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SOVIET UNION REVIEW

TWENTY CENTS | JANUARY, 1931 | VOL. IX, NO. 1

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The Peasant's Gazette

BEFORE the revolution the Russian peasant hardly knew of the existence of newspapers or magazines. Even when newspapers did reach the villages they could not be read, for the vast majority of the peasants were illiterate.

Today there is a totally different picture. Illiteracy is rapidly being wiped out in the Soviet Union. According to the census of 1887, only 22.3 per cent of the population were literate. The census of 1926 recorded 36.6 per cent as literate, and by the end of 1929 the literate portion of the Russian populace rose to 55 per cent. It is planned to raise the proportion of literacy to 85 per cent by the end of the year 1931-32.

With the rise of the cultural status of the peasant there has been a corresponding development in the peasant press and literature. While before the revolution there was not a single newspaper published in the peasant's behalf, now there are more than two score papers and magazines championing his rights, with a circulation of over four million. The most typical and the most successful of these publications is the "Peasant's Gazette," with a circulation of 1,500,000 subscribers and at least four times as many readers.

The "Peasant's Gazette" is not an ordinary newspaper as it is understood in the Western World. It is a college, a university, a legal tribunal, an institution at the same time. The "Peasant's Gazette" is not sold on newsstands, at bookstores, at magazine kiosks. Its sole source of support is the paid subscriber. It is, furthermore, distinct from other newspapers in the same field outside of the U. S. S. R., in that its contents are almost entirely made up of contributions from peasant correspondents and letters from its readers, very little space being devoted to articles by its regular staff. The editor-in-chief does not write editorials; he rarely writes leading articles; and only once a year, at the most, there appears an article signed by his name. Throughout the year his duties consist mostly in editing the writings of others and in supervising the work of his assistant editors and rewrite men.

Origin and Growth of the "Peasant's Gazette"

The "Peasant's Gazette" was established during the early part of 1924. Its editorial offices are in Moscow. The first edition consisted of 30,000 copies, half of which were distributed free to village libraries, village and regional soviets. At the end of the first year, however, the paid circulation had reached 80,000. From then onward the circulation grew steadily and substantially, as will be seen from the following table:

Beginning of	1924	30,000
End of	1924	80,000
	1925	300,000
	1926	580,000
	1927	700,000
	1928	1,020,000
	1929	1,500,000
Beginning of	1930	1,600,000

Its influence is much wider than its circulation figures indicate, for it is estimated that one subscriber generally passes it on to an average of four readers, and in the subscribing libraries it is read by dozens of peasant men and women.

The "Peasant's Gazette" is published in over a dozen sectional or regional editions—each suited to a particular locality of the U. S. S. R. Thus, for instance, Ukraine has a special edition, with articles and correspondence reflecting its peculiar climatic, economic and social needs. The Urals, the Caucasus, Siberia, White Russia, etc., have special editions, with all the departments, articles, correspondence devoted to their sectional needs and aspirations.

In addition to these sectional editions of the same papers, there are special supplementary editions which are sent to all subscribers alike. Those special supplements are issued in the form of monthly periodicals, each supplement being dedicated to a special phase of peasant life and agricultural economy. For the purpose of furthering cooperation, there is a regular supplement published, called "Cooperation in the Village." There are special supplements to spread agricultural knowledge among the peasants, to cement a closer relationship between the independent farmer and the collective farm and to stimulate interest in the village reading room. There are also special supplementary editions in the interest of dramatics and music. There are special editions for the peasant woman, the peasant youth, the peasant child. There are special comic editions and various others.

The editorial department also publishes books and pamphlets on special subjects which are sold separately. Two hundred such special publications have been issued with a sale of over 2,500,000 copies.

The "Peasant's Gazette" is probably the cheapest newspaper in the world—within reach of the poorest peasant and peasant laborer. It costs only 15 kopeks a month (7½ cents), and that sum includes all the supplements, an annual calendar, containing a wealth of information; an annual collection of old and revised laws pertaining to village life and economy; a number of portraits of men and women distinguished in some field during the year.

Make-up of the "Peasant's Gazette"

The editorial and executive staff of the "Peasant's Gazette" is composed of 500 employees, at least 150 of whom are assigned to the tasks of reading, filing, assorting and answering the incoming correspondence. Every correspondent of the "Peasant's Gazette" is assured of a personal reply with advice and information suitable to his individual case.

The paper is composed largely of letters received from its readers and reports from its special correspondents stationed in every part of the vast territory of Soviet Russia. The prestige and influence of the paper may be gleaned from its growing army of special correspondents. In 1924 there were 400 village correspondents on its staff. In 1925—2,600; in 1926—6,500; in 1927—11,000; in 1928—15,000; and by the end of 1929 they grew to an army of over 18,000.

