invariably favorable and that normal conditions for the development of concession enterprises prevailed.

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# Ten Years of Soviet Foreign Trade Monopoly

**I**N a statement made to a representative of the Soviet press on occasion of the tenth anniversary of the foreign trade monopoly which was established on April 22, 1918, Mr. A. I. Mikoyan, People's Commissar for Foreign and Domestic Trade of the U. S. S. R., said, among other things:

"One of the main points which it is necessary to emphasize, is the great discrepancy between the growth of the country's exports as well as the imports depending upon them, and the progress of development of the entire national economy. While the entire economic life of the country has surpassed the pre-war level, the exports have reached only 43 per cent of their pre-war volume. This phenomenon has been called forth by the growth of industrial and personal consumption which occurred as a result of the November Revolution.

"Insofar as in the pre-war exports grain occupied one-half of the total, this sharp discrepancy between present and pre-war exports is chiefly connected with the fact that the country's grain production has not been reestablished as yet, while the domestic consumption of grain has increased.

"If, according to approximate estimates, the pre-war exports from the present territory of the U. S. S. R. are set at about 1,300,000,000 pre-war rubles (about \$670,000,000), the figures below may give a picture of the development of the foreign trade turnover in the past few years.

## *Foreign Trade of U. S. S. R. in Thousands of Rubles*

Year	Exports from U. S. S. R.		Imports to U. S. S. R.	
	Pre-war Prices	Present Prices	Pre-war Prices	Present Prices
1920 .....	1,397	.....	28,469	.....
1921 .....	20,195	.....	208,325	.....
1922 .....	81,621	.....	269,777	.....
1923 .....	205,818	.....	144,056	.....
1923-24 .....	369,188	522,635	233,532	439,372
1924-25 .....	365,169	558,632	415,509	723,501
1925-26 .....	470,648	676,620	465,153	756,332
1926-27 .....	558,611	770,543	497,434	712,691

"The extension of its exports is now one of the most important tasks of the country in spite of the fact that in a number of items, such as petroleum and furs, it has passed beyond the pre-war level a long time ago. In a number of other items the pre-war level has practically been reached.

"Due to a sharp reduction of the grain and flax exports, the foreign trade turnover is still insufficient. However, the wide constructing activity in all branches of Soviet economy, the carrying out of the industrialization program, is, in its initial stages, connected with a slowing up of the development of exports and with a growth of the import requirements. But as soon as the results of

the industrialization activities and of the restoration of agriculture will begin to show, the country will obtain new export resources."

## Trade Agreements with Other Countries

Commercial relations based upon trade agreements between the Soviet Republics and other countries, were inaugurated with the Brest-Litovsk Treaty which included stipulations referring to commercial policy. However, it is well-known that that treaty was not applied in practice.

In 1918 a commercial treaty was concluded with Sweden. It was connected with special transactions and was quite different from the usual commercial treaties.

Beginning with 1920, after the period of intervention and blockade had come to an end, the Soviet Union inaugurated the policy of normal trade agreements included in treaties of peace and friendship.

In the course of 1920 peace treaties, including trade agreements, were concluded with Esthonia, Lithuania, Latvia and Finland.

In 1921 trade agreements of a similar type were concluded with Persia, Afghanistan, Turkey and Poland. Moreover, the Ukrainian Socialist Soviet Republic concluded trade agreements with Latvia and Esthonia, the Transcaucasian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic concluded a trade agreement with Turkey, and the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic concluded a trade agreement with Mongolia. At the same time, temporary trade agreements were concluded in 1921 with Great Britain, Germany, Norway, Austria and Italy.

The following agreements were signed in 1922: A trade agreement between the Ukrainian Socialist Soviet Republic and Turkey; a preliminary trade agreement between Sweden and the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic, and between Lithuania and the Ukraine; the Rappalo Treaty between Germany and the R. S. F. S. R.; the Genoa agreement with Italy; a temporary treaty with Czecho-Slovakia; a trade agreement with Canada, and a number of lesser treaties regulating Soviet trade with Finland and other countries.

In 1924 an agreement was concluded with Germany concerning the extension of the Rappalo Treaty to the other constituent republics of the Soviet Union; temporary trade agreements with Denmark and other countries were likewise signed.

The following agreements and conventions were concluded in 1924: A commercial treaty and customs convention with Italy; a trade agreement

with Sweden; the Peking agreement with China, regulating also the commercial relations with that country; a commercial treaty with Persia; a consular convention with Poland; a protocol about the extra-territoriality of the Soviet Trade Delegation in Germany; a commercial treaty with England which, after the downfall of the Labor Government in England, was not submitted to Parliament and thus did not obtain legal force.

The following treaties and conventions were concluded in 1925: A convention with Japan concerning the fundamental principles governing the mutual economic relations; a commercial treaty with Germany; a trade and navigation treaty with Norway.

In 1926 a customs convention with Greece was signed.

In 1927 commercial treaties with Turkey and Latvia were signed; an exchange of notes took place between the U. S. S. R. and Iceland concerning the mutual granting of the-most-favored-nation privileges; a trade agreement with Persia was signed, and finally an agreement concerning the status of the Soviet Trade Delegation in Sweden.

Thus the Soviet Government has at present commercial treaties with five countries, trade agreements with sixteen countries, while with the other countries, such as Holland, Belgium, Egypt, Australia, the United States, etc., trade is being carried on without being based upon any special trade agreements.

#### **The Soviet Union's Trade for the Last Ten Years According to Countries**

The foreign trade of the Soviet Union which in 1920 began with small export and import operations with three or four countries, embraces at present over thirty countries on all continents. Among these countries Germany, Great Britain, the United States, Persia, France, Italy and Latvia stand out as having the largest trade turnover with the U. S. S. R.

Trade with Germany which, in 1920, was started with 5,600,000 rubles (\$2,880,000) worth of imports into Soviet Russia, had risen to 330,700,000 rubles (\$170,000,000) for the fiscal year 1926-27, beginning October 1, 1926. Altogether since 1920 the Soviet foreign trade turnover with Germany aggregated 1,195,900,000 rubles (\$616,000,000). In this amount, as well as in all the other amounts, the turnover from 1920 up to 1923-24 inclusive, is calculated according to pre-war prices, while for the subsequent years it is calculated according to present prices. Out of this amount, 512,300,000 rubles fall to the share of exports to Germany and 683,600,000 rubles to imports from that country, giving an adverse balance amounting to 171,300,000 rubles (\$88,200,000).

The Soviet trade turnover with Great Britain, for the entire period of the Soviet Union's trade with that country, aggregated 1,260,100,000 rubles (\$649,000,000) out of which 715,700,000 rubles fell to the share of exports from the U. S. S. R. and 544,400,000 rubles to the share of imports, constituting a favorable trade balance of 171,300,000 rubles (\$88,200,000).

Third place with regard to trade turnover with the U. S. S. R. is occupied by the United States of America, the total trade with which, for the period mentioned, amounted to 709,200,000 rubles (\$365,200,000), with 90,000,000 rubles falling to the share of exports from, and 619,200,000 rubles to imports to the U. S. S. R. The adverse trade balance amounted to 529,200,000 rubles (\$272,500,000).

Next comes Latvia in whose turnover with the U. S. S. R. are included the goods which that country re-exports to other countries. The total trade turnover with Latvia amounted to 290,700,000 rubles (\$149,700,000).

After Latvia comes Persia with 290,500,000 rubles (\$149,600,000), Soviet exports amounting to 126,900,000 rubles and imports to 163,600,000 rubles, giving an adverse trade balance of 36,700,000 rubles (\$18,900,000).

France occupies the sixth place, trade relations with that country having begun much later than with the other countries. The trade turnover with France for the entire period in question amounted to 200,300,000 rubles (\$103,000,000). Next comes Holland, which imports a considerable quantity of Soviet agricultural products. The trade turnover with that country amounted to 156,300,000 rubles (\$80,500,000).

Next comes Italy with 146,800,000 rubles (\$75,600,000); Esthonia with 121,900,000 rubles (\$62,800,000); Finland with 116,000,000 rubles (\$59,700,000); Turkey with 115,300,000 rubles (\$59,380,000); Sweden with 114,400,000 rubles (\$58,800,000); China with 90,100,000 rubles (\$46,400,000); Egypt with 87,600,000 rubles (\$45,100,000), Soviet trade with that country having started only in 1923-24; Poland with 88,400,000 rubles (\$45,500,000); Belgium with 72,800,000 rubles (\$37,500,000); Austria with 70,000,000 rubles (\$36,000,000); Denmark with 68,500,000 rubles (\$35,200,000); Norway with 68,500,000 rubles (\$35,200,000); Czecho-Slovakia with 61,800,000 rubles (\$31,800,000); Japan with 61,100,000 rubles (\$31,400,000); Mongolia with 29,500,000 rubles (\$15,200,000); Greece with 20,600,000 rubles (\$10,610,000); and Afghanistan with 16,900,000 rubles (\$8,700,000). The trade turnover with all the other countries for the entire period amounted to 279,900,000 rubles (\$144,100,000).

After seven years of actual Soviet foreign trade relations taking place at first amidst a complete disorganization of the national economic life, then under famine conditions, and finally under condi-

tions of a rapid growth and reconstruction of national economy, the total foreign trade figure shows an adverse trade balance of only 413,900,000 rubles (\$213,160,000).

#### Foreign Trade of the U. S. S. R. for First Half of 1927-28

The total turnover of the foreign trade of the Soviet Union across the European frontier for the first six months of the current fiscal year, beginning October 1, 1927, and for the first four months across the Asiatic frontier, amounted to 736,400,000 rubles (\$379,200,000), as against 764,900,000 rubles for the same period of the preceding year. Exports amounted to 341,000,000 rubles (\$175,600,000) and imports to 395,400,000 rubles (\$203,600,000), giving an adverse balance of 54,400,000 rubles (\$28,000,000). The total foreign trade turnover of the Soviet Union across the European frontier only, for the first six months of the current fiscal year, amounted to 653,600,000 rubles, as against 619,000,000 rubles for the same period of the preceding year, exports amounting to 300,300,000 rubles and imports to 350,300,000 rubles.

#### Cultural Progress in the U. S. S. R.

**C**ULTURAL progress is making much headway among the masses in the U. S. S. R., the Government and the public organizations devoting much attention to constructive work in this field.

The great number of teachers may be quoted as an instance of that progress. According to the census of 1911, there were 100,700 elementary schools in the former Russian Empire (exclusive of Finland). Their teaching staff included 153,000 teachers and 78,000 clergymen. At the present time the U. S. S. R. (which does not include Poland and other border states formerly belonging to the Tsarist Empire), maintains 108,000 elementary schools with 275,000 teachers. Thus, in the field of elementary education alone the Soviet Union has greatly surpassed Tsarist Russia.

#### Half a Billion Letters

The increased mail turnover is likewise an eloquent evidence of the cultural progress of the country. The achievements in this field have been considerable since the Revolution. The use of the mails has come within the reach of the broadest masses of the population. On the entire territory of the Soviet Union the Postal Department delivered in 1927 about half a billion ordinary letters and postal cards, which is 17 per cent above the figure for 1926. During the same period about 600,000,000 copies of periodical publications (10 per cent more than in 1926), and over 16,000,000 tons of newspapers were delivered. In the course of that year the Moscow Post Office alone handled

81,000,000 letters, over 300,000,000 copies of periodical publications and over 13,000,000 tons of newspapers.

On an average there are annually 12 pieces of mail matter per each inhabitant of the U. S. S. R. The increasing postal traffic vouchsafes a rapid growth in the future.

#### Thousands of Self-Taught Persons

Cultural progress is being greatly encouraged in the U. S. S. R. by the trade union activities for the organization of self-education among the working masses. The workers are becoming conscious of the fact that a raised cultural level is needed for their active participation in the constructive work of the Soviet State. In spite of the continuous extension of the general educational courses, the latter no longer satisfy the requirements which are growing at a more rapid pace.

This explains the tremendous growth of all kinds of self-educational activities, in particular the correspondence courses, which has been noticed last year. In Moscow alone not less than fifteen various educational correspondence courses have been opened.

A number of trade union papers include sections concerned with self-education, in which courses of various educational subjects are being printed. The main subjects are civics, Russian, mathematics and economic geography. In the mining districts elementary information on the mining industry is likewise included.

The same tendency is noticed in the provincial localities as well. Thus, in the course of the past year about 1,500 persons were engaged in self-educational activities in the Briansk Province. In the Nizhni-Novgorod Province the trade unions organized 260 circles for self-education. According to approximate data, the number of persons engaged in these studies in that province amounts to 8,000.

The secondary schools in the Ivanovo-Voznesensk Province (Central Russia) organized special bureaus of consultation which are being daily called upon for advice by not less than twenty persons engaged in self-educational activities.

Similar data are available with regard to the other provinces. All this testifies to the tremendous cultural progress of the country and to the gigantic activity of the Soviet Government in its endeavor to make culture accessible to the masses.

#### Expenditures for Education and Social Welfare in the U. S. S. R.

Neither the federal nor the local budget of the Soviet Union are growing at such a rate as the budget for cultural needs and social welfare. In 1923-24 the federal and local budget expenditures for cultural needs and public welfare together

with the expenditures for social insurance, amounted to about 646,000,000 rubles (\$333,000,000); for the subsequent year they rose to 996,000,000 rubles (\$513,000,000); in 1925-26 they amounted to 1,446,000,000 rubles (\$745,000,000); for the past fiscal year (1926-27), they amounted to 1,805,000,000 rubles (\$929,000,000), and during the present fiscal year to 2,070,000,000 rubles (\$1,066,000,000). Thus, in the course of the last four years the expenditures for education and social welfare have grown more than threefold. Expressed in pre-war rubles and compared with the corresponding expenditures for 1913, the expenditures for the current fiscal year have grown over 150 per cent.

The increase of the expenditures for education and social welfare was accompanied by the growth of their relative share in the sum total of expenditures. In 1913 their relative share constituted 14 per cent; during the present year it has reached 25 per cent. On the other hand the relative share of the expenditures for national defense has decreased from 23 per cent in 1913 to 9.9 per cent for the current year.

The expenditures for education and social welfare were distributed as follows:

*Expenditures for Cultural Needs and Social Welfare  
in Millions of Rubles*

	1926-27	1927-28
Education, Science and Arts .....	646	790
Protection of Health .....	503	533
Protection of Labor and Social Insurance .....	578	677
Management of Cultural and Public Welfare Activities .....	78	70
	<u>1,805</u>	<u>2,070</u>

Thus, the first place in the group of expenditures for cultural purposes and for social welfare is occupied by public education which shows the greatest increase (over 22 per cent) as compared with the expenditures for health protection, protection of labor and social insurance. It is to be noted that the administrative expenditures connected with the educational and public welfare activities have been reduced in spite of the extension of the number of the educational and public welfare institutions.

**PUBLICATIONS OF THE SOVIET UNION INFORMATION  
BUREAU**

The Agrarian Revolution in Russia.....	25c
The Financial Policies of Russia.....	25c
New Constitution of the Soviet Union.....	15c
Patent Law of the U. S. S. R.....	15c
Commercial Handbook of the Soviet Union..	30c

## Geographical Exploration of the U. S. S. R.

**T**HE Soviet Union embraces a continuous territory that is larger than that of any empire that ever existed. It covers a distance of about 9,000 kilometers. At the same time the country shows the greatest variety with regard to climatic, topographical, ethnographical, and other conditions. Exploratory work offers great difficulties, as enormous distances must be covered. For this reason even now the territory of the Soviet Union has not been explored in its entirety.

At the present time, in view of the preparations for further industrial development and of the changed policy with regard to the nationalities inhabiting the Soviet Union, scientific geographical investigations have become a matter of great importance. In the course of the last ten years Soviet science has achieved very much in this direction.

First of all there is the rich cartographical material prepared by scholars, which has partly been published. The study of the geological structure of the Soviet Union is being conducted by the Geological Committee on an exceedingly vast and comprehensive scale. The activities of the Bureau for the Recording of Useful Minerals are in full swing. Of great geographical and practical interest are the activities of the expedition of the Academician A. E. Fersman who explored the Khibin Mountains on the Kola Peninsula, representing the highest elevation in the European part of the Soviet Union. They were practically unknown prior to the Revolution. The geological exploration of Karelia was carried on successfully by Professor V. N. Timofeyev. The Institute for Geographico-Economic Investigations is engaged in the exploration of the Northern Ural which was practically unknown up to the present. The expedition engaged in the study of the Kara Kum desert in Turkestan has achieved important geographical results.

The seismological investigations are centered in the Steklov Physico - Mathematical Institute attached to the Academy of Sciences and are being conducted under the direction of Professor P. M. Nikiforov. The number of seismological stations covering the country is increasing rapidly.

Vast investigations are being conducted in the field of soil science with particular emphasis upon the chemical aspects of the studies. A Soil Science Institute and Museum have been founded and are connected with the Academy of Sciences. An All-Union Conference on Soil Investigation was called in 1926 and preparations were made for the First International Soil Science Congress held in the United States. The next congress is to be held in the Soviet Union.

Hydrological investigations have grown to a vast extent and are being carried on by a special



Hydrological Institute in Leningrad with branches in the various provincial centers of the Soviet Union. Extensive activities have been carried on for the study of the hydrological conditions of the Olonez province, of the Volga River, of the seas, etc. The first Hydrological Conference of the Soviet Union held in 1924, adopted a plan of dividing northern Eurasia into various regions, according to hydrological characteristics. Soviet hydrologists took part in the International Pacific Congress.

The activities of the Main Botanical Garden are being carried on successfully. Professor N. I. Kuznetsov has drawn up a geobotanical map of the Russian plain. Investigations of the flora of the Central Asiatic plains are being conducted. The origin of the various grain species is a subject of serious studies, and expeditions beyond the boundaries of the Soviet Union have been organized for this purpose. The Russian Entomological Society is carrying on a vigorous activity in the field of zoogeography.

The Russian Geographical Society is conducting exploration work on a very large scale. The Society comprises a number of institutes, commissions and museums; it organizes expeditions of great importance, such as the famous Mongolian expedition of Professor Kozlov. With the participation of the Academy of Sciences, the Society has been engaged, in the course of the last few years, in vast geographical explorations of some of the constituent Soviet republics and neighboring countries.

The most typical and valuable sections of primitive nature are being protected systematically. A number of biological, mineralogical, archaeological and other national parks have been created.

Extensive work of drawing up ethnographical maps is being carried on by the Commission for the Investigation of the Racial Composition of the Soviet Union, attached to the Academy of Sciences.

Local geographical and anthropological investigations are to a considerable extent concerned with the life of the rural population. A number of works have lately been written on that subject.

The Soviet scholars are showing great interest in the past history of mass migrations in Europe and Asia, as well as in the history of mass colonization and invasion within the boundaries of the U. S. S. R. A book by E. E. Svyatlovsky on the "Economics of War" presenting the geographical aspects of the corresponding problems has attracted much attention.

Particular care was devoted to the geographical and ethnographical museums. At a conference held in 1919, in which all museums participated, the foundations were laid for the Central Geographical Museum, the only one of its kind. It is headed by Professor Semionov-Tian-Shansky. At the present time the museum has grown to considerable dimensions and is in possession of very

rich collections and appliances for scientific investigations.

The number of provincial geographical museums and of geographical divisions of regional museums is 640—several times the number that existed prior to the Revolution.

The vast activities along the lines of local geographical investigation have brought to the fore the necessity of training local scientific workers in this field. The Geographical Faculty of the Leningrad University and the Ukrainian Geographical Institute in Kharkov are turning out the necessary scientific forces.

## The Central Book Chamber

THE Central Book Chamber of Soviet Russia is the country's bibliographical center which records all the publications issued in Russia.

The completeness of the registration is safeguarded by the fact that, in accordance with the law, all the printing establishments of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic are obliged to supply the Book Chamber with a certain number of copies of each item of printed matter, including even posters and folders.

The bibliographical weekly "Knizhnaya Letopis" ("Book Chronicle") published by the Central Book Chamber gives full bibliographical details of every book and pamphlet received. Every issue lists all books and pamphlets published during the preceding week. The decimal classification system of the International Bibliographical Institute at Brussels is used in recording the books.

The periodicals of Soviet Russia proper are dealt with by "Zhurnalnaya Letopis" ("Chronicle of Periodicals") of the Central State Book Chamber, which appears quarterly. "Zhurnalnaya Letopis" contains not only a full record of all periodical publications issued in the R. S. F. S. R. (Soviet Russia proper), but also a full list of the articles printed therein. The articles are recorded in accordance with scientific bibliographical methods. About 300 periodicals are being recorded in this manner.

The publications issued in Soviet Russia are subjected by the Book Chamber to a minute statistical digest, and as a result, statistical resumes, diagrams and explanatory articles are being printed every year on the pages of the "Year Book of the Book Chamber," or form part of other compilations on the subject.

The Archives of the Book Chamber contain one copy of each publication issued since 1920 within the boundaries of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (books, pamphlets, magazines, music, newspapers, maps, posters, folders, etc.) and represent the only complete collection for that period.

The Book Chamber keeps in its archives one copy of each item of printed matter delivered to it and sends the other copies (32 copies of each

book and pamphlet) to the book depositories of the Soviet Union; these include libraries situated in the capitals of the Constituent and Autonomous Republics, as well as in the largest provincial, university and industrial centers. The fact that all Soviet publications are available in those libraries is of great importance to the local scientific and cultural establishments, as well as to individual scholars.

Moreover, the Book Chamber supplies the largest scientific libraries with all kinds of books by carrying on an international exchange of books. The Book Chamber is in regular communication with foreign institutions and organizations with a view to extending the exchange of publications. For the purpose of book exchange it has at its disposal a special exchange fund containing a certain number of copies of all Soviet publications printed recently and in the course of the past years, as well as duplicate copies of old books owned by the largest libraries of the R. S. F. S. R. (Soviet Russia proper).

For this reason the Book Chamber is in a position to fill orders for practically any Russian book desired by foreign institutions maintaining connections with the Chamber. With the help of the Book Chamber a great number of foreign institutions were enabled to fill the gaps in their Russian collections, occasioned by the years of war and revolution. By means of book exchange the Bibliographical Library of the Book Chamber is in a position to obtain the current bibliographical publications of most of the European and American countries.

The Bibliographical Library of the Book Chamber was made up of a number of bibliographical collections of various individuals, and is one of the most valuable libraries of its kind. It includes well nigh all bibliographical publications in the Russian language as well as the most important ones in all European languages.

During the latter part of 1926, the Book Chamber started bibliographical courses for the scientific preparation of competent bibliographical workers. Prominent specialists in the field of bibliography from Moscow and Leningrad are engaged to lecture at these courses.

## Worker - Peasant Correspondents in the Soviet Union

TOWARDS the tenth anniversary of the November Revolution, the circulation of the newspapers in the U. S. S. R. was almost four times as large as before the war, amounting to nearly 8,000,000 copies. About 75 per cent of the readers are workers and peasants.

In addition to the existing newspapers for mass circulation such as "Rabochaya Gazeta" (Workers' Gazette), "Krestyanskaya Gazeta" (Peas-

ant Gazette), etc., a new popular and low-priced newspaper "Kopeyka" (One Kopeck), is to be launched by the publishing office of "Pravda" in 1928. It is to extend its influence to the most backward elements of the working class.

Simultaneously with the growth of circulation, an increase in the number of contributors from among the workers and peasants has been noted. In many of the metropolitan newspapers thousands of letters are being received daily by the editorial office, "Pravda" receiving about 3,000, "Rabochaya Moskva" about 2,500, etc. It is understood that any one who desires to contribute to the Soviet press may do so, provided he writes on matters that are of importance. In addition, the newspapers are endeavoring to organize a staff of permanent contributors. This is of particular importance for the conduct of newspaper campaigns of various kinds. The editorial offices of the newspapers are recruiting them from among the workers and peasants. They train them, and endeavor to raise their qualifications not only as newspaper men, but also as public workers.

The workers and peasants who contribute more or less regularly to the newspapers are known in the U. S. S. R. as Worker and Peasant Correspondents (in Russian, "Rabkors" and "Selkors" respectively). The character of their activities is voluntary, correspondents being neither elected nor appointed nor in any respect restricted. No particular encouragement is held out to Communists to engage in this work. On the contrary, it is the endeavor of the Soviet press to attract the collaboration of the greatest possible number of non-party workers and peasants. This is essential in order to get the fullest and widest presentation of the aspirations and of the living and working conditions of the masses. It will also help to attract new elements to participation in Soviet constructive work.

The number of Worker and Peasant Correspondents in the Soviet Union is growing rapidly. Thus, in the course of two years their number has grown from 217,000 to nearly 400,000, including 115,607 worker correspondents, 192,768 peasant correspondents, and 73,344 army correspondents.

Not only men, but also women are active as correspondents. The proportion of such women contributing to the general daily press does not exceed 10 per cent. The percentage is, however, much higher in the special press for women, which has greatly developed in the U. S. S. R. At the present time there are 18 women's papers with a circulation of nearly 400,000 copies and more than 7,000 women correspondents.

Furthermore, there are the "Yunkors" (Juvenile Correspondents) and the "Dyetskors" (Child Correspondents) connected with the newspapers published for the growing youth and for the chil-

dren. The principal papers for the young people and the Pioneers\* are published in connection with "Pravda" and are known as "Komsomolskaya Pravda" (Communist Youth Pravda) and "Pionerskaya Pravda" (Pioneers' Pravda) so that the "Pravda" organization embraces at the present time the children, the adolescents and the grown-ups.

While encouraging the workers and peasants to collaborate in the newspapers and to join the ranks of the worker and peasant correspondents the editors are also engaged in training their correspondents. This educational activity is carried on by the various circles organized in connection with the regular newspapers and with the so-called "wall"-papers, i. e., poster-newspapers. They constitute the first practical school for these correspondents whose number grows steadily. It may safely be stated that at the present time every factory and workshop, and practically every village has its own poster-newspaper. In the City and District of Moscow alone the number of poster-newspapers is well above 1,500, while the estimate of their total number throughout the Soviet Union runs into tens of thousands. These circles handle their subjects in accordance with the principle of proceeding from the incidental to the general, from everyday facts to the general policies of the Party and of the Soviet Government. Thanks to the activity of these circles arranging lectures and discussions on current topics, the outlook of the correspondents is broadened; they gradually begin to handle the facts described by them in a more intelligent manner, connecting them with the general policy of the Government.

The chief importance of the movement of the Worker and Peasant Correspondents lies in its social aspect. It helps in ascertaining the aspirations and demands of the masses and in enlisting new public workers in all branches of Soviet construction. The place of those promoted to more important public work is taken by thousands of new peasants and workers who write to the newspapers and begin to participate in the activities of their respective industrial establishments or villages. Some of the Worker and Peasant Correspondents become regular newspaper workers choosing this work as their vocation; but so far the number of such journalists is not very large.

A special magazine "The Worker and Peasant Correspondent," as well as smaller magazines in the provinces are devoted to this movement. From time to time national and local conferences of worker and peasant correspondents are being called. There are also clubs and "Red Corners" for Worker and Peasant Correspondents. There is a fairly rich literature dealing with the subject.

The participation of the workers and peasants

\*Organization of boys and girls of from 8 to 16 years of age, corresponding to the Boy and Girl Scouts in other countries.

in the Soviet press is of particularly great importance in the conduct of the various current political campaigns. As instances of such campaigns may be mentioned the campaign for the reduction of overhead expenses, for the cutting of prices, against red tape, for placing industries on a more efficient basis, and so on. The methods adopted by the various newspapers in the conduct of these campaigns are sometimes exceedingly interesting. Not less interesting are the activities of the correspondents in fighting various abuses. Thus, recently, as a result of a communication sent to "Pravda" by a worker correspondent, a factory director was discharged for rough treatment of the workers of the enterprise of which he had charge, and the former Prosecuting Attorney of one of the constituent republics was imprisoned. Considerable results have also been achieved due to the activities of the peasant correspondents in combating all abuses of authority in the villages.

Great economies have frequently been effected in various industries as a result of practical proposals made by the workers through the press.

A new form of contact between the newspapers and the masses are the Conferences of Readers which are now being organized. At these conferences the newspapers usually present their reports, while the workers and peasants in the audience state their views on the favorable and unfavorable aspects of a given newspaper and advance their proposals and suggestions.

## The Leningrad Labor Institute

THE chief task of the Labor Institute of the Trade Union Council of Leningrad Province is the training of skilled workers and the organization of labor. A six months' attendance at the Institute suffices for unskilled workers to learn the trades of locksmiths, lathe workers, foundry workers, etc.

The Institute does not overburden its students with too many subjects. There are only five of them: mathematics, the Russian language, technology, drawing and civics. They are, however, being taught very thoroughly, and the requirements are very high. A Commission of Experts is in attendance at the Institute. It is composed of representatives of the trade unions, of the labor exchanges, of the largest industrial plants and of technical specialists. All students leaving the Institute must be passed by this Commission of Experts, and the examination is very strict.

Strict, almost military discipline prevails at the Institute. Beginning with the moment he enters the Institute up to the last minute of the school-day, which lasts six hours, the entire time of the student is strictly regulated and distributed. Every day fifteen minutes of physical exercises before the beginning and after the conclusion of

the lessons help to develop the body in the necessary direction. There is an intermission of ten minutes after every fifty minutes of study.

A strictly regulated rhythm is being kept up during the work. First of all the student enters the special shop in which he is taught the necessary movements on special appliances serving in place of the lathe upon which he is to work later. All the movements of the student are being recorded very exactly by mechanical devices. As soon as the student has become familiar with the motions and his muscles have reached the necessary development he is given the real tools and passes on to the subsequent phases of instruction. The samples of the students' work, such as keys, nuts, etc., show a high grade of workmanship comparable in its qualities to that of experienced workers who have been practicing the trade for many years. In the course of three years the Leningrad Labor Institute turned out 1,767 skilled workers—locksmiths, lathe-workers, and metal-foundry workers. They have all been placed in various factories and are proficient workers. At the present time the Institute is preparing for the opening of a number of new sections in order to supply skilled workers to the building trades in which the demand for help is very high. In the very near future the clothing and textile sections will likewise begin to operate.

The majority of the students at the Institute are youths under 25 years of age—they constitute 91 per cent of the total. The overwhelming majority, 90 per cent, belong to the non-industrial group and are engaging in industry for the first time. Thus the Institute plays an important role in teaching the unemployed and the unskilled those trades for which there is a considerable demand at present.

Of the six months' course, half of the time is used for theoretical preparation within the Institute, while the other half is used for practical work in the factory. Theory and practice are at all times inter-connected.

## Political and Industrial Activity of Women

ON the occasion of the International Women's Day celebrated on March 8, 1928, the Soviet press published a series of items characterizing the role of women in various walks of life in the U. S. S. R.

Greater political activity of women became noticeable lately. This was particularly revealed by their participation in the Soviet elections. While in 1926, six million peasant women had taken part in the rural Soviet elections, this number increased to 6,500,000 in 1927. At the elections of 1927, 146,251 women were elected to the rural Soviets (11.3 per cent of the total number of Soviet delegates), and 22,221 women (21.5 per cent) to

the urban Soviets. At the last Soviet elections in the Eastern republics upwards of one million Eastern women took part.

The number of women employed in the industries amounts to 743,000. The numerical growth of working women is noticeable not only in those branches of industry where their labor finds its usual application, but also in other branches, such as the mining, metal and other industries.

The number of women receiving unemployment doles makes up 32 per cent of the total number of unemployed women. Moreover, in the past year special doles were granted to the amount of 130,000,000 rubles, including over 27,000,000 rubles for pregnancy doles, 45,000,000 rubles for the feeding of children, 20,000,000 for layette, etc.

The number of illiterate women has been decreasing from year to year. Between 1922 and 1926, 622,000 women have been taught to read and write. In the school year 1926-27, 37,362 women (31.31 per cent) studied in the higher educational establishments, and 45,340 women (45.01 per cent) in vocational schools.

### Women in the Communist Party and in the Communist Youth League

By October, 1927, the Communist Party of the Soviet Union numbered 145,000 women—full-fledged members and applicants on probation—constituting 12.8 per cent of the total membership of the Party. According to the data of the Party census, 46.9 per cent of the total number of Communist women are working women, 35.6 per cent office employees, 9.5 per cent peasant women, while 8 per cent belong to other groups. The number of Communist women working in factories and workshops amounts to 50,000, or 34.4 per cent of all women members of the Communist Party. The total percentage of women Party members has somewhat decreased of late—from 13.1 to 12.8 per cent.

The number of women belonging to the Communist Youth League has greatly increased in the course of the last few years. On October 1, 1927, the number of women amounted to 412,644 (or 21.6 per cent) out of a total membership of 1,912,435. This is a large increase, as compared with the number of women members on January 1, 1924, which amounted to only 63,846 (15.7 per cent), and with that of January 1, 1925, aggregating 164,036 (16.1 per cent).

On January 1, 1927, the number of peasant girls in the Communist Youth League aggregated 173,020, which is 16.4 per cent of all members recruited from the villages, as against 63,960 (12.3 per cent) on January 1, 1925.

The aggregate number of "Pioneers" (an organization of boys and girls of from 8 to 16 years, corresponding to the Boy and Girl Scouts in other countries) was 1,719,944 on July 1, 1927. Of this number 716,717 were girls (41.7 per cent), as

against 412,550 (41.3 per cent) on January 1, 1925. The industrial "Pioneer" detachments include 42.4 per cent girls, as against 35.3 per cent in the village detachments. The "Pioneer" detachments of Siberia and of the Ural region include the highest percentage of girls who constitute 50.3 and 49.3 per cent of the total, respectively.

## National Autonomy in the U.S.S.R.

**I**MMEDIATELY after the conclusion of the civil war, and to a considerable extent even while it was going on, the Soviet Government turned its attention to the organization of autonomous administrative units answering the needs and the requirements of the various nationalities.

The map of the former Russian Empire was changing continuously from year to year. One nationality after another established its own state autonomy which found its expression in the organization of autonomous republics and of autonomous areas. Thus, in 1922 there were nineteen national state formations within the present boundaries of the U. S. S. R. Of this number nine were autonomous republics and ten autonomous areas. In 1928 the number of autonomous republics and areas had increased to 30, of which 15 were autonomous republics and 15 autonomous areas.

The Soviet Union embraces six constituent republics—the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (or Soviet Russia proper), the Ukraine, White Russia, Transcaucasia, Uzbekistan (the Uzbek Republic in Central Asia) and Turkmenistan (the Turkoman Republic in Central Asia). Of these six constituent republics only two—White Russia and Turkmenistan—are not subdivided into autonomous republics and areas. Two constituent republics contain one autonomous republic each—the Uzbek Republic which includes the Tadzhik Autonomous Republic, and the Ukrainian Republic which includes the Moldavian Autonomous Republic. Two of the constituent republics, the Russian and the Transcaucasian, contain a ramified system of autonomous subdivisions organized along national lines. Soviet Russia proper includes eleven autonomous republics and thirteen autonomous areas, while the other autonomous republics and areas are incorporated in the Transcaucasian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic.

The aggregate territory of the autonomous republics and areas equals 9,024,000 square kilometers which constitutes 42.5 per cent of the entire territory of the Soviet Union. The density of the population in the autonomous republics and areas is one-third that of the U. S. S. R. as a whole, namely, 2.2 inhabitants per square kilometer, as against 6.6 inhabitants for the entire Union. Peasants engaged in agriculture and stock-breeders

constitute the bulk of the population of the autonomous republics and areas.

Simultaneously with the organization of the national autonomous units there was going on a vigorous activity aiming at the satisfaction of the needs and requirements of the national minorities dispersed among the various constituent and autonomous republics. To meet their needs local national Soviets were created, as well as local offices of the various Government Departments which transact their business in the language of the nationality inhabiting the given locality. The figures referring to this field of national constructive work show that this activity has been growing from year to year.

Thus, beginning with 1925 the number of village Soviets of the national minorities in the Ukraine has increased more than five-fold. In the White Russian Soviet Republic 37 national Soviets were organized. Of these 18 are Jewish, 11 Polish, 5 Lettish (Latvian), 2 German, and 1 Russian. In the Buryat-Mongol Autonomous Republic two districts of the native tribes have been organized. They are directly subordinated to the central authorities of the Republic. The Siberian Region (a subdivision of the R. S. F. S. R.), includes the national Khakass District, inhabited by the Khakasses (a Mongolo-Tatar tribe); the Ural Region (likewise a subdivision of the R. S. F. S. R.), includes the Komi-Permiak district inhabited by the Komi (or Zyrians) and Permiaks who are peoples of the Finnish race, etc. Everywhere, even in the most remote corners of the Soviet Union the Soviet authorities employ in their dealings with the local population the national language of the latter. Efforts are being made in those regions to entrust the offices to persons familiar with the customs and national peculiarities of the various nationalities whose languages are granted all the privileges and opportunities for further development.

The intensified cultural, educational and economic activity of the Soviet authorities in the various national areas is shown by the following figures which are most significant. In the course of the last three fiscal years (since October 1, 1924) the expenditures for agriculture in the autonomous republics of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (Soviet Russia proper), increased by 262 per cent, while in the remaining territory of Soviet Russia proper as a whole they increased only 218 per cent.

The aggregate expenditures in the non-federal Government Departments (such as Education, Public Health, Justice, Agriculture, etc.), for the entire territory of Soviet Russia proper (R. S. F. S. R.), increased 162 per cent, while those for the autonomous republics and areas increased 206 per cent. During the aforesaid three years the expenditures for Public Health in the R. S. F. S. R. increased 159 per cent, while they

increased 281 per cent in the autonomous republics and areas. The corresponding figures for Public Education were 154 and 196 per cent respectively. In the Uzbek Soviet Republic, in Central Asia expenditures for Public Education for the period embracing the past three fiscal years beginning with 1924-1925, increased 177 per cent; in the Ukrainian Soviet Republic the increase amounted to 213 per cent, etc.

Due to the assistance granted them by the Soviet authorities, the backward nationalities of the Soviet Union have obtained all the opportunities for raising their cultural level and for improving their hitherto difficult living conditions. One school after another, one hospital after another, are springing up in the national autonomous republics and areas, and the number of reading cabins, libraries and other cultural and educational establishments is increasing continuously.

## Foreign Relations of the U. S. S. R.

ON May 7, 1928, Mr. G. Tchitcherin, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, handed the following note to Mr. Patek, Polish Ambassador in Moscow:

Last year's events have revealed beyond any doubt the absence of the most elementary conditions securing the normal activity and the very safety of the sojourn of the Plenipotentiary Representative of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Warsaw. Eleven months have hardly passed since the tragical death of P. L. Voikov, Soviet Plenipotentiary Representative, when, on May 4, criminal elements perpetrated an attempt on the life of A. S. Lizarev, Trade Delegate of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Poland, which only due to accidental circumstances did not result in tragic consequences. Other circumstances which took place prior to that event have shown that the activities of criminal elements directed against the safety of the Plenipotentiary Representation of the U. S. S. R. in Poland were not suspended during the interval between the two above-mentioned events.

The denial of the organized character of all these attempts that occurred during the past year, and their representation as deeds carried out by separate eccentric or abnormal individuals who are accidentally sojourning on Polish territory, is being contradicted by the very number of these attempts, as well as by the circumstance that until last year no such deeds were committed in Poland, in spite of the fact that the very same allegedly eccentric and abnormal individuals had been living there before. The particulars of these events and the circumstances which accompanied them leave no doubt as to the systematic and organized character of the attempts upon the life of the Plenipotentiary Representative and of the

executive officers of the Representation of the U. S. S. R. in Poland.

This unprecedented situation in which, contrary to all generally recognized international customs and guaranties of international law, the Plenipotentiary Representation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Poland has found itself, had been caused not so much by the fact that the activity of the terrorist émigré organizations has increased in connection with last year's well-known events, as pointed out in the Soviet Union Government's notes of June 7 and 11, 1927, on occasion of the murder of P. L. Voikov, Soviet Plenipotentiary Representative, as by the exceptionally favorable situation for carrying out their criminal plans which these terrorist organizations have found in Poland. This situation has been created due to the fact that a great number of criminal elements from among the White émigrés have assembled in Poland, as well as due to the existence of a White émigré press which openly sympathizes with the terrorist acts directed against the Soviet Representatives, and as a result of the actual impunity enjoyed by the utterances of that press, which actually constitute an encouragement of terrorist activities.

It is well known that considerable numbers of the White émigrés are concentrated in other European states in which the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has likewise its representatives. However, not in a single of these states could the activity of the terrorist émigré organizations assume proportions similar to those attained in Poland in the course of last year. This refers also to other states bordering on the Soviet Union from the west, in spite of the fact that the terrorist organizations have been striving and are striving to use especially the neighboring states as bases for their activities against the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Evidently the measures undertaken in the other countries against the criminal elements of the Russian émigrés are more effective than is the case in Poland, in impeding the activities of the terrorist organizations which fear reprisals directed both against individuals and against émigré organizations and colonies. There is no doubt that in Poland the terrorist organizations have, for this reason, found it easier than anywhere else to obtain executors of their criminal orders. Poland has, thus, become the scene of a terrorist struggle directed against the Soviet Union by émigré organizations which are getting assistance and financial support from hidden sources interested in bringing about complications between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and other states.

In connection with the murder of P. L. Voikov, Soviet Plenipotentiary Representative, the Polish Government expelled five émigrés and published an official warning enjoining the émigrés not to abuse their right of asylum. However, all these



expelled persons have returned and are again residing in Poland. And how effective that warning was can be seen from the attempt of Traikovich and from the Valentinovich case, and particularly from the fact that the White émigré press in Poland openly glorifies the deed of Koverda.\* Some of the utterances of that press cannot be considered otherwise than as a direct instigation to the perpetration of further terrorist acts.

The above-mentioned circumstances manifestly point to the unsatisfactory character of the measures undertaken by the Polish Government against the criminal activities of the White émigrés, which are not only directed against the life of Soviet Representatives, but are deliberately and systematically endeavoring to bring about a serious conflict between the two states. However, even these insufficient measures have been actually brought to nought due to the altogether unexampled inactivity of the Polish authorities. Suffice it to point out that no steps were undertaken with regard to Yuri Wojciechowski, the person who committed the attempt of May 4, in spite of the fact that the Soviet Union Government, as was pointed out by D. V. Bogomolov, Soviet Plenipotentiary Representative, in his note of May 5, had twice warned the Polish Government concerning the criminal activities of that émigré who played an active part in the monarchist and terrorist spheres of the Russian émigrés in Poland, who was formerly the chairman of the Russian Young People's Society, and who had retired from the board of that society shortly before he committed that attempt, apparently in order to shield that society against possible reprisals in connection with the contemplated attempt.

Due to this inactivity of the Polish authorities, Soviet-Polish relations were during the past year actually at the mercy of the dark forces of the White émigrés. A band of criminals was in a position not only to threaten the lives of Soviet Union Representatives in Poland, but also to disturb Soviet-Polish relations at any time when that was necessary and convenient for the leaders of the émigrés and their patrons and protectors.

The Government of the Soviet Union believes that the Polish Government itself should have come to the conclusion that the situation created by the circumstances presented above constitutes a direct threat to the relations between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and Poland, and should, therefore, no longer be tolerated, and that serious and decisive measures should be undertaken immediately both for safeguarding real security and immunity of the Plenipotentiary Representative of the Soviet Union in Poland, and for the protection of Soviet-Polish relations against incessant disturbances.

\* The assassin of P. L. Volkov, Soviet Plenipotentiary Representative in Poland.

The Soviet Union Government therefore expects to obtain immediate information from the Polish Government as to the measures adopted by it for the decisive suppression of the terrorist activities of the White émigrés in Poland.

#### **Central Executive Committee of U. S. S. R. on Report of Soviet Delegation at Geneva**

On April 21, 1928, the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union adopted the following resolution concerning the report of Mr. M. Litvinov, Chairman of the Soviet Delegation to the Preparatory Disarmament Commission at Geneva:

"Having heard the report of Mr. M. Litvinov, Chairman of the Soviet Delegation to the Preparatory Disarmament Commission, the Central Executive Committee of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics endorses the activities of the Soviet Delegation which, while continuing to advocate the program of complete disarmament, as the only means capable of preventing the danger of armed conflicts between the various nations and expressing the fundamental principles of the peace policy of the Soviet Government—at the same time, in view of the complete impossibility of carrying out that program, due to the absolutely irreconcilable and hostile attitude assumed towards it by the overwhelming majority of the capitalist countries, submitted a partial disarmament proposal, which, though not entirely reflecting the desire of the Soviet Government to consolidate the peaceful relations between the various nations, nevertheless to a certain extent might diminish the danger of armed conflicts between the various nations and reduce the burden of armaments weighing upon the working masses.

"The Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. once more proclaims before the whole world the firm desire of the peoples of the Soviet Union for peaceful relations with all the other peoples, and the determination of the Soviet Government to exert all efforts for a complete and final elimination of war as a method of solving disputes between various states, and calls upon the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. to persevere in upholding the program of complete disarmament, without neglecting the slightest possibility of attaining positive results in this field, even if they are only partial and temporary."

*The Index to the fifth volume of the "Soviet Union Review" has been published recently. On request it will be sent free of charge to all readers of the Review.*



## Miscellaneous News

### The Death of A. D. Tsiurupa

A. D. Tsiurupa, member of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee, Vice-Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars and of the Council of Labor and Defense of the U. S. S. R., died on May 7, 1928. Born in 1870, a veteran of the revolutionary movement against the Tsarist regime, member of the Bolshevik Party from its very inception, A. D. Tsiurupa was one of the most outstanding figures in the Soviet Government, both during the civil war and during the period of reconstruction.