Eighty-five per cent of the correspondents are plain peasants, and the rest the village intelligentzia: village teachers, agricultural experts, veterinarians, physicians, clerks and officials of village soviets, etc. Only four per cent of the peasant correspondents in 1929 were members of the Communist Party and Communist Youth League.

Letters From Readers

The task of reading and replying to the daily incoming correspondence is colossal. Since its establishment the "Peasant's Gazette" has received over 5,500,000 such letters. During the first years of its existence it received on an average of 200,000 letters a year. This influx has been steadily mounting and during the year 1929 the office received over 1,200,000 letters.

The daily mail is read by the 150 special readers already mentioned. They assort the letters in piles for the consideration of various departments corresponding to the requests incorporated in the letters. Those intended for publication are turned over to the managing editors of various departments. Here they are subjected to further scrutiny. Those of interest are selected and ordered rewritten for publication. Some of them are used as themes for special articles by the writers of the staff. Those letters seeking advice and information are turned over to departments organized specifically for that purpose.

There are legal, technical, agricultural, domestic, etc., departments, each equipped with a special staff and suite of rooms and library. Those departments present more the appearance of technical schools, agricultural colleges, lawyers' study rooms or court rooms than editorial rooms of a newspaper. As a typical illustration let us take the legal department. It comprises a number of large rooms with numerous shelves packed with thousands of volumes on law and jurisprudence published during the Tsarist régimes and by the present government. There are a substantial number of volumes published by all governments and in all foreign languages. When a letter requesting legal advice is turned over to the chief of this department, he reads it over very carefully. He then directs his assistants to find the data and information desired, and prepare a brief in popular and comprehensible

language. When it is ready and approved by the chief, it is immediately dispatched to the correspondent.

Since its establishment the legal department has received an average of 50,000 letters annually and given legal advice to over 200,000 persons. It has also cooperated with the legal authorities in apprehending law breakers. As a result of its activities, at least two thousand Soviet officials have been punished for neglecting their duties, five hundred have lost their positions, six hundred were indicted, about a hundred were expelled from the Communist Party, and as many more have received strict warnings.

The agricultural department is run in the same way. It presents the appearance of an agricultural college. Its rooms are strewn with various receptacles filled with samples of soil, seed, grain, etc., taken from the rich varieties of the soil of the U. S. S. R. The closets are packed with numerous varieties of cultures, plants, vegetables, fruit, etc. The tables are stocked with earthen figures of farm animals, agricultural implements, model houses, etc. The walls are virtually covered with maps showing the pivotal points in Russian agriculture.

All letters seeking information and advice concerning agricultural problems are turned over to this department for consideration. Each letter receives prompt attention and the correspondent receives an early and a comprehensive reply.

The readers of the "Peasant's Gazette" may turn to its special department for solace in domestic trouble, for information and data on child hygiene, on child training, on health and disease prevention or what you will.

The "Peasant's Gazette" works in close cooperation with the experimental station of the agricultural divisions of the Soviet government. If the government experts find that a certain section of the U. S. S. R. will respond to a certain improved culture, to a new plant or vegetation, the "Peasant's Gazette" takes up the campaign and with its energetic agitation it soon wins the support of the particular locality for the government's project. The "Peasant's Gazette" has sent to its readers in 1929 alone over 50,000 free cultures, and has been instrumental in introducing many new varieties of plants, many radical reforms in peasant economy, the introduction and application of modern agricultural implements throughout the Soviet Union.

And its cultural influence has been tremendous. It has awakened in the peasant a feeling of self-esteem. It has freed from his "inferiority complex." It has roused in him a burning passion for acquiring knowledge.

Almost ten thousand literary items reach the editorial desks of the "Peasant's Gazette" each year. They consist of poems, short essays, novels, critiques, dramatic reviews, etc. Many of them are, of course, entirely unsuitable. Some of them, however, are printed, and many of these authors have in time become popular and important figures in the new literature of Soviet Russia.

Most of the illustrations, sketches, drawings and caricatures, for the humorous editions of the "Peasant's Gazette" come from their readers.

Thus the "Peasant's Gazette" from its humble origin in 1924 has become a power and an influence for good civics and administration in the agricultural world of the Soviet Union.

The Reconstruction of the Caucasus

THE success of socialist construction in the Soviet Union has resulted in a decisive advance in the economic, cultural and political development of the national republics. The workers in the various republics have developed far beyond their former state of backwardness through the application of the Soviet national policy and have made considerable progress toward industrialization and collectivization.

The Transcaucasian Federation is one of the best illustrations of the attainments of the national republics in socialist construction during the thirteen years of the existence of the Soviet republics. Transcaucasia possesses 102 of the 183 national groups that constitute the population of the U. S. S. R. Hence this region can serve as an outstanding example of the extent to which the elements of national differences and backwardness have been overcome. The pre-war economic level has long been attained and Transcaucasia is fast becoming a well-developed industrial region.

In 1928 Transcaucasia already possessed 10.7 per cent of the basic state industries in the Soviet Union, ranking third in importance out of twenty-seven regions in the U. S. S. R. During the past five years especially, the growth of industry has been remarkable. Gross production in the Caucasus during this period (1925-1930) increased from $484,100,000 to $752,200,000, while the industrial output more than doubled. The annual gain in capital investments for the last four years averaged 42 per cent. The economic development of Transcaucasia is not only proceeding with great speed, but its industrial growth is outstripping as a rule the average development of the Soviet Union as a whole. In the coming three or four years the Transcaucasian republics will have attained still greater economic importance.

Capital investments in Transcaucasian industry rank fourth in value amongst all the regions of the U. S. S. R. exceeding those of the Leningrad Region and North Caucasus, being surpassed only by the Urals, the Ukraine and the Central Black Soil Region. The Five-Year Plan provides for the

A Picturesque but Unsanitary Corner of Old Tiflis

construction of one hundred and ten new enterprises, besides the expansion and construction program for such enterprises of national importance as the Azneft Oil Trust, etc. Seventy-five per cent of the Transcaucasion plants and enterprises will produce the means of production and will be worked to a great extent by workers recruited from the locality. Many new plants were completed in 1930.

In 1929 there was a 21 per cent increase in the number of workers employed in Transcaucasian industry and last year this percentage rose to 27. During the past year labor productivity has increased by 24.2 per cent and first costs of production have been lowered 11 per cent. A firm foundation for the socialist reconstruction of the entire economy of the Transcaucasian Federation is assured by the existence of vast natural sources for the production of power bases, hydro-electric stations and the fact that the capacity of existing electrical stations is being doubled. Already the big industrial undertakings are surrounded by a powerful ring of central power stations. At present several giant stations are in process of construction such as the Rion electric station, the Dzora electric station, the Kanakir hydro-electric station and others. Such are the main trends of the industrialization and electrification of the national republics of the Transcaucasian Federation. This success in the field of industrialization has made it possible to proceed with the solution of the agricultural problem.

Agricultural Progress

It is well known that agricultural methods are most backward among the minor nationalities. Agriculture in Transcaucasia is noted for possessing the most varied types of products of any part of the Soviet Union. However, the agricultural methods in use are of course extremely primitive.

At the present time the percentage of farms collectivized in Azerbaidjan is 12.5; in Armenia 10.4, and in Georgia 19.6. All these collective farms constitute a firm basis for the further development of the collectivization movement, since they were organized under difficulties and have already gone through a sifting process.

The development of technical methods in the reconstruction of agriculture in the national republics is worthy of special attention. In Transcaucasia, under the Soviet régime, a fundamental change has taken place. Practically all the old village implements have disappeared. In three years about a thousand tractors have been brought in, so that now about one and a half thousand tractors are at work there. During the past five years 117,000 ploughs have been procured, which is ten times as many as previously existed; there are fifteen times as many harrows in use as in 1927-28. The same applies to drills, cultivators, etc. So great is the speed of modernization in agriculture, that during the autumn campaign 80 per cent of the land was tilled by tractors and ploughs, the remaining 20 per cent by primitive methods. During the past two years the percentage of horse-drawn and mechanized ploughs has increased from 45 in 1927 to 78 in 1930 and modern agricultural equipment as a whole has grown from 25 per cent in 1927 to 53 per cent in 1930.

The Transcaucasian Federation is making considerable strides in the direction of capital invest-

Workers' Apartments in the New Industrial Section of Tiflis

ments and the introduction of modern agricultural machinery into the most primitive sections of the country.

Agriculture in Transcaucasia is of a sub-tropi-

cal nature and from the point of view of the U. S. S. R. as a whole should be regarded as the region for the large-scale development of cotton and animal husbandry. The socialization and collectivization of agriculture constitute the only means of bridging the gap between industrial and agricultural development and assuring the growth of the productive forces of the countryside. The most suitable form of organization in Transcaucasia is that of "agro-industrial combines" and already in western Georgia work has been begun on the formation of such a combine to include 42,000 households, with a total area of 132,000 hectares. Such industrial combines will play a tremendous role in the reconstruction of the villages in the national republics. The high level of technique will attract the surrounding individual farms to joint collectives and prove the superiority of large-scale collective farming.

The machine and tractor centers also play an important part in the reconstruction of agriculture in the national republics. In the spring of 1930 in Transcaucasia there were six such centers and it is planned to increase this number to 28 in 1931.