### Territory and Population of the U. S. S. R.

The latest census data show that the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics occupies an area of 21,352,572 square kilometers. Of this area the R. S. F. S. R. (Soviet Russia proper) occupies 19,757,953 square kilometers; the Ukraine, 451,731; the Transcaucasian Federation, 184,492; White Russia, 126,792; the Turkoman Republic, 491,216; and the Uzbek Republic 340,388 square kilometers.

Of the total population of the U. S. S. R. which is 146,964,367, 100,827,696 live in the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper); 29,018,187 in the Ukraine; 4,983,240 in White Russia; 5,861,529 in Transcaucasia; 5,272,801 in the Uzbek Republic, and 1,000,914 in the Turkoman Republic.

The number of women exceeds the number of men by nearly five millions.

According to age classes the population is divided as follows:

Age	Men	Women
0-15	29,326,000	28,971,000
16-17	3,350,000	3,691,000
18-54	32,081,000	35,455,000
55-59	1,886,000	2,318,000
60 and over	4,317,000	5,481,000
Unknown	50,000	38,000
Total	71,010,000	75,954,000

As regards the density of the population, the first place is held by the Ukraine with a density of 64.7 inhabitants per one square kilometer. Next comes White Russia with 39.3; the Transcaucasian Federation with 31.7; the Uzbek Republic with 15.2; the R. S. F. S. R. (Soviet Russia proper, including Siberia), comes fifth with 5.1, while the Turkoman Republic holds the last place with 2.1 inhabitants per one square kilometer.

### The Soviet Red Cross

The November Revolution of 1917, having abolished the Imperial Red Cross, has created an entirely new Soviet form of the Red Cross. Its basic task consists in giving medical and other assistance to the population of the Soviet Union, and in time of war in rendering help to the sick

and wounded Red Army soldiers. In some of the Eastern Republics, such as the Uzbek, the Azerbaijan, the Turkoman and other Republics, this society is called the Red Crescent. The chief feature of the Soviet Red Cross Societies is their mass character. About a million members, workers, peasants and intellectuals, are taking part in its activities. In spite of the fact that in the U. S. S. R. the work of the Red Cross is based on membership dues paid by workers and peasants who are unable to sacrifice large amounts, the budget of the Society has reached a considerable figure, occupying the second place after the American Red Cross.

The membership fees alone aggregate nine million rubles (over \$4,500,000) annually, which makes it possible to maintain about 1,500 various medical establishments, from the Wrangel Island and other places in the Arctic region down to the southernmost localities of Armenia and Azerbaijan. The Soviet Red Cross caters to the needs of all the remote backward nationalities. It has organized in the villages a great number of day nurseries and hospitals and has been doing work for the health protection of children. Alongside with its peace-time activities, the Red Cross is vigorously preparing for the help to be rendered to the population and to the Red Army soldiers in the case of a military aggression directed against the U. S. S. R. Everywhere first-aid circles are being organized, teaching the young people and the women how to give assistance to gassed or wounded persons. Out of the most active circles special Red Cross detachments are being formed for the training of highly skilled Red Cross workers. These are the future Red Cross nurses.

Thus, the Soviet Red Cross is an enormous public organization built exclusively upon the voluntary activity of its members and playing a great part not only in wartime but also in time of peace.

### Electrification and Electrical Industry of the U. S. S. R.

Eight additional regional electric power plants (three using peat fuel, two, water power, and the remaining three, low grade coal), with an aggregate capacity of 197,000 kw., have been erected in the Soviet Union during the last few years.

There are 16 power plants under construction—5 hydro-electric plants, 3 using peat fuel, 2 using anthracite, 3 using low grade coal and 3 paraffine mazout—with a total capacity of 546,500 kw.

The aggregate capacity of all the Soviet power plants, both operating and under construction, including the increased capacity of the municipal stations in Leningrad, Moscow, and Baku, which are being enlarged now, will amount to 1,084,500 kw.

Hand in hand with the progress of electrification, there is to be noted a growth of the Soviet electro-technical industry. The consumption of electrical supplies has actually reached the figure of 163 million rubles, as against 122 million rubles in 1913. While previous to the Revolution 40 per cent of the total consumption of electrical supplies were covered by imports, in 1927, that percentage was reduced to 22, owing to the growth of the Soviet Union's home production.

According to the five-years' plan of industrial development, it is expected that by the end of 1932, up to 90 per cent of the requirements for electric machinery and supplies will be covered by the country's own industries.

### Soviet Industries in March

The output of the most important industries of the Soviet Union for March, as compared with the preceding month, as well as the percentage increase in March, 1928, as against the same month of the preceding year, is shown in the following table:

<i>Fuel, Metal and Ore in Metric Tons</i>			
	March 1928	February 1928	Percentage Increase of Mar., 1928, Over Mar., 1927
Coal .....	3,183,600	3,003,400	10.6
Oil .....	934,400	811,800	8.5
Pig Iron .....	291,300	263,600	10.2
Martin Steel .....	381,400	346,800	19.6
Rolled Iron .....	302,700	274,700	24.3
Iron Ore .....	527,900	461,100	24.4
Cement .....	157,400	134,200	13.2

### *Fabrics in Millions of Meters*

Cotton Fabrics .....	234.9	218.9	16.9
Woolen Fabrics .....	8.66	8.04	19.7
Linen Fabrics .....	18.21	16.73	6.0

### The Fur Industry of the U. S. S. R.

Furs play quite an important part in Soviet exports. Prior to the Revolution only undressed fur skins were exported from Russia because Russian old-fashioned methods of dressing did not come up to the requirements of the foreign markets. In the course of the first few years after the reestablishment of the Soviet export trade the Soviet export organizations took steps to organize the dressing of fur skins within the country. In the course of the last two years great results were achieved in this respect, which brought about a real revolution in the fur export business.

At the present time special shops are engaged in the Soviet Union in preparing and dressing fur skins. Thus, ready fur skins are being turned out in great quantities by the factories in Viatka, Astrakhan, Moscow and other cities. These factories prepare and dress not only the better grades of fur skins, but also the cheaper priced vari-

eties which could not find a market heretofore, such as water-rats, cats, moles, Siberian marmots, hares, etc. The State Trading Company is turning this raw material into a product representing a value of millions of rubles.

The development of the fur industry has found a response in the villages. The collection of skins of water-rats and of other animals is becoming quite a profitable item of peasant economy.

In the course of the last four years the value of the fur skins prepared by the State Trading Company has increased nine-fold—from 2,500,000 rubles (over \$1,250,000), to 23,000,000 rubles (over \$11,500,000).

The export of fur skins has increased from 1,500,000 rubles (over \$750,000), in 1924-25, to 7,000,000 rubles (over \$3,500,000) in 1926-27. For the current fiscal year of 1927-28 the export of fur skins will reach 13,000,000 rubles (over \$6,500,000).

A new branch of Soviet industry, the fur industry has considerably contributed to the increase of the value and profitableness of Soviet exports.

### The Federal Budget of the Soviet Union

On April 21, 1928, the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union approved the following budget figures for 1927-28: Revenue, 6,088,057,905 rubles (\$3,135,349,821); Expenditures, 6,038,057,905 rubles (\$3,109,599,821), the reserve to amount to 50,000,000 rubles.

### Jewish Agricultural Settlements

The Presidium of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee of the R. S. F. S. R. (Soviet Russia proper including Siberia), has decided to allot land for the settlement of Jewish families in the Birsk-Bidjany District, in the Amur region of Eastern Siberia. It is proposed to settle 35,000 families in that district.

The general plan, as approved by the Soviet Government, provides for the migration and settlement of 100,000 Jewish families in the entire Soviet Union.

So far, over 15,000 families have been settled and provided with land.

### Institute for the Study of Buddhist Culture

The activities for the organization of the Institute for the Study of Buddhist Culture, attached to the Academy of Sciences in Leningrad, have been terminated and the institute has been opened. Many scientists from all parts of Asia and Europe have sent applications stating their desire to become members of the institute. Preparations are being made for the publication of an encyclopedia on the history of Buddhist culture.

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## Joseph Stalin on Soviet Grain Situation The Soviet Press Technical Experts in the Soviet Union Literacy of the Population of the U. S. S. R. The Ukrainian Soviet Republic in Figures Soviet Cities

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## Joseph Stalin on Soviet Grain Situation

**A**T a meeting of the students of the higher educational establishments held in Moscow, on June 1, the following question concerning the Soviet Union's grain supply difficulties was submitted to Mr. J. Stalin, General Secretary of the Communist Party of the U. S. S. R.:

"What is to be considered as the chief difficulty with regard to the grain problem? Where is the way out of the difficulties?"

The most important passages of Stalin's reply follow:

At first sight it might seem that our grain difficulties are accidental; that they are merely the result of wrong planning; that they are caused merely by a number of mistakes in establishing the economic balance sheet of the country. But this may appear so only at first glance. In reality the causes of the difficulties lie much deeper. There can be no doubt that bad planning and mistakes in establishing the economic balance sheet have played a considerable part here. But it would be a gross error to explain everything by bad planning and accidental mistakes. It would be a mistake to minimize the importance of, and the part played by planning. But it would be a still greater mistake to exaggerate the part played by the principle of planning, in the belief that we have already reached that degree of development when it is possible to plan and to regulate everything. It must not be forgotten that in addition to the elements which can be influenced by our planning activity, the economic life of our country contains also other elements which for the time being can not be subject to planning as yet; and, finally, that there are classes which are hostile to us and which can not be overcome merely through a plan laid down by the State Planning Commission. For this reason I believe that it is not possible to reduce it all to a mere accident, to errors in planning, etc.

Wherein, then, does our basic grain difficulty consist?

The fundamental difficulties connected with our grain problem consist in the fact that the production of grain grown for the market is advancing at a slower rate than the demand for grain. The industries are developing. The number of workers is increasing. The cities are growing. The areas producing technical crops (cotton, flax, beets, etc.), which have become purchasers of grain, are likewise increasing. All this leads to a rapid growth of the demand for grain. The production of grain raised for the market is, however, in-

creasing at a very slow rate. It can not be said that this year the quantity of collected grain at the disposal of the State is smaller than last year, or the year before last. On the contrary, this year the State has at its disposal much more grain than during the preceding years. And nevertheless we are faced by grain difficulties. Here are a few figures: By April 1, 1926, the collections of grain for the fiscal year 1925-26 (beginning October 1, 1925), amounted to 434,000,000 poods (7,000,000 metric tons) of grain. Of this quantity 123,000,000 poods (2,000,000 metric tons) were exported. As a result 311,000,000 poods (about 5,000,000 metric tons) of grain purchased from the peasants remained in the country. By April 1, 1927, the collections of grain for the fiscal year 1926-27 amounted to 596,000,000 poods (9,770,000 metric tons). Out of this quantity we exported 153,000,000 poods (2,500,000 tons). Thus, 443,000,000 poods (over 7,000,000 tons) of the collected grain remained in the country. On April 1 of the current fiscal year 1927-28 we had 576,000,000 poods (9,400,000 tons) of collected grain. Out of this quantity 27,000,000 poods (440,000 tons) were exported. Thus, 549,000,000 poods (9,000,000 tons) of collected grain remained in the country. In other words, the amount of collected grain available for the requirements of the country on April 1, was this year by 100,000,000 poods (1,600,000 tons) higher than last year, and 230,000,000 poods (3,800,000 tons) higher than the year before last. And nevertheless we are experiencing grain difficulties this year.

Now, what is the reason of the slow growth in the output of grain raised for the market; of the fact that the growth of the production of grain destined for the market is proceeding at a slower pace than the growth of the demand for grain, although the sown area and the gross production of grain have reached the pre-war level?

It is, indeed, a fact that we have reached the sown area of the pre-war period, and it is likewise a fact that the gross grain production has last year attained the pre-war level, having reached 5,000,000,000 poods (82,000,000 metric tons). How, then, is it to be explained that in spite of these circumstances we are producing half the pre-war quantity of grain for the market, and are exporting about twenty times\* less grain than before the war?

This is to be explained first of all by the change

\*This refers to the current year's grain exports.

in the structure of our agriculture which took place as a result of the November Revolution; by the transition from the large scale production of the big landed estates and the rich ("kulak") farms, supplying the largest share of the grain produced for the market, to the production by the small and medium sized peasant farms supplying the smallest fraction of the grain produced for the market. The very fact that before the war there were 15 to 16 million individual farms in the country, while at present there are 24 to 25 million peasant farms, indicates that our agriculture is based upon the small-farm system which produces a minimum of grain destined for the market. The advantage of large scale production in agriculture, whether it is being conducted by big land holders, rich farmers ("kulaks") or collective farms, consists in the fact that it permits of the application of machinery, the use of scientific methods, of fertilizers; it makes it possible to increase the productivity of labor, thus producing the largest possible quantities of grain for the market. On the other hand, the weakness of small peasant farming consists in the fact that it is deprived, or practically deprived of these possibilities, and as a re-

sult is able to raise only very little for the market, producing chiefly for its own requirements. Let us take, for instance, the collective farms\* and the Soviet estates.† Of their gross produce, 47.2 per cent is available for the market. In other words, they produce more for the market than the large landed states before the war. On the other hand, only 11.2 per cent of the total produce of the small and medium sized peasant farms is available for the market. The difference is quite significant.

Here are a few figures showing the structure of grain production in the past, i. e., the pre-war period, and at present, i. e., since the Revolution. These figures were furnished by Mr. Nemchinov, member of the Board of the Central Statistical Administration of the U. S. S. R. These figures do not claim to be exact, as is pointed out by Nemchinov in his note; they permit only of approximate calculations. But these figures are fully satisfactory for understanding the difference between the pre-war period and the period since the November Revolution, both from the point of view of the structure of grain production in general, and for the market, in particular.

*Grain Production Before the War and at Present*

	Gross Grain Production		Grain Available for the Market		Percentage of Grain Available for Market
	Millions of Metric Tons	Percentage	Millions of Metric Tons	Percentage	
Prior to the War—					
Big land holders .....	9.8	12	4.6	21.6	47
Rich farmers ("kulaks") .....	31.04	38	10.62	50	34
Middle and poor peasants .....	40.85	50	6.03	28.4	14.7
Total .....	81.69	100	21.25	100	26
In 1926-27—					
Soviet estates and collective farms .....	1.3	1.7	0.61	6	47.2
Rich farmers ("kulaks") .....	10.08	13	2.06	20	20
Middle and poor peasants .....	66.2	85.3	7.61	74	11.2
Total .....	77.58	100	10.28	100	13.3

This table shows, first of all, that the production of by far the major share of grain products has passed from the big landed proprietors and the rich farmers to the small and middle peasants. This means that the small and middle peasants, having freed themselves altogether from oppression by the big landed proprietors and having thoroughly curtailed the power of the rich farmers, have obtained the possibility in the most substantial way to improve their material condition. This is a result of the November Revolution. This is, above all, the decisive advantage derived from the November Revolution by the wide masses of the peasantry.

In the second place the table shows that the grain available for the market is mainly in the hands of the small, and primarily of the middle peasants. Which means that not only from the point of view of the gross grain output, but also

from the point of view of the grain available for the market the Soviet Union has, as a result of the November Revolution, become a country of small-scale agriculture, with the middle peasant as the pivotal figure in agriculture.

Thirdly, this table shows that the liquidation of large estates of the big land-holders, the curtailment of the large-scale "kulak" (rich farmer)

\*Cooperative farming enterprises of various types. They include (a) agricultural "artels," which stand for cooperative land holding and tilling, the members reserving the right to withdraw and to return to individual tilling of their share; (b) agricultural communes, in which the whole land with implements, etc., belong to the collectivity and individual members can not withdraw their share; (c) tillage societies, meaning collective use of machinery for individually owned lands.

†State agricultural enterprises made up of the land of some of the large landed estates existing before the Revolution of 1917.

holdings to less than one-third, and the transition to small-scale peasant farming which supplies only 11 per cent of its output to the market, in connection with the non-existence of a well-developed socialized grain production on a large scale (collective farms, Soviet estates), was bound to bring about, and actually did bring about, a sharp curtailment of the production of grain for the market, as compared with the pre-war period. It is a fact that at present only half the pre-war quantity of grain is available for the market, although the gross production of grain has reached the pre-war level.

This is the cause of our grain supply difficulties. And it is for this reason that our difficulties in the field of grain collections cannot be considered as a mere accidental occurrence.

No doubt a certain detrimental influence is likewise to be attributed to the circumstance that our trading organizations have assumed the unnecessary obligation of supplying with grain a number of small and medium sized towns; this was bound to reduce the supplies of the State to a certain extent. But it is beyond any doubt that our basic grain supply difficulties were caused not by this circumstance, but by the fact that the agricultural production for the market is advancing at a very slow rate, while, on the other hand, the market requirements for grain are increasing.

Where, then, is the way out from this situation?

The way out consists, first of all, in passing over from the small, backward and scattered peasant farms to the system of united, large-scale, socialized agricultural enterprises which are supplied with machinery, which apply the latest scientific methods and are able to produce the largest possible quantity of grain for the market. The way-out lies in passing over from individual peasant farming to collective, socialized farming.

From the very first days of the November Revolution (1917), Lenin called upon the Party to organize collective farms. Since that time the propaganda of the ideas of collective farming was being incessantly carried on within the Party. However, the call for the organization of collective farms has met with a mass response only lately. This can be explained, first of all, by the fact that the wide development of cooperative activities in the villages has prepared a change in the disposition of the peasantry in favor of the collective farms, while the existence of a number of collective farms which produce at present as much as 150 to 200 poods (2.6 to 3.8 metric tons) of various crops per dessiatin (1 dessiatin equals 2.7 acres)—with 30 to 40 per cent of the product going to the market—has given rise to a strong tendency among the poorer peasantry and the lower strata of the middle peasantry favoring collective farming. Of great importance in this respect is also the circumstance that only recently was the State in a position to undertake the finan-

cing of the collective farms on a more considerable scale. It is well known that for the current fiscal year the State has doubled its appropriations for the collective farms (over \$30,000,000) as compared with last year. The Fifteenth Congress of the Communist Party, held in 1927, was perfectly right when it declared that the time is ripe for a large scale campaign in favor of collective farms, and that an extension of this campaign is one of the most efficient means of increasing the grain supply for the market.

According to the data of the Central Statistical Administration, the gross grain production of the collective farms for 1927 made up not less than 55,000,000 poods (900,000 metric tons) of which an average of 30 per cent was available for the market. The extensive campaign aiming at the creation of new collective farms and at the expansion of the old collective farms which was started in the beginning of this year should by the end of the year result in a considerable increase of grain production in the collective farms. It is necessary to retain the present pace of development of the movement for collective farms; to consolidate the collective farms; to reject the sham collective farms, putting actual collective farms in their place, and to set up regulations whereby the collective farms should deliver all their grain available for the market to the State and cooperative organizations under the threat of being deprived of subsidies and credits on the part of the State.

I believe that under these conditions we might be able, after three or four years, to obtain 40 to 50 million poods (650,000 to 820,000 metric tons) of grain for the market.

Sometimes the collective farms are being contrasted with the cooperatives on the assumption, as it were, that collective farms and cooperatives are two quite different things. This is, of course, wrong. In reality, the collective farms are a form of cooperation, being the most striking form of producing cooperatives. There are cooperatives for selling and purchasing, and there are also producing cooperatives. The collective farms form an inseparable constituent part of the cooperative movement in general, and of Lenin's cooperative plan in particular. To carry out Lenin's cooperative plan means to raise the peasantry from the mere selling and purchasing cooperatives to the system of producing cooperation, in other words, to collective farming. This, by the way, explains the fact that the collective farms began to spring up and to develop in our country only as a result of the development and strengthening of the selling and purchasing cooperatives.

In the second place, the way out lies in the extension and consolidation of the old Soviet estates, and in the organization and development of new large Soviet estates. According to the data of the Central Statistical Administration, the

gross production of grain by the present Soviet estates in 1927 constituted not less than 45,000,000 poods (740,000 metric tons), of which 65 per cent was available for the market. There is no doubt that, given certain assistance on the part of the State, the Soviet estates could increase the production of grain to a considerable extent. But this is not all. The Soviet authorities have adopted a decision according to which in those regions where no land was allotted to peasants, new large Soviet estates (of from 10,000 to 30,000 dessiatins each, i. e., from 27,000 to 81,000 acres) are to be founded. Within five to six years they are to produce 100,000,000 poods (1,640,000 metric tons) of grain for the market. The organization of these Soviet estates has already been started. It is necessary to carry out this decision of the Soviet authorities by all means. I believe that if these tasks are carried out, between 80 and 100 million poods (1,310,000 and 1,640,000 metric tons) of grain could be obtained for the market from the old and the new Soviet estates within the next three or four years.

Thirdly, the way out lies in systematically increasing the productivity of the individual small and medium sized peasant farms. We can not and must not assist the individual large-scale "kulak" farms. But we can and should assist the individual small and medium sized peasant farms by increasing their productivity and encouraging them to join the cooperative organizations. This is an old task which has been proclaimed with particular force as far back as 1921 when the tax in kind was substituted for the levy of agricultural products. This task was endorsed by the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Party Congresses (1925 and 1927). The importance of this task is being emphasized now by difficulties encountered in the grain supply problem. For this reason the task should be carried out as energetically as the first two tasks—concerning the collective farms and the Soviet estates.

All the available data indicate that within a few years the productivity of the peasant farms might be increased by 15 to 20 per cent. At the present time not less than five million primitive plows are still in use. If real plows were substituted for them, the production of grain would be increased considerably; not to speak of supplying the peasant farms with a certain minimum of fertilizers, cleaned seed, small-size machinery, etc. The method of contracting, of concluding agreements with entire villages and settlements according to which they are to be supplied with seeds, etc., on condition that they deliver a corresponding amount of grain products, is the best way of increasing the productivity of the peasant farms and of encouraging the peasants to join the cooperatives. I think that if a vigorous activity is developed in this direction, we might be able, within three or four years, to get not less than 100,000,000 poods (1,640,000 metric tons) of grain

supplied for the market by the individual small and medium sized peasant farms.

Thus, if all these tasks are carried out we might be able, within three or four years, to place at the disposal of the State an additional 200 to 250 million poods (3,280,000 to 4,100,000 metric tons) of grain destined for the market, which would enable us to fill the gaps which may be created by the requirements of the domestic market or of our foreign trade operations.

These are, roughly speaking, the measures which must be carried out in order to overcome the difficulties of the grain supply.

## The Ukrainian Soviet Republic in Figures

ACCORDING to the data of the 1926 census, the Ukrainian Soviet Republic has a population of 29,018,187, constituting 19.7 per cent of the entire population of the Soviet Union. The area of that constituent republic covering only 2 per cent of the total area. The density of the population of the Ukraine is much larger than that of the U. S. S. R. as a whole, and its territory is populated much more uniformly than other sections of the Soviet Union.

In the course of the last thirty years, from 1897 to 1926, the population of the Ukraine increased 30 per cent, while the population of the cities with 50,000 inhabitants and over increased 63 per cent. During the World War and the civil strife, from 1914 to 1920, as a result of the reduction of the birth rate and of the increased mortality, the population of that republic decreased by one million and a half. A noticeable increase in the birth rate began only in 1923, accompanied by a reduction of the mortality rate, particularly among the children. As a result, the loss was soon more than counterbalanced. The annual rate of increase of the Ukrainian population is 2.3 per cent, which is considerably more than the normal increase (1.7 per cent). As regards the age classes, the population is distributed as follows: Up to 14 years—37 per cent; from 15 to 49 years, 50.7 per cent; 50 years and over, 12.3 per cent.

### Racial and Linguistic Composition of the Population

Out of the total population of the Ukraine, 80 per cent are Ukrainians; 9.5 per cent are Russians; 5.4 per cent Jews; 1.6 per cent Poles; and 3.5 per cent other nationalities—Greeks, Bulgarians, Rumanians, Gypsies, etc. There are also 7,959,000 Ukrainians in the other constituent republics of the Soviet Union, 6,650,000 living in Soviet Russia proper, including Siberia.

As regards the urban population of the Ukraine, the distribution of the population is as follows: Ukrainians, 47.5 per cent; Russians, 25 per cent; Jews, 22.7 per cent. The distribution of the



nationalities in the rural localities is as follows: Ukrainians, 86 per cent; Russians, 5.7 per cent; Jews, 1.5 per cent.

Over three quarters of the population of the Ukraine, (76.4 per cent) have declared Ukrainian as their native language—37 per cent in the cities, and 86 per cent in the villages. Of the urban population 44 per cent gave Russian as their native language. Among those who declared themselves as Ukrainians, 94 per cent gave Ukrainian as their native tongue; 98 per cent of the Russians declared Russian as their native tongue; 75 per cent of the Jews declared Yiddish as their native tongue; 44 per cent of the Poles declared Polish as their native tongue, and 95 per cent Germans declared German as their native tongue. In the cities only 74 per cent of the Ukrainian population declared Ukrainian as their native tongue.\*

### Literacy

According to the data of the census, 52.5 per cent of the population are literate as against 19.5 per cent in 1897. The percentage of literacy among the male population is 68.8, while among the female population it is 37.7 per cent.

It is to be noted that in the cities 95 per cent of the male population of the age class from 25 to 30 years are literate, with 87 per cent for the corresponding age class in the villages. In the case of women the corresponding figures amount to 78 and 42 per cent, respectively. This is doubtless an achievement of the last decade.

Of particular interest are the data about the degree of literacy of the various nationalities inhabiting the Ukraine. The first place is held by the Germans with a literacy rate of 79.4 per cent; next come the Jews with 78.8 per cent; the Greeks with 71.4 per cent; the Russians with 63.7 per cent; the Poles with 52.5 per cent, and the Ukrainians with 48.9 per cent.

### Social Composition of the Population

With regard to occupation the population of the Ukraine is divided as follows:

#### *Percentage of Total of the Population*

	Per cent
Independent farmers and artisans .....	85.2
Workers .....	6.0
Office employees .....	4.2
Persons not living by their own labor .....	0.8
Others .....	3.8
Total .....	100

The overwhelming majority of the Ukrainian population (87.5 per cent) is engaged in agriculture. The remainder of 12.5 per cent, are concentrated in the large scale industries (3.6 per cent), in the home industries (2.3 per cent) and in the other branches of national economy.

\*It appears from these data that in determining their own nationality many individuals of the various racial groups placed more emphasis upon their national origin than upon the language they actually spoke.

## Soviet Cities

**B**AKU, the city of oil, is the capital of the Azerbaijan Soviet Republic. It is the most important commercial center in the Caucasus and the main port on the Caspian Sea, being provided with an excellent natural harbor. Its large population of over 450,000, and its exceptional commercial importance are reflected in the crowded streets and their lively tempo.

The commercial turnover of the port of Baku is larger than that of any other Caspian port, the part played by it in the trade with Persia being of particular importance.

The development of the city was greatly stimulated by the establishment of the Soviet system in Azerbaijan in 1920. Since that time it became one of the large cultural centers of the Caucasus. At present Baku maintains five higher educational institutions with about nine thousand students, a great number of secondary schools, four publishing houses, four newspapers printed in Russian and in the local languages (Tatar and Armenian), a number of libraries, reading rooms, clubs, theaters, etc.

The chief importance of Baku consists, however, in its oil resources. The revival of the Baku oil industry dates since 1920, after the city had come under Soviet rule. The output of Baku oil is increasing from year to year. While in 1920-21 the oil output aggregated about 2,500,000 metric tons, this figure rose to 5,500,000 metric tons in 1925-26. The output for 1926-27 has reached the pre-war level—about seven million tons. Oil exports for 1925-26 exceeded those for 1913 by 50 per cent.

The technical methods employed at present in the production of oil are greatly superior to those used before the war. Everywhere the industry is being electrified and placed on a more efficient basis. New wells are being drilled in accordance with a strictly worked-out plan; two new refining plants have been constructed, and in 1925 the erection of a new powerful refining plant for lubricating oil has been started.

The oil reserves of Baku—the richest in the Soviet Union—are counted among the most abundant in the world.

Hand in hand with its economic revival Baku has been changing from an Oriental into a European city. Since the establishment of the Soviet system the city was enriched by a number of large structures, which compare with some of the best edifices of Moscow and Leningrad. Particular mention is due to the House of the Mohammedan Woman, the Lenin Palace, the House of the Peoples of the East, etc.—all constructed in the Moorish style.

The new forms of life are successfully taking root in the city under the Soviet regime. Of all

the cities of the Soviet Near East, Baku is the most colorful and the most exotic. Alongside with the purely Oriental customs and habits, the new Soviet culture is making headway.

The Oriental veil is being crowded out by the red kerchiefs of the working women. The number of Mohammedan women who have discarded the veil is growing from day to day. Side by side with the sad Oriental tunes still sung in the old section of Baku, the new Soviet songs are being heard in the city more and more frequently.

A noteworthy symptom of the victory of the new forms of life is the stamping out of the savage "Shakhsey-Vakhsey" custom of cruel religious self-castigation practiced by the Mohammedans. The bloody racial conflicts between the Tatars and the Armenians are likewise a thing of the past.

Baku is growing economically and culturally. A new life, based upon the peaceful collaboration of the various nationalities, is in the process of creation.

#### The "Soviet Manchester"

In the course of the ten years since the Revolution the Russian textile center, Ivanovo-Voznessensk, has undergone great changes. An impoverished little factory town, submerged in dirt and mud, it has now become a large industrial city, which is growing from year to year.

The growth of Ivanovo-Voznessensk has been continuous, one might almost say, wild. Building space being no longer available in the city, it became necessary to extend its area by 500 hectares (1,235 acres), and even this measure did not prove sufficient. For workers' housing alone 500 more building plots are required. In the course of the next few years the city will have to expand over the entire surrounding territory.

Building activities in Ivanovo are being carried on with great intensity. In the course of the last two years two workers' settlements, comprising 150 houses, were constructed; about 1000 dwelling houses were built in the city, without mentioning ten public edifices—a telephone station, a dispensary for tuberculosis patients, cinema theaters, homes for professors of the Polytechnical Institute, a bank building, a powerful electric plant (operated by steam), etc. Two new spinning mills with 137,000 and 120,000 spindles, respectively, as well as a branch line for freight trains were constructed. The latter is to deliver the raw materials direct to the factories and plants.

The growth of the city is proceeding at a very rapid pace. The growing industry, the increasing population—at present Ivanovo-Voznessensk has 111,000 inhabitants—necessitate a further development of the building activities and the installation of improvements. The city has been provided with a water-pipe system. The construc-

tion of the latter has brought the city face to face with new tasks: the installation of a sewer system and the cleaning up of the Uvod River, which crosses the city in the very center. A motor bus system has been put in operation.

In the course of 1928 two giant enterprises are to be completed—a cloth mill, which is to turn out 4,500 pieces of cloth daily, employing 11,000 workers; and an electric power plant, which is to supply electrical energy to all the industrial establishments of the province, and to provide the city with light.

The city is likewise taking care of the cultural needs of the workers. There are several dozen well equipped workers' clubs in Ivanovo-Voznessensk; about ten cinema theaters, a dramatic theater with an excellent stock company; a museum, and a large municipal library. In the course of the last few years a number of educational establishments were opened in Ivanovo-Voznessensk, including vocational schools, factory schools, a higher textile technical school, a teacher's training school, a school of music, a workers' faculty (preparatory school for college), and a workers' university.

With its fifteen giant textile factories Ivanovo-Voznessensk, the center of the Soviet textile industry, has developed into a large and promising city.

#### The "Siberian Chicago"

This is the name applied by foreigners to the city of Novosibirsk (formerly Novo-Nikolayevsk). The growth of that city has been remarkable. About thirty years ago only a few barracks, which had been erected for the railroad workers and the miners, marked that spot on the bank of the Ob River, at the crossing point of the Transsiberian and the Altai railway trunk lines. In 1900 there was a town with 12,000 inhabitants in the place where only barracks had been seen a few years before. Seven years later Novosibirsk (then called Novo-Nikolayevsk), became the center of the Siberian cooperative movement. At the present time this growing city is the capital of the Siberian Region and has a population of over 120,000 inhabitants.

Before the Revolution this city was a typical agglomeration of small wooden houses erected without any plan or system. The Soviet authorities had to reconstruct the city entirely, and the small houses of former times have now been supplanted by tall buildings of stone and concrete, while the crooked streets and alleys were displaced by straight, wide boulevards. The construction of a new bridge over the Ob River is contemplated.

All the foreigners who visit the city are astonished at the sight of this rapid growth, and are impressed by the splendid modern buildings and the well planned streets and squares.

This tremendous construction work has been carried out in the course of the last four years, and the new city has been built entirely with Soviet material.

## Literacy of the Population of the U. S. S. R.

ACCORDING to the general census taken in the Soviet Union in December, 1926, the total figures for the literate population of the Soviet Union, (above the age of 7) aggregated 35,940,975 men, and 22,038,261 women. With regard to the entire population of the same age class these figures constitute 65.4 per cent for men, and 36.7 per cent for women.

The territories with the highest percentage of literacy are the Ukraine, the European part of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (Soviet Russia proper, including Siberia), and White Russia.

### Percentage of Literacy in European Part of U. S. S. R.

	Ukraine	European Part of R. S. F. S. R.	White Russia
Men .....	74.4	72.5	70.3
Women .....	40.6	41.3	35.4

The lowest percentage of literacy is presented by the Central Asiatic republics, as shown by the following figures:

### Percentage of Literacy in Soviet Central Asia

	Turkoman Republic	Uzbek Republic
Men .....	16.2	13.0
Women .....	7.6	5.7

If the percentage of literacy, as established in 1926, is set at 100, then the literacy prevailing at the time when the preceding censuses were taken may be expressed by the following figures for the European part of the U. S. S. R.:

	1897	1920
Men .....	58	77
Women .....	34	75

Interesting data are obtained by a comparison of the census data for 1897, 1920 and 1926, regarding the percentage of literacy according to the various age classes. The highest percentage of literacy is shown by the following age classes:

### Highest Percentage of Literacy According to Age Classes

	1897	1920	1926
Men ..... from 12 to 15 yrs.	from 25 to 29	from 20 to 24	
Women ..... from 12 to 15 yrs.	from 12 to 15	from 20 to 24	

Thus, according to the census of 1926, the highest degree of literacy is shown by the age classes of from 20 to 24 years of both sexes, while in 1897 the highest degree of literacy for both sexes was presented by the age classes from 12 to 15 years.

It is only in the old-age classes that a divergence between the percentage of literacy among

men and women can be noticed. At the census of 1926, the percentage figures for literacy of men and women were much closer to each other than during the censuses of the previous years. Moreover, during the period between 1920 and 1926, the relation between the literacy of men and women has changed considerably in favor of women of the age class from 20 to 29 years.

As regards the literacy of the urban and rural populations a considerable difference is still to be noted in favor of the urban population. While in the age classes with the highest literacy—24-25 years for men and 19 years for women, the literacy of men amounts to 95.7 per cent and that of women to 88.2 per cent, the corresponding figures in the rural localities, amount to 85.4 and 55.6, respectively.

The table below gives the literacy figures for the entire population of the U. S. S. R. (above the age of 7) and of its constituent parts, for men and women:

### Literacy of the Male Population in Total Figures and Percentages

Territory	Total Population Over 7 Years	Literate	Illiterate
U. S. S. R. ....	54,967,715	35,940,975 (65.4%)	19,026,740
R. S. F. S. R. ....	37,221,286	25,091,387 (67.4%)	12,129,899
Including—			
European Part ...	29,929,128	21,705,387 (72.5%)	8,223,741
Asiatic Part ....	7,292,158	3,386,000 (46.4%)	3,906,158
White Russia ....	1,871,141	1,315,246 (70.3%)	555,895
Ukraine .....	10,951,658	8,154,000 (74.4%)	2,797,658
Transcaucasia ....	2,266,999	1,020,910 (45.0%)	1,246,089
Uzbek Republic ...	2,339,031	291,570 (12.5%)	1,947,461
Turkoman Republic.	417,600	67,862 (16.2%)	349,738

### Literacy of the Female Population in Total Figures and Percentages

U. S. S. R. ....	60,075,239	22,038,261 (36.7%)	38,036,978
R. S. F. S. R. ....	41,813,907	15,805,761 (37.8%)	26,008,146
Including—			
European Part ...	34,699,681	14,336,719 (41.3%)	20,362,962
Asiatic Part ....	7,114,226	1,469,042 (20.6%)	5,645,184
White Russia ....	1,981,606	700,942 (35.4%)	1,280,664
Ukraine .....	11,823,890	4,802,031 (40.6%)	7,021,859
Transcaucasia ....	2,154,343	591,046 (27.4%)	1,563,297
Uzbek Republic ...	1,944,406	111,358 (5.7%)	1,833,048
Turkoman Republic.	357,087	27,223 (7.6%)	329,864

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*Still available a few copies of Volume I, 404 pages, containing all issues from Sept. 15, 1923, to June 15, 1924, and complete index, Volume III, 504 pages, containing all issues of 1925 and complete index, and Volume IV, 216 pages, containing all issues of 1926 and complete index. Price, \$4, \$5, and \$3, respectively. Bound in imitation leather.*

## The Soviet Press

**A**T the present time 559 newspapers are being published in the Soviet Union. They have a circulation of 8,250,000 copies, which is three times the total pre-war newspaper circulation in Russia.

In 1927 there were 556 newspapers with a circulation of 7,684,000. At that time the circulation of the newspapers was distributed as follows according to the six constituent republics: In the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (Soviet Russia proper, including Siberia), 395 newspapers, with a combined circulation of 6,318,000 copies; in the Ukraine—89 newspapers, with a circulation of 878,000; in Transcaucasia, 34 newspapers, with a circulation of 278,000 copies; in White Russia, 19 newspapers, with a circulation of 102,000 copies; in the Central Asiatic Soviet Republics (the Uzbek and the Turkoman Republics), 19 newspapers with a circulation of 108,000 copies.

One of the most remarkable aspects of this increase in newspaper circulation is the fact that the press has penetrated to the broad masses of the peasantry.

At the present time not less than one-third of the entire newspaper circulation, that is, almost as much as the pre-war circulation, goes to the rural localities. On an average one farm out of ten subscribes to a newspaper.

The worker and peasant correspondents constitute an enormous army. There were nearly 400,000 worker, peasant and army correspondents in 1927, as against 217,000 in 1925. Out of this number, 115,607 were worker correspondents, as against 74,298 in August, 1925, and 192,768 peasant correspondents, as against 115,710 in 1925.

Closely connected with the growth of the number of worker and peasant correspondents is the growth of the number of poster papers ("wall" papers) and their contributors. No exact statistics as to the number of the latter have been established as yet. However, in the course of the last two years the number of poster papers and correspondents has, in some places, increased by 50 to 100 per cent.

### Magazines

The interest in magazines and books grew apace with the increase of newspaper circulation throughout the country.

At present 1,291 magazines, with an aggregate circulation of 8,403,540 copies, are being published in the country.

The magazines have attained a circulation unheard of in previous times. Thus, for instance, prior to the Revolution the circulation of the so-called "bulky" magazines never exceeded 8,000 copies. At present "Krasnaya Nov," a monthly magazine of literature and art, prints 15,000

copies, while "Novy Mir" (The New World), a magazine of similar character, has a circulation of 25,000 copies. A few illustrated weeklies have a mass circulation, going into the hundreds of thousands, such as "Ogoniok" (The Little Fire), with 400,000 copies, "Krasnaya Niva" (The Red Field), with 110,000 copies, "Ekran" (The Screen), with 150,000 copies, etc. A popular magazine dealing with industrial problems, "Nauka i Tekhnika" (Science and Engineering), has a circulation of 128,000 copies; popular scientific magazines, such as "Khochu Vsio Znat" (I Want to Know Everything), 150,000 copies, "Iskry Nauki" (Sparks of Science), 135,000 copies; "Sam Sebe Agronom" (The Self-Taught Agriculturist), 45,000 copies. Satirical papers such as "Krokodil" (Crocodile), "Begemot" (Hippopotamus), "Beech" (Whip), etc., have an enormous circulation, aggregating over 600,000 copies.

### The Press of the Non-Russian Nationalities

At the present time newspapers, magazines and books are being published in the Soviet Union in 49 languages. In 27 of these languages nothing had been published prior to the Revolution. The number of newspapers published in the non-Russian languages is 206, with a circulation of 831,753. The number of magazines printed in these languages is 130, while text-books, pamphlets for mass circulation, and other kinds of literature are being published by 34 publishing houses of these nationalities.

All this has been accomplished in the course of ten years. The extent of these activities can be judged from the following comparison: In the course of five years of Soviet rule, from 1919 to 1925, 5,430 different books were published in the Ukrainian language, which equals the total number of Ukrainian books issued in 120 years prior to that period, from 1798 to 1918. The same refers to the Tatars, the Kazaks\* and the Uzbeks.

### The Peasant Press in the U. S. S. R.

Under the Tsar there was practically no peasant press. Its powerful growth coincides entirely with the November Revolution of 1917. In the beginning, however, the growth was slow. In 1923 there were 51 newspapers for the peasants with a circulation of 149,000 copies. In 1924 the number of newspapers increased to 122, with a circulation of 533,000. In 1925 there were 140 papers, with a total circulation of 1,480,000. When the newspapers were placed upon a self-supporting basis, their number was reduced. On July 1, 1926, there were 125 newspapers with a circulation of 1,608,580. The reduction of the number

\* The correct name of a Central-Asiatic nationality formerly erroneously called "Kirghizes." The Kazaks (inhabitants of the Kazak Soviet Republic) are not to be confounded with the Cossacks.

of newspapers continued. On August 1, 1927, there were 107 peasant papers, with a circulation of 1,491,262. To these figures which include only papers published in Russian, should be added another 99 peasant papers with a circulation of 435,670, which are printed in the languages of the non-Russian nationalities.

Thus, there are at present in the U. S. S. R. over 200 peasant newspapers with a total circulation of nearly two million copies.

## Situation of Technical Experts in the U. S. S. R.

**T**HE intensified activities in behalf of industrialization of the Soviet Union have greatly enhanced the importance of the technical experts. In the course of the last few years the Government as well as the economic institutions and public organizations have been adopting all kinds of measures for the improvement of the situation and of the working conditions of the technicians in their employ. On the other hand, in the course of the last few years, the technical experts, in their activities in the industrial establishments as well as in the trade unions, have identified themselves with the general interests of the Soviet Union, barring a few exceptions, as exemplified by the trial of some of the engineers of the Donetz coal basin.

### The Material Situation of the Technical Experts

The growth of the salaries of the specialists\* is one of the best signs of the improvement of their material well-being. Their salaries have been increasing continually in the course of the past years. Characteristic in this respect are the salaries paid to the technical personnel in the metal industry. In 1927 the average salary of the engineers in the metal industry amounted to 234 rubles (\$120) monthly, while the average monthly salary of the entire engineering and technical personnel (including the foremen and their assistants) was 208 rubles. In this connection it must be pointed out that the salaries were being increased systematically. From the beginning of 1926 to the beginning of 1927 they increased 11.2 per cent. After the first half of 1927 there was another increase of 8.7 per cent, etc. A considerable increase of the salaries of specialists was noted in other branches of industry as well. This was also the case in the transport system and in agriculture.

### Working Conditions

A great deal was achieved in the matter of measures for social welfare adopted for the protection of specialists. All engineers and other technical employees are granted an uninterrupted

\*This is the term applied in the U. S. S. R. to the technical experts.

weekly rest of 42 hours as well as a month's vacation every year (for those whose working hours are not strictly regulated). Engineers and technicians working in mines and industries injurious to health, get the same vacations as the other employees of the industry in question. They enjoy all the privileges with regard to the rest-houses and sanitariums which have been leased in the best health resorts of the Crimea and in the Caucasus.

Specialists who work in remote localities of the U. S. S. R. are enjoying a number of special privileges. Special pro-rata additions to their salaries have been stipulated, and every three years they have the right to obtain an additional three-months' or five-months' vacation. After a certain time they are being sent on a scientific mission to the larger cultural centers for the purpose of perfecting their knowledge, etc.

Children of specialists enjoy special privileges with regard to admission to the higher educational establishments. The income tax of the specialists has been reduced and certain privileges were granted to them with regard to payments for municipal services and for the schooling of their children.

### Cultural Activity Among the Specialists

The trade unions are conducting extensive cultural activities among the specialists. Splendidly equipped business clubs for the specialists have been opened in all the larger cities of the U.S.S.R. Great attention is being paid to the increase of the professional skill of the technical personnel. This is one of the tasks incumbent upon the economic organizations which are appropriating the necessary means for sending specialists on scientific missions within the country or abroad, as well as for the organization of scientific congresses, libraries and study courses.

A special institute has been organized for the purpose of raising the professional skill of the technical personnel. This institute which is attached to the Supreme Council of National Economy conducts regular courses; it also employs other educational methods, such as correspondence courses, excursions, lectures, bibliographical suggestions, etc.

Legal assistance for specialists has been organized very efficiently. Their rights are being safeguarded by special clauses of collective agreements. Of particular interest is the following clause: In case a technical employee is accused of negligence or of technical mistakes, the economic enterprise concerned, prior to the institution of a legal suit for damages, is bound to appoint a commission of experts in which a representative of the engineers' and technicians' sections of the trade union in question is to participate.

All this testifies to the great interest and attention devoted to the technical experts by the Soviet

authorities and the public organizations of the Soviet Union.

### The Specialists and the Workers

With regard to the mutual relations between the workers and specialists, Mr. Brechenmacher, representative of the Association of Engineers and Technicians of Germany, made the following statement on occasion of his visit to the Soviet Union in 1927:

"Some people in Germany hold the opinion that the mutual relations between the workers and engineers in the U. S. S. R. are not satisfactory; that the workers are persecuting the specialists, and so on. I made a careful study of the situation of the Soviet engineers in many enterprises. The material at my disposal refutes this opinion."

### Inventions in the Soviet Union

THE rapid development of the economic life of the Soviet Union as a whole and of its industries in particular, was accompanied by a remarkable progress in the field of inventions. The number of patent applications submitted to the Committee on Inventions, is growing continuously. The pre-war standard, as regards the number of applications, which was highest in 1913, (5,395 applications) has been surpassed a long time ago. As far back as 1924-25, i. e., during the first year of the operation of the Committee on Inventions, 5,450 applications were submitted. During the subsequent year (1925-26) their number increased to 8,250, and in 1926-27 to 8,323. This growth is continuing during the current year, 3,340 applications having been submitted during the first four months.

During the years of the Revolution great changes occurred with regard to the strata from which the inventors are coming forth. In old Russia nearly three-fourths of all applications were coming from abroad, chiefly from Germany. At present the situation has changed entirely. The overwhelming majority of the inventors, over 80 per cent, are Soviet citizens. A prominent part is being played at present in the field of inventions by ordinary workers whose creative initiative is growing from year to year. Thus, in 1924-25 application certificates were issued to 244 workers; in 1925-26 to 617 workers and in 1926-27 to 1,917 workers. Office employees, peasants and students have likewise come to the fore in the field of inventions.

### Inventions by Foreigners

The activities of the Committee on Inventions are continuously attracting the interest of foreigners. The number of foreign applications is constantly increasing. Among the foreign inventors there are representatives of twenty-seven various states and countries. Thus, the Commit-

tee has received applications from South Africa, Australia, Bulgaria, Rumania, Greece, Japan, etc.

In the course of the last three years about 4,000 applications were submitted by foreigners, the first place being held by Germans, the second by Americans and the third by Englishmen.

The considerable interest of the foreigners in the problem of patenting inventions in the U. S. S. R. was expressed with particular emphasis in a number of direct communications coming from representatives of various public, industrial as well as cultural and educational organizations of Germany, Austria, Norway, Sweden, etc. Particularly close connections have been established with the German Patent Office. An exchange of literature has likewise been organized with a number of countries, including those with which diplomatic relations have not been reestablished as yet.

### Ten Years at Head of Soviet Foreign Office

ON May 30, 1928 the Soviet Union celebrated the tenth anniversary of Mr. George Tchitcherin's appointment to the post of People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs.

George Vassilievich Tchitcherin was born on November 22, 1872, in the village of Karaul, Kirсанov District, Province of Tambov.

In 1882 his father died and two years later he entered the Latin school ("gymnasia") of Tambov. In 1886, he went to Petersburg where he continued his studies.

From 1891 to 1895 he pursued historico-philological studies at the Petersburg University. After completing his studies Tchitcherin went abroad. He returned to Petersburg in 1897 and entered the service of the State Archives and of the Chief Archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Through V. M. Narbut, a fellow student at the University, Tchitcherin came in touch with the representatives of the revolutionary organizations of the capital.

In 1904 he left the service and went abroad maintaining only a nominal connection with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

After the March Revolution of 1917 Tchitcherin was working in London as secretary of the Commission for the repatriation of the Russian emigrants, but he was soon interned in the Brixton prison. In the beginning of 1918 he was exchanged for Sir George Buchanan, former British ambassador to the Tsarist Government at Petersburg.

George Tchitcherin returned to Soviet Russia and was appointed Assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs.

On May 30, 1918, he was officially appointed People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs and remained at that post up to the present day.

He took part in the Brest-Litovsk negotiations when they entered upon their second stage, and after that, on March 3, 1918, he signed the Brest-Litovsk Peace Treaty jointly with Mr. G. Sokolnikov.

During the period of the first peace negotiations with the border countries in 1920, Tchitcherin took a direct part in the negotiations with Lithuania and Latvia. During the same year he conducted negotiations with Turkey, Persia and Afghanistan. Treaties with these countries were signed in 1921.

In 1922, G. Tchitcherin became the actual head of the Soviet delegation in Genoa, owing to the fact that Lenin, who was the nominal head of the delegation, did not go to Genoa. On April 16, 1922, while the Genoa conference was in progress, Tchitcherin signed the Rapallo Treaty with Germany.

In the course of the same year he went to Lausanne at the head of the Soviet delegation, to take part in the conference on the Near Eastern problem.

In December, 1925, Tchitcherin signed the Soviet-Turkish Non-Aggression and Neutrality Pact in Paris.

In September, 1926, he signed in Moscow a Neutrality and Non-Aggression Pact with Lithuania, and in October, 1927, he signed a similar agreement with Persia.

George Tchitcherin has been a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the U. S. S. R. since the Fourteenth Congress of the Party (1925). He is also member of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee since 1918, and of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. since the formation of the Soviet Union (1923).

## Book Reviews

"SEEING RUSSIA," by E. M. Newman. Funk and Wagnalls Company. New York, 1928.

Mr. Newman's book is somewhat disappointing. It contains a considerable amount of pictorial information, but this is interspersed with not a little romance. Mr. Newman, for instance, deplors that the Nizhni-Novgorod fair is no longer held. It was held last year, as usual, and the turnover was over \$100,000,000. "There is no way of obtaining accurate shipping figures of the present day," he says, speaking of the Volga. Any statistical annual published in the Soviet Union will give the figures. "It is against Soviet law to import edibles," says Mr. Newman. Though the country is, generally speaking, self-supporting as to foodstuffs, last year it imported thousands of tons of tea, 36,500 tons of herring, and considerable quantities of fruits. Mr. Newman complains that Baku contains no hotel with

a restaurant and he could get nothing decent to eat in that city. In fact, Baku's principal hotel has one of the best restaurants in the country. Mr. Newman states that "vodka is almost pure alcohol." In fact it is 40 per cent alcohol, rather mild by western standards. Mr. Newman repeats that he was officially informed that "the sole right to take pictures rested with the O. G. P. U.," and he was constantly arrested for using his camera. In regard to the O. G. P. U. Mr. Newman must have had a poor translator. Apparently he also had unusually hard luck with his camera. This reviewer knows of at least two American correspondents who went about the Soviet Union taking photographs freely during recent months, subject only to restrictions such as prevail in other European countries.

However, apart from such lapses as we have cited, Mr. Newman's book contains some interesting descriptions. There are 300 illustrations.

"THE FALL OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE," by Edmund A. Walsh, S. J., Ph. D. Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1928.

Dr. Walsh's book is a loosely strung series of doubtful episodes lavishly washed in blood. Its curious statistics and opinions seem to be drawn largely from the synthetic concoctions of Tsarist propaganda bureaus and of Sir Henri Deterding's uphappy zealots. Persons who wish to believe Lenin was "a maniac" and that the cities of the Soviet Union are in an advanced state of decay will doubtless find comfort in Dr. Walsh's pages. Judicious persons in a position to compare some of Dr. Walsh's assertions with actual facts will wonder that such a volume could be offered seriously.

"THE NEW SCHOOLS OF NEW RUSSIA," by Lucy L. W. Wilson. Vanguard Press. New York, 1928.

Mrs. Wilson's objective study of the educational system of the U. S. S. R. is one of the most important of the interesting Vanguard series of books presenting various phases of life in the Soviet Union. The author has been principal of the South Philadelphia High School for the past twelve years and has won distinction as a writer on educational subjects. She visited the U. S. S. R. in 1925 and again in 1927. Her book is a fascinating analysis prepared by a keen, highly trained and humanly sympathetic intelligence.

*The Index to the fifth volume of the "Soviet Union Review" has been published recently. On request it will be sent free of charge to all readers of the Review.*



## Miscellaneous News

### Bulletin of the U. S. S. R. Society for Cultural Relations

For the last three years the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries at Moscow has been publishing a Weekly News Bulletin in English, French and German. The bulletin carries the following permanent sections: Achievements of Soviet culture, dealing with public education as well as social hygiene and public welfare; Science—containing reports about the activities of the various Academies of the U.S.S.R., of the scientific research institutions, as well as expeditions and scientific discoveries and inventions; Literature and Art in the U. S. S. R.—giving literary criticism, as well as reports on the Soviet theater, music and cinema; also surveys of the art industries of the Soviet Union; the section entitled "International Cultural Relations" deals with Soviet exhibitions abroad; with the activities of the Societies of Friends of the U. S. S. R. in foreign countries; with the participation of Soviet scientists in congresses, etc. The section entitled "Soviet Social Life" contains articles about cooperatives, the worker and peasant correspondent movement, the workers' clubs, the rural reading rooms, etc. Other sections deal with physical culture and sports, with the life of the national minorities, with foreign visitors in the U. S. S. R. and their opinions on Soviet scientific and cultural life. The bibliographical section contains reviews of recent scientific, literary, art and technical publications.

The Bulletin which hitherto had been sent out free of charge has now been placed on a subscription basis. Sample copies are being sent free upon request. The regular subscription rate is \$2.40 per year. All communications with regard to the Bulletin should be sent to: VOX, M. Nikitskaya 6, Moscow, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

### Marriages and Divorces in the U. S. S. R.

The table below shows the marriage and divorce figures for the European territory of the Soviet Union, viz., the European part of Soviet Russia proper (R. S. F. S. R.), the Ukraine and White Russia. Prior to the Revolution the number of divorces was very small, only the well-to-do classes being able to afford the expenses connected with the procedure.

*Marriages and Divorces Per 1000 of the Population*

	1911-13		1925		1926	
	Mar- riages	Di- vorces	Mar- riages	Di- vorces	Mar- riages	Di- vorces
European part of R. S. F. S. R. ....	8.2	..	9.8	1.5	10.6	1.5
Ukraine .....	8.3	..	10.6	1.8	9.8	1.4
White Russia .....	7.4	..	10.5	1.3	9.9	1.6

### Students in Moscow Higher Educational Establishments

There are 35,183 students in the sixteen higher educational establishments in Moscow—26,127 men and 9,056 women. The attendance is largest in the higher technological institutions with 15,500 students, in the social-economic institutions with 7,025 students, and the agricultural institutions with 4,323 students.

### Development of Soviet Tours

In the course of the last few years, traveling for purposes of recreation is being undertaken on a large scale in the U. S. S. R. Last summer thousands of workers, office employees and students, mostly people of the younger generation, made a number of such trips. A great number of excursions were made to the south of the U. S. S. R., and especially to the shores of the Black Sea, considerable distances being covered on foot. Many trips down the great rivers were undertaken in row boats. The tourists are pursuing both purposes of education and of physical culture.

Up to the present time the needs of the tourists were being taken care of by separate circles, and depended upon private initiative. Now all activities in this direction have been concentrated in the hands of the Russian Tourist Society. The society has adopted a number of decisions concerning the organization of an information service for independent tourist activities; the reduction of the cost of long-distance excursions, etc.

### Development of Automobile Traffic in the U.S.S.R.

The rudimentary condition of the automobile industry in the Soviet Union as compared with the enormous expanse of the country and the insignificant system of highways has attracted the special interest of the administrative and economic authorities as well as of the public at large, towards the problems of automobilism and road construction.

The society "Avtodor" which was organized for the purpose of encouraging automobile traffic and the construction of roads, has at present extended its ramifications to many plants, factories and institutions in the cities, and even to some rural localities.

There are two factories in the U. S. S. R. which are engaged in the turning out of automotive vehicles: the "AMO" factory in Moscow which turns out annually about 600 1½-ton automobiles, and the Yaroslavl factory with an annual output of 200 to 300 motor trucks with a capacity of three to three-and-one-half tons.

The construction of an automobile factory in

Moscow is contemplated for the near future. Its completion will require three years, and it will be able to turn out 10,000 to 12,000 machines annually—one-ton motor trucks which are best suited for Soviet roads and whose prices are within popular reach.

At the same time it is intended to extend the output of "AMO" to 4,000 1½-ton machines, and that of the Yaroslavl plant to 600 trucks (3 to 3½ tons).

#### **Condition of the Railway Transport in the U. S. S. R.**

At the congress of the railway workers Mr. Y. Rudzutak, People's Commissar for Transport, produced the following data concerning the condition of railway transport in the U. S. S. R.:

While in 1913 the railways yielded a profit of 381,000,000 rubles (\$196,000,000), the profit for the fiscal year 1925-26 (beginning October 1, 1925), amounted to 158,900,000 rubles (\$81,800,000); in 1926-27 it amounted to 237,500,000 rubles (\$122,300,000), and in 1927-28 it is expected to reach the sum of 325,000,000 rubles (\$167,000,000).

It is expected that the number of workers employed in the transport system will come up to 763,000 during the current year.

Freight shipments which had surpassed the pre-war (1913) level during the fiscal year 1925-26, have shown a further increase during the first quarter of the current fiscal year 1927-28 (beginning October 1, 1927).

#### **Collective Farming in the Soviet Union**

At the present time there are over 20,000 collective farms in the Soviet Union.

The situation of the collective farms is improving and consolidating from year to year. All kinds of machines are being used in these farms to a greater extent than in the case of individual farms. This applies equally to all kinds of improved methods, such as the system of crop rotation, etc. Thus, in White Russia about 80 per cent of the collective farms have abandoned the one-third fallow system to pass over to the system of crop rotation, while in Soviet Russia proper 60 per cent of the collective farms have effected that change. In the Ukraine about 60 per cent of all collective farms are using selected seeds; in Soviet Russia proper 40 per cent of all collective farms are using selected seeds. This testifies not only to the fact that the collective farms are growing in strength economically; it also shows that their agricultural influence upon the individual farms is growing from year to year.

A comparison of the productivity of the collective farms and of the individual farms decidedly speaks in favor of the first. On an average the harvest of the collective farms is by 20 to 30 per cent higher than that of the individual farms.

Moreover, the technical and fodder crops grow

better in the collective farms, and, as a result, the latter are more profitable and better suited for live-stock breeding. Thus, last year the gross crop showed the following figures in the Ukraine: in the collective farms 118 rubles per one hectare (2.47 acres) and 108 rubles per capita; in the individual peasant farms the corresponding figures amounted to 100 and 64 rubles respectively.

It must likewise be pointed out that the collective farms of the Soviet Union possess over 2,000 industrial and other subsidiary enterprises. True, most of these enterprises are small. Some of them, however, are comparatively large. They include potato rasping plants, sugar refineries, distilleries, brick factories and other plants, all kinds of flour mills, etc. The growth of the industrial enterprises attached to the collective farms is increasing, which contributes to the consolidation of the collective farms and strengthens their influence upon the cultural and economic progress and the cooperative tendencies among the individual farmers.

#### **Mineral Wealth of the Soviet Union**

At the annual session of the Geological Committee held in Leningrad early in 1928, the results of the investigations conducted by the committee in the course of the last year were made public.

In the Crimea iron ore deposits were discovered, containing a reserve of 370 million metric tons of ore. In Siberia manganese ore deposits were found aggregating 580,000 metric tons. At Yulenevo enormous deposits of nickel ore were discovered. New deposits of lead were found in the Tulansk lead district, aggregating 168,000 metric tons of ore with a 15 per cent lead content.

Regions containing precious metals were investigated with particular care and new prospecting activities were successfully carried out in the Yakut Republic, in Transcaucasia, and in the Pamir mountains in Soviet Central Asia.

New vast anthracite fields were found in the Yegorshinsk region on the eastern slope of the Ural. New coal fields were likewise discovered in the Pechora region in North Russia and in Transcaucasia, the coal deposits in the latter region having been estimated at 45,000,000 metric tons. Newly discovered deposits of brown coal are likewise very extensive.

Prospecting activities in all the various sectors under investigation resulted in the drilling of 30,608 meters, as against 15,497 in the previous year.

The Geological Committee has accomplished an enormous amount of work by issuing the geological maps of the European part of the U. S. S. R., of the Crimea, of Turkestan, the Asiatic part of the U. S. S. R., and of the Donetz basin.

#### **Military Expenditures in the Soviet Budget**

The growth of the military expenditures in the budget of the Soviet Union is not keeping pace with the increase of the expenditures for eco-

nomic, cultural and social welfare requirements. As a result of this tendency, the proportion of the military expenditures in the federal Soviet budget is decreasing. Thus, while in 1925-26 the budget of the People's Commissariat for Army and Navy constituted 14 per cent of all the expenditures of the State budget, in 1926-27 this proportion was reduced to 12.5, and in the budget of the current year to 12.3 per cent.

The total expenditures provided for national defense for the current fiscal year amount to 742,000,000 rubles (\$382,000,000). Thus the military expenditures of the U. S. S. R., even if calculated in nominal rubles, are considerably lower than the corresponding expenditures in Tsarist Russia, which, in 1913, amounted to 968,400,000 pre-war rubles, i. e., 28.2 per cent of the budget expenditures. If, however, the depreciation of the ruble is also considered, then it appears that for the current fiscal year the military expenditures make up less than half of the military expenditures of pre-war Russia (1913).

Moreover, the military expenditures of the Soviet Union are much lower than the present military expenditures of the other countries. Thus, while in England the per capita expenditure for national defense amounts to over 18 pre-war rubles, and to about 14 pre-war rubles in France, it amounts to less than 3 pre-war rubles in the Soviet Union.

#### The Carrying Out of the Soviet Budget for the First Half of 1927-28

Revenues actually collected during the first half of the current fiscal year 1927-28 (beginning October 1, 1927), amounted to 3,086,000,000 rubles (\$1,589,000,000), which makes up 51.1 per cent of the total annual revenue calculated for this year's budget. The State loans placed during the first half of the fiscal year amounted to 425,411,000 rubles (\$219,081,000), the annual figure having been estimated at 525,000,000 rubles. In the course of the first half year revenues exceeded expenditures by 120,000,000 rubles (\$61,800,000).

#### Activities of Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R.

At the plenary meeting of the Central Council of the Section of Scientific Workers, held in Moscow last May, the Academician Sergey Oldenburg, Permanent Secretary of the Academy of Sciences of the Soviet Union, made a report on the activities of the Academy of Sciences for the past year.

The main activity of the Academy of Sciences consisted in studying the natural productive forces of the country; in geographical and ethnographical investigations of the various regions of the country; in the organization of exploratory expeditions; in the development of academic laboratories; and in the organization of the system of museums and scientific exhibitions. These museums and exhibitions are not only depositories

of scientific collections; they are also institutions engaged in the furthering of scientific education. The Academy of Sciences is connected with 1,700 local geographico-ethnographic societies. Since the Revolution of 1917, the Academy of Sciences has organized about three hundred exploratory expeditions.

The Academy of Sciences publishes annually 1,300 printed "sheets" (one "sheet" meaning in Russian 16 printed pages containing about 8,000 words), of scientific works. The Government has appropriated the necessary means for a further extension of the publishing activities of the Academy.

The forty-two active members of the Academy are at the head of sixty scientific institutions. They are also engaged in the activities of eighty others scientific institutions and are occupying thirty chairs in various universities.

In accordance with the new constitution of the Academy of Sciences, ratified by the Government of the U. S. S. R., the total number of Academicians is to be brought to 85, six chairs to be organized for the social-economic sciences.

#### Soviet Industries in April

The output of the most important industries of the Soviet Union for April, as compared with the preceding month, as well as the percentage increase (or decrease) in April, 1928, as against the same month of the preceding year, is shown in the following table:

##### *Fuel, Metal and Ore in Metric Tons*

	April, 1928	March, 1928	Percentage of Increase or Decrease as Against April, 1927
Coal .....	2,454,100	3,191,300	+ 0.8
Oil .....	913,200	936,200	+ 8.8
Pig Iron .....	279,500	291,400	+12.4
Martin Steel .....	341,200	382,000	+13.8
Rolled Iron .....	272,800	306,200	+21.7
Iron Ore .....	451,200	540,300	+22.1
Cement .....	154,900	157,700	+14.9

##### *Fabrics in Millions of Meters*

Cotton Fabrics .....	183.2	233.1	-7
Woolen Fabrics .....	7.53	8.72	+7.1
Linen Fabrics .....	13.43	18.49	-6.4

#### Foreign Trade of the U. S. S. R. for First Seven Months of 1927-28

The total turnover of the foreign trade of the Soviet Union across the European frontier for the first seven months of the current fiscal year, beginning October 1, 1927, amounted to 757,600,000 rubles (\$390,164,000), as against 719,600,000 rubles for the same period of the preceding year. Exports amounted to 345,700,000 rubles (\$178,000,000), and imports to 411,900,000 rubles (\$212,100,000) giving an adverse balance of 66,200,000 rubles (\$34,100,000).

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# SOVIET UNION REVIEW

Fifteen Cents

September, 1928

Vol. VI, No. 9

## **A Rescue in the Arctic**

### **Fifth Anniversary of Constitution of U. S. S. R.**

### **Conspiracy Against Soviet Coal Industry**

### **The Council of Nationalities**

### **Organization of Grain Supply for 1928-29**

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## A Rescue in the Arctic

THE misfortune that befell the Nobile expedition on May 25, met with an immediate response on the part of the Soviet Republic. A special committee was formed in Moscow under the Chairmanship of Mr. I. S. Unshlikht, Assistant Commissar for Army and Navy, for the purpose of organizing the salvaging operations. In Leningrad the Soviet group of the International Society for the Aeronautic Study of the Arctic Regions elected a special commission, headed by Professor R. L. Samoilovich, which was to assist the Moscow committee in its task.

Two Soviet expeditions were organized for the rescue of the three groups into which the crew of the Italian airship split after the accident. The task of rescuing the lost Amundsen expedition was later added to the original plans.

### The "Malygin" Expedition

The eastern expedition, on the ice-breaker "Malygin," which was provided with an airplane piloted by the aviator M. Babushkin, was headed by the experienced Arctic explorer, Professor V. Wiese. It sailed from Archangel on June 12 and was to operate in the Hope Island region in which Babushkin was to search for one of the groups. On June 29, Babushkin with four others on board of his plane flew in the direction of Foyn Island. Fog prevented him from reaching the island and he did not return until five days later, after several forced landings and a continuous struggle against wind and ice. Altogether Babushkin effected fifteen flights; in most of the cases he was compelled either to turn back or to make perilous forced landings on account of the fog. On July 14, "Malygin," after having searched the Hope Island region and penetrated across the ice north of King Charles Land, turned south to the eastern shores of the Spitsbergen group on the lookout for Amundsen. On July 17, "Malygin" turned back to Archangel, after having spent thirty days in the midst of the icy wastes. During that time the ice-breaker sustained two storms and had been repeatedly ice-bound. The struggle against the elements cost the ship thirty bent beams, crumpled sides and leaks in the hold.

### The "Krassin" Expedition

The western expedition, on the ice-breaker "Krassin," headed by another Arctic expert, Professor R. L. Samoilovich, was to reach the north-western section of Spitsbergen in search of the

members of the Nobile expedition. In addition, "Perseus," the hydrographical ship of the Floating Maritime Scientific Exploration Institute, left Murmansk on June 13, on a scientific expedition in the direction of Spitsbergen and was to maintain connection between the ice-breaker "Malygin," the airplanes, Nobile's relief ship "Citta di Milano" and the continent.

"Krassin" is the most powerful ice-breaker in the world, her engines being able to develop 10,800 I. H. P. giving her a speed of 15 knots. Her dimensions are: length, 318 feet; breadth, 71.5 feet; depth, 42.4 feet. An airplane piloted by the experienced Arctic pilot B. G. Chukhnovsky was on board.

"Krassin" left the port of Leningrad on June 15. On July 10, Chukhnovsky ascended to explore the ice and to establish the location of the Viglieri group (the main group of the "Italia" crew which two weeks before had been reached by the Swedish flier Lundborg). Three hours later Professor Samoilovitch, the commander of the "Krassin" expedition, received a radio message from Chukhnovsky informing him that the Malmgren group which had been considered all but lost, had been discovered by him on a floe. The group was situated at 80.42 degrees north and 25.45 east, twenty miles east of the position of the "Krassin." Due to fog the flier was unable to locate the position of the "Krassin" and to return to his base. He landed on the ice near Cape Wrede, where the chassis of the machine was damaged, thus rendering his return to the "Krassin" impossible. In a radio message directed to his base Chukhnovsky urged "Krassin" to proceed first with the rescue of the Malmgren group, as he and his companions were sufficiently provided with foodstuffs.

On July 12, at 7 a. m. "Krassin," following the exact indications given by Chukhnovsky, reached the two members of the Nobile expedition who, together with the Swedish scientist Malmgren, had left the Nobile group a month and a half before. The ice floe on which the two survivors were found was not more than eight meters wide. Late at night on the same date "Krassin" found and saved the so-called Viglieri group which was composed of five persons (Nobile, who was originally with this group had been saved by the Swedish flier Lundborg.)

On July 15, "Krassin" reached Cape Wrede near which Chukhnovsky had been forced to land on





Professor R. L. Samoilovich, Head of the Expedition.

July 10, after the discovery of the Malmgren group, and saved the whole crew (five persons) of the Soviet airplane. The "Krassin" was then considering entering the nearest harbor to have her rudder and screw-blade repaired. After that she was to continue the search for Amundsen and the Alessandri group—the remaining section of the Nobile expedition.

#### "Krassin" Saves German Steamer

On July 25, while on her way to the port, "Krassin" picked up the radio of the German steamer "Monte Cervantes," which, with 1,500 passengers and a crew of 300 on board, had met with an accident on an Arctic excursion. In spite of its own precarious condition, the ice-breaker turned back from its course and reached the German vessel after about 12 hours. His crew assisted the tourist ship in locating and fixing the damage and in pumping the water that had penetrated the holds of the boat.

The various rescues have left seven men still unaccounted for in the Arctic wastes. These include several members of the Nobile crew as well as the Norwegian explorer Amundsen, who was never heard from after his heroic departure to reach the Nobile castaways in a dash by airplane.

In the middle of August "Krassin" completed her repairs and left the Norwegian port of Stavanger. According to an announcement made by the Soviet rescue commission it was to resume its search on August 20. With the changing of the season the new expedition promised to be much more arduous, but the officers and the men of the "Krassin" expedition expressed determination to exhaust every effort in the attempt to recover the lost men. They will make a thorough search off

the eastern and northern coast of Spitsbergen. The new expedition is likewise to include the ice-breaker "Sedov" which is provided with an airplane.

Shortly after the news of the first rescues was known Professor Samoilovich and the aviator Chukhnovsky were invited to visit the United States after their work was ended. The invitation was issued by Mr. Reeve Schley, Vice-President of the Chase National Bank, on behalf of the American-Russian Chamber of Commerce of which Mr. Schley is President. The invitation was accepted.

It is estimated that the new expedition of "Krassin" will consume a month or more, so that the two Soviet citizens are not likely to arrive in the United States before the first part of December.

#### The Head of the Expedition

The head of the "Krassin" expedition, Rudolph Lazarevich Samoilovich was born in 1884. He obtained his higher education in foreign universities, having chosen engineering and geology as his specialty. After he finished his studies he returned to Russia. The Tsarist authorities exiled him to Archangel on account of his opinions. Because of his exceptional learning Samoilovich, during his



Aviator B. G. Chukhnovsky





Aviator M. S. Babushkin

stay in the extreme north of Russia, was invited to take part in an expedition to Spitsbergen for the purpose of its geological exploration as well as for the study of its coal deposits. He stayed there until 1912. For a number of years Samoilovich was engaged in the study of the scientific material collected in Spitsbergen and was an advocate of the exploitation of the Spitsbergen coal deposits in the interest of the Kara Sea expeditions and of Northern shipping in general. In 1918, Mr. Samoilovich, jointly with three other geologists, organized a commission, attached to the Academy of Sciences, for the purpose of a study of the natural resources of the northern sections of the U. S. S. R. Subsequently that commission was transformed into the Institute for the Study of the North, Samoilovich being appointed director of that body.

In 1925, Samoilovich, using a small motor boat went out on an expedition to Novaya Zemlya, with the purpose of studying its natural resources. He succeeded, however, only in exploring the southern part of the island. In 1926, he undertook the second expedition and at that time he circumnavigated the entire island and studied the natural resources, as well as the fisheries of Novaya Zemlya.

At present Mr. Samoilovich is Director of the Institute for the Exploration of the North.

### The Arctic Flier Chukhnovsky

The naval flier Boris Grigorievich Chukhnovsky is a graduate of the Naval Aviation School and of the Naval Academy. He took part in the Civil War and in two expeditions across the Kara Sea (east of Novaya Zemlya) along the Arctic coast of Siberia to the mouths of the Obi and Yenisei rivers. In 1924, while still a student at the Naval Academy, Chukhnovsky was the first aviator to fly on a hydroplane from Archangel to Novaya Zemlya. A year later, jointly with the aviator Kalvitz, he made a second flight to Novaya Zemlya, this time from Leningrad. On the way north of Archangel he was caught in a storm and lost his way. Both aviators had to land near the shore where they left the plane in a sheltered position. For over a week there was no news from Chukhnovsky, and it was generally assumed that he had perished. During that time he managed to reach on foot a Samoyed settlement and gave the natives a message which they carried to the nearest radio station. After the weather had improved the two fliers resumed their flight and reached the radio station Matochkin Shar, situated in Novaya Zemlya. During his last flight Chukhnovsky gathered much valuable information about the movement of flocs.

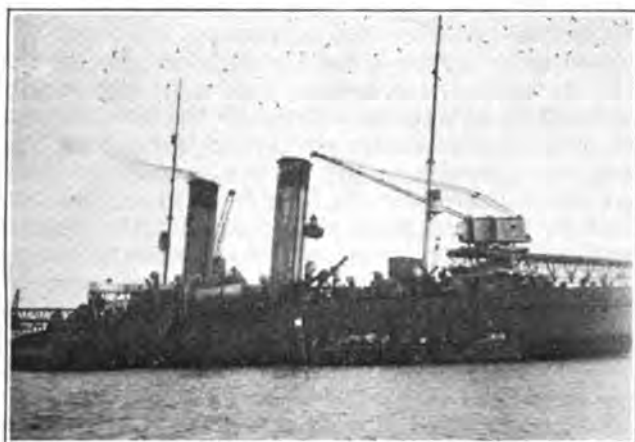
During the past year B. G. Chukhnovsky served as naval flier in Sebastopol.



Samoilovich and Chukhnovsky



## Crew and Vessels of the Soviet Rescue Expedition



The Ice Breaker "Krassin"



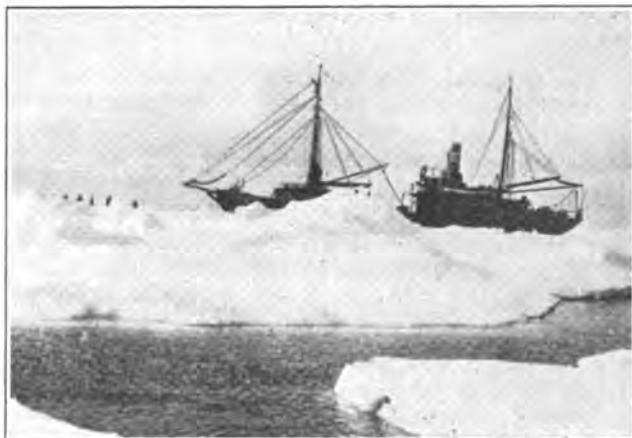
The Ice Breaker "Malygin"



Crew of "Krassin"



Airplane Loaded on "Krassin"



"Perseus" Near Hope Island

## A Conspiracy Against the Soviet Coal Industry

THE trial of the fifty-three engineers of the Donetz coal mines has come to a conclusion after forty-five days, having lasted from May 18, to July 5. The sentence pronounced by the Special Division of the Supreme Court—which has original jurisdiction in particularly important cases—represents a historical document, for it throws a bright light upon those social forces which, though vanquished in the Revolution and civil war of 1917-21, have not yet given up the hope of recovering their former privileges.

The origins of the conspiracy which was on trial go back to the period when, as a result of the victories of the Red Armies in 1919-20, the "Whites" were forced out of the Donetz basin, the chief coal supply basis of the Soviet Republic. The former owners and stockholders of the coal mines met at Rostov-on-the-Don in a conference in which they were joined by a number of technical experts of the mines concerned. And in the firm expectation of the impending inevitable fall of the Soviet Government they outlined a program of activities for the near future.

In accordance with that program, the engineers and technicians were to remain at the nationalized mines to work there in the interest of the old owners, to maintain the mines and the equipment in good condition, to protect them against depreciation, to hide from the new authorities the existence of particularly profitable deposits, so that in case of their return, the old owners should find the mines in an unimpaired condition. They were to carry out the instructions of their former masters with regard to the management of their former property, and to send them reports about the condition, the equipment, the exploitation plans, etc., of those enterprises. On the other hand, the former owners were to send monetary subsidies to their particularly trusted assistants to be distributed among all those who took part in serving and protecting the interests of the old masters.

The judicial investigation established that the former owners were acting not on their personal initiative, but as members of various organizations and societies constituted abroad, such as the "Union of Former Mining Operators of South Russia," the "Society of Creditors of Old Russia," the "Polish Union of Former Directors and Owners of Mining Enterprises in the Donetz Basin," etc.

The part played by the "Union of Former Mining Operators of South Russia" was all the more sinister as it was the center which was directing, from its seat in Paris, the counter-revolutionary sabotage organization formed in the Donetz basin in 1923-24.

A conference of that body took place in Paris in the fall of 1926, a number of the engineers who were later arrested taking part in the deliberations. The topics discussed included methods of combating the Soviet Government, the necessity of bringing about a rupture between the Soviet Union and France, the instigation of war and intervention, as well as the importance of a sabotaging organization active within the U. S. S. R. Considerable amounts of money were appropriated for the activities of that organization. The connection between those activities and the foreign bodies financing them was supplied by those of the affiliated engineers whom the Soviet Government was sending abroad on official missions, for the purchase of machinery, etc.

In the beginning the sabotaging activities of the engineers—most of them responsible officials who, before the Revolution, had been in the employ of the former owners—were being carried on individually, without any organization or any directing plan. Gradually groups embracing the various mines sprung up, and early in 1924, the various groups formed in Kharkov, the capital of the Ukraine, a central organization embracing the entire Donetz Basin. It was called the "Kharkov Center." Through Paris it was keeping in touch with the aforementioned foreign organizations of the former mine owners who had emigrated from the Soviet Republic.

During the fiscal year 1925-26, the "Kharkov Center" succeeded in concentrating in its hands not only the highest engineering positions in the various mines, but even entire institutions, or various departments and managing boards dealing with important questions such as the import of machinery, mechanization of the output and the construction of new mines.

This "Kharkov Center" was not only to protect and to preserve intact the most valuable coal deposits and mine equipment in the interest of the former owners; it was also to conduct the whole mining industry in the Donetz Basin in such a manner as to open the road for a return of the enterprises to the former operators, by obtaining, at least, extremely favorable concession agreements for the latter.

The program of activities of the "Kharkov Center" included also propaganda against the Soviet Government, assistance to the enemies of the U. S. S. R. in case of war, through disorganization of the rear, through a curtailment of the output, the destruction and drowning of the shafts, etc.

Moreover, one of the main tasks of the organization was to arouse the dissatisfaction of the workers, to irritate them by introducing unfair regulations, by lowering the rates, by aggravating conflicts, through red tape and delay in the carrying out of collective agreements—briefly, by creating such relations between the workers and the

trade union and Party organizations as would disorganize and undermine the authority of these organizations.

When the situation of the country necessitated an intensification of the fuel output, and the idea of the construction of small shafts came to the fore, the "Kharkov Center" saw to it that such activities should be undertaken at random without consulting carefully verified data. Members of that organization were likewise opposing all the endeavors to have the cost price of coal reduced, thus preventing a reduction of the cost price in all the other industries. In the matter of new mining construction the pernicious activities of the organization consisted in intentionally delaying the drawing up of projects, in preparing unnecessary alternative versions and in bringing forth endless changes and modifications of the finished projects. Due to this method a number of projects were continually in the process of termination; they were not being completed for years, and for this reason the exploitation of many shafts was obstructed for considerable periods. At the same time shafts were being laid without any plan, without any preliminary investigations, and equipment was being ordered without any verified plan or verified estimates.

The Technical Council of Experts connected with the Donetz coal industry, which was to pass on the projects submitted, in most of the cases seemed unable to discover or to prevent these pernicious activities.

The Mechanization Department of the Donetz coal mines likewise participated in these activities by purchasing equipment which was not fit for the work for which it was intended, by ordering machines without spare parts, or by refusing to ship the proper machines under the false pretext that they were not available.

All these sabotaging activities of the various departments were rendered possible by the fact that the very Managing Board of the Donetz Coal Industry was under the sway of these counter-revolutionary elements, and it was established that the accused Boyarshinov, Chief Technical Director of the Donetz coal mines, was an active member of the "Kharkov Center."

The activities of this organization were financed from abroad by the organizations of the former owners as well as by government institutions of some foreign countries. Several hundred thousand rubles were transmitted from abroad during the period of 1924 to 1927. The money was brought to the U. S. S. R. either personally by various engineers returning from official Government missions, or with the assistance of various foreign government institutions. Part of the money was being obtained in the form of commissions—from 0.5 to 30 per cent—which the members of the organization received from German firms on orders placed.

In the beginning of 1926, a Moscow group was organized along lines similar to the "Kharkov Center." It was to unite and direct the sabotaging activities of the groups formed in the various People's Commissariats and State Trusts. Some of the members of the Moscow group were in close connection with the "Kharkov Center."

### The Sentence

The sentence divided the indicted and convicted persons into several groups. The first group was composed of those who were directly connected with representatives of foreign governments, both in the Soviet Union and abroad, and who, in developing and carrying out the orders of the "Kharkov Center" were committing acts of treason against the Soviet State. In accordance with the corresponding article of the Criminal Code this group of spies was condemned to death. In view of the danger of foreign intervention which still confronts the Soviet Union, clemency seemed to the court to be out of question, and the five members of that group were executed.

Next came the members of the counter-revolutionary organization who were engaged in sabotaging the coal industry. Arrests having broken up that organization and the confessions of the accused persons having disclosed practically all the details, the Supreme Court decided that a milder course than in the case of the first group was appropriate. For this reason it decided to condemn the members of that group to prison terms of various length, depending upon the part which each of them played in the Kharkov organization, whether in the center or in the periphery. However, with regard to the chief culprits heading this group, the Supreme Court did not feel justified in relieving them of the threat of a capital sentence and decided merely to apply to the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union for a commutation of the sentence by substituting for it ten years of prison, giving particular consideration to the fact of their repentance.

The third group was formed by those whom the Supreme Court did not deem to have been directly engaged in the pernicious activities, although they no doubt had knowledge of the existence of the Kharkov organization, were aware of its aims and were rendering it some assistance or other. They were condemned to shorter terms of imprisonment.

The fourth group was composed of those who were given suspended sentences. These had been drawn into the organization against their will, prompted by the dread of their immediate superiors and the fear of losing their positions. They frankly confessed everything, and their activities were not of a particularly grave character.

Four persons, including the German engineers, were acquitted.

In commenting upon the trial, the Moscow "Izvestia," the official organ of the Government, declares that the crux of the whole proceedings lies in the fact that the authorities have succeeded in putting a stop to the pernicious activities of the plotters. "The very fact," says an editorial in that paper, "that such a case was placed on trial before the public opinion of the working masses, has on the one hand apprized those masses by how many hidden and open enemies we are still surrounded, and, on the other hand, it has shown how powerless the enemies are to stop the process of reconstruction."

## Fifth Anniversary of the Constitution of the Soviet Union

ON July 1, 1928, the Moscow "Izvestia," official organ of the Soviet Government, published the following article written by A. Enukidze, Secretary of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union:

The Constitution of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics whose fifth anniversary we are celebrating today, was the result of the firm determination on the part of the various Soviet Republics to establish among themselves a solid union both in the sphere of their national economy and their foreign relations. Since 1918, i. e., from the first months of their formation, the Soviet Republics became aware of the need for a closer unity of their activities due to the identity of their class interests. Thus, for instance, the first Soviet Congress of the White-Russian Soviet Republic, held in 1919, declared solemnly that "Soviet White-Russia, which has established its independence on the ruins of feudal Tsarist Russia, recognizes the necessity of establishing close economic and political connections with her elder sister, the Russian Soviet Republic, which had given substantial assistance to the White-Russian Republic in the re-establishment of her shattered economy." Similar statements and requests have likewise been coming from other Soviet Republics in the course of the first five years of the existence of the Soviet regime. It may be said that for a long time prior to the formation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the ratification of its Constitution, there was in existence an unwritten All-Union Constitution which actually regulated the close relations between the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic and the other Soviet Republics. How close these relations were can be seen from the fact that in the middle of 1919, there were not only separate agreements between the R. S. F. S. R., White Russia and the Ukraine, connected with the need for common action in some branch of administration or other, but even joint People's Commissariats, and even a single supreme government organ as represented by the Supreme Coun-

cil of National Economy, in which representatives of these Soviet Republics were included. Thus the Constitution of the U. S. S. R. sealed the actual relations which, to a considerable extent, had been in existence between the Soviet Republics prior to its adoption. Of course, it did not fully reflect them because the Constitution of the U. S. S. R. became the legal expression—not of the existence of separate, independent allied States, but of the existence of one Union State, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. That moment marks the turning of a new page of Soviet history. The peoples of the U. S. S. R. were given the opportunity with new and united efforts to avail themselves of their knowledge and their historic experience for the common cause of socialist construction.

Five years have passed since the time when the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. ratified and enacted the Constitution of the U. S. S. R. In the course of these five years we have passed from the first attempts to restore our national economy to a radical reconstruction of our entire economic life; we are firmly proceeding with the industrialization of the country and are actually promoting the realization of the cultural revolution. The very possibility of putting to the fore these two fundamental questions—industrialization of the country and cultural revolution—could occur only on the basis of that degree of development of our economic and cultural life which we attained through the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

During those five years the principles laid down in the Constitution of the U. S. S. R. were undergoing a continuous process of intensification and development; the very text of the Constitution was subjected to changes in conformity with the requirements of life, as exemplified by the following: The status of the Council of Nationalities of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. as an organ enjoying the same rights as the Council of the Union and having the right of separate vote at joint sessions, was finally embodied in legal form; the People's Commissariat for Domestic Trade and the People's Commissariat for Foreign Trade were reorganized and merged into one single Commissariat; the Central Statistical Board was constituted as part of the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R., etc.

Moreover, during that period, the principles of the Constitution of the U. S. S. R. reacted upon the Constitutions of the various Constituent Republics which, under the decision of the First Soviet Congress of the U. S. S. R. were bound to change their constitutions in connection with the fact of the formation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. These changes which have been incorporated in the constitutions of the republics of which the Soviet Union is composed, are very characteristic. When the texts of the constitutions of these republics were being revised—the

revision was concluded in 1925-26—the experience of the Soviet Union had been taken into consideration; nevertheless, the three years' existence and actual working of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. not only did not call forth any proposals by the constituent republics for any changes of the principles of the Constitution of the U. S. S. R.—on the contrary, this experience confirmed the correctness of the basic tenets of the Constitution.

The Constitution of the U. S. S. R. has proved to be the instrument which to the fullest extent protects the interests of the various nationalities of the U. S. S. R.; it protects these interests with the direct aid of all nationalities included in the U. S. S. R. and safeguards the equal rights of all nationalities of the U. S. S. R. It is this that makes for its vitality, for its power, for its extraordinary international importance.

## The Council of Nationalities

IN accordance with the Constitution of the U. S. S. R. which was ratified five years ago, the supreme authority of the Soviet Union is vested in the Soviet Congress, and during the intervals between the sessions of that Congress, in the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. The Central Executive Committee consists of the Council of the Union and of the Council of Nationalities. The Council of the Union consists of representatives of the six constituent Republics in proportion to the population of each Republic. The Council of Nationalities is constituted according to the principle of equal representation of all constituent and autonomous republics, on the basis of five representatives from each republic, and one representative from each autonomous area.

Thirty-nine national state formations are represented in the Council of Nationalities, only 4 per cent of the membership of the Council falling to the share of the Russian nationality which constitutes more than half of the entire population of the country. This excludes the possibility of the interests of the smaller nationalities being disregarded by the stronger nationality.

The Council of Nationalities has the same rights as the other part of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R.—the Council of the Union which is elected by the Soviet Congress of the U. S. S. R. Laws submitted to the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. can be ratified only if they have been passed by the Council of the Union and the Council of Nationalities. The practice of the activities of the two Councils has demonstrated that no substantial disagreements occur between them. This proves that the solidarity and unity of interests of all the nationalities of the U. S. S. R. exclude any possibility of conflicts between the two organs.

The activities of the Council of Nationalities

take place during the sessions of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R., either in separate sittings or jointly with the Council of the Union; in commissions dealing with various questions, and in the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee.

In its separate sittings the Council of Nationalities adopts all kinds of amendments to law projects for the purpose of protecting the interests of various nationalities and for rendering assistance to the most backward among them. Thus, for instance, on the initiative of the Council of Nationalities the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R., at its session in October, 1924, adopted a decision to grant additional assistance, out of the Federal budget, to the most backward autonomous republics and areas whose situation was particularly unfavorable, for the purpose of carrying through measures of agricultural improvement, for the satisfaction of their cultural and economic needs and for the consolidation of the local Soviet apparatus.

At its sessions taking place in the intervals between the sessions of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R., the Presidium of the Council of Nationalities is thoroughly familiarizing itself with the economic and cultural conditions of the national republics and areas. Thus the Presidium received reports about economic and cultural construction work in Karelia (an autonomous republic east of the Finnish border); about the rearrangement of land-holdings and the utilization of land in the Tartar Republic (in the Lower Volga region); about the cultural and public welfare activities in the North-Ossetian area (Northern Caucasus); about cultural and economic reconstruction activities in the Moldavian Republic (southeastern part of the Ukraine, on the border of Bessarabia), etc. The decisions of the Presidium reflect the current tasks of the leading organs of the various republics in all fields of construction.

The Presidium of the Council of Nationalities devotes particular attention to the current problems of the various republics and areas. Thus the Presidium of the Council of Nationalities carefully discussed the problems of the agricultural irrigation reform in the Uzbek Republic (in Soviet Central Asia); the activities of the Soviets in the cattle raising districts of the Turkoman Republic (southwestern part of Soviet Central Asia); the appointment of native forces in the Government apparatus and the protection of the rights of the national minorities in Transcaucasia, in the Ukraine and in other republics.