However, it would be a mistake to overlook the individual farmer, whilst working for the development of the socialized sector. In Transcaucasia about 80 per cent of agricultural production is in the hands of individuals, a fact which calls for a strong bond between the middle and poor peasants in opposition to the kulaks and for a correct method of procedure by all organizations in dealing with the individual farmers in their relation to the collectives.

The particularly favorable conditions in the Caucasus for the cultivation of technical crops has led to a plan for the cultivation of more than double the present area of such crops as cotton, tobacco and soy beans.

The cultural growth of the various nationalities has been helped enormously by the introduction of modern methods. Considerable progress has been made in the development of education along national lines through the establishment of schools and the formation of national bodies.

Soviet Labor in 1931

THERE is no unemployment in the Soviet Union at the present time. There are more than enough jobs for everyone, and the problem is to train enough skilled workers for the thousands of new jobs that are being created almost daily as new industrial enterprises start operation.

It is because there is actually no unemployment that the payment of unemployment doles has been stopped and not because of any reduction in social insurance, as it has been interpreted abroad. On the contrary, social insurance funds have been increased, and the funds that would have been alloted for unemployment devoted for other purposes, now that no one need remain unemployed in the Soviet Union.

The shortage of labor began to be felt in industry last summer. In July the shortage in all branches of industry amounted to half a million. The fact that several hundred thousand were still registered on the labor exchanges as "unemployed" at that time, and that a large number of these were receiving doles, led to a careful investigation of the registered unemployed to determine the extent of actual unemployment.

The investigation revealed that what unemployment there was had sifted down mostly to young persons and women seeking jobs for the first time, who soon found jobs and were replaced by others, and to the really shiftless section of the population who had no real interest in finding work as long as they could manage to acquire doles and other unemployment benefits, or live on the earnings of other members of their families. A very small number actually in need were found.

On the Moscow exchange, for instance, 8,000 were registered as unemployed. Less than half of these appeared in answer to a summons offering jobs. Of these 750 refused jobs after those really wishing work were placed, there remained only 177 who might legitimately be registered, and these were not in categories eligible for the dole. In the Krasnopresensky district, of 548 receiving doles, 349 refused jobs. Meantime, the demand for workers increased, and during July, August and September the labor exchanges were one million short of the requirement.

As a result of the investigation, it was decided on October 11th to discontinue entirely the payment of unemployment doles, these funds to be used henceforth for improving the living conditions of workers, increasing the facilities of rest homes and sanitaria, organizing further day nurseries, and training the unskilled workers—the latter being the most constructive type of unemployment insurance under conditions in the Soviet Union today.

Increase in Social Insurance Funds

At the same time, social insurance funds for 1931 have been greatly increased. Last year the social insurance budget amounted to over $750,000,000. In the "special quarter" alone, that is, October-December 1930, almost $250,000,000 was spent on social insurance, and for 1931 over $1,000,000,000 has been allotted for this purpose—an amount which surpasses the figures set by the Five-Year Plan as the goal for 1933.

According to a recent report by Tsikhon,

Commissar for Labor, upwards of five million new workers will be required during 1931. Of these over 1,500,000 are required for permanent industrial jobs, and over 3,000,000 for seasonal work. Of the industrial workers 400,000 are needed by the building industry, 100,000 for automobile construction, 50,000 for metallurgy, 50,000 for mining, and so on.

It is necessary that a large number of these new workers receive training. It has therefore been decided to reorganize the labor exchanges so that they will no longer be merely organs for the registration of the unemployed, but institutions for the planned training of labor power.

Over $50,000,000 has been allotted for short term courses to be organized directly by the labor exchanges to supplement the work done by the factory and shop schools. The labor exchanges will work in close cooperation with the economic bodies and the trade unions to achieve a more rational distribution of labor power and a more rational use of labor within each industry. The industries are required to make a careful estimate of their needs, and the exchanges are to make a careful survey of labor resources.

Regulation of Seasonal Labor

Special attention is being devoted to the problem of seasonal labor by the Commissariat of Labor. It sometimes happens that certain industries are over supplied, while others, at the most vital moment are left with a shortage of hands. A mere rumor will suffice to send the Russian peasant trekking thousands of miles across Russia for some job which may not exist when he gets there. Endless precious labor hours are wasted, while he patiently treks home again, while perhaps near at hand was work he might have done. Thousands of workers on some important industrial job hear of better conditions somewhere else, and one fine morning the managers of some great enterprise like Dnieperprostroy may wake to find themselves 10,000 workers short, while somewhere else a manager may wake to find a vast army he cannot accommodate, encamped around his plant!

A survey is now being made by the Labor Commissariat estimating the number of peasants available in the villages and collectives, and the need for seasonal labor in the same district, so that in the future such occurrences may be avoided and worker and job may be dovetailed without waste.

The Council of People's Commissars of the R. S. F. S. R. has decreed that seasonal industries such as building, lumber, and so on, are to organize a permanent staff of workers. During periods when workers cannot be employed at their own specialty, they can secure a transfer to other jobs for which, if necessary, short training courses are to be provided. All industries employing seasonal labor are to work out detailed plans for lengthening their working season. Special funds have been appropriated to improve living conditions for seasonal labor.

The problem of preventing workers from moving in large numbers from one job to another is being handled by offering special advantages to those workers who remain longer at their jobs, such as improved housing opportunities, preference in sending members of their families to higher schools, special trips to rest homes, longer vacations, and so on.

Improved Conditions for Workers

In addition to the social insurance fund of over $1,000,000,000 the special fund for improving the living conditions of workers will be $150,000,000 in 1931, twice as much as last year, according to the control figures recently adopted. A special fund for labor protection of over $75,000,000 has been appropriated. Over half a billion dollars will be expended on housing for workers—almost twice as much as last year. The total fund for education, health protection and insurance for workers during 1931, will be about $3,300,000,000—an increase of about $750,000,000 over the amount spent for these purposes last year.

The control figures for 1931 provide that the seven-hour day be extended to 91.6 per cent of all workers in large scale industry. On October 1, 1930, 43.5 per cent were already on this basis. All railroad workers are to be put on the seven hour day in 1931. In addition the seven hour day will be established in many factories as a premium for special production achievements. Thus by the end of 1931 practically all industrial workers will be on a seven hour day. The Five-Year Plan proposed that this transition be completed by 1932. Wages are to be increased in the course of the year to 6 per cent in the case of industrial workers, and 8 per cent in the case of railroad workers.

Foreign Workers and Specialists

THE number of foreign workers and specialists engaged in industry in the Soviet Union grows from year to year. At the present time, more than 4,500 foreigners work in the U. S. S. R.; of this number more than 2,500 are Germans, about 1,000 Americans and the remainder Czechs, Swedes, Italians, etc. In addition ten thousand less highly qualified foreign workers of Eastern nationalities are working in the U. S. S. R.

Experience has shown that the overwhelming majority of foreign workers and specialists from the very beginning of their work in the Soviet Union have identified themselves with Soviet workers and their ideals, and taken an active interest in the rapid growth and tempo of construc-

tion. Many facts might be cited to prove this.

In the Mines "Brianka" and "Novaya Ekonomka" (in the Donetz Basin) the foreign workers have organized their own shock brigades and drafted their own industrial plan.

In the Schelkovsky chemical plant, the foreign workers have made fundamental changes in the productive processes, resulting in a 100 per cent increase in the productivity of labor.

German bricklayers working in the city of Tambov established a record for brick laying twice as high as that accepted as the average for Soviet building.

Czech cement workers employed in the construction of a metallurgical plant in Lysv in the Urals, taught their Russian fellow workers better methods of work. As a result, production was more than doubled. These foreign workers participated in socialist competition and organized shock brigades.

New forms of labor organization are being created among the foreign workers. For example, in the mine "Amerikanka" (in the Donetz Basin) on the initiative of foreign workers a production group of thirty-five members was organized, with the result that the production plan was exceeded by five per cent.

Constructive Help of Foreign Specialists

Foreign engineers display great energy in their work. For example, the German engineer Prall, working in the Podolsky machine-building plant near Moscow, presented sixty-five proposals for rationalizing production processes. Another German engineer, Gerbhardt, employed in the "Dynamo" plant, introduced rationalization measures which saved the plant over $7,500 a year.

Such examples of the interest taken by foreign workers and specialists in construction in the U. S. S. R. could be multiplied indefinitely. A very good illustration is the proposal of the American, Becker, working in the Stalingrad tractor plant, for the organization of a society for cultural and technical aid to Soviet construction. His proposal has already met with approval among foreign specialists and workers.

Cultural and educational work among foreign workers and specialists has recently developed considerably. In many localities special schools for foreigners have been organized for the study of the Russian language. The necessary literature has been provided for foreigners, and in the more important centers where there are large numbers of foreign workers, twenty-six libraries containing German and English books have been established. In many industries and clubs international evenings and evenings for social intercourse among foreign and Soviet workers have been organized. In some localities the foreigners issue their own wall newspapers and have their cultural and educational corners. Many foreign workers have joined various societies in the U. S. S. R., such as "Likbez" (the society for the liquidation of illiteracy), "Friends of the Children," etc. In Donetz Basin, in two mines "Yunie Communar" and "Amerikanka," foreign workers have subscribed more than $2,500 to the "Five-Year Plan in Four" loan.