With regard to the appointment of native forces to the Government apparatus the Presidium of the Council of Nationalities has noticed considerable achievements in the various republics. In the Ukrainian and White Russian Republics school is being taught in the native languages. In addition, the knowledge of the local languages is obli-

gatory for the employees of the Government apparatus in these republics.

The trend toward industrialization has doubtless been a great stimulus towards the economic and cultural advancement of the national republics. This year the Presidium of the Council of Nationalities heard the report of the Supreme Council of National Economy of the U. S. S. R. about the development of industries in the Transcaucasian national republics, in the republics of Central Asia, and in the autonomous national republics and areas of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic. In its decision adopted with regard to the report of the Supreme Council of National Economy of the U. S. S. R. the Presidium of the Council of Nationalities pointed out the necessity of working out an industrial development plan of each national republic, the fundamental outlines of this development to be reflected in the corresponding industrial plans worked out for the entire Union.

The Soviet Constitution as well as the structure of the Soviet Government administration represent an actual guaranty of the equal rights of all the various nationalities, their highest possible cultural and economic advancement, as well as the development of their language. An atmosphere of mutual confidence of all nationalities of the Soviet Union has been created—a guaranty for a further economic and cultural development of the peoples of the U. S. S. R.

## Nationalities, Races and Languages in the U. S. S. R.

THE latest census of the Soviet Union which was taken in December, 1926, established the fact that the population of the U. S. S. R. was composed of 182 different nationalities. A great many of these nationalities are very small numbering less than 200,000 persons.

The numerous nationalities of the Soviet Union can be divided into the following main groups:

Slavs, including Russians (or Great-Russians), White-Russians, Ukrainians and Poles (also a certain number of Bulgarians and Czechs) make up 78.1 per cent of the total population.

Turko-Tartars, including Tartars, Azerbaijan Turks, Kazaks, Kirghizes, Turkomans, Chuvashes, Uzbeks, Yakuts, Bashkirs and other smaller nationalities make up 11.6 per cent of the total population.

Ugro-Finnic nationalities, including Mordvinians, Votyaks, Mari, Karelians, Komi (Zyrians) as well as small numbers of Finns, Esthonians and Lapps make up 2.2 per cent of the total population.

Caucasians, including Georgians, Armenians, Circassians, Chechens, Lesgians, with their numerous sub-divisions make up 3.2 per cent of the total population.

Semites, including Jews and Assyrians (Aisors), form 1.9 per cent of the total population.

Iranians, including Tajiks, Ossetes, Persians, Kurds and smaller nationalities, such as Talyshes and Tates, constitute 1 per cent of the total population.

Teutons, Greeks and Latins constitute 1.2 per cent of the population.

Lithuanians and Letts, 0.1 per cent of the total.

The census has recorded 149 languages, part of which are mere dialects. Russian is the mother tongue of 84,160,000 persons, that is 6,400,000 more than included in the Russian nationality, while, on the other hand, the Ukrainian language is being spoken by 3,623,000 persons less than the number of persons belonging to the Ukrainian nationality. Which shows that many individuals of the various racial groups in determining their nationality, placed more emphasis upon their national origin than upon the language they spoke.

The following thirty nationalities, embracing 97.6 per cent of the total population of the U. S. S. R., are the most important:

### *The Most Important Nationalities of the Soviet Union*

	Persons	Perc'tg. of Total Population
Russians .....	77,760,100	52.9
Ukrainians .....	31,194,800	21.2
White-Russians (West-Russia) .....	4,739,900	3.2
Kazaks* (Southwest Siberia and Central Asia) .....	3,959,900	2.7
Uzbeks (Central Asia) .....	3,904,500	2.6
Tartars (Middle Volga and Crimea) .....	3,015,200	2.0
Jews .....	2,600,900	1.8
Georgians (Transcaucasia) .....	1,821,200	1.2
Azerbaijan Turks** (Transcaucasia) .....	1,706,600	1.2
Armenians (Transcaucasia) .....	1,567,500	1.1
Mordvinians (Middle Volga) .....	1,340,400	0.9
Germans (Lower Volga) .....	1,238,500	0.8
Chuvashes (Middle Volga) .....	1,117,400	0.7
Tajiks (Central Asia) .....	978,200	0.7
Poles (chiefly Ukraine and White Russia) .....	782,300	0.5
Kirghizes (Central Asia) .....	768,700	0.5
Turkomans (Central Asia) .....	766,100	0.5
Bashkirs (Ural) .....	713,700	0.4
Votyaks (Eastern Russia) .....	504,200	0.3
Mari (Eastern Russia) .....	428,200	0.3
Chechens (Northern Caucasus) .....	392,600	0.3
Moldavians (Southwestern Ukraine) .....	278,800	0.2
Ossetes (Caucasus) .....	272,200	0.2
Karelians (Northwestern Russia) .....	248,100	0.2
Meshcheriaks (Eastern Russia) .....	242,600	0.2
Buryats (Eastern Siberia) .....	237,500	0.2
Komi † (Northeastern Russia) .....	221,300	0.2
Circassians (Northern Caucasus) .....	219,000	0.2
Yakuts (Eastern Siberia) .....	214,800	0.2
Greeks (South Russia and Ukraine) .....	213,800	0.2

\* Not to be confounded with the Cossacks.

\*\*They are sometimes erroneously being referred to as Tartars.

†They are also called "Zyrians" or "Syryenians."



## Organization of Grain Supply for 1928-1929

**I**T HAS been established that the grain-collecting campaign of the current year was handicapped chiefly by the great number of the grain collecting agencies, which led to a competition between these agencies. Moreover, the grain collecting campaign of the current year suffered from a number of other shortcomings: Rural localities in the interior of the country were not sufficiently covered by the state and cooperative grain purchasing agencies; the overhead expenses connected with the grain purchasing campaign were too high; the organization of the flour-milling business was not quite efficient; nor was the collected grain efficiently utilized.

In order to eliminate all these shortcomings in the grain-collecting campaign for 1928-29, as well as for the purpose of strengthening the position of the Government on the grain market and of creating the most favorable conditions for the greatest and most systematic collection of the peasants' surplus grain, the Council of People's Commissars of the Soviet Union decided to reorganize the present system of grain collections and of grain supply.

In order to unify the State grain-collecting apparatus, the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. resolved to organize a single All-Union State joint stock company, under the jurisdiction of the People's Commissariat for Trade of the U. S. S. R., to be known as "Soyuzkhleb" (Union Grain). "Soyuzkhleb" is to include "Khleboproduct" (Stock Company for Trade with Grain and other Agricultural Products), "Ukrkhleb" (Ukrainian Grain Purchasing Company), the Samara Flour-Milling Trust, the Flour-Milling Trust of the Tartar Republic, the Stalingrad (formerly Tsaritsyn) Milling Trust, the Amur Milling Trust, and the Mills of the Saratov industrial combines. The People's Commissariat for Trade of the U. S. S. R. transfers to "Soyuzkhleb" all the grain elevators for general use which are at its disposal, with the exception of the port elevators. "Soyuzkhleb" was to start its operations on July 1, of the current year.

In order to secure for "Soyuzkhleb" the collaboration of the authorities of the various constituent and autonomous republics, as well as of the various localities, "Soyuzkhleb" has been instructed to contribute a certain percentage to the budgets of the districts, counties and corresponding administrative units on whose territory the collections will be effected, to the amount of 6 kopecks (about 3 cents) per quintal (220 lbs.) of grain products or oil seeds. These payments are to be effected every three months through the governments of the constituent republics in question and are to be used for the improvement of grain raising in the regions in which the grain

was collected. The net profit of "Soyuzkhleb," after all the deductions required by the law have been made, and after 10 per cent has been set aside for the increase of the capital stock of "Soyuzkhleb," is to be distributed among the stockholders (the various Government organizations).

### Main Grain-Collecting Organizations for 1928-29

The following main grain-collecting agencies will be active during the campaign of 1928-29: "Soyuzkhleb," its activities to extend over the entire U. S. S. R.; "Centrosoyuz," of the U. S. S. R. (Central Union of Consumers' Cooperatives) its activities likewise to extend over the entire U. S. S. R.; "Centrosoyuz" of the R. S. F. S. R., its activities to be confined to the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic; "Khlebocentr" (Grain Center, an agricultural cooperative body for marketing of grain), its activities to extend over the R. S. F. S. R.; "Vukospilka" (All-Ukrainian Union of Consumers' Cooperatives); and "Silgospodar" (All-Ukrainian Union of Agricultural Credit and Homecraft Cooperatives), the two last named bodies to operate in the Ukraine.

"Soyuzkhleb" is to concentrate its collecting activities in its flour mills and elevators, as well as in the grain store-houses connected with railway stations and ports. As a general rule the collecting of grain at points in the interior is to be effected by the agricultural and consumers' cooperatives. The grain collected by the consumers' cooperatives under the general plan of the Soviet Union is to be handed over to "Soyuzkhleb."

### Creation of Large Soviet Farms

**T**HE People's Commissariat for Agriculture of Soviet Russia has been instructed to organize new Soviet farms on untilled land in the course of the next four or five years. These Soviet farms, i. e., large agricultural enterprises managed by the State, are to produce annually not less than 1,600,000 to 1,700,000 metric tons of grain. The plan of the People's Commissariat for Agriculture contemplates the organization of large grain-producing Soviet farms (estates) in the Northern Caucasus, in the Kazak Republic (southwestern Siberia and northern Turkestan), Siberia proper, the Lower and Middle Volga Region, the Bashkir Republic (southern Ural region) and in the Crimea. In these regions it is fully possible, out of the available land reserve, to organize large grain-raising units of not less than 30,000 to 40,000 hectares (about 75,000 to 100,000 acres) each. It is intended to commence their organization during the current year in the expectation that next year the new Soviet farms (estates) would produce not less than 90,000 metric tons of grain for the market.

Officials with full powers have been sent to the various localities to select the areas in which the future Soviet farms will be founded. So far 140,-

000 hectares (346,000 acres) of untilled land in the western part of the Salsk district in the Northern Caucasus have been appropriated for this purpose; of this area 60,000 hectares (148,000 acres) are to be tilled this year. A number of tractors have already been acquired for the future Soviet farms in the Northern Caucasus.

In the Provinces of Samara and Saratov in the Middle Volga Region, 96,000 hectares (about 240,000 acres) and 64,000 hectares (about 160,000 acres), respectively, were allotted for that purpose and 100,000 and 60,000 acres, respectively, are going to be tilled this year.

According to a statement made by the People's Commissar for Agriculture of the Kazak Republic, not less than 200,000 hectares (500,000 acres) could be immediately appropriated for the organization of Soviet estates in that republic. The land is situated not far from the railroad and comes up to all the agricultural requirements.

There is every reason to assume that the program outlined by the Government for the current year will be carried out. The localities show the greatest interest with regard to the large Soviet estates and are meeting all the endeavors of the People's Commissariat for Agriculture half-way.

It is intended to invest about 17,000,000 rubles (over \$8,500,000) for the organization of new Soviet estates during the present year.

## Foreign Relations of the U.S.S.R.

ON June 16, the following note, signed by Mr. G. Tchitcherin, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, was handed to Mr. Patek, Polish Ambassador in Moscow:

In my note of May 7 last, I called your attention to the fact that the continued absence of guarantees of safety for the Plenipotentiary Representation of the U. S. S. R. in Warsaw constitutes a direct threat to the relations between the U. S. S. R. and Poland. In view of the situation thus created, the Government of the Soviet Union assumed that the Polish Government would inform it immediately as to the measures undertaken by it for the purpose of decisively and finally uprooting the terrorist activities of the White émigrés in Poland.

From your note of June 3, 1928, the Government of the Soviet Union understands that the Polish Government considers the official warning given to the White émigrés in its announcement of August 14, 1927, as a satisfactory basis for the elimination of this abnormal situation. However, the measures taken by the Polish Government on the basis of that act, have proven entirely insufficient for stopping the terrorist activities of the White émigré organizations. This has been confirmed by the latest attempt of May 3, 1928.\*

The Government of the Soviet Union is likewise unable to recognize as satisfactory those measures which were undertaken by the Polish

Government after the attempt of Wojciechowski.\* In your note of June 3 last, you referred to a number of arrests which were effected after that attempt. However, all the persons who were arrested in connection with the attempt of May 3, have been released already. Measures of that kind which limit themselves to producing only a temporary effect, are hardly capable of making a proper impression upon the criminal spheres of the White émigrés in Poland.

The Government of the Soviet Union states that sterner measures are necessary for guaranteeing the safety of the Plenipotentiary Representation of the Soviet Union and for safeguarding the relations between the U. S. S. R. and Poland against incessant disturbances. Inasmuch as the Polish Government, as stated in your note of June 3, 1928, has adopted and intends to adopt measures for the purpose "of rendering impossible in the future" terrorist acts against the Plenipotentiary Representation of the U. S. S. R., the Government of the Soviet Union expects to receive communications about the concrete measures adopted by the Polish Government.

Unless the Polish Government adopts new serious and decisive measures against the White émigrés, the Government of the Soviet Union cannot consider that the question raised in my note of May 7, has been settled in a satisfactory manner, and it places upon the Polish Government the responsibility for the safety of the Plenipotentiary Representation of the U. S. S. R. in Warsaw.

### Soviet Protest to Rumania

On July 29, 1928, Mr. G. V. Tchitcherin, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, sent the following telegram to the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Rumania:

In accordance with information received by the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs, there has begun in Galatz an auction sale of property which in the past belonged to the Russian army, and of 200 steamers (tugs and other ship property) which belonged to the former firm "Russian-Danube Steamship Company," a firm which was founded exclusively with capital which belonged to the Russian State.

In accordance with generally accepted legal principles, the aforementioned property belongs to the U. S. S. R. The Government of the Soviet Union considers this property as being on deposit with the Rumanian Government until the settlement of the mutual relations of the parties concerned.

In its statement of August 18, 1921, the Soviet Government warned all governments, including the Rumanian Government, that it does not recognize a single transaction with regard to its property effected without its consent. The Government of the U. S. S. R. emphatically protests

\* Against the Soviet Trade Delegate in Warsaw.

against the sale of this property of the Soviet Union, and places upon the Rumanian Government the responsibility for the damage caused to the Soviet Government.

The Government of the U. S. S. R. warns [the Rumanian Government] that it reserves for itself the right of claiming the property which has been sold unlawfully.

The sale of property belonging to the Soviet Union, undertaken by the Rumanian Government, furnishes grounds for the Soviet Government to raise the question of applying similar measures with regard to Rumanian property which is at the disposal of the Soviet Government.

#### *Second Telegram to Foreign Minister of Rumania*

The Rumanian Minister for Foreign Affairs having replied to this protest in a telegram of August 4, Mr. M. Litvinov, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, sent the following telegram to the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Rumania, under date of August 11:

In connection with your communication of August 4 last I wish to call your attention to the fact that the Government of the Soviet Union continues to hold the Rumanian Government responsible for the material damage which the Union might suffer as a result of the sale of the Union's property, undertaken by the Rumanian Ministry for Transports.

Inasmuch as the Government of the Soviet Union does not know the condition of the vessels at the time of their sale and is as a result unable to estimate their real value, it reserves for itself the right not to recognize the transactions on the basis of which the Rumanian Government intends to sell property belonging to the Union.

The Soviet Government is likewise unable to accept the communication to the effect that the amounts obtained from the sale of the ship property will be transmitted to the owner whom the Rumanian Government intends to ascertain later. The Soviet Government has repeatedly declared and does declare that the Soviet Government is the only lawful owner of the property that is being sold. These property rights embrace all the properties mentioned in your telegram as well as all other property of the former Russian Army and of the Russian-Danube Steamship Company.

#### **The Events in Mongolia**

In connection with the misleading reports about recent events in Mongolia, emanating from Tokio and Peking, the Moscow "Pravda" of August 21, 1928, published the following article:

The outcry raised by the Japanese and British reactionary press concerning the Barga events, and the campaign of lies and slanders waged by that press against the Soviet Union and the Mongolian People's Republic, have emphasized the highly suspicious character of the entire affair. This is corroborated by the strange fact that two

months prior to any complications in Barga the Japanese and "White" press in Manchuria were persistently predicting the coming events.

One likewise cannot help connecting the Barga events with the increased activity of the White Guard elements in Manchuria, which, as is well known, have been in close contact with the Japanese military spheres since the intervention. Suffice it to mention the suspicious appearance in Manchuria of the notorious Ataman Semenov, accompanied, as usual, by his Japanese secretary, as well as the proven fact that the Russian White Guards played the leading part in the recent bandit attack upon the eastern section of the Chinese Eastern Railway. Mention should also be made of the fact that immediately prior to the events in Barga the Chinese customs office in Harbin discovered a large contraband shipment of arms transported under the guise of a shipment of old Japanese newspapers. It has been established that both the consignees and the forwarders of that interesting shipment were Japanese firms. To complete the picture it is also necessary to call attention to the revelations of the English newspaperman, Lenox Simpson, with regard to the ominous activity of Japanese secret societies which are being supported by the Japanese military spheres in Manchuria, and the fact that during the controversy that arose in connection with that question the Japanese Embassy in Peking did not deny the existence of those secret societies on Manchurian territory.

If, moreover, one considers the general situation, created in the Three Eastern Provinces (i. e., Manchuria), due to the events of the last months and weeks, and the continually increasing tension in Sino-Japanese relations, one may understand how justified is the suspicion that the Barga events have been called forth by outright provocative methods whose aim it was, on the one hand, to create a basis for further intervention in Northern Manchuria, and, on the other hand, to sidetrack the attention of the Chinese public from the most burning and actual political problems and focus it on a non-existent "Soviet" or "Mongolian" peril.

It appears from today's telegrams that the Japanese military authorities are already in a hurry to utilize the Barga events for the purpose of preparing earnest military operations in Northern Manchuria. Foreign sources report the intention of the Japanese military authorities to send troops to the Taonan-Tsitsihar railway which belongs to China, and even to the Khingan tunnel on the Chinese Eastern Railway. It is well known that the northwestern section of Manchuria has long been attracting the attention of the Japanese military spheres and of Japanese capital. All this likewise shows in which direction the wind is blowing and for whom and for what purpose it was necessary to provoke the action of the Barga insurgents.

## Miscellaneous News

### Delegation of American Professors in U. S. S. R.

A delegation consisting of twenty-eight American scientists and educators arrived in Moscow on July 13. Headed by Professor John Dewey, the delegation included Dr. J. McKeen Cattell, former President of the New York Academy of Sciences and editor of numerous scientific publications, Dr. Kenneth G. Matheson, President of the Drexel Institute in Philadelphia, Dr. James K. Norris, Professor of Chemistry, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and former President of the American Chemical Society, Dr. George D. Olds, President Emeritus of Amherst College, Dr. Donald J. Cowling, President of Carlton College, Professor Robert H. Gault of Northwestern University, Professor Thomas Woody of the University of Pennsylvania, and a number of other representatives of science. The delegation was accompanied by Miss Lucy Branham, Secretary of the American Society for Cultural Relations with Russia (U. S. S. R.).

The delegation was met at the station by Mr. A. V. Lunacharsky, People's Commissar for Education of the Soviet Union, Professor Kogan, President of the State Academy of Art Sciences, as well as by representatives of the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries.

Professor Dewey declared that the delegation went to the U. S. S. R. for the purpose of getting acquainted with the organization and the methods of public education in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

The delegation spent two weeks in Moscow and split into several groups for the purpose of visiting the Volga Region, Odessa, Kiev, Kharkov and other cities of the Soviet Union.

### Fund for Improvement of Situation of Workers

The Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. has adopted a decision concerning the establishment of special funds for the improvement of the situation of workers and office employees.

These funds are to be made up of annual pro rata deductions from the net profits of the State Trusts, Mixed Joint Stock Companies, the State Bank of the U. S. S. R., consumers' cooperatives, etc. The rate of the deductions from the net profits of all enterprises has been fixed at 10 per cent, except for the State Bank and the State Insurance of the U. S. S. R., which are to deduct 5 per cent.

The funds are intended exclusively for the satisfaction of the cultural and social needs of the workers and office employees, including housing construction.

### Leo Tolstoi Centenary

During the week beginning September 10, Leo Tolstoi's birthday, the Soviet Union will celebrate the hundredth anniversary of the birth of the great Russian writer. Lectures, the opening of the Leo Tolstoi Exhibition in Moscow, and a trip to Tolstoi's former estate Yasnaya Polyana in the Tula Province, will mark the celebrations. The Anniversary Committee has instructed Mme. Olga Kameneva, Chairman of the Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries to invite the most prominent foreign scientists, writers and artists to take part in the Tolstoi celebrations. Several distinguished Americans, such as Sherwood Anderson, Thomas Edison, Sinclair Lewis and Upton Sinclair, were invited to attend the celebration.

The publication of a complete edition of Tolstoi's works, including his literary productions, as well as his religious and philosophical works has been started in the U. S. S. R. It will embrace about one hundred volumes, some of them containing material never published before.

### Workers' Universities

Workers' universities began to spring up about three years ago. At present there are forty of them in Soviet Russia proper with 12,000 students. The major part of the workers' universities were organized in connection with regular universities which have at their disposal competent lecturers, buildings and laboratories. The students are between 25 and 35 years of age. Most of them are skilled workers whose ambition is not to obtain a diploma but to get thoroughly acquainted with the entire process of production from a theoretical standpoint and to become competent managers of the establishments in which they are working.

The workers' universities are divided into two branches—the social-economic and the technical branch. The social-economic branch includes courses on cooperatives, trade union work and administrative-economic activities, while the technical branch embraces engineering, electrotechnical, chemical and other courses. The studies which are in the form of evening courses are calculated to be completed within two to three years. Figures for twenty-eight out of the forty workers' universities in Soviet Russia proper show that during the current year 8,145 applications for admission have been made. Only 4,772 of the applicants could be accommodated. With regard to the social position of the students figures collected in thirty-one universities show that 81.1 per cent were manual workers, while 14 per cent were office employees.

### **Increase of Allowances on Scholarships**

The Council of People's Commissars of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic has recently decided to increase the amount of the allowance on scholarships for universities and workers' faculties (preparatory schools for higher educational establishments). From now on the amount received by the holder of a scholarship will be 27 rubles monthly in large cities and 22 rubles in the provinces. For this purpose over 800,000 rubles (about \$400,000) will be appropriated this year.

### **Trade Unions in the U. S. S. R. for the Last Five Years**

On October 1, 1922, the 23 trade union federations of the Soviet Union had 4,546,100 members. Five years later, on October 1, 1927, that number had increased to 10,441,000 members, 7,528,000 of that number falling to the share of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic and 2,029,400 to the Ukraine. The number of women members was 1,356,100 on April 1, 1923; it increased to 2,700,000 by October 1, 1927. The number of juvenile members was 332,000 on October 1, 1927.

### **Trade Relations Between the Soviet Union and the United States**

Early in July, the American section of the All-Union-Western Chamber of Commerce was constituted in Moscow. At the meeting called for that purpose Mr. S. L. Aralov, Vice-President of the Board of the All-Union-Western Chamber of Commerce, in his introductory speech briefly characterized the aims and the tasks of the American section whose activities are to facilitate the establishment of closer relations between the interested business spheres of both countries. The American section is to develop its activity not only by supplying the Soviet economic organizations with extensive information about the American market; it is also to engage in gathering material indispensable for the purpose of keeping American enterprises informed about the requirements of Soviet organizations.

Professor Bookspan, Director of the Economic Department of the Chamber, made a short report about the actual possibilities of a further extension of trade relations between the Soviet Union and the United States.

Mr. Charles Smith, Vice-President of the American-Russian Chamber of Commerce, in his address, pointed to the practical methods which ought to facilitate the establishment of a closer contact between the Soviet Union and the United States, and expressed the hope that the American section of the All-Union Chamber of Commerce, with the friendly collaboration of the American-Russian Chamber of Commerce, would prove exceedingly helpful in the enlivening of the mutual trade relations.

In conclusion a bureau of the American sec-

tion was elected, consisting of the following members: Mr. Charles Smith of the American-Russian Chamber of Commerce, Mr. Fushman of the Textile Import Company, Mr. Poliakov of the Amtorg Trading Corporation, Mr. A. Yazykov, formerly Chairman of the Special Delegation of the Far Eastern Republic in Washington (1921-22), and later Diplomatic Representative of the Soviet Union in Canada, Mr. Friedman, of the Chief Administration of the Electrical Industry, Professor Bookspan, Professor Kliuchnikov, and Mr. Pavlov of the Grain Export Company "Export-khleb." Mr. Perrottet was elected secretary of the American section.

### **Foreign Trade of the U. S. S. R. for First Nine Months of 1927-28**

The total turnover of the foreign trade of the Soviet Union across the European frontier for the first nine months of the current fiscal year, beginning October 1, 1927, amounted to 1,033,000,000 rubles (\$532,000,000), as against 959,200,000 rubles for the same period of the preceding year. Exports amounted to 456,200,000 rubles (\$235,000,000) and imports to 576,800,000 rubles (\$297,000,000) giving an adverse balance of 120,600,000 rubles (\$62,000,000).

The foreign trade turnover across the Asiatic frontier for the first eight months of the current fiscal year amounted to 155,700,000 rubles (\$80,100,000), as against 97,900,000 rubles for the same period of the preceding year. Exports amounted to \$40,800,000, and imports to \$39,300,000.

### **Federal Budget of the U. S. S. R. for 1928-29**

The preliminary budget estimate for the forthcoming year 1928-29, beginning October 1, 1928, as submitted by the People's Commissariat for Finances, provides for an aggregate amount of 6,970,000,000 rubles (\$3,589,500,000), representing an increase of 14.5 per cent, as compared with the budget for the current fiscal year. Direct taxes show an increase of 9 per cent, indirect taxes an increase of 13 per cent, while revenue derived from sources other than taxation is to increase 18 per cent. Seven hundred million rubles are to be raised by loans.

As regards the expenditures, over 940,000,000 rubles (over \$480,000,000) are to be used for the advancement of industry and electrification. There is also an increase in the appropriations for agriculture, and in particular for the industrialization and socialization of agriculture, as well as for the increase of productivity of the individual peasant farms. The appropriations for cultural needs and social welfare are likewise to be increased.

### **Appointment of Vice-Chairman of Council of People's Commissars**

Mr. V. V. Schmidt, People's Commissar for Labor of the Soviet Union, has been appointed Vice-Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars.

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# SOVIET UNION REVIEW

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## Soviet Ice-Breaker "Malygin" in the Arctic Jewish Back-to-the-Land Movement in U.S.S.R. Physical Culture in the Soviet Union Reply to Preparatory Disarmament Commission Litvinov's Note on Kellogg Pact Extension of American-Soviet Trade

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## The Ice-Breaker "Malygin" in the Arctic

A VIVID description of the Arctic rescue expedition of the Soviet ice-breaker "Malygin" which was briefly recorded in the preceding issue of the "Soviet Union Review" was published recently in the Moscow "Pravda" by Mr. Alexander Yakovlev, one of the members of the expedition. The following is a complete translation of that article:

The "Malygin" traversed the first few kilometers of ice almost without slackening speed. The ice masses were small. Bobbing on the waves, they clashed, wore away at the edges and crumbled. This was not ice but rather an ice porridge. With every passing hour, however, heavier ice was encountered, rising in the path of the ship in the form of large, round floes. On these black clouds of seals were everywhere to be seen. The blocks struck and scraped against the sides of the vessel. Ice, ice, ice wherever the eye turned. And the ship rapidly drove ahead, flinging the floes to the right and left. The sunshine was dazzling, and gulls wheeled overhead in great numbers, a large flock of them trailing along behind us. As the steamer's screw cast a mass of small fry upon the ice, the gulls pounced upon the booty, gabbling and squabbling. Then the jaeger, or "pirate bird," as the sailors call the black bird of prey which seizes the fish from gulls, would dart down upon the gulls like an arrow, striking them on the head or back, and as they released their prey in fright it would snap up the fish on the fly and soar off.

We were all on the upper deck. To us all these sights were new. All of the crew that were not busy had gathered on the poop. Suddenly a member of the expedition cried out, "Look! A man's footprints!"

In fact human tracks could be discerned on the floes. A big man must have passed from floe to floe in heavy boots.

Hydrographer Lavrov, who had navigated many years in polar ice and had seen such tracks countless times, said, "It was not a man that passed there, but a white bear."

Aha! So that's the way he walks. But where is he? The tracks are quite fresh. The bear must be somewhere nearby.

From the ship's bridge comes the cry, "Look, there goes the bear ahead."

Not far off at all the bear was proceeding leisurely in the same direction as we. He was a huge old beast, like a big cow on short legs. He went clumsily, lazily, glancing back at the ship. A flock of gulls circled over him. His fur had

yellowed somewhat, so that against the glistening background of snow and ice he was completely visible down to the last detail. The "Malygin" began to catch up with him. The bear looked back more often, frightened. What sort of uncouth monster with long black tail was chasing him? Finally we were abreast of him. Our bold hunters made ready to shoot. But the bear turned aside and trotted off, leaping comically from floe to floe.

An hour, another hour and still another passed. The floes grew steadily larger and thicker. They now presented a solid phalanx to the blows of the ice-breaker, which continually made slower progress, although the engines ran at full speed as before. There was a she-bear with two cubs on the ice. Upon seeing us she hurriedly made off. The cubs rose up on their hind legs, looked at us and did not follow their mother; she anxiously came back to them and pushed them along, shaking her head in dissatisfaction.

All around there was a white glare, so dazzling that it hurt the eyes. Everybody wore blue goggles for protection, but despite this the light was still blinding.

Ice fields began to be encountered. Piercing through them was extremely difficult. The "Malygin" labored and sought out the weaker places in the ice, but such spots became less and less frequent. As our leaders, Professor Wiese and hydrographer Lavrov had anticipated, winter was still in full blast here. The snow and ice showed no signs of thawing and everything was tightly locked in polar frost. The ice had reached a full meter in thickness. Now and then the vessel sticks in the ice, backs water and plunges against the floes with a running start. The entire ship quivers from stem to stern.

Our immediate objective was Hope Island. It was somewhere around there, not far away. Would we reach it? The whole horizon was clear, level. No sign of land.

Before midnight we ran into ice four and a half feet thick. The ship, powerless to break through the wall of ice, stopped scores of times, backed water and rammed in from a running start. No! It was impossible to smash through. It was necessary to wait. Perhaps a favorable wind would blow up and disperse the ice, so that we might push on further. The engines were halted and all at once a profound silence reigned.

By means of sextant and calculation of bearings we promptly determined our position and found



that we were at that moment thirty miles from Hope Island.

Wild ducks appeared in large numbers, indicating that there must be land somewhere in the vicinity. Our hunters went out on the ice after seals. They were out a long time, but they did not succeed in shooting any, as the seals were wary and would not let the men come within firing distance.

At three o'clock in the night another attempt was made to break through the ice. Again with short blows the ice wall was being split to the accompaniment of booming, scraping and grinding

the unknown always does, so intense was the desire to be on it. But our route lay ahead, ahead—past the island and to the north. There somewhere was King Charles Land, and beyond it, at a distance of one hundred and eighty kilometers, Foyen Island, near which the crew of the "Italia" were encamped.

We steadily received radio advices of what was going on out there in proximity of Foyen Island. The "Citta di Milano" (Nobile's relief ship) regularly communicated all the news to us. Would that we were speedily there! Once more we seek a passage (water leads), we lunge against the



The Ice-Breaker "Malygin"

din. After four hours of work the ice-breaker had battered through only seven miles. And with what labor!

#### Hope Island

Toward morning the situation revealed that ice fields from ten to twelve miles wide and one-and-a-half meters thick barred our way to the island. During this night (June 19) fog had been drifting around on the horizon. At eight o'clock in the morning the wind scattered it and we beheld Hope Island in the distance to the right of us. It was all aglitter in the bright sunshine and its four ridges were distinctly visible. Never had human foot trod its fields of perpetual snow. Its black cliffs dropped down to the sea like gigantic walls. It beckoned—this unexplored island—it lured, as

frozen barriers, but the strong east winds knit the floes closer together.

Two days of fruitless efforts passed and it became evident that it was impossible for us to break through far into the north. We were wasting in vain our time and our supplies of coal and fresh water. Our "triumvirate"—Professor Wiese, hydrographer Lavrov, and aviator Babushkin, as well as Strelkov, the representative of the Communist Party—decided to halt the ship and commence airplane activities from this point.

On this day 400 kilometers intervened between us and Nobile. Our model 13 Junkers plane could not operate directly over such a distance. It was therefore decided to establish an intermediary base (a stock of gasoline and provisions) on King

Charles Land and to carry on the rescue work only in this manner.

During these days we received the following radio message: "Italian aviator Madelena located Nobile, dropped provisions. Return to 'Citta di Milano' greeted enthusiastically. Nobile's tent amid myriad floes . . ."

This communication aroused long discussions amongst us. Could it be that we were already late? Hurry, faster!

At nine o'clock on the morning of June 21, we began preparations to lower the plane to the ice. We all worked frantically, both the crew and the members of the expedition. We set two huge beams with heavy iron reinforcements at the ends from the vessel down to the ice. Across these beams we laid boards and along this scaffolding we lowered the wings and tail of the plane down to the ice and then by means of ropes we eased down the body itself. We worked until five o'clock in the evening, whereupon a trial flight was made. The airplane quickly rose high over the ice, disappeared from sight and stayed up forty-five minutes. Upon their return the pilot, Babushkin, and his mechanic, Groshev, related that in addition to Hope Island they had seen Spitsbergen in the distance.

It was decided to make a second flight direct to King Charles Land. Four men went on the plane—Babushkin, Groshev, Lavrov, the hydrographer and Fominykh, the radio operator. The flyers were given an impressive send-off. A "bon voyage" flag was raised to the masthead. Most of the vessel's crew and the expedition members descended to the ice and kept waving their hats for a long while after the departing airplane. For the first time in the endless roll of centuries a steel bird was flying over these icy wastes. . .

The plane had taken off at 12.30 a. m., June 22. The sun was shining high over the horizon. For ten days and nights it had not set.

This night, besides the usual ship's watch, the members of the expedition organized a guard to act in the event of an unexpected return of the airplane. Continuous radio communication was maintained with the plane. An hour and a half had elapsed when a dense fog suddenly descended and shrouded everything. From the airplane came a radio message that the aviators had also run into a fog and were turning back. We grew anxious. How would they find the ship and how would they make a landing? A tormenting hour passed. High up in the fog a motor began to hum. The sound came nearer and nearer, but the plane itself was not visible. Rockets were sent up from the steamer and thick smoke spouted from the stack. The airplane flew past, then turned, circled above us and landed safely.

Babushkin related that the fog had prevented them from reaching King Charles Land. They were only thirty miles away when it became necessary to turn back. The aviators almost got lost. Only the rockets and black smoke from the stack of

the "Malygin" indicated the landing place. The flyers had observed many crevasses and thin spots in the ice. It seemed that it would be possible to push further north.

We loaded the airplane on board again, took down the scaffolding, and proceeded. We went ahead for three hours and then once more broke into such ice that the ship could move neither forward nor backward.

On this day we were informed by radio that "Amundsen flew from Tromsø Monday and there is no word from him yet (Thursday)." This message had a most depressing effect upon us. In the long hours of enforced idleness we spoke of Amundsen, of his polar expeditions, and we read his famous book, "To 88 degrees North Latitude."

And here was this dreadful news. . .

### Heroic Flights

During the evening of June 23, an extensive exploration flight was carried out. It was at last indispensable to ascertain whether or not it was feasible to break through the ice to the north. Chertkov himself, the Captain of the "Malygin," flew as observer.

The flight lasted about an hour. It was ascertained that it was impossible to cut through the ice northward. There were water leads, in fact many of them, but they were far behind the ice fields. Perhaps several weeks would be required to break through to them. And time would neither wait nor permit. People stranded on ice floes may perish at any moment. The floes are driven about and break up. The summer thaw was just about to begin.

At a conference of the "triumvirate" it was decided to leave the "Malygin" on a permanent station and begin a search by airplane. First, however, it would be necessary to establish an intermediate base on King Charles Land.

Late in the evening preparations were begun for the flight to King Charles Land. The flyers were Babushkin, the pilot, Groshev, the mechanic, and Valentei, the moving picture operator in the capacity of radio operator. Seven reserve cans of gasoline were placed in the cabin to be left at the base.

Before taking off Babushkin said, "If everything goes well, we shall be back around six in the morning."

It was an amazing midnight with a blinding sun standing high up in the sky. The ice and snow glistened. Even the lilac midnight shadows cast by the hummocks were less marked than usual.

At 12.30 the plane was ready to start. Nearly the entire expedition and part of the crew were on the ice. They bade farewell. "Bon voyage" flags were unfurled at the mast. The airplane taxied along the ice for a short distance on its skis, rose and set off straight to the north. Within four minutes it was lost to sight in the dazzling sunshine.



We all returned to the vessel. For the first half hour uninterrupted radio communication was maintained with the plane. Then something failed in the apparatus and contact was broken. This disturbed everybody. Might it be a catastrophe? The usual noisy discussions in the general cabin began to die down. There was little sleeping that night as everyone awaited six o'clock, the hour at which Babushkin had promised to be back.

But at three o'clock a dense fog descended. Fog! Oh, what a terrible thing it is—this thick fog in the north. With white, gleaming density it filled

again. And then it returned anew, stealthily, like a thief in the night.

At midnight the fog was scattered once more. It was now twenty-four hours that the airplane had been away. At half past two a cry rang out from the bridge: "The plane is coming!" Immediately the whole vessel shook with the tread of running feet. Flags of "Welcome" were run up to the masthead. Rockets soared up and hurrahs thundered forth. Everybody rushed down to the ice to meet the plane, which had alighted on the ice at a distance and was already taxiing up to the side of the "Malygin" on its skis.



**Committee in Charge of the Rescuing Activities**

From left to right: Vice-President of the Committee, S. S. Kamenev, Assistant Commissar for Army and Navy; L. P. Malinovsky, Secretary of "Osoaviakhim" (Society of Friends of the Airfleet and of Chemical Defense); Prof. I. R. Groza, Secretary of the Committee; V. A. Zarzar, Inspector of Civil Aviation; and Prof. V. Wiese, head of the "Malygin" expedition.

everything—it was as though we were plunged in a sea of milk. In such a fog the airplane could not fly back.

The disheartening morning came and then the day dragged on. The fog was dissipated. But the plane did not come. And anxiety—drop by drop—seeped into every heart. Restless figures spent a fitful day on the captain's bridge, scouring the horizon with their binoculars. Is she not flying in? No, no. The horizon is clear, everything is glistening. Now and again the sailors and stokers came out on the spar-deck also to scan the horizon.

The soul of our expedition—the airplane—was now somewhere out in the unknown. . .

Throughout the day there was a depressing stillness on the ship. The fog came back and vanished

Babushkin, Groshev, Valentei—all safe and sound.

Where had they been? What had happened? They had a remarkable story to tell. Two hours after their departure they had reached King Charles Land and alighted on the ice-ledge frozen around the shore. The island is mountainous and the shores are stark, black granite walls. The ridges of the hills are covered with snow and ice. Three polar bears were nearby as the plane came down. Frightened by the noise, they ran off into the hills. The aviators set up the Red Flag on a neighboring cliff, stored the cans of gasoline near the shore and hurriedly took off for the return trip. On the way a dense fog enveloped them. They were forced to descend on the ice and wait, and they had to wait almost twenty-four hours. The motion

picture operator took many views and the world will see these fantastic scenes of the north.

The next two days we remained inactive while the aviators changed the motor of the plane.

Finally, on June 29, everything was ready for a direct flight to Foyn Island. Late in the evening we saw the flyers off on their journey, hoping that before many hours they would bring back the Italians rescued.

### Days of Anxiety

We escorted Babushkin off at 9.20 p. m. on June 29. Before midnight a very strong east wind blew up, snow began to fall, the ship's rigging whistled dismally, the birds took to cover, and heavy clouds drove along. And to cap our anxiety, our radio operator lost contact with the plane. Again something had gone wrong with the airplane's radio apparatus.

The "Malygin" remained stationary in the ice, waiting. The ice slowly and stubbornly jammed us in. Its irresistible motion inspires a strange feeling. At first the ice filled up the lane through which we had come, then, breaking up, it crept under the hull, then it began to rise up along the sides toward the deck. Enormous masses of ice, many tons in weight, climbed ever higher and higher like beasts, crunching and grinding. Here they were already covering the sides of the vessel like a solid wall. Meanwhile the ice fields continually crowded closer and pressed harder. The ice-breaker groaned. Its sides rang angrily, and inside its partitions began to crack. . .

A real wintry day came (June 30). Snowflakes fell and there was a frost of five degrees below zero Centigrade. The wind howled in the rigging. . .

Toward evening the weather became still worse. The ice had already invaded the lower deck and obstructed the door. Passage was possible only through the doors of the upper deck. The ice fields around us were breaking up with cracking sounds. We hurriedly removed the scaffolding along which the airplane had been lowered. If the plane were to return, it would be impossible for it to alight alongside the vessel, since the entire surrounding field was shattered.

Our radio operator, Topilov, one of the best operators in the North, made every effort to call the plane. Every ten minutes he sent the call, "Malygin" airplane, where are you?" over the ether. The plane remained silent.

A depressing frame of mind seized everybody. What had happened to the plane? Where does it take shelter against this storm wind? It was already blowing with the force of a hurricane. If the airplane was resting on the ice, it could hardly succeed in fighting this wind, which would capsize it.

Formerly, on ordinary days, there had been a flood of laughter and merry talk in the general cabin and music had constantly been heard coming from the "Lenin Corner." Now all was silent.

From Moscow came an order from the Committee: "Seek Amundsen to north, east and west of you." And here we stood tightly stuck, just as if fettered with chains of ice.

The "Krassin" sent exciting news. It has gotten through to the north coast of Spitsbergen and would soon enter the ice. Lucky one! It had skirted all along Spitsbergen in open water—its path has been a hundred times easier than ours. . . Against it had poured no such polar current as was piling up so much ice in our way.

Captain Chertkov was a calm, taciturn man, but during the past day he had been disturbed about something. Now and again he went out on the bridge, and looked intently at the ice. To our questions he made the unwilling answer: "That wind. . . it blows ill for us. Guess it's going to knock us about. . ."

The ice did, indeed, keep pressing in. A great ice field approached the hull and split into fragments. Another came in. This one was heavier. The ship was tied up with heavy hawsers to anchors of ice. It was made fast to a gigantic floe, in order that the vessel might be driven along with it and so that not every block of ice might come to grind against its sides.

On the morning of July 2, suddenly everything around the ship cracked and roared. What was the matter? I ran up to the deck. The ice fields all around the boat, as far as the eye could reach, were moving in different directions. The ice anchors and hawsers had already been dislodged. Huge masses of ice climbed over the ice-breaker, broke into pieces, fell, plunged into the water and emerged again. Now open water appeared around the ship, and now it suddenly disappeared. Within the vessel the partitions began to crack, the cross-beams began to bend, and the cabin doors warped. The filler and paint flew off the walls in chunks—this must be the way houses collapse in an earthquake. Chaos! Madness! And at the same time an absolutely extraordinary, inexpressible beauty. Everything was whirling, cracking—the ice on a measureless expanse was dancing a sort of wild dance.

The ship became helpless and puny, like a chip on a waterfall. Everybody was mute and helplessly watched what was going on around us.

It seemed that we were being carried northward. The ice blocks and floes passed by like the gigantic soldiers of an invincible army, stubbornly and directly, toward fog-hidden Hope Island.

Around midday the wind scattered the fog and we saw Hope Island only five miles away from the ship.

Hope! Some malicious spirit must have laughed after calling this Hope Island. It is said that in the old books on polar navigation this was called "Abandon-Hope-Forever Island." That's the right name for it. In the English northern navigation charts—the most accurate of their kind—there appears the statement that vessels with a draft of



over fifteen feet should not approach within less than ten miles of this island.

The chart says that the island is incorrectly located on the maps. This chart had a sketch of the island, but, as we afterward ascertained, it was entirely wrong. Evidently the English sailors had been at too great a distance from the island.

And now, there it was before our very eyes. It stood five miles away, its gigantic, black granite walls rising sheerly from the water. Here and there along the fissures serpents of ice crept down from the solid masses lying on the summits of the hills.

We were being carried by the ice straight against the island. The danger drew nearer every minute. It was manifest that the floes would soon press the "Malygin" against the black granite shore or against those ice mountains and crush it. Even now without that the ship was creaking and groaning.

The captain and the helmsmen were constantly on the bridge, the crew and the members of the expedition on deck. All waited—something seemed on the verge of happening. And our helplessness before the blind elements was fearful . . .

By this time every one was openly talking of the peril. Of course, in company they spoke of it jokingly, concealing their fear with a jest, but their pale faces and harried eyes promptly betrayed them. Some were already getting baggage ready, in order to take to the ice in case of a catastrophe and endeavor to reach the island on foot.

The ship's engines had been kept in complete readiness all the time. However, it was impossible to move. There were walls of ice on every side. The island was getting steadily nearer and nearer. Finally, the engines began to run madly, full speed ahead. At first the ice did not yield. For twenty to thirty minutes we did not advance a yard. Then the ice slowly began to separate. With desperate exertions the "Malygin" pushed through the ice field and blocks from one lead into another—provided only it was away from the dangerous proximity of the island. And the island, like a black specter, pursued the ship.