All these facts show that in the great majority of cases foreign workers and specialists actively participated in the social life of the U. S. S. R. The Soviet workers show them special attention everywhere striving to create for them satisfactory material and cultural living conditions. The Soviet Government pays the greatest attention to the opinions of the foreign specialists and workers, inviting them to expose and remove any shortcomings which they find in industry, and many statements from the foreign specialists criticizing methods and so on have been printed in the Soviet press.

Americans on the Grain Farms

During 1930 forty American mechanics were invited to work as instructors in the State farms of the Zernotrest. The results of their work have been highly satisfactory. In view of the increased number of State farms to be developed during the coming year, the Zernotrest has invited forty more Americans to work on the State farms during the coming year. Contracts for two years are concluded with the Americans. Instructions have been sent out to all directors of the State farms to provide the best possible living conditions for the American specialists.

Foreigners in Soviet Elections

A special campaign has been carried on to urge the foreign workers and specialists in the Soviet Union to take part in the elections which are being held in January, since according to the constitution foreigners residing and working in the Soviet Union have full right to take part in the political life of the country, and may both vote and be elected to the Soviets.

Chuknovsky's Arctic Flight

CHUKNOVSKY, the well-known Soviet flyer who participated in the Nobile rescue, will attempt this winter to establish airplane communication with the northernmost towns of Siberia.

CHUKNOVSKY

Chuknovsky outlines his plans in an article in the "Komsomolskaya Pravda" for December 11. He begins by describing the isolation of these northern points, the farthest of them cut off from civilization for nine months of the year by a frozen ocean.

"The growth of the economic power of the Soviet Union," he writes, "has commenced to draw the far North within the sphere of its influence. But its isolation for three-quarters of the year, its tremendous expanse, the absence of any means of communication, the lack of roads, and the hopelessness of establishing even radio communication have hindered its inclusion in the general program of expansion. The airplane is, and will remain for a long time to come, the only feasible means of communication with the North.

"The Soviet civil aviation societies have decided to undertake the establishment of regular air communication with the Soviet North by the beginning of next year.

"For the present flight a powerful twelve-passenger, tri-motored metal monoplane has been provided by the All-Union Civil Aviation Society. Within a few days the preparation and testing of this machine will commence. In the middle of January we will begin our flight to the North. The plane will follow the route from Moscow to Sverdlovsk, Novosibirsk and on to Igarka, 200 miles within the Arctic Circle, at the mouth of the Yenisei River. The main problem of the flight will be to determine the possibility of regular winter communication with the North, and also to establish the capacity of the Soviet airplane under the difficult Arctic conditions. The flight will undoubtedly help us to discover both the good points of the machine, and the weak points which require further improvement.

"Igarka, a new industrial town with sawmills and a big fur industry, will be used as a base for further explorations. From there we will chart routes to Dixon Island, and if weather conditions permit, to Kamenev Island, and to the winter camps of North Land. On this flight the first attempt will be made to establish a regular service, carrying men and supplies to the outermost posts and bringing back furs and other products.

"The airplane must help in the present stage of the development of the North. We, Soviet pilots, working on this side of the Arctic circle, are ready to put all our ability, energy and strength into this venture, because we believe that the whole Soviet public will support us in the creation of an Arctic aviation center. The Soviet north will be linked with the whole economic system of the country. Contact!"

Chuknovsky made Arctic flights last summer, as chief of the air squadron of the Kara Sea expedition, and charted routes for the present attempt. He flew from Irkutsk last July and made observations along the Yenisei and Angara rivers. Great stretches of unexplored forests were photographed, and a large part of the Kara Sea itself was covered in the flights. Thanks to the scouting work of the airplanes the ships of the expedition were able to proceed without the help of ice-breakers, as has never before been possible, and forty-six ships were able to navigate where only twenty-six had been able to get through the year before. The expedition visited Minin Island, west of Taimyr Island, which is said not to have been visited for over two hundred years.

Although the work of the airplanes was greatly hindered by fog and snow, there was not a single accident or forced landing during the whole trip.

TWO AVIATRICES OF THE MOSCOW FLYING SCHOOL

Developing Natural Resources

Coal

THE coal reserves of the Soviet Union amount to about 556,000,000,000 tons. Of this 400,000,000,000 tons are in the Kuznetsk Basin in Siberia, 68,000,000,000 tons in the Don Basin, and 58,000,000,0000 tons in the Irkutsk Basin.

The U. S. S. R. now ranks fourth country in the world in coal output. The development of fifty-seven new mines has been undertaken during the past few years, at a construction cost of $231,750,000. The growing needs of Soviet industries and railroads make the question of coal especially vital, and the plan for 1931 provides for the construction of several score of new mechanized mines as well as the reconstruction of the old mines. The output is expected to amount to 75,000,000 tons. According to the new draft of the five-year plan for the coal industry the annual output is to be increased to 125,000,000 tons by 1933.