It was a bitter struggle. The water was raised in geysers from beneath the screw and whirlpools seethed all around. The floes, drawn under by the current, were sucked to the screw, which cut them to fragments and shattered them like glass. Floes several yards in length and width were quickly pulled in and rose to the surface broken into pieces. The blades of the screw struck the floes with repeated crashes. The screw killed many fish and cast them up on the ice. Again a cloud of gulls whirled down upon them. Seals sailed past us on the floes. The ice fields were now no longer to be seen anywhere. They had broken up completely.

Only now did we all understand how dangerous it was to be on the ice during a wind storm.

"Where were our aviators? What had become



**Joseph S. Unshlikht**

Assistant Commissar for Army and Navy and Chairman of the Rescuing Committee.

of them?"—"Probably they had perished. It was impossible to remain on such ice." These were the questions agitating the ship's crew.

On the afternoon of the fourth day we were again hemmed in by ice. Now it seemed hopeless. Whole mountains of ice were piled up alongside of us. The rocks could be seen protruding from the water with the naked eye. The wind had abated somewhat, but the ice drove on with its previous force. It still continued to drag us persistently toward the island. We were so near it that on the ice hills rising from the shallows around the shore we could already see the black spots formed by the nesting colonies of the bird flocks. The island was plainly visible. Here and there the shore sloped down. Depth soundings were being made constantly—until they showed fifteen sazhen (105 feet). The engines were again set in motion. A fountain of water burst through the ice, the ice back of the stern was shattered into pieces, and yet the "Malygin" did not budge from its position.

The laughter and conversations on board died away. Everybody remained grimly silent.

Around eight o'clock at night a brisk north wind



suddenly blew up. It pushed us slowly southward along the island and drove us straight toward some icebergs. There they were now directly in front of us. There was no getting away from them . . . The engines were stopped because they were useless. The ice jam was too powerful.

Slowly the icebergs approached us. Before them the ship was like a pigmy before a giant. We all stood on deck. The sun was shining. Never have I beheld a sight more beautiful than these ice mountains that were threatening us with death. Penetrated by the sun, they gleamed brightly. A multitude of grottoes, large and small, shone in their sides in azure light.

The icebergs were standing solidly on the bottom. The field ice passed between them. So did we, quite close, and behind them we already felt as in a quiet haven . . . The fearful danger had been escaped.

Everybody was talking again, smiling and moving around. The boatswain was merrily plying chisel and hammer, repairing the cabin doors.

Behind the icebergs, at a distance of four miles from the island, we came to a stop in a large ice field. We were saved, but as before, there was no news whatever of our aviators.

Great numbers of birds were flying past the island. This happened to be their migration period. There were hundreds of thousands of wild ducks, gulls and grebes, but the wild ducks were the most numerous. Birds, birds, birds everywhere. A bear came from the island toward the ship. One of the men wounded him in the shoulder and the beast ran off howling.

It was now four days that we had no word of our flyers.

### Babushkin's Return

For two days we lay near the island behind the icebergs. On the morning of July 4, while almost all were still asleep and only the captain and the helmsman were on the bridge, a black spot appeared above the island. The ever-calm Captain Chertkov lost his poise. He ran on the spar-deck, opened the cabin door and shouted, "The plane is coming!" A moment and the whole ship shook with running feet and joyous cries. Every one rushed out to the deck in whatever he happened to be—barefooted, in underwear, dressing on the run. The airplane flew over past the island and then circled over the "Malygin." All of us ran out in a crowd on the ice and waved like mad. The flag of welcome was hoisted to the mast. Every one eagerly scanned the cabin of the plane.

"All alive! All three! There they are! Hurrah!"

The plane alighted. We crowded around. One after the other, Fominykh, the radio operator, Groshev, the mechanic, and, after stopping the motor, Babushkin, the pilot, came out. All looked worn, their faces darkly tanned by the wind. Fominykh's clothing was ice-encrusted and

jingled like metal. A bucket with bear meat was brought out of the airplane.

We all shook hands with the flyers and were wild with joy. Who of us had not lost hope of ever seeing them again?

"Are you all safe, boys?" solicitously asked Babushkin. This touching anxiety about us on the part of an exhausted man was strange. It must be that he himself, awaiting death, had thought that we, too, were in the same danger.

While we were taking him to the ice-breaker, Babushkin succeeded in telling us the whole epic of those five terrible days.

After two hours of flying the fog had forced the aviators to alight on the ice. At night a wind storm arose and the ice began to shatter. It proved necessary to taxi continually, that is, to shift from place to place on the skis, further from the edge of the ice field. The wind was so violent that it was only by a miracle that the airplane held to the ice. The flyers passed two days and nights under these conditions. Finally, the fog was dissipated and the aviators flew back toward the "Malygin." On the way the fog descended again. Once more they landed and stayed down for a day and a night. When the fog cleared away they saw that they were not far from the northern extremity of Hope Island. (At this time the "Malygin" was already on the east side of the island.) They took off again and flew to the old location where the vessel had been when they started out. The ice-breaker was not to be seen there. They flew back to Hope Island and had to alight there on account of fog. At last, on the morning of July 3, they decided to fly to King Charles Land, inferring that the "Malygin" would force its way thither. And for the last time they flew over Hope Island. Amidst the ice they noticed a *white* ice mound of strange shape, from which smoke was issuing. This white mound proved to be the "Malygin."

During these five days and nights the breaking ice had forced them to change their location repeatedly. They had gotten almost no sleep. At the last moment the ice had split under the airplane and Fominykh had fallen into the crevice. If they had not quickly reached the "Malygin," he would have frozen to death in his wet clothing.

Bears often approached the plane. One of them came up to the wing, rose on his hind paws and was about to climb up on the wing. Babushkin killed him with his rifle and the flyers put in a good stock of meat. Another bear approached to the tail of the airplane. Babushkin went out from the cabin to the wing and took pictures of the bear with a small moving picture camera. When he heard the noise of the camera, the bear took to flight, but after running about twenty steps he stopped, looked and returned. Thereupon the flyers discharged a rocket at him, and the bear ran far off to the flocks.

### Changing the Route

Babushkin's last flight had demonstrated that owing to the fogs it would be impossible to get directly to the Nobile group from the distance at which we were. It was necessary to seek another route. Our leaders, Professor Wiese and hydrographer Lavrov, surmised that at this time of the year the ice to the east of us was lighter than here along the shores of Hope Island. It was decided to push back southward to open water, sail eastward and turn north again to Foyn Island.

On July 5, we moved south, away from the inhospitable Hope Island.

During the first half day we cut our way toward the south with difficulty. Then the ice became more fragile and the ship easily clove through it. Again a great many bears were encountered on the floes. In one very large open lead we saw a whale. Many female bears were wandering about with cubs. The mother bears were yellowish gray, but the cubs were white, clean and furry. They got up on their hind legs each time and looked at the ship a long time.

During the twenty-four hours of July 6, we also passed through ice. Late in the evening we had to stop on account of a fog, which was so dense that nothing could be seen even for the shortest distance.

The character of the ice now changed completely. It was now old ice of years duration. Many of the floes were covered with slime; they had been somewhere in contact with the shores and the rain water had carried particles of earth down upon them. Often there were high floes that stood four to five sazhen (28—35 feet) out of the water. We had to deviate to avoid these.

On July 7, we learned by radio that the Swedish flyers had set out to rescue the remnants of the Nobile expedition. The "Krassin" informed us that it had stopped and was debarking its airplane. Toward evening we determined our position and found that we were twenty-five miles east of King Charles Land, i. e., about 180 to 200 kilometers from Foyn Island. At this distance our plane could operate directly without any intermediate base. On the night of July 8, we successfully un-

loaded the airplane to the ice, assembled it, and Babushkin prepared for the flights. But the fog remained impenetrable as before.

Captain Chertkov said, "Sometimes the fog hangs on for two weeks. Summer is the worst season in this respect." The fever of impatience began to grip us all. A distressful frame of mind prevailed. Why all these severe privations if here we were almost at the site of the catastrophe to the dirigible and nevertheless could give no aid because of the fog?

A snowstorm raged throughout July 9 and the following day was spent in fog. On July 11 around midnight the fog finally cleared away and our aviators immediately prepared for a flight. Again the impressive farewell, and our flyers are off, but in two hours they are back because of a fog that prevented further progress. And in landing our airplane broke one ski and damaged the other.

That night a radio message from the "Krassin" told us: "Chukhnovsky flew over Foyn Island seeking Nobile group, but could not locate them; turned back toward 'Krassin' and en route saw Malmgren group consisting of three men—two stood on floes waving flags and third lay on ice. Chukhnovsky circled over them, but could not land; continued flight toward ice-breaker. Chukhnovsky could not



Dangers of Arctic Expeditions

find ice-breaker, flew to Charles XII Island and in alighting there damaged chassis and skis."

Failure after failure! We sank into despondency. Our whole expedition had come to naught. Without the airplane we were as if without hands and could do nothing. And it seemed to us that the "Krassin" was in the same situation as we were. We put our airplane aboard and prepared to proceed southward; here we could accomplish nothing. But while we stood fast in fog the south winds piled up endless mountains of ice around us and drove us northward at the rate of twenty-five miles per twenty-four hours.

The 12th of July brought us joy: the "Krassin" had saved Zappi and Mariano in the Malmgren group. The details of the death of Malmgren himself plunged us all into sorrow.

During the evening of the same day there was a

further dispatch from Professor Samoilovich: "‘Krassin’ reached the Viglieri group, picked up all. Radio operator last to leave ice. He sent the world the news: ‘We have been saved by Soviet ice-breaker. Finita!’"

We were proud of the "Krassin."

That day we received instructions from Moscow to go to Spitsbergen in search of Amundsen.

From the 13th to the 17th of July we made continuous efforts to get out of the ice southward, but unsuccessfully. The south wind jammed up the ice until it was impenetrable. It dragged us northward as before at the rate of twenty-five miles every twenty-four hours. We had already passed far beyond the line of 79 degrees North Latitude. We were threatened with the danger of being driven north altogether, so that it might become necessary for us to remain in the ice a very long time. Once we perceived the possibility of making headway. Almost for twenty-four hours we moved along in the fog through water leads and—arrived at precisely the same place from which we had started! It was a bitter minute when we became convinced that we were back in the same spot.

At last on the morning of July 17, the old helmsman, Stepanov, steered the vessel by chance into a suitable lead, along which we found it possible to proceed southward and, after going on for a full twenty-four hours, we happened to come out into open water. We turned southward toward Spitsbergen in quest of Amundsen.

#### In Search of Amundsen

Amundsen had disappeared on June 18, exactly one month before. In response to our inquiry the Mayor of the City of Tromsø gave us details covering the direction of the flight, the make of the airplane, the names of the flyers, and the time when radio contact had been interrupted. It appeared that communication had been broken two-and-a-half hours after the take-off. Amundsen could not even have flown to the Bear Islands. Under the very best circumstances he might have reached the southern part of Spitsbergen. We would look for him there.

On July 19, we beheld on the horizon high mountains glistening with snow. This was Spitsbergen. The "Malygin" again entered the drifting ice, ice of a distinct sort, very thick with masses of sand and slime. We supposed that we could succeed here in launching our plane into the water from some floe and begin aerial reconnoitering. However, the very first steps showed that it was impossible to debark the airplane. It was feasible to carry on the search only with the ice-breaker. We determined to make our way to Storfjord—if Amundsen had come down somewhere around here, he could have gone over the ice to this inlet, where there was an old retreat, a Russian cabin ("Izba") built by Russian trappers, in the eighteenth century. But it turned out that a Norwegian vessel had already visited Storfjord a short

time before, had investigated everything—Amundsen was not there. Being unable to debark our airplane, we saw that it was useless for us to stay here. Indeed, it was time for us to depart. Our coal and fresh water were becoming exhausted and only enough for the return voyage remained.

#### Return

We had done everything within our power. If it had not been for the "Krassin," we certainly would have picked up the Viglieri group—of this there could be no doubt. We were so sure of this that we had even prepared a little Italian song with which to greet the rescued men.

Well, what of it? If we were not the ones, then our comrades, getting ahead of us, had done the deed.

Amundsen? This was the most grievous page in the history of this year's polar expedition. Most of the members of our expedition, as well as Captain Chertkov, a widely experienced polar navigator, were inclined to think that the great explorer had perished. We departed from Spitsbergen with sadness as though leaving a revered tomb.

On July 21, we issued into open water and set our course for Novaya Zemlya. Our scientific workers desired to study the direction of the Gulf Stream branches that penetrate thither. . . . On the evening of the first day a storm began to belabor us. Oh, what it did to us! The wounds the "Malygin" had suffered from the ice opened up wide. A leak developed in compartment No. 2. The water poured into the ship. The waves reached a height of twelve meters and made the vessel give at every seam. Inside everything was again cracking, creaking and groaning. The waves struck the side with the strength of a cannon shot. The pumps worked all the time without ceasing. With great efforts it proved possible to stop the leak by plugging the holes with boards and cement. The rivets were ripped out at three places in the sides of the ship. In itself such damage was not serious—it could be repaired in the dry dock in two or three days. But we were not in the dry dock, we were on the ocean, where such injuries brought the menace of death. . . . The storm lashed away at us up to the very mouth of the White Sea.

Early on the morning of July 24, we saw land in the distance with heap-clouds over it. Heap-clouds! For forty days we had not seen any. Only flat, striated, winter clouds had passed over. And a very white, milky fog.

The sea began to grow calm. In the distance the Svyatoi Nos Light House shone.

In the evening, when we had already entered the narrows leading into the White Sea, we beheld the sunset. A huge, fiery sphere sank into the waters. The twilight came and the darkness. In the sky a star gleamed. On board there were cries: "A star! Look, a star!"

The men crowded up on the deck, all smiling and joyous. The doctor took out his guitar and sang something to the star. Forests stretched back from the shores. For a month and a half we had not seen a star; we seemed to be breathing in the purest, sterilized air. We, earth creatures, rejoiced in the earth.

In morning twilight on July 25, we saw a red pilot-boat on the bar of the North Dvina. Scythes and sickles glistened on the shores of the Dvina. The fragrance of new-mown hay was in the air. And there was the Customs House on the river. A loud voice shouted through a speaking-trumpet, "Captain of the Malygin!"

"Here!" answered our captain through a megaphone from the bridge.

"Have you had any contact with foreign vessels?"

"No."

"Pass."

We proceeded further along the green shores.

And in the morning there was such sunshine and such bright greenness along the shores. At six o'clock we approached slumbering Archangel. . .

Our voyage had lasted forty-four days, of which thirty-three had been passed in heavy ice fields.

## Jewish Agricultural Settlements

**M**ATERIAL collected by the organizations engaged in the promotion of the settlement of Jewish families on the land in the Soviet Union shows the following changes in the number of the Jewish agricultural population in the U. S. S. R. and in the area placed at their disposal:

Year	Number of Jewish Farmers		Acres of Land at their Disposal	
	Total Number	Percentage of Increase Over Previous Year	Total	Percentage of Increase Over Previous Year
1913	52,758	.....	.....	.....
1923	75,911	.....	378,688	.....
1924	94,158	24	367,510	11.3
1925	120,288	27.8	681,620	61.7
1926	141,780	17.9	973,874	42.9
1927	165,000	16.4	1,215,000	24.8

Thus the number of Jewish farmers has increased from 52,758 in 1913 to 165,000 in 1927. Beginning with 1924, the total number of the Jewish agricultural population and the area of the land tilled by it have been showing a rapid increase. This remarkable progress of the back-to-the-land movement of the Jewish masses is explained by the fact that in the fall of 1924, there were founded two special Jewish organizations entrusted with the carrying out of the tremendous task of establishing the Jewish population of the Soviet Union on the land. These two organizations are the "Ozet," (Society for the Agricultural

Settlement of the Toiling Jews in the U. S. S. R.) and the "Komzet" (Committee for the Agricultural Settlement of the Toiling Jews), the former a volunteer, the latter a governmental organization.

As a result of the activities of these organizations, 16,159 Jewish families were settled as agriculturists in the course of three years (1925 to 1927), on an agricultural area of 798,700 acres.

According to the various regions of the Soviet Union the distribution of Jewish families and of the land allotted to them was as follows:

### *Settled on the Land during 1925-1927*

	Number of Families	Number of Acres
In the Ukraine	9,825	391,805
In the Crimea	3,372	291,905
In White Russia	2,227	66,585

During 1925, these three regions were the only ones in which the Jewish families were being settled on the land. In the course of 1926-27, the Northern Caucasus, Daghestan, and a few provinces of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (Soviet Russia proper) were added to these regions.

The land given to the Jewish agricultural settlers constitutes approximately 0.4 to 0.5 per cent of the total sown area of the Soviet Union. In the Ukraine it amounts to 0.6 per cent of the total sown area. In relation to the total territory of the Crimea, the land given to the Jews constitutes 4 per cent.

Owing to the fact that only a limited area of free tillable land is available in those regions in which Jewish families were being settled heretofore, it was found necessary to start this year the colonization of a new vast region—the Birsks-Bidjany District in the Russian Far East.

Of great interest is the proportion of Jewish farmers to the total number of the Jewish population of the Soviet Union as a whole, and in the separate regions containing the bulk of the Jewish agricultural settlements. This is shown by the following table:

### *Distribution of Jewish Population*

	U.S.S.R. White			
	Ukraine	Russia	Crimea	
Total number of Jewish population	2,600,900	1,574,391	407,100	39,990
Number of Jewish farmers	165,000	100,650	42,900	18,150
Proportion of Jewish farmers in total Jewish population	6.3	5.6	10.5	45.4

Thus farmers constitute a considerable section of the total Jewish population of the U. S. S. R. Moreover, in various districts, and particularly in the rural districts, the proportion of the Jewish farmers is still larger. The latter circumstance is to be explained by the fact that in the rural districts agriculture is one of the basic means of live-

lihood for the Jewish population. The above table shows that in the Crimea 45 per cent of the Jewish population is engaged in agriculture. The results obtained in the U. S. S. R. in the agricultural settlement of the Jewish population in the course of the last three years, have greatly exceeded the results of the attempts at Jewish agricultural colonization made in other countries for the last fifty years.

## Physical Culture in the U. S. S. R.

**L**AST June ten years had passed since the founding of the Central State Institute for Physical Culture of the Soviet Union.

The tenth anniversary of the Institute is not only an important date in the history of physical culture in the Soviet Union, but also a great cultural event in the work of construction. The very fact that an educational establishment of this kind with a great variety of tasks was created during the first year of the existence of the Soviet State, in the midst of a great social crisis, vividly illustrates the Soviet Union's striving towards a cultural revolution.

The Institute which is a large educational training center, clearly and fully reflects the tasks of the Soviet movement for physical culture. These tasks consist chiefly in combining the theory and practice of physical culture.

The Institute is conducting a tremendous activity, both along the lines of scientific research and of an educational character. It turns out the learned experts in the field of physical culture; it trains the practical forces conducting the work in the various localities; it spreads the ideas of physical culture among the masses, and supplies physicians and educators with additional information on physical culture.

Much attention is being paid to practical work. Every student has to show by his personal example what he is going to teach others.

The Institute has worked out special exercises for tubercular patients, for neurasthenics, for persons suffering with obesity, rheumatism, etc. At present the Institute is engaged in investigation of the various occupations in order to find special methods for combatting occupational diseases of workers employed in the textile, chemical, metal, food and other industries. The aim of this quite difficult and entirely new branch of activities is to render work easier and to remove the defects caused by the harmful nature of the various occupations. Finally the Institute is engaged in connecting physical culture with national defense by adapting sport habits to war conditions.

About 600 persons are studying at the Institute. Among the students of the Institute there are not a few of the country's champions in various fields of athletics.

All nationalities of the Soviet Union are represented in the Institute—Ukrainians, White Russians, Turkomans, Armenians, Germans, Swedes, Czechs, Ossetes, Jews, Georgians, Bashkirs, Votiaks, Kirghizes, etc. Altogether, the Institute has turned out about 1,500 physical culture experts in the course of the past ten years.

In the vast halls, studios and laboratories of the Institute, which are exceedingly well equipped, new methods of physical culture are being worked out. They are not based upon the stimulation of competitive ambitions, but upon scientific control, pedagogy, pedology, hygiene and the consideration of the economic and living conditions of the working people.

The scientific works of the Central State Institute for Physical Culture have been translated into French, German, Swedish and Czech.

Simultaneously with all kinds of sports, gymnastics and games, theoretical subjects, such as anatomy, biology, physics, chemistry, history of physical culture, mathematics, modern languages and other subjects are being taught in the auditoriums and lecture rooms. In addition to this, the Institute includes a model school in which various experiments in the field of psycho-physical education of children are being carried on.

From year to year the program of the Institute becomes more complex. Its tasks become vaster and more responsible.

Thus the Physical Culture Institute is carrying on a very useful activity by turning out experts engaged in the physical improvement of the health of the masses.

## Physical Condition of the Workers in the U. S. S. R.

**S**INCE 1924, an investigation of the physical condition of the workers has been carried on in Moscow. So far 130,000 persons fourteen years of age and over were examined by medical inspectors and dispensaries. These data may be compared with the pre-revolutionary data, gathered by Professor Erisman and Dr. Leskov, who prior to the Revolution examined in Moscow 70,000 workers of fourteen years and over.

A comparison of the two sets of data brings out striking differences, particularly with regard to the average height of the workers. In the case of fourteen-year-old boys the height has increased on an average by 9.5 centimeters; in the fifteen-year class—by 7.5 centimeters, and in the sixteen-year class—by 4 centimeters.

Even among the adult workers whose physical condition was completely shaped prior to the Revolution, there is to be noted a tremendous improvement in the mode of living brought about by the Soviet regime. The average height of a twenty-



four-year-old worker has increased by two centimeters.

The investigation has shown that the younger a person, the longer the span of his life spent under the Soviet regime, the healthier and taller he was found to be.

The same refers to the chest measurements. In the case of youths of fourteen or fifteen years the chest measurement shows an average increase of 5.5 centimeters; in that of workers from 26 to 30 years of age, 3.5 centimeters, etc. Even among workers of higher age classes an increase of the chest measurements has been noticed.

A considerable improvement has likewise been noticed in the average weight of the workers. Youths show an average increase in weight of 4 kilograms; workers of 17 to 29 years of age, 2.5 kilograms; and workers of 30 to 44, of 1.6 kilograms.

Thus particularly striking results were obtained among the younger generation which was almost entirely brought up since the Revolution. On an average the younger generation shows an increase in weight of 10 per cent, in chest measurements of 8 per cent, and in height of 6 per cent.

The height is the least changing physical characteristic of an adult person. The fact that even adult workers increased their height on the average by 2 centimeters demonstrates the great progress in the situation of the working class in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, achieved since the Revolution of 1917.

*Bound Volume V of the SOVIET UNION REVIEW, 192 pages, containing all the issues published in 1927, as well as a comprehensive index, is still available. Price, \$3.00.*

*A few copies of Volume I, 404 pages, containing all issues from Sept. 15, 1923, to June 15, 1924, and complete index, of Volume III, 504 pages, containing all issues of 1925 and complete index, and of Volume IV, 216 pages, containing all issues of 1926 and complete index are likewise obtainable. Price, \$4, \$5, and \$3, respectively. Bound in imitation leather.*

## Foreign Relations of the U.S.S.R.

ON August 20, 1928, Mr. M. M. Litvinov, Acting People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U. S. S. R., in the capacity of Chairman of the Soviet Delegation to the Preparatory Disarmament Commission, addressed the following letter to Mr. Loudon, Chairman of the Preparatory Commission:

After the Fifth Session of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission had rejected the Soviet proposal for general and complete disarmament, the Delegation of the Soviet Union submitted a draft convention on partial disarmament.

Without giving any reasons the Preparatory Commission by a majority of votes postponed the discussion of the draft convention until the following session of the Preparatory Commission. However, no date for the convocation of the next session was fixed, but in the resolution adopted by the Preparatory Commission the wish was expressed that "the following session should be called within the shortest possible term, and, if possible, prior to the next session of the Assembly of the League of Nations." In spite of the fact that the Soviet Delegation vigorously opposed this indefinite wording, and in its endeavor, in every way possible, to speed up the activities for actual disarmament, insisted at first upon the continuation of the deliberations of the Fifth Session, and subsequently, upon the stipulation of the exact date of the next session, the Soviet Delegation which was in a minority, did not succeed in carrying its point, and it could not do anything else but wait for the notification about the calling of the commission, in accordance with the adopted decisions.

Five months have already elapsed since the Fifth Session—by no means a short period. During that time a number of events have taken place which repeatedly called attention to the existence of a great danger to the cause of preservation of peace in Europe, in the Far East, and in other parts of the world. Meanwhile, notwithstanding the fact that the General Assembly of the League of Nations is to take place on September 3, the Soviet Delegation, and—we assume—other members of the Commission as well have, to our greatest regret, failed to receive any communication about the calling of the next session of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission. All this is obviously in contradiction with the solemn declarations with regard to disarmament made by authoritative representatives of the Powers at the very sessions of that Commission.

Serious differences of opinion between two powers with regard to disarmament, and the negotiations started between those powers for the settlement of the differences, were pointed out as one of the reasons for the premature adjournment of the Fifth Session of the Preparatory Dis-

armament Commission and for the failure to stipulate the date of the next session. The Minister of Foreign Affairs of one of these Powers, namely, Sir Austen Chamberlain, recently officially and publicly declared that an agreement has been reached with regard to the aforementioned differences. Without venturing upon any criticism of the substance of the agreement attained, i. e. from the point of view of the actual interests of peace, one cannot help remarking that the very fact of that agreement does away with the above-mentioned reason for the adjournment of the activities of the commission.

Furthermore, it must be pointed out that the majority of the delegations to the Fifth Session of the Preparatory Commission were doubtless under the influence of the proposal of the United States of America for the outlawing of war. This proposal was even being contrasted with the Soviet proposal for complete disarmament, as a means supposedly more effective in safeguarding peace, in assuring safety and in rendering possible the realization of disarmament. The present letter is not the place for dwelling upon the significance of the so-called Kellogg pact in its present draft and with the reservations accompanying it, as an instrument for actually securing general peace. However, under no circumstances is it possible to ignore the public statement of the very initiators of that pact to the effect that there is no connection whatever between this pact and the question of disarmament, and consequently with the question of safety. At any rate the above-mentioned statements of the initiators of the pact constitute an additional proof that the signing of that document is by no means able to solve the problems of disarmament which alone could in reality serve as an actual guaranty of peace and security.

In recommending the above considerations to your attention, and basing myself upon the formal decision of the Fifth Session of the Preparatory Commission, I, as a member of that Commission, take the liberty of inquiring of you, Mr. Chairman, what reasons have rendered impossible the calling of the Preparatory Commission prior to the forthcoming General Assembly of the League of Nations, in accordance with the decision of the Fifth Session; what obstacles are at present in the way of a speedy convocation of the Commission, and for what date is that convocation expected?

During the very session of the Preparatory Commission the Soviet Delegation repeatedly expressed its doubts as to the possibility of any substantial achievements in the matter of disarmament by those methods in accordance with which the activity of the Preparatory Commission was being conducted until now. While the Soviet Delegation persists in these doubts which have again been confirmed by the latest events, it nevertheless considers that it has the right to know, for

the purpose of informing its Government and the public opinion of its country, what are the prospects of a possible fruitful activity of the Commission in the future.

I believe, Mr. Chairman, that the inquiry directed to you should be likewise of interest to the other delegations and to the public opinion of the other countries, and for this reason I permit myself to hope for the favor of a speedy reply on your part.

A copy of this letter is being sent by me to the General Secretariat of the League of Nations.

#### **Litvinov's Telegram to the General Secretary of the League of Nations**

On August 27 last, Mr. M. M. Litvinov, Acting People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union sent the following telegram to Mr. Drummond, General Secretary of the League of Nations:

To the General Secretary of the League of Nations:

In view of the inquiry addressed to the Soviet Government through the German Government as to the possibility of the participation of Soviet representatives in the Second Session of the Special Commission for the Control of the Manufacture of Arms, I have the honor of stating the following:

Some time ago, for the purpose of actually securing peace, the Soviet Delegation submitted to the Preparatory Disarmament Commission a project for complete and general disarmament which in case of realization would lead to the complete abolition of the manufacture of arms. Unfortunately, the Preparatory Commission rejected that proposal. A project on partial disarmament which was subsequently submitted to the same Commission by the Soviet Delegation was not even discussed by the Preparatory Commission, and the calling of the next session of the Commission is continuously being postponed for reasons which are unknown even to its participants. Neither have other commissions of the League of Nations yielded any results in the matter of actual disarmament. For this reason the Soviet Government considers itself justified in stating that nothing has been done or is being done by the League of Nations and its organs for the actual solution of even the problem of partial disarmament. However, the vital interests of all nations demand now, more than ever, the exertion of every effort towards real achievements in the matter of disarmament, and consequently towards prevention of the danger of new wars. Under these circumstances the activities with regard to the so-called control over the manufacture of arms might only mislead public opinion, by creating a semblance of such activity on the part of the members of the League for the realization of disarmament, as has no existence in reality. It is entirely clear that the burden of militarism, weighing upon the masses

cannot be relieved, and the cause of peace cannot be advanced to any degree by any results achieved through the activities of the Special Commission as long as the present race of the Governments for the increase of armaments and the extension of the manufacture of arms continues.

Thus, the activity of the Special Commission, while not accomplishing any practical results, can lead only to the creation of illusions concealing the actual situation of the disarmament problem.

In view of the above, the Soviet Government does not deem it possible to take part in the Special Commission. At the same time the Soviet Government reiterates that it is ready to take the most active part in the activities for the actual realization of disarmament, as well as in the working out of international conventions resulting from the tasks connected with actual disarmament.

#### Litvinov's Note on Kellogg Pact

On August 31, last, Mr. M. Litvinov, Acting People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, received Mr. Jean Herbet, French Ambassador in Moscow, and handed to him the following note:

On August 27, you were so kind as to bring officially to my cognizance, under instruction of your government, the fact that on the same day the governments of the German Republic, of the United States of America, of Belgium, of France, of Great Britain and her dominions, of Italy, Japan, Poland, and Czecho-Slovakia, have signed in Paris the multilateral pact in accordance with which they undertook not to resort, in their mutual relations, to war as an instrument of national policy, and to settle all disagreements arising between them by peaceful methods only. Having handed me a copy of that pact and having briefly explained to me its history, you, Monsieur Ambassador, were likewise kind enough to inform me (a) that the limitation of the number of original participants of the pact, as understood by the government of the United States, was inspired only by practical considerations and by the purpose of facilitating the quickest realization of the pact, but that at the same time it had always been the intention that in its final form it was to guarantee the immediate cooperation of all the peoples of the world on the same conditions and with the same advantages as were granted to the original participants; (b) that in accordance with the above, the government of the United States has been authorized to accept declarations from all countries desirous of joining in the pact; (c) that representatives of the government of the United States in all foreign countries, with the exception of those countries whose representatives had already signed the pact, received instructions to communicate to the governments to which they are ac-

credited the text of the pact signed in Paris; (d) that the Government of the United States expresses its readiness to accept immediately statements of adherence from the aforementioned countries; (e) that the Government of the French Republic undertook the task, through your mediation, Monsieur Ambassador, to bring to the cognizance of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics the text of the aforesaid pact and to inquire of it whether it agrees to adhere to the pact; and (f) that in case of an affirmative answer you, Monsieur Ambassador, are authorized to accept the statement of adherence thereto, for transmission to Washington.

In communicating to you, in the present note, the reply of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics to your inquiry, I have the honor, Monsieur Ambassador, to ask that you kindly transmit to your Government and ask it to transmit to the Government of the United States, the following:

1. Having laid down from the very beginning of its existence as a basis for its foreign policy, the preservation and safeguarding of universal peace, the Soviet Government has always and everywhere acted as a consistent advocate of peace and has been meeting halfway every step made in this direction. The Soviet Government has considered and still considers that the carrying out of the general and complete disarmament plan is the only real means of preventing armed conflicts, because in an atmosphere of general feverish increase of armaments, every rivalry of the powers inevitably leads to war which is the more destructive, the more perfect the system of armaments. A project for complete disarmament, which has been worked out in detail, was submitted by the Delegation of the Soviet Union to the Preparatory Disarmament Commission of the League of Nations, but unfortunately it found no support on the part of the majority of the said Commission including representatives of those very powers which are the original participants of the pact just signed in Paris. The project was rejected notwithstanding the fact that its acceptance and realization would have meant a real guaranty of peace.

2. Not desiring to miss any opportunity of contributing to the reduction of the burden of armaments, weighing heavily upon the masses, the Soviet Government, after the rejection of its proposals for complete disarmament, not only did not decline to discuss the question of partial disarmament, but through its delegation to the Preparatory Commission, it advanced a project for partial but very essential disarmament, worked out in detail. However, the Soviet Government must state to its regret that this project likewise failed to meet with a sympathetic response on the part of the Preparatory Commission which thus once more demonstrated the complete powerlessness of the League of Nations in the matter of disarmament

which is the strongest guarantee of peace and the most powerful means of abolishing war; almost all the countries which were the first to affix their signatures to the pact for the prohibition of wars, being openly opposed to the Soviet proposals.

3. Simultaneously with the systematic advocacy of the cause of disarmament the Soviet Government, in carrying out its peace policies—long before the idea of the now signed Pact of Paris arose—also addressed to the other powers a proposal concerning the renunciation, through the conclusion of bi-lateral compacts, not only of wars, as foreseen by the Pact of Paris, but of all attacks upon each other, and of all armed conflicts whatsoever. Some countries, such as Germany, Turkey, Afghanistan, Persia and Lithuania, accepted the above-mentioned proposal and concluded corresponding pacts with the Soviet Government; other countries ignored this proposal and evaded a reply, while still others rejected the proposal with the strange explanation that unconditional renunciation of all attacks was incompatible with their obligations towards the League of Nations. This, however, did not prevent the same powers from signing the Pact of Paris, the very text of which failed to mention altogether the inviolability of the above-mentioned obligations.

4. The above-mentioned facts irrefutably prove that the idea of elimination of wars and armed conflicts in international relations is the basic and leading idea of Soviet foreign policy. Nevertheless, the initiators of the Pact of Paris did not deem it necessary to invite the Soviet Government to participate in the negotiations preceding the conclusion of the Pact of Paris and in the elaboration of the very text of the Pact. Similarly no invitation was extended to powers which are actually interested in safeguarding peace, because they had either been the objects of attacks in the past (Turkey and Afghanistan), or are so at present (the republic of the great Chinese nation). Moreover, the invitation to join in the pact, as transmitted by the French Government, does not contain the conditions which might enable the Soviet Government to exert any influence upon the very text of the document signed in Paris. However, the Soviet Government proceeds from the axiomatic premise that it cannot, under all conditions, be deprived of that right of which the governments, signatories to the pact, availed or might avail themselves, and basing itself upon this right, it considers itself bound first to make several remarks concerning its attitude towards the pact itself.

5. First of all, the Soviet Government cannot help expressing its deepest regret concerning the absence in the Pact of Paris of any obligations whatever in the matter of disarmament. The Soviet Delegation to the Preparatory Disarmament Commission, already had the opportunity to declare that only the combination of a pact forbid-

ding war with the carrying out of complete and general disarmament can be really effective in guaranteeing universal peace, and that, on the contrary, an international treaty "forbidding war" but unaccompanied by even such elementary guarantees as the limitation of the incessantly growing armaments, will remain a dead letter without real meaning. This is confirmed by recent public utterances made by some participants of the Pact of Paris, concerning the inevitableness of further armaments even after the conclusion of that pact. New international political combinations which have sprung up at the same time, especially in connection with the question of naval armaments, have still further emphasized this view. The situation thus created points, therefore, now more than ever to the necessity of taking decisive measures in the matter of disarmament.

6. Considering the text of the pact itself the Soviet Government thinks it necessary to point out that the formulation of the prohibition of wars in the first clause is not sufficiently definite and clear, permitting of various and arbitrary interpretations. It believes, for its part, that all wars between countries must be forbidden, both as an instrument of so-called national policy and as a method serving other purposes (for instance suppressing of national movements of liberation, etc.). In the opinion of the Soviet Government not only wars in the strictly juridical meaning of this word (i. e. presupposing a "declaration" of war, etc.) should be forbidden, but also such military actions as, for instance, intervention, blockade, military occupation of foreign territory, of foreign ports, etc. History in recent years has seen not a few military actions of this kind which have brought enormous calamities to various nations. The Soviet Republics themselves were the objects of such aggression, and now the four hundred million people of China suffer from similar attacks. Moreover, military actions of this kind often develop into big wars which it is entirely impossible to stop. However, the pact does not say a word about these questions which are most important from the point of view of preservation of peace. Furthermore, the same first clause of the pact mentions the necessity of solving all international disputes and conflicts exclusively by peaceful means. In this connection the Soviet Government considers that among the unpeaceful means forbidden by the pact should also be included such as the refusal to re-establish peaceful and normal relations, or the rupture of these relations between nations, which actions, signifying the rejection of peaceful methods for the solution of disputes, increase the tension and contribute to the creation of an atmosphere favorable to the breaking out of war.

7. Among the reservations made in the diplomatic correspondence between the original participants of the pact, the reservation made by the British Government in Paragraph 10 of its note of

May 19, of this year, claims particular attention of the Soviet Government. By virtue of this reservation the British Government reserves for itself freedom of action with regard to a number of areas which it does not even enumerate. If it means territories constituting part of the British Empire or of its Dominions, [then it may be stated that] they are already included in the pact which makes provision in the case of any attack against them, so that the reservation of the British Government with regard to them would seem, to say the least, superfluous. However, if other regions are meant, the participants of the pact are entitled to know exactly where the freedom of action of the British Government begins and where it ends. But the British Government reserves for itself freedom of action not only in case of military attack on these regions but even in case of any "unfriendly" act or so-called "interference," and it obviously reserves for itself the right of arbitrary definition of what is to be considered an "unfriendly" act or "interference," which would justify the commencement of military operations on the part of the British Government.

Granting of such a right to the British Government would mean justification of war, and might serve as a contagious example for the other participants in the pact as well, who, by virtue of their equal rights, might arrogate for themselves the same right with regard to other regions, and as a result there might not be left a place on the entire terrestrial globe with regard to which the pact could be applied. Indeed the reservation made by the British Government contains an invitation addressed to another participant in the pact to exempt other regions as well from the jurisdiction of the pact. The Soviet Government cannot but consider this reservation as an attempt to use the pact itself as an instrument of imperialist policy. However, the aforesaid note of the British Government has not been communicated to the Soviet Government as an integral part of the pact, or as a supplement thereof, and therefore it cannot be considered binding upon the Soviet Government. The same applies to other reservations contained in the diplomatic correspondence concerning the pact between the original participants. Nor can the Soviet Government consent to any other reservations which might serve as justification for war, particularly to reservations made in the aforesaid correspondence in order to exempt from the jurisdiction of the pact the decisions resulting from the Covenant of the League of Nations and from the Locarno agreement.

8. In summarizing the above, it is necessary to point out the absence in the pact of obligations with reference to disarmament which is the only essential element safeguarding peace, the insufficiency and vagueness of the very wording of the prohibition of war, and the existence of a number of reservations whose object it is beforehand to eliminate even any semblance of obligation with

regard to the cause of peace. Nevertheless, inasmuch as the Pact of Paris objectively imposes upon the powers certain obligations before public opinion, and gives the Soviet Government a new opportunity to put before all the participants of the pact the question of utmost importance to the cause of peace, that is, the question of disarmament, whose solution is the only guarantee for the prevention of war—the Soviet Government expresses its willingness to sign the Pact of Paris.

In accordance with the above, I shall have the honor to hand over to you, Monsieur Ambassador, the corresponding statement of my Government concerning the adherence to this pact, as soon as the formalities connected therewith are ended.

### **The Soviet Union's Official Adherence to the Pact**

On September 6, Mr. M. Litvinov, transmitted to Mr. Herbet, French Ambassador in Moscow, the statement signed by him in the capacity of Acting People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, expressing the Soviet Union's adherence to the pact outlawing war, which was signed in Paris on August 27, last. In the accompanying note Mr. Litvinov expressed his conviction that the Government of the U. S. S. R. would receive an exact list of the countries to whom the proposal to adhere to the pact was made, and that it would subsequently be notified of their adherence and of the ratifications by the various governments.

### **Soviet Ships in Rumania**

On August 23 last, Mr. Argetoianu, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Rumania sent the following telegram to Mr. Litvinov, Acting Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, with regard to the intended sale of Soviet property. The full text of the telegram follows:

"In reply to your telegram referring to the possible sale of damaged means of water transport on the Danube River, I can only confirm the position occupied by Rumania from the point of view of international law. I may add that no offers for the purchase of the vessels in which you are interested having come in, the Rumanian Minister of Transports will preserve them in the condition in which they are at present. Thus, this question has been practically disposed of."

### **Ratification of International Sanitary Convention**

The Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. has ratified the international sanitary convention signed in Paris on June 21, 1926, approving the reservations made by the Delegation of the U. S. S. R. in signing that document.

*The Index to the fifth volume of the "Soviet Union Review" will be sent free of charge to all readers of the Review.*

## Miscellaneous News

### American-Soviet Trade

On September 12, last, Mr. S. G. Bron, Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Amtorg Trading Corporation, an organization handling the bulk of American-Soviet trade, made the following announcement:

Due to the considerable increase in the operations of the Amtorg Trading Corporation it has been decided to double the paid-in capital of the company, from \$1,500,000 to \$3,000,000. The expanding scope of American-Soviet trade, which amounted for the first three-quarters of the current fiscal year to \$100,000,000 as compared with \$55,000,000 in the same period last year, is playing an important part in the industrialization program of the Soviet Union. In the last four years Soviet industries have expended over \$300,000,000 for imported machinery. For the first nine months of this year imports of industrial machinery and equipment have more than doubled as compared with 1926-27. These increased imports are to a large extent compensated by the gain in exports of oil, timber, furs and other animal products and by the large increase in gold production. During the coming fiscal year more than \$700,000,000 will be invested for capital construction in Soviet industries, of which a substantial part will go for purchases of machinery and equipment abroad. The United States as in the past will undoubtedly come in for an increasing share of this trade, thus necessitating an increased capital for Amtorg, which handles the bulk of the purchases in this country.

In addition, American technical skill will be utilized to a greater extent in the building up of Soviet industry. Connections with engineering circles of the United States are being strengthened and should result, during the coming year, in the participation of many American engineers in the industries of the U. S. S. R. The desirability of introducing American industrial technique is well recognized and already a considerable number of American engineers and technicians are engaged in the Soviet coal, metallurgical, hydroelectric, radio, chemical and other industries. Recent pronouncements of leading industrialists of the U. S. S. R. leave no doubt that this policy of employing foreign engineers, especially American, will be materially strengthened during the coming year.

### Foreign Trade of the U. S. S. R. for First Ten Months of 1927-28

The total turnover of the foreign trade of the Soviet Union across the European frontier for the first ten months, and across the Asiatic frontier the first eight months of the past fiscal year (end-

ing September 30, 1928), amounted to 1,356,300,000 rubles (\$698,500,000), as against 1,178,000,000 rubles for the same period of the preceding year. Exports amounted to 606,000,000 rubles (\$312,100,000) and imports to 750,300,000 rubles (\$386,400,000) giving an adverse balance of 144,300,000 rubles (\$74,300,000).

In the course of the ten months accounted for the imports from England decreased to 32,000,000 rubles (\$16,480,000) as against 81,000,000 rubles (\$41,700,000) for the preceding year.

During the same period imports from Germany rose to 189,000,000 rubles (\$97,300,000) as against 107,000,000 rubles (\$55,100,000) for the preceding year. There was also an increase in the imports from France, Italy and Latvia.

### The Harriman Manganese Concession

In connection with the agreement reached between the Soviet Government and the representatives of the Harriman interests, the concession enterprise "Chiaturi Manganese" in Georgia (Transcaucasia) has been transferred to a Trust organized by the Supreme Economic Council of the Georgian Soviet Republic.

The capital of \$3,450,000 invested by the Harriman concern will remain in the enterprise and the American firm has received as compensation 7 per cent bonds for the same amount, which are to be redeemed within 15 years.

Not less than 4,000 workers will be employed at the enterprises of the Trust.

### Recall of Soviet Deputies

The Presidium of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee has called upon all local Soviets to adopt measures which would enable the voters to exercise their right of recalling the deputies elected to the rural and urban Soviets.

A motion for the recall of deputies may be made either at the regular meetings of voters discussing the reports of the deputies, or at meetings called specially for that purpose. In this respect the initiative rests not only with the Soviet itself, but also with the local trade unions, peasant mutual aid societies, conferences of women delegates, as well as with other public organizations, and even with individual voters. A request of not less than ten voters of the electoral district in question is necessary in order that a special meeting may be called.

In every case where Soviet deputies systematically neglect their duties, do not attend the Soviet sessions and committee meetings, do not take any steps for carrying out the instructions of the voters, or conduct themselves in a discreditable



manner, the local Soviets are bound, on their own initiative, to submit to the voters the question of the recall of such deputies. At meetings called for that purpose the question of the recall is to be decided by a simple majority vote.

Such decisions may be nullified by the rural and urban Soviets only if the meetings were not attended by a sufficient number of voters. In this case a second meeting of the voters is to be called by the local Soviet within two weeks.

The procedure for recalling deputies, as established by the Presidium of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee, extends likewise to substitute members of the Soviets.

#### **New Law on Compulsory Military Service in the Soviet Union**

Last August the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. ratified the new law on compulsory military service, as worked out by the Council of People's Commissars of the Soviet Union.

In accordance with that law, the defense of the U. S. S. R. is a duty of all citizens of the Soviet Union. Only the working elements have the right to take part in the armed defense of the U. S. S. R. The non-toiling elements are bound to perform other services connected with the defense of the U. S. S. R.

The new law contains a special chapter about the military training of those who have not been called to the colors as yet, about the reserve of the Red Army, about the granting of exemptions to conscripts in consideration of their special domestic or economic situation, about the granting of delays to those drafted for active military service, etc.

#### **A New Law About the Payment of Alimony in Soviet Russia**

The Presidium of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee has ratified a new law on the payment of alimony. In accordance with the new law, the persons who are under obligation to pay alimony, are bound to report every change of their address and place of employment, as well as every increase of their earnings or of their income. Violation of these rules is subject to penalty under the law. Those persons who pay alimony and derive their income from sources other than their personal labor are not permitted to sell or to transfer buildings and enterprises belonging to them, without the preliminary consent from the persons receiving alimony.

In granting divorces the various branches of the registry office are to call the particular attention of the parties concerned to the maintenance of the children. If no understanding is reached on that question between husband and wife, the authorities of the registry office are obliged to refer the matter to the courts.

#### **Changes in the Code of Marriage Laws**

The Council of People's Commissars of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic has instructed the People's Commissariat for Justice to issue an explanation in accordance with which parents, relatives and guardians who for mercenary reasons prevent a woman from marrying after she has come of age, are subject to penalty under the law.

At the same time the Council of People's Commissars has adopted a decision dealing with the criminal prosecution of parents, relatives and guardians for persecuting a woman who married without their consent.

#### **The Northern Tribes of the Soviet Union**

During his visit in the United States in connection with the Congress of Americanists, Professor V. Bogoraz-Tan, head of the Department of Ethnography of the University of Leningrad, will give a number of lectures on the inhabitants of the Arctic regions of the Soviet Union. He is a well-known authority in this field.

The nationalities of northeastern Russia and Siberia have a population of only 300,000 and occupy an area more than twice as large as continental Europe outside of Russia. They are the principal trappers of the Soviet Union. The Soviet exports of sables, white and red fox, squirrel and other furs which amounted last year to \$45,000,000 are obtained principally in the regions inhabited by these tribes. Their principal other occupations are sealing, whaling and reindeer breeding. There are over 2,500,000 reindeer in the northern regions of U. S. S. R.

Last year the Soviet Government expended \$1,500,000 for educational and scientific work among the northern nationalities. During recent years sixty-five schools have been opened and fifty highly qualified graduates of Prof. Bogoraz-Tan's courses at the University of Leningrad are devoting their energies to raising the cultural and economic level of these primitive people.

#### **Vast Coal Deposits in Siberia**

The expedition of the geologist Zhemchuzhnikov discovered vast coal deposits in the Tulun District in Siberia. This discovery is of great importance for the construction of a railway line to the Lena River district. To a considerable extent the railway will be able to operate on its own coal.

#### **Theatres in the Soviet Union**

There are 500 theatres in the Soviet Union with an annual attendance of fifteen million. In addition, theatrical performances are being given in 35,000 clubs attached to enterprises and institutions and 30,000 village theatres.

## Books and Pamphlets About the U. S. S. R. in the English Language

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- The Bullitt Mission to Russia. Testimony before the Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate, of William C. Bullitt. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1919.
- Lenin, the Man and His Work, by Albert Rhys Williams, and Impressions by Raymond Robins and Arthur Ransome. Scott and Seltzer, New York, 1919.
- Russian-American Relations, March, 1917-March, 1920, Documents and Papers, Compiled and Edited by C. K. Cumming and Walter W. Pettit. Harcourt, Brace and Howe, New York, 1920.
- Fighting Without a War, An Account of Military Intervention in North Russia, by Ralph Albertson. Harcourt, Brace and Howe, New York, 1920.
- The Russian Workers' Republic, by H. N. Brailsford. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1921.
- Through the Russian Revolution, by Albert Rhys Williams. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1921.
- The Russian Soviet Republic, by Edward A. Ross. The Century Co., New York, 1923.
- The First Time in History, by Anna Louise Strong. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1924.
- New Constitution of the Soviet Union. Soviet Union Information Bureau, Washington, 1924.
- The Cooperative Movement in Russia, by Elsie T. Blanc. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1924.
- The Romance of New Russia, by Magdeleine Marx. Thomas Seltzer, New York, 1924.
- Russia—Official Report of the British Trade Union Delegation to Russia and Caucasia, Nov. and Dec., 1924. Trade Union Congress General Council, London, 1925.
- Problems of Life, by L. Trotsky. George Doran Co., New York, 1925.
- Lenin, by L. Trotsky. Minton Balch & Company, New York, 1925.
- Literature and Revolution, by L. Trotsky. International Publishers, New York, 1925.
- Whither Russia? by L. Trotsky. International Publishers, New York, 1926.
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- Education in Soviet Russia, by Scott Nearing. International Publishers, New York, 1926.
- Broken Earth, by Maurice Hindus. International Publishers, New York, 1926.
- State Capitalism in Russia; The Soviet Economic System in Operation, 1917-1926, by Savel Zimand. Published by the Research Department of the Foreign Policy Association, New York, 1926.
- A Moscow Diary, by Anna Porter. Charles H. Kerr & Co., Chicago, 1926.
- Anti-Soviet Forgeries, A Record of Some of the Forged Documents Used at Various Times Against the Soviet Government. Workers' Publications, Ltd., London, England, 1927.
- Modern Russian Composers, by Leonid Sabaneyef. International Publishers, New York, 1927.
- On the Steppes, A Russian Diary, by James N. Rosenberg. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1927.
- Commercial Handbook of the U. S. S. R., 1927. Soviet Union Information Bureau, Washington, 1927.
- The Russian Land, by Albert Rhys Williams. New Republic, Inc., New York, 1927.
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# SOVIET UNION REVIEW

Fifteen Cents

November, 1928

Vol. VI, No. 11

## Eleventh Anniversary of the Soviet Union The New Concession Policy of the U. S. S. R. Why the "Krassin" Expedition Succeeded The Primitive Tribes of Northern Siberia New Copyright of the Soviet Union Motion Picture Theaters in the Soviet Union

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## Beginning the Twelfth Year

THE Soviet State entered upon its twelfth year on November 7.

The eleventh year was marked by notable progress along many lines. In the cultural field great gains were scored and the task of raising the educational level of the masses advanced. Drastic and far-reaching measures were taken to cope with the agricultural problem. The increases in industrial production exceeded expectations during the first year in which industrial gains were dependent wholly on new construction. The concessions policy was greatly liberalized in conformity with productive plans covering the next five years. There was a marked increase in trade with the United States, along with new and significant contractual relations between Soviet organizations and large American industrial units.

At the beginning of 1928, 11,200,000 children were in Soviet schools, nearly 45 per cent more than in the closing years of the Tsarist regime. In the cities 98.4 per cent of the children of school age were attending schools, and in the country districts 66.3 per cent. Local and Republican budgets for education aggregated over \$400,000,000 for 1927-28, setting a new record in Russian history. The easier economic situation in the country resulted in a great increase in the number and scope of voluntary educational organizations during the year, especially in the workers clubs, each of which is an active educational center.

The sharp decline in grain export, despite a production virtually equal to that before the war, brought the agricultural problem to the front. The Government initiated a three-fold campaign:

1. To increase the number of collective farms.
2. To expand greatly the number of Soviet or State farms.
3. To increase the productivity of peasant farms by improved farm machinery, by better seeds, and by the extension of the contract system whereby groups of farmers or entire villages are supplied with seed, etc., on condition that they deliver a corresponding amount of grain products.

The plans for State farms involve the development of 5,000,000 acres of unused land, in large units, during the next five years, to yield an annual crop of 1,800,000 tons of grain. The collective farms will be increased to 18,000,000 acres occupying 4,900,000 persons. A beginning was made in these developments in the summer of 1928.

The increase of the industrial output during the year was approximately 20 per cent. In all the major industries, save the metal industry and ore mining, the output was well above pre-war.

It is notable that the output of agricultural machinery increased 35 per cent over the previous year.

Production in some of the larger industries was as follows (in metric tons):

	1926-27	1927-28	Increase Per Cent
Coal .....	31,008,100	34,111,000	10
Oil .....	10,129,500	11,502,000	13.5
Pig Iron .....	2,961,000	3,281,000	10.8
Martin Steel .....	3,592,000	4,150,000	15.5
Rolled Iron .....	2,743,000	3,367,000	22.7
Iron Ore .....	4,817,000	5,977,000	24
Cotton Cloth (million meters) .....	2,342	2,536	8

Upwards of \$650,000,000 was spent on capital extensions in industry during the year, mostly from profits and sinking funds.

The coordination and extension of the concessions policy, announced towards the close of the year, is expected to have a progressive effect on the exploitation of the resources of the country and on industrial production.

Trade with the United States showed a healthy gain during the Soviet fiscal year ending September 30. Soviet orders placed in the United States during the year amounted to nearly \$100,000,000, as compared to Russian orders of approximately \$40,000,000 before the war. During the year a number of important contracts were closed with American industrial and technical corporations. Chief of these was a contract with the International General Electric Company. An agreement was concluded between the Radio Corporation of America and the Soviet State Electrotechnical Trust for exchange of patents and information and for technical assistance from the Radio Corporation. Several other contracts with technical firms were concluded, and the scope was extended in contracts with firms such as Hugh L. Cooper and Co., the Freyn Engineering Co., and Stuart, James and Cooke.

The important event in the field of foreign affairs was the participation of Soviet delegates in the Geneva disarmament conference last winter, where Mr. Litvinov, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs, presented on behalf of the Soviet Government, successively, plans for complete disarmament and plans for progressive partial disarmament. These plans were rejected by a majority of the other delegates, but they proved once more that the efforts towards peace are the fundamental feature of the foreign policy of the Soviet Union.

# The New Concession Policy of the U. S. S. R.

ON July 24, 1928, the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. having heard the report of the Chief Concessions Committee outlining a plan of concession objects to be offered to foreign enterprise, approved the basic principles of carrying out the concession policy as a whole, in the field of transport, manufacturing, mining, electrical construction, forestry, agriculture and land improvement, cotton growing, sugar production, dairying, and, finally, in the field of municipal economy. Simultaneously with the general statements of the report the Council of People's Commissars confirmed the tentative list of concession objects which may be offered to foreign capital in the above mentioned fields of Soviet national economy.

For the purpose of calling the attention of foreign firms and organizations to the available concession objects, the Council of People's Commissars instructed the Chief Concessions Committee in collaboration with the corresponding departments to work out and to publish in foreign languages a description of the concession objects in question. Concession applicants will have the opportunity of choosing from that list the objects of interest to them.

At the same time the Council of People's Commissars authorized the Chief Concessions Committee likewise to conduct negotiations with applicants about such concession objects as are not mentioned in the tentative list approved by the Council, should the concessionary raise the question about such concession objects and should the Soviet Government be interested in the matter.

As the State Planning Commission of the U. S. S. R. is at present engaged in the working out of a five-year plan of the country's economic activities the concessions forming part of that plan, the Council of People's Commissars in connection with that plan instructed the State Planning Commission to work out a detailed plan of concession objects defining the objects of the prospective plan, as well as those not embraced by the prospective plan, but coming under the provisions of the general fifteen-year plan of national economy, which are to be listed as concessions.

In line with the general task undertaken by the Soviet Government with regard to the gradual industrialization of those regions in which at the present time industry is either in its initial stage or non-existent, the Council of People's Commissars directed the Chief Concessions Committee to call the attention of concession capital not only to the industrial but also to the non-industrial regions. In this connection the Council of People's Commissars instructed the Chief Concessions Committee particularly to welcome those concession applications which propose to undertake

pioneering work, and in those cases to grant particularly favorable terms to the applicants.

Foreign concession capital is to be attracted not only to the basic sections of national economy, but also to its secondary branches. The Chief Concessions Committee is to determine the necessity and the urgency of attracting foreign concession capital in accordance with the technical requirements of the various branches of industry.

The Council of People's Commissars holds that in concluding concession agreements it is necessary first of all to consider the ability of raising the amount of the capital invested to the largest possible extent, as well as the obligation of the concessionary to maintain the enterprises on a level in keeping with modern technical improvements, and to create auxiliary enterprises for the output of semi-manufactured products, of materials which are not produced in the U. S. S. R., etc.

The Chief Concessions Committee is to take measures for attracting foreign capital, particularly for the purpose of working the deposits of non-ferrous metals, for the development of the metal industries (especially lathe constructing), of the paper, cellulose, and automobile industries, for the development of the manufacture of artificial silk, and production of tanning materials. In the opinion of the Council of People's Commissars, it is possible, in these branches of national economy, to offer to concession applicants very favorable conditions insuring a speedy development of the industries.

As a rule the concessionaries will be granted the right to sell their output at their own discretion. With regard to those goods which will be consumed chiefly by the State industries the concession agreements are to stipulate, in favor of the State, the right of preemption of part of the output on terms guaranteeing the profitability of the concession.

For the purpose of enabling the concessionary within the shortest term to organize the enterprises placed at his disposal under the concession agreement, the Council of People's Commissars authorized the Chief Concessions Committee, wherever necessary for the success of the concession, in concluding agreements, to grant to the concessionaries exemptions with regard to the payment of customs duties on imports of initial equipment, tools, raw materials, and building materials, if it is impossible to obtain them in the U. S. S. R. Licenses and special permits for such importations are to be granted within the shortest possible term, which is in no case to exceed one month.

In order to facilitate to the concessionary the export of currency in accordance with the concession agreement, the Council of People's Commis-

sars instructed the Chief Concessions Committee and the People's Commissariat for Finances that applications of this nature, made by concessionaries, are to be considered without delay by the People's Commissariat for Finances.

In order to introduce uniformity into the matter of taxation of concession enterprises the Council of People's Commissars considered it practicable to include in the concession agreements a clause whereby the concessionary obligates himself to pay a single tax to be levied by a special Government agency in accordance with definite regulations.

In determining the extent of the pro rata and rent payments, the Chief Concessions Committee was instructed to proceed from the necessity to safeguard the normal development and the reasonable profitableness of the concession enterprises.

The concessions to be granted are to use domestic raw materials. The use of imported raw materials will be permitted only in case the import of the given raw material or the production based on that raw material is indispensable, regardless of the conclusion of the concession agreement. In particular the granting of concessions working with imported raw material will be permitted in those cases when in accordance with the nature of the concession offer the required amount of foreign raw material and semi-manufactured products can be offset by the concessionary's obligation to export the products of the concession enterprise.

Whenever compatible with the character of the concessions, the Chief Concessions Committee will insist upon the inclusion in the concession agreement of an obligation on the part of the concessionary to export a definite part of the output of his enterprise.

Considering that the U. S. S. R. is especially interested in the attraction of foreign capital, the Council of People's Commissars has instructed the Chief Concessions Committee to stipulate that the entire capital invested by the concessionary is to come exclusively from abroad, the transfer of currency to be effected through the credit establishments of the U. S. S. R. to the extent provided for in the agreements. However, the concessionaries will be given the opportunity, both for the extension of the enterprise and for the organization of new concession enterprises to make use of the profits obtained in the U. S. S. R.

Conditions of labor of the concession enterprises, the manner of hiring and discharging workers and office employes, the settlement of conflicts, and insurance matters are, as heretofore, to be governed by the Code of Labor Laws and the laws and decisions of the Government published on this subject, also by collective agreements or other agreements concluded between the concessionary and the respective trade unions, these agreements to apply to all persons employed in the concession

enterprise. The hiring of the necessary labor force, as well as of the technical and clerical employes, is to be effected by the concessionary through the organs of the People's Commissariat for Labor, and to a certain extent independently, in the form of collective agreements. The concessionaries are also to have the right to engage highly skilled workers as well as the administrative and technical personnel from among foreign citizens in the manner provided for in the concession agreement.

Simultaneously with the basic regulations determining the manner of realizing concessions in general, the Council of People's Commissars has likewise approved the basic regulations governing the manner of establishing concessions in the various branches of national economy of the U. S. S. R.

#### Statement by Chairman of Chief Concessions Committee

At a recent session of the Presidium of the Council of Conferences of State Trade and Industry, Mr. V. N. Ksandrov, Chairman of the Chief Concessions Committee of the U. S. S. R., presented a report about the current concession practice and its prospects for the near future. The most important passages of the report are given below:

The granting of industrial concessions to foreign capital is at present one of the most practicable methods of attracting foreign capital. The experience of the last few years has shown that a number of manufacturing concessions (such as for instance, the Hammer enterprise, etc.,) have had a beneficial effect not only upon the market but also upon similar Soviet enterprises, by contributing to the improvement of the quality of the product and to the reduction of the prices.

But at the same time there are also examples of an opposite nature, as some of the concession enterprises did not contribute anything essential to the productive forces of the Soviet Union. Thus, there are concessions whose holders only organize the small producers and afterwards buy up their products.

Until now there were no strict regulations as to the manner in which foreigners could apply for concessions. It was the concessionary himself who selected the object for his concession and afterwards made an application to the Chief Concessions Committee. The number of applications for concessions depended upon the given political situation. While during the fiscal year 1925-26, the Chief Concessions Committee received 485 applications, only 216 applications were submitted in 1926-27, the year of the Anglo-Soviet rupture. During the first seven months of the current fiscal year 1927-28, (beginning October 1, 1927), 115 applications were submitted. In 1925-26, 38 agreements were concluded, among them seven technical service concessions, while in 1926-27, 23 agreements, including 15 technical service concessions, were concluded.



The general situation in the Soviet concession field may be expressed by the following figures: During the fiscal year 1925-26, there were 54 concession enterprises in the U. S. S. R. with a capital stock of 47,000,000 rubles (\$24,000,000), according to somewhat incomplete data. In 1926-27, there were 74 enterprises with a capital stock of 45,000,000 rubles (\$23,000,000), according to more exact data. Their output increased from 64,000,000 rubles (\$33,000,000) in 1925-26, to 112,000,000 rubles (\$57,600,000) in 1926-27. The Government's revenues from concessions amounted to 15,200,000 rubles (\$7,800,000) in 1925-26, and to 15,400,000 rubles (\$7,930,000) in 1926-27. The net profit of the concessionaries in 1925-26 and 1926-27, amounted to 2,800,000 rubles (\$1,440,000) and 7,000,000 rubles (\$3,600,000), respectively. As a rule, all the concession enterprises which work for the domestic market are highly remunerative, the profits constituting 300 and even 400 per cent of the invested capital.

At the present time the Chief Concessions Committee, upon instructions from the Government, is intensifying its concession policy. It is going to make public a list of the concession objects and to give to the concessionaries the privilege of choosing among these objects. It is intended, as far as possible, to increase the participation of concession capital in the heavy industries (mining, metal, electrical) and in the building activities. Up to the present about one hundred concession objects have been worked out, including concessions in the field of municipal economy in which no concessions have been granted as yet. For the purpose of hastening and simplifying the negotiations, the Chief Concessions Committee has worked out a number of model agreements for manufacturing, timber, building, technical service concessions, etc. The drafting of model agreements for municipal enterprises and railways will soon be completed.

#### **Concessions in the Field of Municipal Economy**

The Chief Concessions Committee has worked out a plan of concessions in the field of municipal economy.

The plan embraces over sixty cities in which various kinds of municipal enterprises, such as street railways, gas works, electric plants, water system, sewerage, slaughter houses, etc., are to be granted as concessions. The amount of the capital investments is estimated at over 400,000,000 rubles (over \$200,000,000).

The population of the cities of the Soviet Union is growing with great rapidity. It is expected that during the five-year period from 1927 to 1931, the probable increase of the city population will be about 4,900,000, that is nearly 20 per cent.

In addition to the growth of the existing cities new urban settlements are springing up in connection with the industrialization of the country. Every new factory or plant is the nucleus of a new

urban settlement. These settlements must be provided not only with housing facilities but also with municipal services of all kinds.

The municipal services of the Russian cities before the war were considerably below the average standard of the cities of Western Europe. The rapid growth of the cities has all the more emphasized the backwardness of the U. S. S. R., in the field of municipal services. In many cities the need for mechanical rapid street communication is keenly felt. Only a few cities are provided with sewer systems. Not all cities with over 20,000 inhabitants have water supply services. Only a few cities have gas works, etc. Thus the U. S. S. R. is faced by the task of creating a number of municipal enterprises not only in the rapidly growing cities, but also in the new urban settlements.

The installation of municipal enterprises will necessitate tremendous expenditures. According to a conservative and rather too low estimate over 1,500,000,000 rubles (\$750,000,000) will have to be expended in the near future for the equipment of municipal utilities in the existing cities. About a billion rubles will be necessary during the coming years for the equipment of municipal enterprises in the urban settlements which are now springing up. To this amount there are to be still added the enormous expenditures needed for the extension and the reequipment of the existing enterprises.

The principal requirement that will be submitted to the concessionaries is the establishment of rates which are within the reach of the population, permitting the extension of the use of the municipal services, while simultaneously enabling the concessionary to derive a satisfactory profit. For the purpose of lowering the rates the period of the agreement may be extended and in case of considerable capital investments a guarantee may be given that in the region served by the concession the construction of similar enterprises would not be permitted in the course of a definite period. The terms of the concession may contain a stipulation providing for the payment of a certain amount to the concessionary after the expiration of the term of the agreement, as a compensation for the expenditures made by him for the extension of the enterprise; he may also be granted certain privileges in case the enterprise is bought off prior to the expiration of the agreement. The granting of a number of privileges to the concessionaries, the rapid development of the cities which secures an uninterrupted increase of the consumption of the output of the enterprise, as well as the growth of the well-being of the population, are creating conditions which are quite favorable to the development of the concession enterprises and are insuring a comparatively high profit which is increasing all the time.

The cities included by the Chief Concessions Committee in the list of the concession objects, viz. Moscow, Leningrad, Odessa, Kharkov, Tiflis,

Kiev, Tashkent, Vladivostok, Novosibirsk, Sverdlovsk, Rostov-on-Don, etc., are large economic, cultural and political centers of the U. S. S. R.

### **Foreign Concessionaries on the New Concession Policy of the Soviet Government**

In a conversation with a member of the staff of the Moscow "Izvestia," Mr. A. P. Malozemov, manager of the "Lena Goldfields" Joint Stock Company, an Anglo-American concession enterprise operating gold fields in Siberia, as well as Mr. F. Gwynn, director of the company, was quoted as follows with regard to the recent Government decree concerning the organization of concession activities in the Soviet Union:

"We attribute great importance to the decision of the Soviet Government concerning the extension of the concession policy in the U. S. S. R.

"The U. S. S. R. is faced by such tremendous tasks in connection with the rapid development of the productive forces of the country and the reconstruction of its industries that the utilization of foreign capital and particularly of foreign technique by the Soviet Government seems to us quite important. Thus, for instance, in the field of the metal smelting and working industries which are the bases of the industrial system, the country must make tremendous efforts, not only in erecting new industrial units and equipping hitherto unexploited deposits, etc., but also for the purpose of reconstructing enterprises which, in the course of the past years had fallen below the standards of modern technique.

"In the course of the last few years industrial technique, particularly in America, has achieved remarkable practical results especially in the field of mining, smelting, and working of metals. The active collaboration of foreign capital, as well as of European and American technical organizations is necessary if the Soviet Union is to catch up with these achievements.

"We also believe that the Soviet Union should secure the collaboration of foreign capital and of reputable technical organizations in a number of branches of the manufacturing industries. We believe that the branches of industry most important in this respect for the U. S. S. R., are the manufacture of electrical equipment, automobiles, artificial silk, as well as a few special branches of machine construction.

"The enormous natural resources of the Soviet Union offer, doubtless, a great number of interesting objects for the application of foreign concession capital, and the three-years' experience of our concession enterprise "Lena Goldfields" has proved to us that in this country concession capital can be assured of fair treatment, and can fill all the conditions necessary for success.

"For this reason we hope that the decision of the Soviet Government concerning the extension of its concession policy will bring favorable results."

In conclusion, Mr. A. P. Malozemov and Mr. F.

Gwynn communicated the following data about the situation of the "Lena Goldfields" enterprise:

"All the past years were for us years of strenuous construction. The condition of the enterprises which the Government has transferred to our Company on the basis of a concession agreement, was such that those of them which were already in operation, had to be subjected to a radical reorganization and complete reconstruction; the majority of the enterprises, however, represented entirely untouched reserves of ore. At present we are engaged in a radical reequipment of the Lena gold mining enterprise which is being provided with dredges; we are equipping the mines and constructing works for the production of copper, lead, silver and gold in the Altai region. We are engaged in equipping the mines and in building a plant in the Degtiar copper fields with the understanding that in a few weeks the first plant will be set in operation. We are also constructing a new metal plant on the site of the former Seversky plant. Furthermore we are reequipping the Redvinsk metal plant. The Lena Goldfields Company intends to finish this enormous program of reequipping its industries in the spring of 1930.

"We believe in the success of our activities, and we hope that, in our future activities, we will have, as heretofore, the assistance of the Government of the U. S. S. R."

### **Tentative Concession Plan of the U. S. S. R.**

The tentative plan of the Soviet Government, as published about the middle of October includes the following concession possibilities in the mining industry: Lead and zinc deposits in the Balkhash region in the Kazak Republic (Soviet Central Asia) and in the Nerchinsk district in Siberia; copper deposits of Zangezur, Transcaucasia, and Minusinsk, Siberia; the Berezov gold mines in the Ural; placer gold deposits on the Far Eastern Littoral, and gold deposits in Eastern Siberia which have not been sufficiently explored.

In the steel industry concessions are available in the Krivoi Rog district in the Ukraine, in the Kuznets district in Siberia, in the Komarovo district in the Ural, and in the Dashkessan region in Transcaucasia wherein deposits of iron ore are situated.

In the oil industry concessions may be obtained in the Ural-Emba district whose oil wells are being operated at present, as well as for the development of the still unexplored but rich oil deposits on the island of Cheleken in the Caspian Sea, in the Temryuk-Taman region in Northern Caucasia, and in Central Asia (Baya-Dag, Keymar, and Nefte-Dag).

Concession capital will also receive opportunities to enter the coal mining industries, especially in the Donetz Basin.

In the metal industry the plan includes fourteen metallurgical plants for the steel industry; six plants for the non-ferrous metal industry, and

twenty-four machine building plants. In the field of machine construction the concession plan provides for a plant which is to turn out 10,000 tractors annually, automobile plants with an annual output of 10,000 to 100,000 cars, a bicycle plant which is to produce 100,000 to 500,000 bicycles annually, factories for the production of tools, lathes, railway cars, etc.

In the chemical industry concession capital will be invited to develop the Solikamsk potash deposits (on the Kama River in Northeastern Russia), the glass industry, and other branches.

The construction and exploitation of the following railroads are included among the concession objects: the Obi—Byelomore (White Sea) line (2,225 kilometers); the Alexandrov-Gai—Charjui line (1,918 kilometers); the Saratov—Millerovo line (586 kilometers); the Telbess—Kuznetz line (101 kilometers) and the Barnaul—Kuznetz line (348 kilometers). A combination of railroad concessions with other concessions might be allowed at the outset. Construction work in connection with the Volga-Don Canal might also be offered to concession enterprise.

Concessions for the construction of the following electric power plants are to be offered to foreign capital: a water power plant on the Svira River, with a capacity of 80,000 kilowatts, a power plant at Cheliabinsk, operated on fuel, with a capacity of 60,000 kilowatts, a water power plant on the Rion River, with a capacity of 30,000 kilowatts, a power plant in the Moscow suburbs, operated on fuel, with a capacity of 200,000 to 300,000 kilowatts, etc.

The following concessions are contemplated in the line of land improvement: Irrigation of the Chu Valley in the Kazak Republic, Soviet Central Asia; irrigation of the Ural-Emba region; draining of the Poti swamps, etc. The concession objects cover an aggregate area of 4,000,000 hectares (9,800,000 acres).

The tentative plan likewise includes a number of concessions in the electrical industry, in dairying, in cotton growing, in the timber, sugar and leather industries, as well as in the field of municipal economy and housing construction.

## Why the "Krassin" Expedition Succeeded

**E**ARLY in October, 1928, the Soviet ice breaker "Krassin" which in July had succeeded in saving seven members of the ill-fated Nobile expedition, arrived in the port of Leningrad, where it was given an enthusiastic reception.

On that occasion Professor R. L. Samoylovich, who was the head of the expedition, wrote the following article for the Moscow "Pravda" explaining the success of the Soviet rescue expedition:

It is still premature to write an exhaustive re-

port of the activities of the "Krassin" expedition. For aside from that aspect of the activities of the expedition which attracted general attention—the assistance given to the Nobile expedition and the search for Amundsen and Guilbeaux—it had also undertaken other tasks of a purely scientific character. I am not bold enough to assert that the results of the scientific investigations—in-as-far as the direct task of the rescue work permitted such investigations—are of great interest. However, the scientific material will have to be subjected to a long and careful study. Then only will it be possible to estimate properly the final results of the activities of our expedition in their entirety.

It may be said without exaggeration that the entire world was amazed by the overwhelming success of the "Krassin" expedition. The same ship about whose sailing and further movements only the scantiest news was being published, immediately won the attention of the press the world over, which up to that time was occupied with a detailed description of all expeditions with the exception of the one undertaken by the Soviet ice-breaker "Krassin."

How, then, is to be explained the success of the Soviet expedition which was entirely unexpected as far as Western Europe and America were concerned, but of which we were confident from the very beginning of the expedition?

First of all we had started out with the firm determination to achieve the rescue of the ill-fated Italians in the shortest possible and in the most practicable way. Having set to ourselves that task we approached its execution in a scientific way. We did not have to study anew the conditions under which work is to be conducted in the Arctic. The experience of many Polar explorations was behind us, and an exact knowledge of the meteorological factors, of the condition and the movement of the ice floes, of the currents, etc., made us perceive immediately that the execution of the task in hand, i. e., the rescue of the Italian expedition, required a powerful ice breaker which alone would be able to overcome the icy barrier unsurmountable to all the other ships. The ice-breaker was to be assisted by an airplane with a sufficient radius of activity; the airplane being the eye of the expedition.

It was exceedingly important to select the right route which was outlined with great exactness, due to the familiarity with all the preceding Polar expeditions, of which, by the way, not a single one used ice-breakers. The only precedent in this respect was for us the journey of the Soviet ice breaker "Yermak," north of Spitsbergen. And, indeed, Makarov's northern trip was for us a splendid example.

We had correctly decided upon the western route which meant that the attempt was to be made to reach the Italian group from the west and the north of Spitsbergen. But when venturing upon

our rather difficult trip, though we had a minutely elaborated plan, we were considering the probability, and even absolute possibility, of a number of unexpected occurrences and those grave obstacles which the elements present in the North and which might be overcome only with the aid of experience, patience, prudent courage and presence of mind.

For that purpose it was necessary to be provided with a personnel that was irreproachable and highly qualified. It will be no boasting if we say that the personnel of the expedition fully came up to the requirements of the task; both the commanding staff and the crew consisted of selected sailors who had an exceptionally rich and unique experience of sailing on ice-breakers in the midst of unending icy wastes.

It is hardly necessary to speak of the personnel and the activity of our aviation group—it has won the admiration of the entire world. However, the decisive factor determining the success of every expedition, and in particular of a Polar expedition, is the unity of purpose, the coordination of activities of all parts of the expedition. Fully conscious of the importance of all these elements, and owing to the spirit of the entire personnel of the expedition, and the firm determination to succeed, we were able to carry out all the separate tasks with which we were confronted in the course of the expedition. And the friendly, purely comradely relations between the commanding staff and the crew created an exceedingly agreeable atmosphere in the course of the entire cruise that lasted nearly four months. Every task, even the most difficult, the most perilous and enervating, was being carried out gaily, with enthusiasm. There is no doubt that the final aim of the expedition—the saving of human beings—was able to inspire our boys to make the greatest sacrifices if necessary. Moreover, every one felt that our fellow citizens had sent us, as it were, in the capacity of pioneers, of an advance troop, in the struggle for our culture, and we had to show what we could do. Now that the work had been achieved—and it must be admitted that it was a hard task—we are exceedingly happy at the thought that we were able to justify the confidence placed in us.

It is true, good luck was with the expedition, an element which is also quite essential in the case of expeditions into unexplored regions. And, indeed, in most cases we encountered favorable winds; when we needed sunshine we had it. As the sailors say, the weather was with us. Of course, the very opposite happened, too; we would have been bored without a good storm and unexpected obstacles. But, on the whole, our expedition had good luck.

By the way, we were able to forecast the weather. Our weather service was being conducted very thoroughly. The geophysicist, V. A. Berezkin, using the meteorological radio reports of the Soviet Union, as well as those of England,

Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, was drawing up detailed synoptical maps which enabled us to foresee the weather.

Now, what were the results of the "Krassin" expedition?

Our cruise is to be divided into two periods. The first period included the rescue of the two Italian groups. While one could have been confident of the rescue of the Viglieri group, the discovery of Zappi and Mariano was practically a miracle. Responsible for this success was the coordination of which I spoke before—the combination of ice-breaker, airplane, and radio. And, in addition, another little thing—the disregard of personal interests in the name of the common good.

How strange was it to read subsequently in the European press the admiring voices referring to this "self-sacrifice." For our aviators, for all of us, this was something quite usual, quite natural. It would not have occurred to any one of us first to save "our own people," and then to go to the rescue of the "strangers." We knew that our men would hold out, and that it was necessary to hurry to the rescue of the others who were losing their courage in the midst of the icy wastes.

Were our men and the boat exposed to any danger? Of course they were; otherwise it would have been impossible to effect the rescue. Our ice-breaker was mortally wounded; deprived of one screw blade, with a damaged rudder, we were risking too much, and the entire personnel of the expedition were fully conscious of it. But could we have acted otherwise, and stop our further progress? Of course not. It would have been a disgrace—and so we achieved our purpose.

The second period, after the repairs effected in the docks of Stavanger—was not easier than the first one. The late fall, or more exactly, the beginning of winter in the Polar region, unfavorable meteorological conditions, the frost, the appearance of new ice—all this greatly handicapped our activities.

Nevertheless, I am convinced that we did all that was in our power. Our aviators were carrying out flights at a time when nobody else was ready to do so. "Krassin" carefully scrutinized hundreds of thousands of square miles, unfortunately without results: but this was not our fault. At any rate, in the course of our research we went as far as 81° 47' of northern latitude, a point that was never reached by another boat at that time of the year. Being exactly cognizant of the time when the catastrophe of the "Italia" occurred, as well as of the meteorological conditions obtaining at that time, we mapped out the region which we were going to explore, and in doing so we reached the location in which, since 1707, Gilies Land was supposed to be situated, but we did not find it. Such a land does not exist. We have, so to speak, crossed it on our ice-breaker.

Thereafter we went to Franz Josef Land and established a depot on Cape Neal of Prince George Land. Should anybody drift into this direction, he can find food, clothing and shelter on that cape. Moreover, due to a strong wind and ice washed to the shore, we had great difficulties in leaving that shore on a barge, and in reaching our ship. What could be done? Such trips are not being made without risk.

What about our scientific work? For the first time exact meteorological observations were being made at that latitude; they were being daily reported by radio to our geophysical laboratory, and to the geophysical institutes in Bergen and Tromsø. It is obvious that these reports were exceedingly important for the synoptic weather chart and for the weather forecasts on the continent.

During our cruise the geophysicist, V. A. Berezkin, made thirty-seven hydrological charts in those places of the northern Polar seas in which nobody had ever made observations with regard to the temperature, salt content, and density of water. A study of these observations will give a fairly complete picture of the distribution of the warm and cold stream currents north of Spitsbergen and between the latter and Franz Josef Land, and especially about the influence of the Gulf Stream in those waters.

At the same time the study of the distribution and especially of the creation of ice fields in that region will complete our knowledge in that field, and the marking of the depths during the entire cruise will furnish scores of new points on the tremendous "white" space north of Spitsbergen,

where since our cruise the exact depths have become known.

In view of the tasks confronting her, the "Krassin" made only very few stops at the shores. However, geological researches were conducted by us wherever we stopped and we brought back several hundred pounds of petrographical material. And as we were stopping at places in which no investigations had ever been conducted, the importance of the material obtained becomes obvious, all the more as we were endeavoring to connect geological investigations with topographical surveys, though they were only hasty sketches.

On the way we were collecting botanical and zoological material. We killed three ice bears, two reindeer and many specimens of birds. Finally, during the cruise, as well as in connection with the various activities, we took about 700 photographs and 5,000 meters of film.

I omitted to mention that after the end of our first cruise, on our way to Norway for the purpose of making repairs, we saved the "Monte Cervantes," a German 14,000-ton steamer, with 1,800 passengers on board; we repaired her in the course of three days and brought her back to Norway.

In concluding I consider it my duty to emphasize the intelligent, energetic, and enlightened management on the part of the Committee for the Rescue of the Italian Expedition, attached to "Ossoaviakhim" (Society of Friends of Aviation and Chemical Defense). The assistance rendered by that committee to our activities was of exceptional importance, and without it our work might have remained futile.

## The Primitive Tribes of Siberia

THE cultural and scientific work carried on in the North and the Northeast of the Soviet Union for the last ten years was the subject of a number of papers presented by Professor Waldemar Bogoras-Tan, head of the Department of Ethnography of the University of Leningrad, to the International Congress of Americanists held in New York in the latter part of September, 1928.

The following is an abstract of the papers presented to the Congress:

The so-called "lesser nationalities of the North" represent small groups of people more or less primitive, each group with a membership scarcely more than a couple of thousand or so, scattered over an immense area of tundra and forest. The aggregate number of the population of these twenty-odd tribes is one hundred and fifty to two hundred thousand. Among them are: the Chukchi, the Koryaks, the Kamchadales, the Asiatic Eskimo, the Aleuts, the Yukaghirs, the Chuvanzi, the Ghilyaks, the Yeniseians, the Dolgans, the various branches of the Tunguses and the Lamuts, the Golds and the Olcha, the Oroches, the Ude of the

Amur country, the Oroks of Sakhalin, the Karagasses and the Soyotes of the Sayan Mountains. The latter are the most primitive tribes among the Siberian Turki people. Here belong also the Samoyeds, the Ostyaks, the Voguls, and the Lapps.

Our scientific work among these tribes represented the development of the studies undertaken by the Jesup North Pacific Expedition among the Asiatic sections of the Circum-Beringian people. Thirty years ago we called these tribes "Americanoid tribes of Northeastern Siberia," but in latter years the circle of this research widened and several other groups appeared as very similar to the Northeastern Americanoids in most of the conditions of their life and culture.

The most important of these groups are the Siberian Turki inhabiting the mountainous land of the Altai and the Sayan and some parts of the adjacent plateau and prairie.

We call these tribes at present Proto-Asiatic, which, from the point of view of an Americanist is intended to imply that at some stage of their early history they presented a close resemblance

to the Proto-American, who, much later on, were connected with Asia in various branches of their life and culture.

Several branches of our Proto-Asiatic research come within the bounds of American interest and on the whole I am almost inclined to include them as a kind of northeast Siberia section of the same extensive Americanist studies.

When after the War and the Revolution we resumed our scientific work among these tribes of northern and northeastern Siberia, we had first of all to resolve some very important practical problems referring to the well-being and to the very life of these tribes which until then were only an object of our scientific research.

For several centuries before the War these tribes were oppressed and threatened with extermination. The Revolution and the civil disturbances brought them to utter destitution and even carried them to the brink of starvation. In order to improve this nearly catastrophic condition of things there was organized in 1924, partly at the suggestion of Waldemar Bogoras, a special "Committee for Assisting the Lesser Nationalities of the North," in abbreviation, the Northern Committee. The president of the Committee was from the beginning, P. G. Smidovich. The statutes of the Committee made provision for the study of scientific problems; in particular, Paragraph 3 of the statutes provided for "collecting of facts referring to the life and needs of the native tribes," but in Section 8 the Committee is charged with "the execution of all decrees and orders issued by the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R., in all cases referring to the lesser nationalities of the north."

Among the measures introduced and carried through by the Committee the following are to be mentioned:

1. The remission of all taxes and direct payments in the Arctic regions.
2. The complete abrogation of all military service of the natives.
3. An increase of the necessary supplies and provisions imported into the northern countries and an improvement of their quality.
4. The organization of self-government and of native jurisdiction. This has led to increased self-confidence among the tribes.
5. Credits have been given to the reindeer breeders and insurance of the herds is being introduced.
6. Measures for the protection of fur-bearing animals have been introduced and are being carried through.
7. Land surveys are being undertaken to protect the territories of the natives against colonists.

Even the old official names of the native peoples are being changed on the explicit request of the natives, since these names often represent only nicknames given to the northern tribes by their more cultured neighbors. So Tungus means in

the Yakut language "swine"; the Tungus call themselves Ewunki. "Samoyed" means in Russian, "self-eaters," but it is probably a misinterpretation of "raw-eaters," just like the Indian name of the Eskimo, "Eshkimondzek," "raw-eaters." The Samoyeds call themselves "Nenaz," which signifies "man."

A peculiar type of the so-called "cultural bases" was introduced. These bases represent special settlements arranged in the very center of native territory at a distance from Russian settlements and villages.

Three of such bases have already been started. Each of them includes a hospital, a veterinary institution, a school of higher type, a cooperative store, a standard reindeer herd, and some model work-shops for operating with local material. A local official center was also established there.

"For the native and through the native"—that is the motto of the whole cultural work of the Northern Committee.

Expenses of the Northern Committee in the fiscal year 1927-28, were five and a half million rubles, that is, \$2,800,000. Since the northern natives bring to the State a good half of the most valuable peltry, such as sable, ermine, white and red fox, gray squirrel, etc., and since reindeer breeding, which is most important in the community life of northern Eurasia, was created and is carried on solely by northern natives, it was but fair for the Soviet State in its period of new organization to spend some part of its income on improving the miserable conditions of those hard-driven stepsons of civilization.

In the matter of education, fifty schools, with free board, were founded, now having 800 pupils. (In 1926-27, there were only twenty-five schools.) A special college of higher type was established in Leningrad with 300 students, and smaller colleges in Khabarovsk (Soviet Far East), and Irkutsk, Siberia.

#### The Northern College of Leningrad

The Northern College of Leningrad presents a special interest. It was started in 1924, with sixty students. In 1927, it had 192 students, among them twenty girls. The yearly expenses were \$150,000. This year the number of students will be 300.

The college forms at present an important section of the great Leningrad Eastern Institute. The students represent twenty-four of the above mentioned tribes. All of them belong to the lesser nationalities of the U. S. S. R. The other so-called "greater nationalities," such as the Yakuts and the Buriats, have an organization of their own and need no assistance of a special kind.

The extent of the studies equals the curriculum of the average secondary school of the Soviet Union. Special studies in native languages are also organized in nine national groups. Instructors for these groups are taken from among the as-



sistants of the Ethnographical Branch of the University which will be discussed later on.

The work in the college is rather complicated, because of a number of quite unexpected problems with which it is necessary to deal. For instance, most of the students live at home on a strict animal diet, but in Leningrad it is necessary to introduce them to bread and vegetables as a staple food.

The conditions of a large city, of course, are dangerous for most children of the tundra, so they have to be kept all the time under close medical and anthropological supervision.

As to the language, some of them speak fluent Russian, know how to read and write, and have a smattering of arithmetic. Some others do not know a single word of Russian.

The usual primers dealing with agriculture and the life of the city are not suitable for these fishers, hunters and reindeer-breeders. It is therefore necessary to compose for them special primers at first in Russian and then in native languages.

These books are illustrated with drawings made by native artists since all these tribes have remarkable artistic ability.

The students form several circles and clubs among which are those for the study of Esperanto, of diction and of painting. A special newspaper staff publishes a large manuscript "mural" newspaper of the kind now usual in Russia. The articles are written in Russian and in the native languages. Native spelling is mostly based on the Latin alphabet and it is curious to notice that those alphabetic languages begin the period of their new letters with articles written by students of their own origin and blood, and not through the work of some stranger arriving from the unknown west, as was always the case heretofore.

A special magazine, "Forest and Tundra," in regular print, was started in August, 1928, by the same publishing staff.

Two of the students, one Yenisseian and one Samoyed, on an urgent invitation of the Finnish University, were sent to Helsingfors for the time of their vacation in order to help Finnish scientists in making correct notes of the phonetics of their respective languages. So they sacrificed for scientific purposes their much-needed rest.

After two years of study, fourteen students were sent to their respective countries for a year's leave, after which they will return to the institute to finish their education. During their leave they will assist in cultural work among their own people.

### **Ethnographical Research Work**

The Northern College represents, so to speak, the lower tier of the new ethnographical work in the U. S. S. R. The following tier is represented by a special Institute of Ethnography and Geography, founded in 1918, and later transformed into the Geographical Department of the University of Leningrad. The ethnographical section of this Department includes eight branches. These are:

1. Eastern Slav; 2. Urgo-Finnic and Samoyed;
3. Turki; 4. Iranian; 5. Caucasian; 6. Mongolo-Buriat; 7. Tungus-Manchurian; 8. Paleo-Asiatic.

The head of the Section up to 1927, was the late Professor L. J. Sternberg; after his death, Professor W. G. Bogoras. At the head of the Turki and East Slav branches are the well known scientists Professors A. N. Samoilovich and D. K. Selenin.

The students following the courses of the ethnographical section, begin field work early, mostly during the vacation period of their first year. After graduation from the University they take up their special work for two or three years. At the present time some fifty of these young scientists, men and women, are occupied with cultural and scientific work among the peoples of the U. S. S. R. Fully one-half of these workers investigate the tribes of the North.

At present work is going on among the Ostyak-Samoyeds, Koryaks, Asiatic Eskimo, Chukchi, Ghilyak, Siberian Turki, and Tunguses.

These men and women act chiefly as teachers of native local schools or as secretaries and field agents of local branches of the "Northern Committee."

The excellent work by G. N. Prokofyev, an Assistant Professor at Leningrad University, deserves special mention. This young scientist passed three years among the Ostyak-Samoyeds of the Lower Yenissei of the forest border section trying to build up a school for Samoyed children.