Peat

The U. S. S. R. contains 78 per cent of the world's peat supplies. The European part of the Soviet Union alone has 69,160,000 acres of peat deposits, the annual increment of which amounts to 370,500,000 cubic yards. There are peat deposits in almost every part of the Soviet Union.

In addition to the State organizations for the production of peat there are about 1,000 peat cooperatives. The program for the peat industry for 1931 calls for 14,000,000 tons, nearly twice as much as the output for 1930.

Iron Ore

Preparatory work has been started in the Kamysh-Burun district south of Kerch, in the Crimea, for the exploitation of the vast deposits of iron ore in this region. The supplies of this district amount to 420,000,000 tons and contain 160,000,000 tons of iron. A large mine, a factory and a port for export will be constructed in Kamysh-Burun. Over $80,000,000 has been assigned for the organization of this mining district.

Radium

A uranic combination containing radium has been discovered in the district of Gandja in Azerbaidjan. The Azerbaidjan State Scientific and Research Institute has despatched a special expedition to the region to carry on more detailed exploration. Rich reserves of iron, copper, aluminum and potash have also been found in this region. New metallurgical plants are being constructed to work up these minerals.

Molybdenum

New deposits of the rare mineral, molybdenum, have been discovered near the glacier Tuskupruktai in Kazakstan. The mineral will be used in the production of medical instruments and in the steel smelting industry.

Pamir Expedition

The Pamir Expedition of the Chief Geological Exploring Institute has returned to Leningrad after having explored the Eastern and Western regions of the Pamir plateau.

The expedition discovered the largest deposits of lapis-lazuli in the U. S. S. R., and thoroughly explored the lead and silver deposits of the Aligury district. The expedition also collected rich ethnological material, including specimens of the pottery and folklore of the Shugnany tribe.

Precious Minerals

The Sherlovaya Mountain in Buriat-Mongolia represents a mineral museum in the richness and variety of its deposits. In its depths have been found wolfram, pewter, molybdenum, tpaz, bismuth, fluor-spar and aquamarine.

Salt, Lime, Borax

During the past year rich deposits of rock salt and of lime have been found in the Kansk district of East-Siberia. Huge reserves of borax have also been discovered.

Graphite

Large quantities of graphite have been found along the shores of the Amur River. It is estimated that the deposits amount to over 500,000,000 tons altogether.

Power in the U. S. S. R.

WHEN the plan for the electrification of the Soviet Union was first drafted in 1921, on Lenin's initiative, it was proposed that within ten or fifteen years thirty regional electrical power stations with a total capacity of 1,500,000 kilowatts should be constructed. In 1930, just nine years after the drafting of the original plan, the capacity of the regional power stations reached 1,300,000 kilowatts, and by the end of 1931 the capacity of the stations will exceed 2,000,000 kilowatts. During the coming year it is proposed to commence the construction of electric power stations with a total capacity of 5,000,000 kilowatts.

Dnieper Power Station

The construction of the Dnieper hydro-electrical station, the capacity of which is estimated at 558,000 kilowatts, making it the largest power scheme in Europe, is proceeding rapidly. On December 4 the last hydro-technical operations were completed, 650,000 cubic yards of concrete having been laid during the building season of 1930. This figure, according to the testimony of the American engineer in charge of the project,

Colonel Hugh L. Cooper, represents a world record, and insures the completion of the station by May 1, 1932.

Electrification of Ural and Siberian Regions

Extensive construction of electrical power stations in the Ural and Siberian Regions has been projected for 1931. The main object of this construction is to create a strong power base for the Ural-Kuznetsk Coal Metallurgical Combine. Over $80,000,000 has been assigned for this construction work. The new power stations will serve the Magnitogorsk and Kuznetsk metallurgical giants and their coal stations, the Kuznetsk, Kizelovsk and Kemerovsk basins.

ELECTRICITY FOR THE NOMADS OF THE KARA-KUM DESERT

Tver Power and Industrial Combine

The State Peat Trust has completed a project for the construction, near Tver, of a gigantic power and industrial combine which will unite forty-one different industries including peat, chemicals, iron, food, silicates, leather, and so on. A powerful electrical station with a capacity of 421,000 kilowatts will also be constructed in this district. The power station will be run by peat to be obtained from the vast local marshes, and will serve all the industries in the combine with power. A huge farm covering an area of almost a million acres will also be included in the combine. The construction of the combine will come to over half a billion dollars.

Housing in Leningrad

HOUSING in Leningrad has been reorganized along new lines. Before the revolution special attention was directed toward the laying out of the central districts of the city, where private homes, palaces and beautiful buildings were erected. The outskirts of the city, where in the main the workers lived, were entirely neglected.