He began with very little knowledge of the Samoyed language, but at present his name among the neighbors is "Rus sel kup," (Russian Forest Samoyed). He composed a primer in Samoyed for the younger children, but the older ones have learned sufficient Russian and are taught in Russian.

In this Prokofyev was assisted by his young wife, also a graduate like himself of the Leningrad University, Section of Ethnography.

Another scientist, Mr. I. A. Kreinovich worked for two years among the Ghilyaks of Sakhalin. The Academy of Sciences is going to publish the works of the late Professor Sternberg in three large volumes, among which there will be included all the linguistic material, chiefly Ghilyak texts and vocabulary. Mr. Kreinovich has studied Ghilyak under the tutorship of Professor Sternberg and will take care of that part of Sternberg's work.

N. K. Karguer, Assistant at the University, who for two years was giving instruction to a Yenisseian group of the Northern College, departed this summer for two years' work among the Yenisseians. In this he will be assisted by one of the students of this group, Elias Dibykov. Karguer has acquired some previous knowledge of the Yenisseian language, which, up to the present, has not found its proper place in the whole system of the Proto-Asiatic languages and moreover represents some elements of connection with the Sinitic group

of languages such as the Tibetan, the Indo-Sinitic languages, etc. So it may be hoped that Karguer will collect material for solving that scientific enigma.

An interesting case is that of N. V. Spiridonov, of Yukaghir origin, the grandson of Spiridonov, who thirty years ago worked with Mr. Jochelson as an excellent interpreter. In 1925 he came to Leningrad from his native Kolyma region after fourteen months of continuous traveling. He proved to be of great ability and after some training entered the Ethnographical Section of the Leningrad University. After two years of study he proposed to interrupt his education in order to go back to the Kolyma region for cultural work among the scanty remainder of the Yukaghir tribe. He went there by steamer via Bering Strait, Arctic Ocean, Kolyma River. After two years, he will come back in order to resume his university studies, as is the way with the other young scientists in the same position.

Some of these assistants carry away a wireless apparatus by means of which they may be able to communicate with the civilized world. The wireless, however, does not work very regularly. Mr. Spiridonov also took with him a radio apparatus, but no communication with him was possible for the last two years. It seems that he has gone so far that even the radio cannot cross the space between him and his professors and colleagues in Leningrad.

### The Turki Tribes of Siberia

The third part or the third tier of the same ethnographical work is of scientific character. It is connected not only with the Ethnographical Section of the University, but also with the Museum of Anthropology and Ethnography of the Academy of Sciences in Leningrad. We collect new scientific material even in Leningrad among the students of the Northern College, also in several expeditions arranged every year and going into Siberia for cultural and scientific purposes.

Among others might be mentioned the expedition of three young scientists, Messrs. Chernenov and Ratner and Miss Kotovschikova, who, in the summer of 1928, were transported on the steamer "Malygin" with various provisions and scientific appurtenances to the northern shore of the Yalmal Peninsula. On the peninsula and on the adjacent White Island, there lives a group of Samoyed walrus hunters and polar bear hunters, who up to the present were almost wholly unknown to science. The young scientists will pass two years among the Samoyeds. One of them will come to Leningrad in 1929, bringing along the reports and the materials.

The scientific work of our group deals with various problems of material and social culture, of religion, folklore and linguistics. I brought to the Congress of Americanists some fifteen papers by my younger fellow-workers. I might have brought

twice as much but I didn't presume to take too much time of the Congress.

I will mention first of all the group of papers referring to the Turki tribes of Siberia. The Siberian Turki live, as mentioned above, in the mountains of Altai and Sayan and on the surrounding plateau and prairie. The whole population is about 200,000, and is divided into some twenty groups. Some of the groups count no more than a couple of thousand; the Karagasses only 400.

These Turki also belong to the lesser nationalities of Siberia, although at present they speak some Turki dialects and practice cattle breeding and even agriculture. Up to the present, even their appearance in the forests of southern Siberia could not have been explained. Soviet scientists collected ample proof that these tribes are Proto-Asiatic, more or less assimilated by the genuine Turki who came from the steppe in the South. Such Proto-Asiatic tribes are, for instance, the Shortsi, living on the Marasa and Kondoma Rivers, eastern affluents of the Obi, in the former Kuznets District, which is at present transformed into a separate Mountain Shortsi District. The Shortsi are hunters and fishers. They gather roots, berries, honey of wild bees, etc. Roots are taken from the nests of mice for which a special search is always made. They hunt in winter, walking on skis; in summer, partly on rivers in small dugouts.

Cattle breeding and agriculture were introduced centuries ago and do not attract much of their attention. Some tales relate how the first cow was brought to a certain remote village and all the inhabitants were much frightened by the strong and sharp horns resembling curved knives, and how the women screamed and made the men tie up a part of the hind legs of the monster before they ventured to milk it.

Similar conditions existed also among other Siberian Turki tribes.

In one of the tales of the tribe of Sagai a father, giving his son for education over to a friend who was a cattle breeder, makes the following request, "Don't turn him into chalk with your everlasting milk diet. The best food for men is the meat of game and of wild fowl."

Nevertheless, at present the Sagai have become diligent cattle breeders. Material about the Siberian Turki was collected by N. P. Dyrenkova and L. N. Potapov.

### Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries

THE Soviet Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries ("VOKS") was organized three years ago. At present one may say without exaggeration that the Society has its correspondents not only in all the countries of the world, but in all large cities. Moreover, there are

in every country societies whose aim it is to familiarize their fellow citizens with the cultural achievements of the Soviet Union. These organizations publish special magazines, they organize lectures and exhibitions, and spread truthful information about the life in the Soviet Union.

At the present time hundreds of foreign delegates and tourists from all countries of the world are visiting the Soviet Union. The consequences of these visits are sometimes of great significance. Thus, for instance, the Danish teacher Bomhold, who had become interested in the organization of the Soviet public school system, upon his return to Denmark, took up the question of arranging a Soviet school exhibition. As a result an invitation was received from the Copenhagen Historical Museum to organize an exhibition of this kind in Copenhagen. The exhibition was very successful, and was subsequently transferred to Berlin, Hamburg and other cities in Germany, as well as in Latvia, and attracted great attention, calling forth favorable criticism in a great number of newspapers. The Danish representative who came to Moscow in connection with that exhibition, broadcast from the Moscow station a lecture in Danish for the benefit of his country.

In another case, Dr. Böhme, Mayor of Cologne in Germany, applied to the Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries for assistance in the organization of a Press Exhibition in his city. The American scholar, Professor Geroid Robinson of Columbia University, carried out an extensive study of the peasant movements in Russia for which purpose the Soviet Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries made it possible for him to secure access to the State archives. Professor Langevin, the well-known French physicist; the theatrical producer Gemier of Paris, who invited the Moscow Vakhtangov Theater to an international celebration in Paris; Viscount Goto, Chairman of the Japanese-Soviet Rapprochement Society; the well-known Swiss economist Professor Stephan Bauer, and many other well-known personages, after their return from the U. S. S. R. commented favorably in the press about what they had seen in the Soviet Union. They wrote books about the U. S. S. R., and delivered a number of lectures in Moscow and abroad. A number of students' excursions to the U. S. S. R. took place with the assistance of the Soviet Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries.

Thus the activities of the Soviet Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries have contributed to an extraordinary growth, consolidation and development of the connections between the U. S. S. R. and other countries.

The Soviet Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries has recently undertaken the task of acquainting the workers of the U. S. S. R., with its activities. Of particular significance in this respect is the new department for

spreading the knowledge of foreign languages among the masses, organized by the Society for Cultural Relations. This educational undertaking has already called forth a lively response among the workers and office employees.

## New Copyright in the Soviet Union

ON May 16, 1928, the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the Soviet Union issued two decrees dealing with the new copyright of the Soviet Union. Both decrees, the first dealing with the enactment of the basic principles of copyright, as adopted in their amended form, and the second containing the provisions of the new copyright, follow:

### I.

#### Enactment of the Basic Principles of Copyright

The Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics abrogate the decision of the Central Executive Committee and of the Council of People's Commissars of the Union of S. S. R. on the basic principles of copyright, as of January 30, 1925, and decree as follows:

1. The basic principles of copyright as ratified on this day, are to be enacted within two months from the date of their publication.

2. The copyright on those works with regard to which the terms provided for by Article 10 to 15 of the basic principles ratified today have not expired, is to be reestablished from the date of the enactment of the above mentioned basic principles for the remainder of the respective terms.

The questions concerning authors' royalties as well as all other legal affairs and disputes arising out of copyright matters prior to the publication of the basic principles of copyright ratified on this day, shall be decided on the basis of legislation previously in force.

3. To urge upon the Central Executive Committees of the constituent republics: (a) within two months to insert in the statutes of the constituent republics the necessary changes and amendments in conformity with the basic principles of copyright confirmed on this date; (b) to supplement the civil procedure codes through the incorporation of regulations according to which legal actions for compensation due to authors for the full or partial relinquishment of their exclusive rights are to be analogous to actions for the payment of wages; (c) to supplement the civil procedure codes by introducing regulations according to which the procedure in bringing legal action for compensation due to authors for the alienation of their work or for the violation of copyright is made analogous to that of bringing legal actions for the payment of wages; (d) to provide the civil procedure codes with additional

regulations prohibiting the attachment of the copyright of an author, and permitting only the attachment of the income derived from the realization of such right; (e) to provide in the criminal codes for measures of social defense against the violation of copyright.

## II.

### Decree on Basic Principles of Copyright

1. The enjoyment of copyright to a work, both when published (Art. 14) on the territory of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics and when existing on the territory of the Union of S. S. R. in the shape of manuscript, sketch or some other concrete form, shall be acknowledged to reside in the author and his assigns regardless of their citizenship.

2. In the case of works published abroad or existing abroad in the shape of manuscript, sketch or some other concrete form, copyright shall be recognized only if there is a special agreement between the U. S. S. R. and the country concerned, and only within the limits established by such agreement.

3. When the author is a citizen of the U. S. S. R., he and his heirs shall enjoy the protection of copyright on the territory of the U. S. S. R. in the case of a work published in a foreign country, or existing abroad in the shape of manuscript, sketch or some other concrete form, regardless of whether there exists any agreement between the U. S. S. R. and that country, as provided for in Article 2.

With the exception of the heirs, the author's legal assigns shall not enjoy—on the territory of the U. S. S. R.—the protection of copyright upon works mentioned in this article.

4. The enjoyment of copyright extends to any work of literature, science and art, whatever may be the method and form of its reproduction, and whatever its merit and destination, such as oral productions (speeches, lectures, reports, etc.); written productions (books, articles, collections of articles, etc.); dramatic and musical-dramatic works; translations; choreographic and pantomimic productions for whose staging there are instructions in writing or in some other form; cinematographic scenarios; musical works with or without words; drawings, paintings, sculptures, productions of the architectural and graphical arts, illustrations, geographical maps; plans, sketches and plastic productions relating to the sciences, to technology, or to the staging of dramatic or musical-dramatic works; moving picture films; photographs or productions obtained by methods analogous to photography, etc.

5. The privilege of copyright in a production composed by two or several co-authors shall reside in all the co-authors together, regardless of whether such a collaborative production constitutes an indivisible whole, or consists of parts

preserving their independent scientific, literary or artistic importance. The mutual interrelations of the co-authors shall be governed by their agreements.

Each co-author of a collaborative production preserves the copyright in his part of the production in case that part has an independent scientific, literary or artistic importance, and if nothing to the contrary has been provided by an agreement with the other co-authors.

6. The compilers of collections of works which are not subject to anybody's copyright (works whose copyright terms have expired; all kinds of official documents, such as laws, court decisions, etc.; works of popular creation,\* etc.), possess the copyright upon aforesaid collections of works, provided they have treated them in an independent manner. The same right is likewise enjoyed by the editors of various works of the above-mentioned categories.

This right must, however, not prevent other individuals from publishing the same works, provided they arrange them in their own independent manner.

The compiler of a collection of works which are protected by any one's copyright, enjoys the copyright for such a collection of works if in compiling that collection the rights of the authors were respected. The authors of works included in the aforesaid collection have the right to publish these works in other publications, providing there were no contrary stipulations in the agreement concluded with the compiler of the collection.

7. The author shall have the exclusive right to publish his work under his own name or under an assumed name (pseudonym), or without any name (anonymously), and to reproduce and distribute it by all legally permissible means during the course of the term established by law, and likewise to derive profits from his aforesaid exclusive right by every lawful means.

8. The right of giving a public performance of an unpublished dramatic, musical-dramatic, pantomimic, choreographic, and cinematographic production shall belong exclusively to the author thereof.

With regard to productions of the aforesaid categories of works which have not been published, but have at least once been performed publicly, the People's Commissariats for Education of the republics concerned have the right to permit their public performance even without the consent of the author, subject to the payment of the author's royalties in the manner established by the legislation of the constituent republics.

The author of a work belonging to one of the aforesaid categories, which has been published, does not possess the right to forbid the public per-

\*Folk songs, fairy tales, etc.

formance thereof; but he has the right to receive the payment of author's royalties with the exception of the case provided for in subdivision "i" of Article 9.

9. The following shall not be regarded as infringing upon copyright privileges: (a) translation of another person's work into a different language; (b) the utilization of another person's work for the creation of a new work substantially differing therefrom with the reservation, however, that the composition of a dramatized or scenario version of a novel or short story and vice versa, and the composition of scenario versions of dramatic works, and vice versa, is permissible only with the consent of the author or his assignees; (c) the insertion of small separate extracts and even the full reprint of literary and other productions of slight extent, as well as of insignificant numbers of pictures, Roentgenograms, etc., in scientific, politico-educational, textbook compilations and other scientific publications, with the obligatory indication of the author and source from which they were taken; (d) the insertion of reviews of published oral and written works in the realm of literature, science and art, communicating the substance of the production in an independent form or with the reproduction of the original insofar as this is necessary; (e) the insertion of speeches delivered at public gatherings in the reports of periodical publications; (f) the reprinting of newspaper reports and likewise of articles not belonging to the field of literature by periodical publications not sooner than one day after their original issue, the indication of the source and of the author's name being obligatory in the case of reprinted articles; (g) the reprinting by periodical publications of reproductions of works of the graphic arts, drawings, illustrations, photographs, designs, etc., the same conditions and rules to be observed in this respect as those stipulated for the reprinting of articles (section "f" of this article); (h) the use of a text borrowed from another person's literary production by a composer for his musical work, provided this is not prohibited by the express declaration of the author of the literary work on each copy thereof; (i) the public performance of other persons' works, mentioned in Art. 8, in establishments of a cultural-educational character, provided no payment is collected from the audience; (j) the representation of paintings by means of sculpture and the representation of works of sculpture by means of painting; (k) the reproduction of artistic works located in the streets and public squares, except in cases of works of sculpture being copied by the mechanical pointing-machine method; (l) the placing of all sorts of productions on exhibition, except those productions whose public exposition is forbidden by the author; (m) the carrying out of structures and installations according to architectural, engineering and other technical plans, designs, and drawings published by the au-

thor, if the latter does not upon publication specify that he reserves this right to himself exclusively; (n) making a copy of another person's production exclusively for one's personal use without inserting on the copy of an artistic or photographic work the signature or monogram of the author of the original, the taking of such copies from works of sculpture by the mechanical pointing-machine method not being permitted; (o) the use of artistic and photographic works on products of factory, home craft and artisan industry, provided the author is paid royalties to the extent and in the manner stipulated by the statutes of the constituent republics.

Note 1.—In exceptional cases when the consent of the author to the composition of a dramatized or scenario version of a novel or short story, or vice versa, or the composition of a scenario version of a dramatic work or vice versa (subdivision "b" of the present article) is not obtained, the permission for the composition of the other version may be given by the People's Commissariat for Education of the republic on whose territory it is intended to publish the other version. The rules concerning the paying of royalties are in those cases determined by the statutes of the constituent republics concerned.

Note 2.—The statutes of the constituent republics are to determine the maximum extent of the extracts and of the productions whose reprinting is permitted under subdivision "c" of the present article.

10. Apart from the exceptions established in Articles 11, 12, and 13, copyright shall be enjoyed by the author during his lifetime and by his heirs within the terms provided for in Article 15.

11. The term of enjoyment of copyright with regard to choreographic and pantomimic productions and motion picture scenarios and films is fixed at ten years.

12. The period of enjoyment of copyright with regard to photographic productions and productions obtained by methods analogous to photography, is set at five years for separate pictures and at ten years for collections of pictures.

In order to protect copyright privileges of a photographer over photographic productions, the following indications shall be required on each copy thereof: the firm or personal name and surname and the place of residence of the photographer, as well as the year of issue of the photographic production.

13. The publishers of magazines and other periodical publications, as well as of encyclopedic dictionaries, shall possess copyright over these publications as a whole for a period of ten years from the date of their publication.

The collaborators in the publications in question shall retain copyright as regards their individual productions, unless otherwise stipulated by the contract.

14. All works shall be considered as having been published on the 1st of January of the year during which they were first lawfully issued by the appropriate technical means.

With regard to the calculation of the terms, the

following shall be equivalent to publication: the public presentation of dramatic or musical-dramatic productions, the public performance of a musical work, the public exhibition of products of the graphic arts, of photographs and productions obtained by methods analogous to photography, and the construction of architectural productions.

Note.—The time of the publication of a production may be registered by the author in the manner stipulated by the legislation of the constituent republics concerned.

15. After the death of the author the copyright passes over to his heirs for the term of fifteen years, reckoning from the 1st of January of the year of the author's death, except in the cases provided for in Articles 11, 12, and 13, when the copyright passes over to the author's heirs only for the remainder of the term stipulated by law, which was still unexpired at the death of the author.

The monetary valuation of the copyright passing over to the heirs, is not included in the general appraisal of inherited property in computing the inheritance tax.

16. Copyright may be transferred either partially or completely under an agreement with a publisher, by means of a will, or through some other legal instrument.

Agreements covering the transfer of copyright must be concluded in written form and must contain a definite statement as to the nature and the conditions of the use to be made of the copyright.

If the written form provided for the agreement is not observed, the parties lose the right, in case of litigation, to recur to the deposition of witnesses for the purpose of proving the existence of the agreement; but they retain the right to produce written evidence.

Note.—The written form is not obligatory for agreements concerning the relinquishment of the copyright over productions to be printed in periodical publications and in encyclopedic dictionaries.

17. The statutes of the constituent republics are to lay down (a) the norms governing the publishing contract concerning literary productions, in particular the obligatory content of the contract, the term of its validity, the minimum extent of royalties in case a definite number of copies is printed, as well as the term within which the entire production covered by the contract is to be published (in its entirety or in part); (b) the obligatory contents of the publishing contract concerning musical productions, as well as productions of the graphic arts, photographs and productions obtained by methods analogous to photography; (c) norms regulating an agreement concerning the relinquishment of rights to public performance of works, in particular the obligatory content of the contract, the term of the validity of the contract on the relinquishment of the right to a public performance of a dramatical, musical and musical-dramatic production; the

maximum number of public performances permitted in accordance with any one agreement, and the term in the course of which the performance is to be staged.

18. During the lifetime of the author, the publisher or the theatrical enterprise do not, at their own discretion and without the consent of the author, have the right, to make any additions to, subtraction from, or, in general, any change in either the work itself, or in its title, or in the designation thereon of the author's name. The publisher likewise has no right, during the author's lifetime, to supply his work with illustrations without the latter's consent.

19. Losses caused by infringement of copyright shall be subject to indemnification in accordance with the statutes of the constituent republics.

20. Copyright with regard to any production may be compulsorily purchased by the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics or by the government of the constituent republic on whose territory the work in question was first published or on which it exists in the shape of manuscript, sketch or in any other concrete form.

## Motion Picture Theaters in the U. S. S. R.

PRIOR to the November Revolution of 1917, there were about 3,500 motion picture theaters in Russia. At present, according to data as of April 1, 1928, there are altogether 8,767 cinema theaters in the U. S. S. R.

Of the total number the cities and urban settlements had 4,987, or 57 per cent, and the rural localities 3,780, or 43 per cent.

The cinema theaters were distributed as follows according to the various Soviet Republics:

<i>Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic</i>	
Commercial Theaters .....	1,468
Club Theaters .....	1,750
Rural Permanent Theaters .....	471
Ambulant Theaters .....	2,350
Other ("Red Corners," etc.) .....	420
Total .....	6,459
<i>Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic</i>	
Commercial Theaters .....	244
Club Theaters .....	689
Rural Permanent Theaters .....	713
Total .....	1,646
<i>Georgian Soviet Socialist Republic</i>	
Commercial Theaters .....	28
Club Theaters .....	87
Ambulant Theaters .....	14
Total .....	129
<i>Azerbaijan Soviet Socialist Republic</i>	
Commercial Theaters .....	16
Club Theaters .....	76
Ambulant Theaters .....	13
Total .....	105



*Turkoman Soviet Socialist Republic*

Commercial Theaters .....	5
Club Theaters .....	21
Ambulant Theaters .....	21
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>47</b>

*Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic*

Commercial Theaters .....	3
Club Theaters .....	18
Ambulant Theaters .....	5
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>26</b>

*Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic*

Commercial Theaters .....	100
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*White Russian Soviet Socialist Republic*

Commercial Theaters .....	36
Club Theaters .....	126
Ambulant Theaters .....	93
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>255</b>

The aggregate number of commercial theaters all over the U. S. S. R. is 1,900 or 21 per cent of the total number of theaters: the number of club theaters is 2,767, or 31 per cent of the total number of theaters; the number of rural permanent theaters—1,184, or 14 per cent of the total; the number of ambulant theaters—2,496, or 29 per cent of the total; there were 420 other theatrical organizations, such as "Red Corners," etc. (5 per cent of the total).

At the present time the group of commercially operated theaters is not increasing, owing to the lack of adequate buildings. Some theaters of this group have passed into the hands of clubs. The number of club theaters likewise tends to remain stationary.

The increase in the number of club theaters of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic for the last three years is shown by the following figures:

*Growth of Number of Club Cinema Theaters in Soviet Russia*

1925	1926	1927	1928
1,343	1,482	1,788	1,750

The following table shows the comparative growth of urban and rural motion picture theaters in the R. S. F. S. R. (Soviet Russia proper):

*Growth of the Urban and Rural Motion Picture Theaters for the Last Three Years*

Cinema Theaters	1925	1926	1927	1928	Percentage of Increase for 3 years
Urban .....	2,442	3,184	3,698	3,638	53
Rural .....	464	998	1,418	2,821	508
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>2,906</b>	<b>4,182</b>	<b>5,116</b>	<b>6,459</b>	<b>160</b>

Thus the rural group of cinema theaters shows a continuous increase, while the urban group has remained stationary.

The cinema theaters are under the management of various institutions and organizations. The cinema theaters charging admission are operated by the following organizations: the Department of Education—516 theaters or 35 per cent; "Sovkino," a Government Motion Picture Joint Stock Company—30 theaters or 3 per cent; and various other government and public organizations which have at their disposal 316 theaters or 21 per cent of the total. Trade unions operate 597 theaters, or 40 per cent of the total; private individuals own 9 theaters, or 1 per cent.

The motion picture theaters of the commercial type are gradually passing under the management of the trade unions and of the various branches of the Department of Education, while the private owners are at a disadvantage, partly due to the fact that they have to pay higher rates for renting films than the organizations which are not operating for profit and which use their surplus for further construction of motion picture theaters in the cities and in the villages.

During the fiscal year 1926-27, (beginning October 1, 1926), the cinema theaters of Soviet Russia proper (R. S. F. S. R.) had the following attendance: 148,651,860 persons in the commercial theaters, 52,473,452 in the club theaters and 58,934,725 in the village theaters. The number was larger during the fiscal year 1927-28, which has just ended, but the exact figures are not yet available.

The increase of the number of ambulant cinema theaters in the rural regions, the organization of cinema societies by the villagers themselves for the purpose of conducting cinema theaters; the increase of the profits of the "Sovkino" Company derived from the rural performances (670,000 rubles for 1926-27, and 800,000 rubles for the first six months of 1927-28); the great demand for films which exceeds the supply—all this testifies to the fact that the rural districts are developing into a great market for the film industry.

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## Miscellaneous News

### Adherence of the Soviet Union to the Kellogg Pact

On August 29, 1928, the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R., adopted the following decision:

The Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. decides:

1. To adhere to the pact on the renunciation of war, signed in Paris on August 27, 1928, by the representatives of Germany, Belgium, the United States of America, France, Great Britain and her Dominions, Italy, Japan, Poland and Czechoslovakia.

2. To entrust Mr. M. M. Litvinov, Member of the Central Executive Committee of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and Acting People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, in the name of the U. S. S. R. to sign the document of adherence to the aforesaid agreement.

### Protest of the Soviet Government to Poland

On September 17, 1928, Mr. Y. M. Kotsiubinsky, Chargé d'Affaires of the Soviet Union in Poland, submitted to Mr. Wysocki, Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs of Poland, a protest concerning the speech of Mr. Jozefski, Governor of the Polish province of Volhynia, delivered on September 2, last, at a conference of Sejm (Polish Chamber of Representatives) and Senate members from the Province of Volhynia. Mr. Jozefski's speech advocated the separation from the Soviet Union of certain territories belonging to the Soviet Ukraine. Mr. Kotsiubinsky pointed out to the Polish Vice-Minister, Mr. Wysocki, that the Soviet Government considered that speech a gross violation of Article 5 of the Polish-Soviet Peace Treaty of 1921. In reply to Mr. Kotsiubinsky, Mr. Wysocki declared that the Ministry of Foreign Affairs would give out an official communique to the press denying the authenticity of the text of Mr. Josef-ski's speech as printed in the papers.

### Contract with International General Electric Co.

On October 16 last the International General Electric Company of New York and the Amtorg Trading Corporation of New York which handles the bulk of American-Soviet trade, announced that they have signed, under date of October 9, 1928, a contract covering the supply of electrical apparatus for export to the U. S. S. R.

The contract provides for the purchase on the part of the Amtorg Trading Corporation of not less than \$5,000,000 or more than \$10,000,000 worth of apparatus and material during the first two years. A payment of 25 per cent is required before shipment of the materials and the balance is to be covered by trade acceptances falling due within a period of five years from date of shipment.

Provision is made upon the satisfactory completion of the purchases during the first two years

for the continuation of the contract for a further period of four years, involving purchases of not less than \$4,000,000 annually.

The contract and all acceptances bear the unconditional guarantee of the State Bank of the U. S. S. R.

In connection with this announcement, Mr. Saul G. Bron, Chairman of the Board, Amtorg Trading Corporation, made the following statement:

"The six-year purchasing contract signed with the International General Electric Company of New York, for long-term credit purchases from that company, involves a total sum of from \$21,000,000 to \$26,000,000. The arrangements made include technical cooperation. The American company will establish a bureau of technicians in Moscow to maintain first-hand contacts with Soviet electrical problems.

"The contract marks a decided forward step in the growing commercial relations between the United States and the U. S. S. R. It will have a stabilizing and stimulating influence on the trade between the two countries.

"This trade is growing rapidly. The Soviet Union is now the chief European market for American agricultural machinery. It is the third largest European market for American electrical machinery. It stands sixth among all foreign countries importing American cotton, and eleventh among those importing American industrial machinery.

"These positions have been gained during recent years. Before the war Russia's annual purchases in the United States were only \$40,000,000. During the Soviet fiscal year ending September 30 last Soviet orders placed in the United States amounted to nearly \$100,000,000. During 1926-27 they were \$72,000,000 and in 1925-26 they were \$49,000,000. It is interesting to note that the Soviet Union has so far recovered from the war and the revolution that its purchases here are 250 per cent of those of 1913.

"The General Electric contract is of particular importance to the rapidly growing electric power industry of the U. S. S. R. A comprehensive plan of regional power plants is under development and plants now under construction will add 2,000,000 kilowatt capacity to the country's power."

Mr. Clark H. Minor, President of the International General Electric Company, in announcing the conclusion of the agreement, stated:

"Negotiations resulting in this contract have been carried on for more than a year with the knowledge of the State Department. We have satisfied ourselves that there is nothing in the contract that conflicts in any way with the policy of our Government, with which we are in entire accord."

"Provision is made upon the completion of this contract for the settlement of all claims of our company against the Soviet Government arising from decrees and actions of that Government with regard to the nationalization or annulment of property rights relating to our interests in Russia. Our claim is approximately one and three quarters millions of dollars."

#### Foreign Tourists in the U. S. S. R.

During the months of May, June and July, 1928, about one thousand foreign tourists were registered at the tourist offices of the Soviet Merchant Fleet. About 95 per cent of these tourists were Americans, including a very large percentage of students.

About 600 more tourists arrived in the course of August.

The tourist groups are being taken care of by the Travel Bureau of the Soviet Merchant Fleet ("Sovtorgflot").

#### Marriage of Soviet Citizens to Foreigners

According to a statement made by the People's Commissariat for Internal Affairs, marriages concluded between a Soviet citizen and a citizen of another country are valid only in case they are recorded in the registry offices of the local Soviets in accordance with the laws of the U. S. S. R. Each of the two persons contracting marriage retains his or her citizenship. Soviet citizenship may be acquired by the other party in accordance with the general regulations.

#### Supreme Economic Council in Charge of Higher Technical Education

At a conference of the departments of labor efficiency held last summer, the decision was taken to transfer to the jurisdiction of the Supreme Economic Council a number of higher technical educational establishments which are directly serving the various industries.

A similar decision was taken in August with regard to the higher educational institutions for transportation, which are to be placed under the jurisdiction of the People's Commissariat for Ways of Communication.

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

On July 1, 1928, the Soviet air-lines aggregated a total length of 11,427 kilometers. The Joint Stock Company "Dobrolot" operates six air lines covering 5,862 kilometers: Charjui—Khiva—Tashhauz; Tashkent—Samarkand—Termez—Dushambe; Tashkent—Kabul (Afghanistan); Frunze—Alma Ata; Verkhneudinsk—Ulan-Bator (Mongolia); Irkutsk—Yakutsk. The first four lines cover the territory of Soviet Central Asia; the last two—the Soviet Far East.

The Joint Stock Company "Ukrvozdrukput" (Ukrainian Air Line) operates the Moscow—Khar'kov—Rostov-on-Don—Mineralniye Vody (Caucas-

us)—Baku—Pehlevi (Persia) line covering a distance of 2,920 kilometers. "Deruluft" a "mixed" Soviet-German Joint Stock Company operates the lines Moscow—Riga—Königsberg—Berlin, and Leningrad—Reval—Riga, a total length of 2,645 kilometers.

Not a single accident occurred on the Soviet air lines in the course of 1927-28.

#### Foreign Trade of the U. S. S. R. for 1927-28

The foreign trade turnover of the Soviet Union for the fiscal year just ended (September 30, last) was the largest attained in the post-war period. The trade across European frontiers totaled 1,456,134,000 rubles (\$749,909,000), and was 12 per cent in excess of the total for the fiscal year 1926-27. Imports reached the figure of 820,059,000 rubles, a record for the past ten years, and were 31 per cent greater than those of the preceding year. In spite of the curtailing of grain exports the total exports for the year, amounting to 636,075,000 rubles, showed a decline of only 6.5 per cent from last year. The practical cessation of the grain export trade was compensated to a great extent by increased exports of other agricultural products and of oil and timber.

While a comparatively large adverse balance of trade during the past year was recorded in place of a small favorable balance in 1926-27, the actual purchases of Soviet trading organizations abroad were only slightly in excess of their sales. This is due to the fact that a large proportion of the imports for the fiscal year just ended was ordered in preceding years. Also a larger proportion of foreign purchases is now covered by long-term credits. The considerably increased gold production of the U. S. S. R. reported for the past year will be employed partly to settle the foreign trade balance.

#### Soviet Crop Figures

According to figures received by cable late in October, the total grain crop of the Soviet Union is 75,764,000 metric tons—an increase of 636,000 metric tons over 1927. Included in the total, the figures for wheat are 22,399,000 metric tons, an increase of 2,010,000 metric tons (about 73,000,000 bushels) over 1927. The estimates are for October 1, and are not final figures.

Further figures indicate a cotton crop of 860,000 metric tons (unginned), the best since the war and an increase of 36 per cent over 1927. The sugar beet crop is estimated at 10,641,000 metric tons, a bumper yield well above the pre-war average and 9 per cent over 1927.

The crop of sunflower seed shows a falling off of 16 per cent from 1927, while both flax and hemp register small gains. The figures, in metric tons, are as follows:

Sunflower seed .....	2,080,000
Flax seed .....	578,000
Flax fibre .....	346,000
Hemp seed .....	568,000
Hemp fibre .....	496,000

## Books and Pamphlets About the U. S. S. R. in the English Language

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- Russia in 1919, by Arthur Ransome. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1919.
- The Bullitt Mission to Russia. Testimony before the Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate, of William C. Bullitt. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1919.
- Lenin, the Man and His Work, by Albert Rhys Williams, and Impressions by Raymond Robins and Arthur Ransome. Scott and Seltzer, New York, 1919.
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- Soviet Russia in the Second Decade; Edited by Stuart Chase, Robert Dunn and R. G. Tugwell of the Technical Staff of the First American Trade Union Delegation to the Soviet Union. John Day Company, New York, 1928.
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- Russian Poetry—An Anthology, chosen and translated by Babette Deutsch and Avrahm Yarmolinsky. International Publishers, New York, 1927.
- Memoirs of a Revolutionist, by Vera Figner. International Publishers, New York, 1927.
- Vanguard Studies of Soviet Russia. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1927-28: How the Soviets Work, by H. N. Brailsford.—The Economic Organization of the Soviet Union, by Scott Nearing and Jack Hardy.—Village Life under the Soviets, by Karl Borders.—Religion under the Soviets, by Julius F. Hecker.—Soviet Russia and Her Neighbors, by R. Page Arnot.—Soviet Trade Unions, by Robert W. Dunn.—Women in Soviet Russia, by Jessica Smith.—New Schools in New Russia, by Lucy L. W. Wilson.—Health Work in Soviet Russia, by Anna J. Haines.
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- Illustrated History of the Russian Revolution, 1917-1927. Ten Years' Progress Reported by Authoritative Russian Leaders, 2 Vols. International Publishers, New York, 1928.
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- American Policy Toward Russia Since 1917, by Dr. Fred L. Schuman. International Publishers, New York, 1928.
- The New Russia, by Dorothy Thompson. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1928.
- Guide Book to the Soviet Union. International Publishers, New York, 1928.
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- The Hammer and the Scythe, by Anne O'Hare McCormick. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1928.
- Lenin, by Valeriu Marcu. Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.
- A Belated Rebuttal on Russia, by Gerald O. Dykstra. Allegan Press, Allegan, Mich., 1928. (A printed lecture by an American student who visited the U. S. S. R.)
- Soviet Union Year Book, by A. A. Santalov and Louis Segal. George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., London, England, 1928.



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## Protection of Health in the U. S. S. R.

THE general disorganization caused by the World War and the civil strife and still further increased by the blockade, did not remain without its effect upon the general condition of the health of the population of the Soviet Union. The years of civil war were marked by numerous epidemics, and by a greatly increased death rate of the population in general and of the children in particular.

Protection of health, one of the government activities which is of utmost importance to the population, has made great forward strides during recent years. It is now based upon the principle of cooperation on the part of the broad masses. The People's Commissariat for Health exercises general supervision and control over the activities of all health protection agencies. The immediate management and conduct of the medical and sanitary work in the various localities are entrusted to the local health protection organs—the regional, provincial and district boards of health, and to the railway and water transport health bureaus. The population receives the opportunity of exercising its own initiative in the public health commissions attached to the Soviets, in the health protection groups organized at the various enterprises, and in the rural public health commissions.

Reports submitted by the People's Commissariats for Health of the various constituent republics give a picture of a continuous and steady improvement of the sanitary conditions of the U. S. S. R. showing that the mortality is decreasing and that the number of persons attacked by epidemics is diminishing. Considerable progress was achieved in this respect as compared with the pre-war period. Thus, while in 1913 the death rate in Moscow was 231 out of every 10,000, this rate was reduced to 154 in 1924, and to 134 in 1926. A particular decrease was noted in the mortality of children and women, which is to be credited entirely to the measures adopted for the protection of mothers and infants. Mortality caused by epidemics has likewise decreased in the course of the last few years. A noteworthy fact in this respect is the almost complete disappearance of cholera, that perpetual scourge of pre-revolutionary Russia.

One of the main achievements of the Soviet public health system is the consistent introduction of prophylactic methods in the activities of the entire medico-sanitary organization.

The application of the principle of prophylaxis to the field of health protection has called forth

the organization of a number of new institutions, of new forms and methods of activity, viz., the struggle against the so-called social diseases (tuberculosis and syphilis), protection of mothers and infants, protection of children's health, health education, etc. These principles and forms of prophylactic activity have likewise penetrated into medical establishments which formerly restricted their tasks and the sphere of their activities to the rendering of medical help. All urban and rural medical institutions are being drawn into the general hygienic activities and health propaganda. Free medical aid to the working people and health service to the great masses of the population form the underlying principle of the public health system of the Soviet Union.

The entire field of public health protection is at present being served by an organization composed of over 1,500 physicians—not including the physicians of the transport health service and of the administrative sanitary personnel. This organization is engaged in supervising the health system in the cities and villages, in the inspection of the water supply, the dwellings and the industries; in the working out of new types of hospital buildings; in developing the system of sanitary bacteriological institutes and laboratories, etc.

The data concerning the health system of the territory of the U. S. S. R. for 1913 as compared with those for 1927 show great changes in the number and nature of the health establishments, changes characterized by the nearest possible approach of medical aid to the needs of the population.

### Medical Establishments

At first sight one is struck by the fact that the number of hospitals has been reduced. Thus, in 1913, there were 3,668 hospitals in the European part of the R. S. F. S. R. (Soviet Russia proper), while in 1927 their number was only 2,332. However, a closer investigation brings out the fact that the great number of hospitals of pre-war Russia were chiefly made up of small private establishments of private physicians, often equipped with only a few permanent beds, while in 1927 the hospitals were mostly large state institutions. This is shown by the number of beds in the above mentioned hospitals: 206,774 beds in 1927, as against 108,570 in 1913.

The medical establishments may be divided into two groups—those which existed prior to the revolution, and entirely new ones which were



founded since the establishment of the Soviet regime.

The medical establishments of the type which was in existence before the Revolution have greatly increased in number. Thus, for instance, in 1913 only sixteen cities were supplying medical aid at home to workers and office employees, while at present such medical aid is being rendered in 435 cities and urban settlements. While formerly there were only four first aid stations, there are at present fifty of them. Considerable results were achieved in the development of the medical system in the rural localities. In 1913 the number of medical stations in the rural localities was 2,517—in 1927 their number reached 4,251 and it has been increasing rapidly since that time.

The second group which includes the new establishments, is divided into two basic classes—establishments for the protection of mothers and infants, and those organized for combatting social diseases (tuberculosis and venereal diseases).

### Protection of Mothers and Infants

Prior to the Revolution there was no such thing as protection of mothers and infants in Russia, except for a few isolated establishments in Moscow and Petrograd. In the Soviet Union the hygienic care for the health of the mother and infant occupies a prominent place in the activities of the public health institutions. The care for the mother and child begins several months prior to the birth of the infant; pregnant women are being given easier conditions of work in the establishments in which they are employed and they are entitled to a vacation for a period of two months prior to and two months after child birth. The number of confinement berths which in 1913 was 5,280, increased to 12,910 in 1927. Moreover, there were in 1927, on the territory of the U. S. S. R. 237 permanent day nurseries, 3,058 summer day-nurseries in the rural localities, 475 special homes for mothers and infants, 876 medical consultation stations for mothers and children, 526 legal advice stations for mothers, etc. In addition, there have been founded a number of prophylactic dispensaries, day sanitariums and forest schools for children of pre-school age.

In comparing the data about the medical system of the various autonomous areas and republics, one cannot help noticing the fact that medical help has penetrated into remote territories, such as the Yakut Soviet Republic, the Kirghiz Soviet Republic and other regions which prior to the war were receiving medical assistance on a negligible scale.

The campaign against the social diseases is being conducted with the help of dispensaries attending to patients suffering with tuberculosis and venereal diseases. Various prophylactic measures are being carried out by these dispensaries. Every summer the People's Commissariats for

Health of the various republics send special detachments to the rural localities combatting venereal diseases, tuberculosis and trachoma. The number of these detachments grows from year to year.

In addition to medical assistance the dispensaries are conducting an extensive propaganda for the dissemination of hygienic knowledge. Simultaneously the dispensaries are conducting a regular inspection of those groups of the population which represent the greatest danger with regard to the possible spread of venereal diseases.

A particularly strenuous fight is being waged by the dispensaries against prostitution. Considering that unemployed women are especially liable to enter upon the road of prostitution, the dispensaries have come to the conclusion that it is necessary to offer to the unemployed women not only medical but also social help. For this purpose special labor "prophylactoria" have been organized for women in connection with the dispensaries for venereal disease. These "prophylactoria" not only restore the health of their women patients, but also reeducate them with a view to guiding them back to useful activities. They teach their patients a trade as well as how to read and to write.

It is necessary to point out that the help given to unemployed women in these "prophylactoria" does not in any respect bear the character of charity. The women pay for their stay in these institutions by doing some kind of work. Special community houses are connected with the "prophylactoria." A commission engaged in rendering labor and living conditions more sanitary is attached to the dispensaries.

### Fight Against Alcoholism

A number of medical institutions of the Soviet Union, conduct a persistent campaign against alcoholism. In this activity they are being supported by the public. This struggle is likewise being conducted by special dispensaries.

The "Central Narcotic Dispensary" in Moscow is being visited daily by four hundred victims of alcoholism. Various methods of treatment are being applied to them, treatment by hypnotism occupying the foremost place. Over 80 per cent of the patients get cured completely. The dispensaries are engaged in a thorough study of the social roots of alcoholism. This problem is being handled by a special staff of women investigators under whose supervision the former alcoholic addict remains, even after he had finished his treatment in the dispensary.

Every physician of a dispensary which is waging a campaign against one of the social diseases, such as tuberculosis, venereal diseases or alcoholism, is closely connected with some enterprise in which he conducts lectures and talks to the workers on hygienic subjects. Groups for the study of prophylactic medicine affiliated with the dis-

pensaries in question are likewise active in the various enterprises.

Due to assistance received from the public, the dispensaries are widely distributed over the U. S. S. R. and their system embraces the entire Soviet Union. All industrial districts are particularly well provided with these institutions.

### Labor Hygiene

An intensive activity is being carried on in the U. S. S. R. for the improvement of the labor conditions in the various enterprises, and for the eradication of occupational diseases. This activity rests upon a strictly scientific basis, the main scientific center of this activity being the Obukh Institute of Occupational Diseases in Moscow.

The Institute arranges for occupational consultations giving advice in the choice of occupation on the basis of the physical constitution of the worker. All adolescents attend such consultations before entering the factory apprentice schools. In the course of the last few years the Institute examined the health of thousands of workers engaged in the harmful occupations, chiefly textile, chemical and metal workers. Simultaneously with the health of the workers the entire enterprise is being studied, its hygienico-technical equipment, the process of production, and the working and living conditions at the enterprise as a whole. Upon the recommendation made by the Institute considerable improvements have been introduced in the industries of the Soviet Union with regard to the ventilation, lighting, equipment of the factories and plants, the isolation of the harmful departments from the other sections of the enterprises, etc. An example is the substitution of wet turning of china for the dry method, a change which has considerably helped to reduce the number of cases of tuberculosis in the china industry.

These activities are being eagerly supported by the workers.

In addition to the above named institute the Scientific Practical Institute of Labor Hygiene in Leningrad deserves special mention. Its aim is to study the conditions of labor in the various enterprises, to put the labor process on a more efficient basis, to render the work easier and to reduce the loss of energy. Samples of air taken from various workshops, factories, and stores are being studied in chemical laboratories. The dust created in the various factory buildings is being analyzed. For the first time the study of the radiating energy reflected by the machines and smelting furnaces has been undertaken. A study is being made of the physiology of labor, of the dependency of the efficiency of the working processes upon the nervous system, upon the heart activity of the workers, etc. As a result of all these investigations the conditions of labor have been improved considerably in a number of enter-

prises, and the number of accidents and cases of illness have been reduced.

Sanitary propaganda aiming at the education of the great masses of the population begins to penetrate all the strata of the population. In line with this development there have been created special institutes for sanitary education, model establishments, and permanent hygienic exhibitions, some of them being in the nature of traveling exhibitions which are being sent to the remotest districts of the U. S. S. R. In the course of the last few years a great quantity of popular literature has been published about sanitation and hygiene, which is being supplied to all the outlying provinces and autonomous national republics and areas.

### Health Resorts

A complete change has been observed in the organization of the health resorts. The sanatoria, rest houses and all the medical assistance in the health resorts in general, which prior to the Revolution were entirely in the hands of private persons are now under the jurisdiction of the Chief Health Resort Administration. From the medical view point the organization of the health resorts is more and more coming up to the standards of the best health resorts of the western countries. As regards the social position of the inmates, 49.8 per cent are workers, 32.2 office employees, 5.3 peasants—all of them representing groups which were practically non-existent in the pre-war health resort statistics. The resorts of the Crimea and of the Caucasus are largely being used for granting free rest in State sanitariums and rest houses to peasants and low-salaried workers. One of the most interesting establishments of this kind is the peasant health resort "Livadia" situated in the former imperial palace on the southern shore of the Crimea, to which peasants who are in need of rest and treatment are admitted every year from all regions and provinces of the U. S. S. R.

The per capita expenditure for health protection which in 1913 amounted to 90 kopecks (about 46 cents) rose in 1927 to 3.78 rubles (\$1.95) on the territory of Soviet Russia proper.

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## The Theater in the Soviet Union

THE Russian people intended their revolution to usher in a thorough cultural transformation. The effects of this gigantic historical effort have been felt in all branches of the Russian theater, from the most conservative to the most experimental.

The Moscow Art Theatre, organized by Stanislavsky and Nemirovitch-Danchenko in 1898, developed artistically on the works of Shakespeare, Tolstoy, Gutzkov, Ibsen, Hauptmann and Chekhov. It carried naturalism to its highest point. The unsuccessful revolution of 1905 plunged this theatre into symbolism, and Chekhov became its favorite dramatist. Throughout the reactionary years 1906-1915, Stanislavsky's troupe performed Chekhov's "Seagull," Andreyev's "Life of Man," Hamson's "Drama of Life," and Maeterlinck's "Bluebird," mirroring the disillusion, despair and impotence of the defeated intelligentsia. The 1917 Revolution, profoundly changing the life of the Russian people, nationalized the theatres of the country. The new audiences, steeled by the civil wars, were indifferent to introspection, and were passionately intent on creating a better world. For a while the Moscow Art Theatre failed to respond to the needs of the new times; it continued to play Chekhov and Maeterlinck. In 1922, Stanislavsky's troupe toured Europe and the United States, where it had a phenomenal artistic success. On its return to the Soviet Union, it began to acknowledge the changes that had taken place. In 1925-26, it produced Bulgakov's "Days of the Turbins," dealing with a family of Tsarist officers during the civil wars. There was widespread objection to the counter-revolutionary spirit which pervaded the play; nevertheless, the Soviet Government did not suppress it, and it ran for about two years. These two years, however, brought the Moscow Art Theatre closer to the life of the people, and the next play it produced reflected something of the contemporary spirit. The "Armored Train," by Vsevolod Ivanov, deals with an incident in the civil wars, in which the Reds and Whites struggle for the possession of an armored train. The train symbolizes machinery, through the control of which the workers are to emancipate themselves. The guerilla warfare, portrayed on the stage with striking naturalism, results in a victory for the Reds. The Moscow Art Theatre continues to play its old repertoire, but has added new plays portraying the new Russia. Its technique continues to be considered the best naturalism in the world theatre. Mr. Joseph Wood Krutch, an American critic who visited Moscow recently, has referred to "the magnificent melodrama, the 'Armored Train,' acted with superb skill and staged with consummate art."

The Moscow Art Theatre has developed several studio theatres where younger actors and play-

wrights experiment with new forms. One of these, the Musical Studio, had a successful season in New York several years ago. It specializes in lyrical operas, and its repertoire contains Lecocq's "Daughter of Madame Angot," Offenbach's "La Perichole," and Aristophanes "Lysistrata." The technique of this theatre is naturalistic, tinged with the spirit of modern theatrical experiments. Its productions are marked by lightness and charm and are very popular in Moscow.

The most important of the Moscow Art Theatre studios bears the name of Vakhtangov, one of the most gifted Russian directors. Vakhtangov was profoundly affected by the 1917 Revolution, which he accepted wholeheartedly. "Art," he said, "must go with the people; the artist must *rise* to the people." Vakhtangov worked with the Commissariat of Education, under Lunacharsky; and took charge of the Commissariat's department of theatrical directors, through which he organized the People's Theatre. He came to believe that naturalism was incompatible with the new order, and revised his productions in that spirit. Every play, Vakhtangov asserted, must be given a special form, must be viewed from a contemporary standpoint and must be produced by the characteristic methods of a theatrical collectivity. Vakhtangov's most important production was Gozzi's "Turandot," which is still played to crowded houses in Moscow. This is performed as a gay comedy, with sharp contemporary allusions, bright settings and a touch of the circus. Vakhtangov died prematurely in 1922, but his theatre continued to produce plays in the tradition he founded.

The "Kamerny Theatre," directed by Tairov, developed as a reaction against the two dominant tendencies in the contemporary Russian theatre: Stanislavsky's naturalism and Meyerhold's conventionalism. In Stanislavsky's theatre, the playwright furnishes the moods and ideas, and the actor is the mere mouthpiece of these moods and ideas. Formal discipline is relegated to the background, and the troupe is almost wholly dependent on the playwright. For Meyerhold, on the other hand, not moods and ideas, but the aesthetic convention, is the main thing. The actor is a detail in a plastic pattern; emotional expression is forbidden, and the production is dependent above all on the scenic artist and the director. Tairov, in the Kamerny Theatre, sought to combine these two methods. In this theatre the actor is the central factor, while around him the director coordinates the scenery, the music and other subordinate elements. Through this "theatricalisation of the theatre" Tairov achieved great successes in such productions as "Girofle-Girofla," and Ostrovsky's "Storm." In 1925-26, the Kamerny Theatre produced "Kurikol," "Rosita," and Eugene O'Neill's "Hairy Ape." Tairov's version of the "Hairy Ape" differed from its American production by social emphasis. Instead of stressing O'Neill's "struggle of the individual with himself," Tairov

drew on the deeper implications of the text. In powerful scenes he projected the two layers of society irrevocably divided and the lone individual fighting in blind rage and tragic impotence a hopeless fight against the limitations of his own nature and the inexorable power of the established order. In 1926-27, Tairov produced O'Neill's "Desire Under the Elms" and Hasenclever's "Antigone." Hasenclever, one of the young German expressionists, wrote his play in 1916, as a protest against the world war. Tairov adapted the play to symbolize the international struggle against imperialism.

The stormy petrel of the Soviet theatre is Vsevolod Meyerhold. This gifted director came to the November Revolution with twenty years of struggle and experimentation in the theatre behind him. In the past ten years he has not hesitated to reshape the contents of plays and to attempt every imaginable experiment in staging and acting. Verhaeren's "Dawn," which he produced in 1921, was staged in a semi-cubist manner. An effort was made to bring the audience and the stage into closer communion. Actual sailors came on the stage, mingling with the actors, and at the play's climax an actual telegram from the battlefield was read, announcing the victory of the Bolshevik troops over Wrangel. The Meyerhold Theatre's next production was Mayakovsky's "Mysteria Bouffe," which was played on May First. This was an immense holiday spectacle dealing with contemporary events in a "heroic, epic and satiric" manner. The "Magnificent Cuckold," by Crommelynck, produced in 1922, created a storm by the introduction of the "constructivist" method in staging, and of "biomechanics" in acting. Both these methods were a direct response to the spirit of the times. They stressed, on the one hand Russia's need of machinery to build the socialist state, and on the other the need of sports to build the bodies of its citizens. Meyerhold produced the "Death of Tarelkin" in 1922, and "Earth Prancing" in 1923, in the same manner. The following year he created a furore by his introduction of neo-realism in Ostrovsky's "Forest." This new method was again a response to the needs of the times, reflecting the period of economic and social reconstruction which was absorbing the energies of the Russian people. After the "Forest" came a series of plays satirizing the bourgeois world. "Trust D. E." (i. e., Destruction of Europe), produced in 1924, dealt with the "final conflict" between the workers and the bourgeoisie, and was marked by rapid action and ingenious settings. Faiko's "Teacher Bubus," produced in 1925, was a comedy showing the experiences of a muddle-headed intellectual who is wrecked because he is unable to make up his mind whether to support revolution or reaction. Erdman's "Mandate," produced in 1925, was a clever contemporary drama, dealing with a conservative family which longs for the return of the "good old days." Tretiakov's

"Roar China," dealing with the Chinese revolution, created a profound impression, being performed in the midst of the very events it was portraying. Meyerhold reached the peak of his theatrical revolutionary period in 1926, with the production of the classic "Inspector General," by Gogol. Meyerhold restored the play to what he believed was Gogol's original intention; he inserted passages from other works by Gogol, and turned it into a satire on the Tsarist nobility in general, rather than on the small town officials whom Gogol was forced to take as symbols on account of the Tsarist censorship. Meyerhold also introduced a number of technical changes in the staging and produced a play of striking calibre. Altogether, Meyerhold's influence has undoubtedly been the most powerful leaven in the transformation of the Soviet theatre.

The Theatre of the Revolution was greatly influenced by Meyerhold and for a time was under his personal direction. It has produced plays like "Lake Lyul," "Air Pie," Ernst Toller's "Man and the Masses," and Bela Ilyish's "Buy a Revolver."

Two of the most interesting theatres in the Soviet Union are the "Habima," which plays exclusively in the ancient Hebrew language, and the Jewish Kamerny Theatre, which plays exclusively in Yiddish. The staging and acting in both these theatres is of a very high order and strikingly original. They are both attended not only by Jews but also by Russians and foreign visitors who do not understand either language but are impressed by the dramatic art and the settings. The Habima was developed by Vakhtangov, who was himself not a Jew and had to learn the language of the plays he was directing. This theatre's most famous production is S. Ansky's "The Dybuk," which the Habima played not only in Moscow but also in several European capitals and in New York. The Jewish Kamerny Theatre is under Granovsky's direction. By applying a new technique in acting, Granovsky has breathed the spirit of contemporary Russian life into Yiddish classics like Sholom Aleichem's "Two Hundred Thousand," an adaptation of Y. L. Peretz's "At Night," Goldfaden's "The Witch," a play based on Jules Romains' "Yves Le Trouhadec," and the "Tenth Commandment," a satire "according to Goldfaden."

In addition to the formal theatres, the Soviet Union contains thousands of trade union theatres, in which the workers themselves write, produce, and act plays portraying their life under the new regime. The best of these is the MGSPS, run by the Moscow trade unions. Plays like the "Humming of the Rails" and "Storm" brought the factory and the machine on the stage in striking realistic form, and gave the Russian workers a theatre which they could call their own in every sense. Contemporary life is reflected by the Blue Blouse troupes, of which there are about 10,000. These travel about the country or perform at local trade unions, and their repertoire, which changes

frequently, includes songs, acrobatics, dancing and satirical sketches. All the Russian theatres are closely bound up with the life of the country, sensitively responding to its moods and seeking to contribute their share to the collective effort of building up a higher civilization.

## Russian Music, Old and New

**T**HOUGH one of Russia's youngest arts, music is among its most highly developed. It originally grew out of the demands of the old aristocracy in the seventeenth century, seeking to imitate the aristocratic culture of western Europe. It was natural, therefore, that the first branch of music to reach excellence in Russia should be the opera, closely related as it was to the imperial court. Musicians of the Neapolitan school, such as Arraya, Galuppi, Cimarosa, and Paisiello, serving at the Tsar's court, produced Russia's first operas. These were followed by French importations. It was only toward the end of the 18th and at the beginning of the 19th centuries, when the nationalist sentiments fanned in Europe by the French Revolution found an echo in Russia, that native composers began to transform the material of Russian folk song into operas. The greatest of these early Russian composers was Mikhail Glinka, whose works were composed for the court, the nobility, and the new merchant class.

These early composers found themselves burdened by the atmosphere of feudal disintegration of the court and the nobility. They were creating over the heads of their audiences, and some of them, like Rubinstein and Tchaikovsky, were forced to succumb to western influences. However, stronger men, like Mussorgsky, Borodin and Rimsky-Korsakoff, cut loose from the debilitating influences of the upper classes, and drew power for their compositions from the folk songs in which the Russian people voiced their aspirations. These two lines of development, one rooted in the sophisticated music of Western Europe, the other in native popular music, persisted throughout Russian compositions up to 1914. By that time Russian music began to achieve a synthesis of the two strains in the musical symbolism of Scriabin, the gay experiments of Stravinsky and the neo-classicism of Prokofiev.

On the eve of the World War the leading Russian composers were known throughout the civilized world. The works of Mussorgsky, Tchaikovsky, Borodin, Glazunov, Stravinsky, Scriabin and Prokofiev were performed in European and American cities. Russia possessed a rich musical tradition. The Revolution of 1917 found the musical intellectuals unprepared to grasp the significance of the historic change. Composers like Rakhmaninov, Stravinsky, Prokofiev, and Metner; conductors like Kussevitky; pianists like Orlov and

Borovsky; singers like Shaliapin remained abroad. Some of these attempted to work under the Soviet regime, but the musical world was weakened for a time by the civil war and the famine. At the same time, the Revolution created an immense musical audience which demanded the best possible concerts. To satisfy this mass demand for music, the Commissariat of Education created a special department which rapidly organized orchestras, singers' troupes and concerts.

The new audience of Red Army soldiers, students and workers were not satisfied, however, with the old pot-pourri type of program, making a hash of opera selections, western classics, and Russian music from Glinka to Prokofiev. There arose a need for a new repertoire and a musical content, more in accord with the new times. There was a demand for songs and orchestral pieces suitable for the great revolutionary open-air festivals. The earliest efforts in this direction were made by the Proletkult, a workers organization for encouraging a specifically proletarian culture. Later Moscow saw the organization of the Composers Association, which sought to express the Revolution in music. At present the State Publishing House issues many new musical compositions, and has the collaboration not only of the talented musical youth, but also of older composers like Krein, Gliere, and Gnossin.

While encouraging new Revolutionary music, the Soviet Government felt the necessity of continuing the rich heritage of the past and making it accessible to the people of Russia. Operas and concerts throughout the country bring to the worker and peasant the compositions of Glinka, Rimsky-Korsakoff, Mussorgsky, Tchaikovsky, Borodin, Stravinsky and Prokofiev as well as the German, French and Italian classics. The Moscow, Leningrad and Odessa opera houses flourish on a subscription basis. Many of these subscriptions are taken by trade unions which distribute the tickets among workers. Symphony orchestras have developed in workers clubs from Moscow to the remotest provinces. Moscow, Tiflis, Leningrad, Odessa, and other cities celebrated the Beethoven festival with splendid concerts.

One of the most interesting experiments introduced by the Revolution has been the Moscow "Persimphans," a large orchestra which plays the classics without a conductor. Other Soviet cities have also adopted the leaderless orchestra. The Soviet Union has developed a number of young virtuosos that have attracted attention abroad as well as at home, notably, Oborin, Ginsburg, Neuhäus, Yudin, Kamensky, Miklashevsky, and Kerner. Foreign performers and conductors have been invited to the U. S. S. R. and have played before enthusiastic crowds, including Walter, Klemperer, Weingartner, Monte and Fried.

The attempt to find new expression for the Revolution in the opera and ballet has taken two directions. The Leningrad opera bases itself on

contemporary music, on the conviction that only contemporary music is fit for the new audience. It specializes in Schreker's "Distant Bells," Strauss' "Salome," Prokofiev's "Love of the Three Oranges," and the ballets of Stravinsky and Kshennick. On the other hand, the Bolshoi Theatre, with its branches, deeply rooted as it had been in the imperial regime, moved much more slowly toward modernism. It revived and tried to improve its productions of Boris Godunov, Faust, Carmen, Lohengrin, and similar classics. The enormous size of the Moscow opera confines it to two or three new productions a year. It attempted to make up for its conservative repertoire by modern staging and by re-writing the librettos. Its orchestra and ballet retained high standards.

While giving excellent productions of old and new classics, the Soviet opera has experienced great difficulty in creating new operas reflecting the Revolution in music. Several were indeed produced in Leningrad and Moscow, but none of them went beyond the experimental stage. Among the more successful were Pashchenko's "Eagle's Revolt," the libretto of which was based on the 18th century peasant uprising; and Zolotaryev's "The Decembrists," basing his plot on the revolt of Russian army officers in 1825. The situation is a little better in the Caucasus, where the Soviet Government's policy toward the culture of minor nationalities gave rise to the first native operas of that region. Two musical dramas by the Georgian composer N. Palishvili scored considerable success, while the Armenian composer N. Spenderyantz is working toward the creation of a national form. New Turkish operas have been performed in Baku, while in the Ukraine the native composers Yanovsky and Zolotaryev are working on national themes.

The era of peace and reconstruction following the civil war permitted the successful development of new concert music, reflecting the new social order. N. Myaskovsky has composed three symphonies of a high order. Myaskovsky is a musical descendant of Glazunov. His Sixth Symphony has marked revolutionary passages; while his Eighth Symphony has passages based on oriental melodies. The influence of the eastern sections of the Soviet Union is also felt in the compositions of Gliere, who has developed Turkoman melodies and more recently prepared a ballet with Chinese musical themes. The Jewish composer, Alexander Krein, has composed a symphony remarkable for its wealth of melody and harmony, while Mikhail Gnessin, another Jewish composer, has written a number of sketches paying tribute to those who perished in the cause of the Revolution. The compositions of N. A. Roslavets attempt to express the collective will of the people by organizing tonal elements independent of emotional significance.

Among the new composers who are influenced

by the neo-romanticism of Metner are Anatole Alexandrov; while the influences of Scriabin and modern western expressionism are discernible in the compositions of Polovinkin, Shirinsky, Protopopov, Knipper, Kryukov, Mosolov and Shebalin. The traditions of Ravel and Debussy mixed with strong oriental influences, are continued by Gregory Krein.

A group of excellent Leningrad composers, educated in the traditions of Rimsky-Korsakoff, Musorgsky, Borodin and Glazunov, has produced the neo-classic composer of symphonies Shestakovitch and the extreme modernist Shcherbachov. A moderate style characterizes the compositions of Steinberg and Weisberg. One of the few who still compose for the organ is Kushnarev, who calls himself a polyphonist; while Dyeshov has made some daring experiments in the opera and ballet.

Several of the older composers who have become world famous still reside in the Soviet Union but are no longer creating. Chief of these is Glazunov, who devotes himself chiefly to teaching, and Ippolit-Ivanov, the composer of "Caucasian Sketches," who lives in Moscow.

## Women in Responsible Positions in the U. S. S. R.

**W**OMEN have won for themselves a firm position not only in Government offices and public organizations, but also in the industries.

They have penetrated branches of industry which before the Revolution were closed to them altogether. Moreover, in a great number of cases women occupy responsible positions in the capacity of directors and managers of factories and plants. Experience has proved that they are just as capable of taking care of the complex problems of industrial management as men.

The following biographies of a few women directors testify to the considerable success of the women's movement in the Soviet Union and portray the surroundings from which women are working up to leading positions in industries.

Last year a working woman, Mrs. Bogdanova, was placed at the head of the textile factory "Krasny Mayak." From 1912 to 1918, she worked in one of the Petrograd tobacco factories, first as an apprentice, and later as a sorter of cigarettes. Since 1918, Mrs. Bogdanova has been taking a prominent part in public activities in which she is still engaged. In 1926, she was appointed assistant to the director of the textile factory, "Rabochi," and at present she has been placed at the head of the large textile factory "Krasny Mayak."

Under Mrs. Bogdanova's management the factory has been placed on a more efficient basis; a number of new departments have been organized and an energetic campaign is being conducted



against unjustifiable absences and idling on the job. Last year the factory turned out 10,000,000 meters of fabrics and 3,500,000 kilograms of yarn.

Another woman director is Mrs. Kozlovskaya, who is in charge of the giant spinning mill "Soviet-skaya Zvezda" in Leningrad, in which two thousand textile workers are employed. Mrs. Kozlovskaya was born in the family of a weaver. Since the age of fourteen she has been working in the textile industry where she started as an apprentice at the wage of 35 kopecks (18 cents) per day. Until the November Revolution of 1917, she was employed as a regular worker in a textile factory. Since 1918, she has advanced to responsible work in the trade union movement, as chairman of factory committees, as member of the Central Committee of the Textile Workers Union, etc. After having worked for a year and a half in the capacity of assistant to the director of a textile factory, she was appointed director of the "Sovetskaya Zvezda" factory, a post which she is successfully filling at present.

Not less interesting is the personality of the working woman, Mrs. Korobayeva, who had been working in factories for fifteen years. At present she occupies the post of assistant manager of the "Samoilov" plant—the only curtain and tulle factory in Moscow. Four and a half million meters of tulle products which are being annually turned out by the Samoilov factory, testify to the complexity of the enterprise which is now being managed by the textile worker, Mrs. Korobayeva.

Not only in the textile industry in which women's work predominates have the working women of the Soviet Union succeeded in obtaining controlling positions. They can boast of similar achievements in other branches of industry as well.

### Women as Judges

The part played by women in the activities of judicial institutions is increasing from year to year. This is shown by the growth in the number of women occupied in the Moscow courts in responsible and technical positions.

Thus the percentage of women among the members of the Provincial Court, the People's Judges, Substitute Judges, etc., amounted to 6.3 per cent in 1926, to 11.4 per cent in 1927, and to 12.6 per cent in 1928. The figures show that the number of woman judges has doubled in the course of the last three years. A similar increase is shown by the number of women workers who are at the head of the various departments. The clerical staff of the provincial courts includes over 50 per cent women.

Among the women who are active as judges, thirteen have risen to these positions from industrial establishments, while four of them have come over from other government institutions.

## Joint Stock Companies in the U. S. S. R.

**J**OINT Stock Companies constitute an important form of economic organization in the Soviet Union. The part played by the joint stock companies in the Soviet Union is, of course, essentially different from their function in other countries. The peculiarities of Soviet economy have eliminated the two strongest incentives of the joint stock companies in existence abroad. The shares of the Soviet State Joint Stock Companies, whose share-holders are exclusively Government organizations, as well as of the "Mixed" Joint Stock Companies, wherein Soviet State and private foreign capital participate jointly, are not quoted on the market. Within the scope of Soviet State economy the joint-stock companies are not interested in distributing part of their shares among the "public," or even among the vast number of economic organizations. The Soviet State enterprises are devoid of any tendencies towards financial expansion, and their capital stock cannot be transferred to private individuals.

The joint stock company form of enterprises in the U. S. S. R. serves other purposes. Being highly elastic and adaptable to complex enterprises, it is being used whenever it is necessary to combine in one enterprise industrial and commercial activities, or whenever it is desirable to combine enterprises which are under the jurisdiction of different authorities (e. g. the trusts of two constituent republics); when one branch of industry is in need of capital that is at the disposal of other branches of industry; when joint activity of foreign capital and of Soviet State capital is necessary, etc.

In all of these cases the joint-stock-company form of enterprise has certain advantages. To the organizations directly interested it offers the possibility of forming a joint stock capital; it secures the fullest economic contact between the share-holders and the joint stock company, as well as the combination of enterprises economically connected with each other.

The joint stock companies are playing in the Soviet Union merely a subsidiary role, being a complement to the basic forms of economic enterprise, as presented by the Trusts, the Syndicates and the State Trading Bureaus.

### Number and Capital of Joint Stock Companies

	Number of Companies	Total of Capital Stock Rubles
October 1, 1923 .....	30	231,950,000
October 1, 1924 .....	58	439,700,000
January 1, 1926 .....	95	550,650,000
January 1, 1928 .....	149	794,286,000
May 1, 1928 .....	156	817,336,000

Thus the joint stock companies are increasing in importance in the Soviet Union. The above table does not present a complete picture of the scope of joint stock companies in the Soviet Union, as it does not take into account a great number of joint stock companies which are listed by the People's Commissariats for Trade of the various constituent republics. In the R. S. F. S. R. (Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic) in particular, over 200 joint stock companies with a capital stock of about 200,000,000 rubles (over \$100,000,000) are registered. Altogether the actual paid-in capital in all joint stock companies of the U. S. S. R. may be set at over 1,000,000,000 rubles (over \$500,000,000).

The joint stock companies in the U. S. S. R. are varied in character. On May 1, 1928, 84 of them, i. e., the majority, were trading or manufacturing and trading companies. Next came purely industrial companies—19, transport companies—15, credit companies—13, building companies—11, as well as publishing and motion picture companies. Recently a particular growth of the building, manufacturing, manufacturing and trading, as well as of publishing companies has been noted.

## Progress of Soviet Industries

**P**RELIMINARY figures published in the Soviet press on October 1, 1928, the beginning of the new fiscal year 1928-29, show a considerable increase in the total annual output of the Soviet industries for the fiscal year 1927-28, as compared with the preceding year.

The value of the total output of the large scale State industries amounted to 9,786,600,000 rubles (\$5,040,000,000) in 1927-28, as against 8,237,300,000 rubles in 1926-27. If the seasonal industries are included, a still larger figure is obtained, amounting to 10,333,000,000 rubles (\$5,321,500,000) for 1927-28, as against 8,631,000,000 rubles in 1926-27.

There was a large increase, as compared with the preceding year, in the output of machinery which before the war was not produced in Russia. Thus the output of steam turbines increased from 41,000 kilowatts in 1926-27 to 60,600 kilowatts, in 1927-28. The number of lathes turned out in 1927-28 was 1,609, as against 1,096 in 1926-27. The output of textile machinery shows a similar increase.

The output of locomotives increased 29 per cent, while that of railway cars doubled as compared with the preceding year.

Shipbuilding shows an increase in output from 44,800,000 rubles (\$23,000,000) in 1926-27 to 60,300,000 rubles (\$31,000,000) in 1927-28.

The leather industry greatly increased its output by turning out 10,000,000 large and 15,600,000 small skins in 1927-28, as against 8,200,000 large and 12,900,000 small skins in 1926-27. A still

larger increase was noted in the output of shoes, with 23,000,000 pair in 1927-28, as against 14,700,000 pair in 1926-27.

The total increase of the output of the rubber industry was 34.2 per cent. The number of rubber shoes turned out during the past year was 36,248,000 pair, as against 29,631,000 pair in 1926-27.

A large increase of output was likewise achieved in the sugar and vegetable oil industries. The former shows an output of 1,340,000 metric tons of granulated sugar in 1927-28, as against 880,000 metric tons in 1926-27, while the latter shows the figure of 243,000 metric tons, as against 148,000 tons for the preceding year.

## New Factories and Plants

Two enterprises of great importance for the Soviet oil industry were completed early in November when the Soviet Republic celebrated the eleventh anniversary of its existence. One of them is the Grozny-Tuapse pipe line which is 624 kilometers long and connects the Grozny oil fields with the Black Sea. It will render possible the annual transportation of 700,000 metric tons of crude oil and of 300,000 metric tons of distilled products. The second enterprise just completed is a large refining plant in Grozny which is to work annually 500,000 metric tons of crude oil for the purpose of obtaining such high-priced products as gasoline, lubricating oils, etc. The value of the annual output of that plant will amount to 14,000,000 rubles (over \$7,000,000.)

The Korsak-Paisk copper smelting plant in the Kazak Republic (Soviet Central Asia) which was to be set in operation in November will employ 2,395 workers and turn out 5,000 metric tons of copper annually.

The construction of the first section of the Moscow electro-technical plant has been completed by the State Electrical Trust. It will turn out transformers, electric bulbs, searchlights, etc. The entire plant is to be completed by 1931.

A spinning mill will be attached to the Kalinin worsted mill in Moscow, which will turn out annually 2,160 metric tons of worsted yarn for the total amount of 25,800,000 rubles (over \$13,000,000). This factory will employ 992 workers. The first section of a spinning and weaving mill in Ganja (Transcaucasia) has been completed. It will turn out annually 47,800,000 meters of cotton fabrics in the amount of 21,800,000 rubles (over \$11,000,000). The factory will employ 2,500 workers. The second part of the Ganja factory is in the process of construction and will have the same capacity.

Odessa will celebrate the starting of a large fish canning plant which will be able to turn out 12,000,000 cans. The plant will employ 600 workers.

It must be borne in mind that the above mentioned list is by no means complete. A large number of smaller establishments are likewise going to be set in operation.

### Enterprises and Labor Force of the Large Scale Industries

In the course of 1927, the number of enterprises in the large scale industries in the U. S. S. R. decreased by 1.4 per cent. Their total number is at present 8,767. At the same time the number of workers and other employees in the same enterprises increased 5.5 per cent having reached the three million mark by the middle of 1928.

This phenomenon is to be explained exclusively by an expansion of the factory enterprises. While last year there was an average of 310 workers per enterprise, that number has risen now to 333. The greatest increase in the personnel is shown by the factories of Transcaucasia and of the Central Asiatic Soviet Republics Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan. This is evidence of the fact that the industries and the rate of industrialization of the outlying Soviet Republics are growing. Georgia in particular, shows a 35.7 per cent increase of the labor force. The industrial enterprises of Soviet Russia proper and of the Ukraine increased their labor force by 5.5 per cent. On the territory of the R. S. F. S. R. (Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic), Leningrad, Moscow, the Nizhni Novgorod Province and the Ural, show the largest growth of 13.5, 11.4, 10 and 4 per cent, respectively.

### Output of Manganese Ore

The Georgian Manganese Trust which exploits the former Harriman concession, has restored eight concentrating plants which are turning out 1,000 metric tons of manganese daily.

In the course of November a number of additional plants were to be set in operation bringing the daily output of manganese up to 2,000 metric tons.

The number of workers engaged at the enterprise has lately increased to 2,000, whereas only 530 were employed by the concession enterprise.

*Bound Volume VI of the SOVIET UNION REVIEW, 192 pages, containing all the issues published in 1928, as well as a comprehensive index, will be ready for delivery early in January 1929. Price, \$3.00.*

## Unemployment Relief in U.S.S.R.

THE Government organizations and the trade unions are devoting their utmost attention to the problem of aid to the unemployed. Enormous sums are being expended to combat unemployment, and the extent of these expenditures is growing from year to year.

The following table gives a picture of the expenditures made by the Government in the course of the last few years for the purpose of giving aid to the unemployed.

Fiscal Year	Total Expenditures Rubles	Number of Persons Given Assistance
1924-25 .....	45,328,000	488,000
1925-26 .....	65,101,000	510,000
1926-27 .....	83,233,000	709,000
1927-28 (according to plan).....	127,220,000	865,000

Assistance is being given to the unemployed in two forms: (1) in the form of social insurance doles, and (2) in the form of employment and assistance in kind.

### Social Insurance Doles

Unemployment doles, under the head of social insurance, were granted to 480,000 unemployed in 1926-27. In the course of 1927-28, the number of unemployed persons who received unemployment insurance doles increased to 505,000. Simultaneously with the increase of the number of insured unemployed there was also an increase of the average monthly dole which, at present, amounts to 15.15 rubles (\$7.80).

While in 1926-27, about 61,000,000 rubles (over \$31,000,000) were expended for unemployment relief, these expenditures increased to 95,500,000 rubles (\$49,000,000), during the fiscal year which just expired.

### Employment

Work for the unemployed has been organized to a considerable extent. Collective labor enterprises are being founded among the unemployed. By the end of 1927, there were 2,200 of them in which over 115,000 unemployed were occupied. These collective enterprises are being organized from among the unemployed of all kinds of trades. As a result these enterprises include bath houses, laundries, barber shops, public stenographers' offices, typists offices, collective enterprises for loading and unloading, restaurants, refreshment bars, moving picture theaters, schools, lectures, forwarding offices, etc. During 1926-27, all collective enterprises paid out 44,500,000 rubles (\$23,000,000) in wages. During the present year there was noted a further growth of these collective enterprises which have been taking care of 40,000 more unemployed.

### Other Forms of Aid

There are likewise other forms of unemployment relief. Public works occupy a considerable

place among them. During the fiscal year 1927-28 it was expected that in the course of six months 45,000 persons would be occupied in the public works—an increase of 36 per cent as compared with the preceding year. The unemployed are given assistance in kind by dining rooms, tea rooms, night lodgings, etc. In the course of 1927-28, this kind of assistance was to be given daily to 25,000 unemployed.

It is likewise necessary to point out that the unemployed in the U. S. S. R. have the free use of theaters, clubs and motion picture theaters. Many of them are given the opportunity to learn a skilled trade. Thus in 1927-28, 40,000 of them were given instruction by the various organs of the People's Commissariat for Labor.

All these measures which are being carried out by the Government with the active assistance of the trade unions and the Soviet public at large are contributing considerably to the mitigation of the unemployment situation in the U. S. S. R.

## Economic Development of the Soviet Far East

THE Far Eastern Region represents an enormous territory covering 2,589,911 square kilometers of the Pacific sector of Siberia. Its extent equals the aggregate territories of Germany, Great Britain with North Ireland, France, Poland, Rumania, Italy and Hungary. It is, however, very sparsely populated, the total number of its inhabitants being 1,878,179, i. e. less than that of Moscow City alone.

While the density of the population is 20.2 per 1 square kilometer in the European part of the U. S. S. R. (it is 134.1 in Germany, 184 in Great Britain and 73.1 in France), the corresponding figure for the Far Eastern Region is only 0.3.

Much has been written about the natural resources of that territory which is rich in timber, fish and mineral deposits of great economic importance.

A few years ago cultivation of rice was started in the Maritime Province of the Far Eastern Region. The cultivation is very profitable and the quantity produced for the market is increasing from year to year. In the near future the development of a new branch of industry, namely, the silk industry, is expected. Raw silk is now being produced by a number of peasant farms of the Maritime Province, which turn out crude silk fabrics by applying primitive home craft methods. Both silk and rice culture have been introduced into that territory by Koreans. The question of introducing machine methods as well as cooperative organization of the farms engaged in silk culture is being discussed at present.

The possibility of cultivating sugar beets is likewise being considered, in view of the favorable climatic conditions.

To further the industrial development of the territory the Supreme Council of National Economy has elaborated a five-year plan regarding the settlement of the Far Eastern Region by families of home craftsmen and artisans from the European sections of the U. S. S. R. It is expected that over 120,000 persons—artisans and their families—from the central sections of the Soviet Union will be settled in the Far East in the course of the next five years.

In view of the agricultural overpopulation of the central and western areas of the Soviet Union, large numbers of Russian and Ukrainian peasants are migrating to the Far Eastern Region to take up farming on the Pacific littoral of the Soviet Union.

There is a great scarcity of skilled and even unskilled labor in that section of the Soviet Union, and the number of unemployed is practically negligible. Chinese and Japanese workers constitute a considerable percentage of the total labor force. They are chiefly concentrated in the gold mining, timber, coal and fishing industries, the Chinese making up 54 per cent of the workers engaged in gold mining, 30 per cent of those in the timber industry, and 50 per cent of those in the coal mining industry. Japanese labor prevails in the fishing industry, making up 23,360 out of a total of 34,270 workers.

## American Consulting Engineers in the Soviet Union

THE "Economic Life" of Moscow recently published a number of articles about Soviet-American economic relations. One of them contains data about Soviet-American connections in the field of technical service which have grown considerably of late.

A number of American firms and some prominent engineers in the capacity of consulting engineers are helping in the planning of new enterprises in the U. S. S. R.

Thus the construction of the Dnieper super power plant is being carried on with the constant aid of the expert advice of Col. Hugh L. Cooper, builder of Muscle Shoals.

In the Donetz coal basin the American firm Stuart, James and Cooke has for the last two years been engaged in the planning of new shafts.

The concerns Perin and Marshall, as well as Herman Brassert are engaged in drafting the plans for the Makeyev steel works; they have likewise inspected the southern railways and the ports connected with them.

The Freyn Engineering Company of Chicago were acting as consulting engineers for the Chief Metal Department of the Supreme Council of National Economy and were engaged in working out plans of metallurgical plants. That firm is

organizing a permanent technical bureau in Lenin-grad for regular consultations in the planning of enterprises of the heavy industries.

Arthur G. Mackee & Company is giving expert advice in the construction of blast furnaces, while A. Wheeler is covering the field of non-ferrous metallurgy.

The machine building industries of the U.S.S.R. are as in the past, availing themselves of the services of various American engineering firms, in particular of Frank Chase of Chicago.

Even prior to the signing of its agreement with the Amtorg Trading Corporation in New York, the General Electric Company was taking part in the deliberations concerning various questions of electrical construction in the U. S. S. R.

The York Ice Machinery Corp. was taking part in the planning of a number of refrigerators to be built in Soviet ports.

A number of other American firms are taking part in the reconstruction of the paper and cellulose, as well as of the silicate industries (glass, cement, etc.); also in the construction of oil refining plants.

Moreover, upwards of three hundred Soviet specialists were sent to America in the course of the last three years for the investigation and the study of the various branches of American industry.

## Professor John Dewey's Letter to Mr. Lunacharsky

**S**HORTLY before his departure from the Soviet Union Prof. John Dewey of Columbia University, who headed the delegation of American professors and scientists to the Soviet Union, addressed the following letter\* to Mr. A. Lunacharsky, People's Commissar for Education:

"Before leaving the U. S. S. R. I would first like to express to you our gratitude and appreciation for the kind hospitality which was extended to us. All doors were open to us; everything that was possible was done so as to enable the members of the delegation to see everything of interest to them.

"We will never forget the cordiality with which we were received in all institutions.

"To a considerable extent we owe that reception to you and to your Commissariat. Please accept our most sincere gratitude for this. We also greatly appreciate what Mme. Kameneva and the Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries have done, in particular by placing competent and energetic guides at our disposal. Permit us also to express our appreciation for giving us

\*The text of this letter is retranslated from the Russian translation.

the opportunity to see and to learn about the tremendous activity which is being carried on in the U. S. S. R., for raising the cultural level and for the creation of cultural values for humanity as a whole.

"The delegation does not contemplate the preparation of a joint report, as the time was too short for a thorough evaluation. Moreover, the members of the delegation had in view their own specific interests. But I am convinced that the various members of the delegation will make known in their respective spheres the results of their observations and will aid the American people in obtaining a correct view of the new spirit of new Russia. I hope the results will help to remove the misunderstandings and will bring nearer the moment of general collaboration of which you spoke so eloquently that evening.

"Thus we will be able to accomplish something and we will apprise others of our sentiments toward your great country.

"In concluding permit me to express my respect, admiration, and my sincere hope that a delegation of Russian professors and teachers will soon be in a position to visit the United States.

"I will gladly do anything I can to this end.

"Sincerely yours,  
"JOHN DEWEY."

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## Miscellaneous News

### School Census in the U. S. S. R.

The preliminary data of the Soviet school census, as published recently by the Central Statistical Board of the U. S. S. R., show that the public school system of the Soviet Union comprises 118,184 schools with 337,435 teachers and about 11,400,000 pupils. School is being taught in seventy different languages. The following table shows the subdivisions of the system:

#### *Establishments for Public Education*

	Establishments	Attendance
Elementary Schools .....	108,500	8,400,000
Extended Elementary Schools (Seven-Year Schools) .....	5,487	1,960,000
Combined Elementary and Secondary Schools (Nine-Year Schools) .....	876	556,000
Secondary Schools .....	937	313,000
Schools for Peasant Youth .....	1,010	88,000
Schools for Overgrown Children .....	1,275	77,600
School Communes .....	99	13,000
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>118,184</b>	<b>11,407,600</b>

The number of establishments and the attendance in the rural and urban localities is shown by the following table:

	Establishments	Attendance (Approx. fig.)
Rural Districts .....	107,097	8,100,000
Cities .....	8,352	2,500,000
Urban Settlements .....	2,735	643,000

The average number of children attending school in the Soviet Union out of every 10,000 of the population of both sexes is shown by the following table:

	School Children
<i>Number of School Children per 10,000 Inhabitants</i>	
In the Cities .....	1,194
In the Urban Settlements .....	1,367
In the Rural Localities .....	675
In the U. S. S. R. as a Whole .....	774

At the present time school facilities are available for 70.1 per cent of all children of school age in the Soviet Union. These facilities take care of 98.4 per cent children in the cities, and 65.3 per cent children in the rural localities.

The present number of pupils of the public school system exceeds that of the pre-war period (1913) by 46 per cent.

### Building of New Schools

On occasion of the tenth anniversary of the establishment of the Soviet Republic (November 7, 1927), fifteen million rubles were appropriated for the building of new schools. This amount was distributed among the different constituent republics. According to information received by the People's Commissariat for Education of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (Soviet Russia proper), 267 new buildings for primary schools have been erected since the

tenth anniversary, mainly in rural localities. Moreover, 95 schools whose construction had been started earlier in 1927, were completed; as well as nine new boarding schools.

### Introduction of Latin Alphabet in Soviet Central Asia

In August, 1928, the government of the Uzbek Soviet Republic in Central Asia adopted a decision recognizing the Latin alphabet as the official medium for writing the Uzbek language. Within six months all institutions and organizations are to discard their seals, stamps and stationary printed in Arabic script. The same term has likewise been fixed for changing theatre, bus and trolley car tickets, bills, etc. All business signs, including those of private firms are to be made over to the Latin alphabet. Beginning with January, 1929, all Government decrees will be published in the new alphabet.

In the Daghestan Soviet Republic, in the North-eastern Caucasus, the Latin alphabet was officially adopted by the Government. The new alphabet will be applied to the main languages used in Daghestan, viz., Turko-Tartar, Lesghian, Tat, Avarian, Darginian, etc.

### Soviet-Afghan Trade Figure Reaches Pre-War Level

As a result of the trade relations between Afghanistan and the U. S. S. R., the import of various products from northern Afghanistan to the Soviet Union is growing annually, and at the same time the demand of the Afghan population for Soviet manufactured articles is likewise increasing. During the past fiscal year the value of the Soviet-Afghan trade has reached the pre-war volume, fully satisfying the demand of the northern Afghan markets for manufactured articles. The next step in the development of the mutual economic relations of the two countries will be the establishment of trade connections with other regions of Afghanistan, such as Herat and Kandahar, which could export karakul fur and other raw materials to the U. S. S. R.

### Railway Communication with the Far East

Beginning October 1, 1928 express trains from the Soviet-Polish frontier station Negoreloye to the Soviet-Chinese frontier station Manchuria, leave Negoreloye on Sundays, Tuesdays and Fridays at 11:20 P. M. and arrive at Manchuria Station on the ninth day at 2 P. M.

Trains from Negoreloye to Vladivostok leave on Thursdays, 11:20 P. M. and arrive on the twelfth day at 1 P. M.

Direct trains Riga—Manchuria leave Riga on Sundays, Tuesdays and Fridays at 8:20 A. M. and arrive at Manchuria Station on the ninth day at 2 P. M.



### Soviet Government Relief for the Ukraine

The Soviet Government has appropriated over 31,000,000 rubles (\$16,000,000) for the reestablishment of agriculture in those parts of the Ukraine, which have suffered from the bad harvest this summer. In this amount are included 10,500,000 rubles (\$5,400,000), which are to be expended for foodstuffs to be supplied to the stricken peasantry. In addition, the Ukrainian Government has appropriated 10,000,000 rubles (over \$5,000,000) for the same purpose, and 6,000,000 rubles are to be collected by Ukrainian public organizations.

In the stricken region 850,000 persons, including 300,000 children, will be supplied with foodstuffs for the period from October 1, 1928 to August 1, 1929.

### The Fifth Soviet Congress

The Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union has decided to call the Fifth Congress of Soviets of the U. S. S. R. for April 15, 1929, to convene in Moscow.

Elections to the local Soviets will begin in January, 1929.

### Inventions in the Soviet Union

In the course of the past fiscal year 13,000 new inventions were submitted to the Soviet Union Committee on Inventions in Leningrad, a figure which is twice as large as that of the preceding year.

The major part of the inventions, 3,452, have been made by professors, engineers, physicians and other specialists; the second place is held by workers, with 1,629 inventions; 893 inventions were submitted by office employees, and 383 by students of the higher educational establishments. The remainder was submitted by peasants, etc.

A great number of inventions were declared by foreigners: Germany registered 917 inventions in the Soviet Union; the United States 141, England 64, Austria 41, Sweden 29, France 28, etc.

### New Arctic Expedition of "Krassin"

In a conversation with representatives of the Soviet press, Professor L. Samoylovich, head of the "Krassin" expedition which rescued seven members of the ill-fated Nobile crew, announced that the Soviet Government has authorized the organization of a new Arctic trip by the ice breaker "Krassin" for the purpose of exploring Severnaya Zemlya, (formerly called "Nicholas II Land"). The expedition is to start in the spring of 1929. First among the objects of the expedition is the exploration of the western outlines of that land which up to the present have remained a white spot on the map. For the purposes of the trip "Krassin" will be reequipped for the use of oil fuel which will enable the boat to extend the expedition over a longer period.

### Output and Consumption of Soap in the Soviet Union

The increase of the production and the consumption of soap is an infallible indication of the cultural advancement of any particular country.

This year, according to the figures given out by the Supreme Council of National Economy of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic, the output of household and toilet soap turned out by the State enterprises has exceeded the pre-war standard. The former Russian Empire, (including Poland, Lithuania, etc.,) was producing annually 190,000 metric tons of household soap and 13,000,000 dozens of cakes of toilet soap. The average annual consumption of soap amounted to 2.9 pounds per capita. The gradual growth of the Soviet soap manufacturing industry is shown by the following figures: In 1925-26, 83,000 metric tons of household soap and 10,000,000 dozens of cakes of toilet soap were turned out. In 1926-27—103,000 metric tons of household soap and 11,000,000 dozens of cakes of toilet soap. During the past fiscal year 1927-28, the output was expected to amount to 126,000 metric tons of household soap and 14,000,000 dozens of cakes of toilet soap, which will give an annual average of three pounds of soap per capita, that is more than the pre-revolutionary standard of consumption.

### Popularization of Technical Knowledge

In February, 1929, the "Techmass" Society of the Soviet Union, whose aim it is to popularize technical knowledge, will hold an exhibition in Moscow. The Soviet Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries (Malaya Nikitskaya 6, Moscow 69, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics) was asked to organize the foreign section of the Exhibition, and addressed an appeal to publishers of technical literature and of textbooks to assist the undertaking by sending to the Society any books or catalogs which may be suitable for exhibition purposes.

### Export of Furs from the Soviet Union

Furs constituted 19 per cent of the total Soviet exports for the fiscal year 1927-28 (ending September 30, 1928) heading the list of the Soviet export items. The value of the furs exported for the past year amounted to 120,000,000 rubles (nearly \$62,000,000) as against 87,000,000 rubles for 1926-27 and 67,500,000 rubles for 1925-26.

### Administrative Appointments

Mr. G. Piatakov was relieved of his duties of Trade Delegate of the Soviet Union in France and appointed Vice-President of the State Bank of the Soviet Union.

Mr. N. M. Yanson, People's Commissar for Justice of the R. S. F. S. R. was relieved of the duties of Attorney General and Mr. N. V. Krylenko, Assistant People's Commissar for Justice of the R. S. F. S. R. was appointed to that post.

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