Now, as has been the case since the existence of the Soviet régime, special attention is given to housing construction in the working class districts. In 1925, in the first year of organized construction, housing space was increased by 428,000 square feet of new construction. In 1927 1,498,000 square feet were added, in 1928, 2,782,000 square feet, in 1929 the same number, and in 1930, 3,531,000. In other words, during the last six years housing space in Leningrad has been increased by over eleven million square feet.

Housing construction is concentrated especially in the vicinity of big plants and factories; around them entire workers' cities and settlements are growing up. A new city for textile workers on Bateninaya Street, numerous dwellings in the Palevsky section, in Volodarsky district, a workers' town in Vyborsky district, a workers' settlement for the Putilov plant and others—such are the new working class centers of Leningrad. The construction of giant-dwellings has already been begun, in which life will be almost entirely communal.

In spite of such tremendous speed in housing construction, Leningrad nevertheless is at present experiencing a severe housing crisis. But this is a crisis of growth. The population of Leningrad has increased with great rapidity. It has now reached 2,200,000, or the same figure as when the city housed the Tsarist Government, before the war. The new housing construction cannot yet keep pace with the growth of the population. However, in the next two or three years it is hoped that the housing crisis will be completely overcome. Construction, according to the plan, will proceed at such a pace that it will outstrip even the maximum growth of population possible during those years. In 1931, 1932 and 1933 it is planned to build about forty-three million square feet of housing, an increase of 25 per cent over the present housing space in Leningrad. The construction plan includes new workers' cities in Narvsky district and in the Moscow, Volodarsk, Vassilevo-Ostrovsk, Petrograd and Vyborsk districts. This construction work will cost about $250,000,000. Each town is calculated for a population of from fifteen to a hundred thousand and will also be a complete organizational unit within itself. It will include a unified cultural life: children's nurseries, community kitchens, mechanized laundries, dining rooms, libraries, clubs, distribution stores, schools, etc.

Engineers' Trial Concluded

ON December 7, the trial of the eight engineers accused of being the leaders in a widespread plot for the overthrow of the Soviet Government and the setting up of a military dictatorship through an uprising at home and foreign intervention, prepared for by widespread damaging activities over a number of years within Soviet industries, came to an end. All of the accused were convicted. Sitnin, Kuprianov and Ochkin were sentenced to ten years in prison and loss of citizenship rights for five years and confiscation of property. The others—Ramsin, Kalinnikov, Fedotov, Charnovsky and Larichev were sentenced to be shot and their property confiscated.

Appeal for Clemency Granted

The condemned men immediately appealed for clemency to the Central Executive Committee. The next day the commutation of the sentences to various prison terms, was announced. In the decree announcing the commutation the following reasons were given for granting clemency to the condemned men:

"1. That the condemned not only confessed and repented of the crimes committed by them, but by their testimony at the preliminary and court investigations disarmed and disclosed the counter-revolutionary organization which acted as the agency and executed the instructions of interventionist and military circles of France, and of the 'Torgprom'—an organization composed of former wealthy Russian magnates in Paris;

"2. That the Soviet Government cannot be guided in its actions by feelings of vengeance, especially with regard to repentant and confessed criminals now rendered completely harmless."

On this basis the death sentences of Ramsin, Charnovsky, Kalinnikov, Larichev and Fedotov were commuted to ten years imprisonment with loss of rights and confiscation of property, and the sentences of ten years imprisonment given the others were reduced to eight years.

A large part of the trial, which opened on November 25th, was devoted to the detailed confessions of the prisoners each of whom described fully his part in the wrecking activities and plans for foreign invasion and internal revolt. On the basis of their own confessions and the further details of the ramifications of the plot brought out during the questioning, State Prosecutor Krylenko demanded the highest measure of social protection—execution—for all of the accused.

In drawing up its sentence the court described the activities of which Ramsin had been found guilty as follows:

In the first half of 1927 Ramsin joined the counter-revolutionary organization of the so-called "Engineering Centre" and participated actively in the organization of a counter-revolutionary party known as the "Industrial Party," subsequently becoming the head of the Central Committee of this organization, a position which aimed at the direct overthrow of the Soviet Government by means of military intervention.

Summary of Ramsin's Activities

For this purpose as well as to prepare directly for intervention Ramsin:

(a) entered into contacts in the name of the Industrial Party with the White émigré centre of former owners located in Paris (Torgprom);

(b) formed contacts with interventionist circles in France, establishing regular communications through certain individuals, known as "K." and "R." in French service in Moscow;

(c) arranged for the systematic financing of the Industrial Party by the Torgprom and the above-mentioned circles;

(d) prepared, jointly with the above-mentioned leading circles and the Torgprom, a detailed plan for intervention against the U. S. S. R. and, in the name of the Promparty, agreed to dismember the territory of the U. S. S. R.;

(e) organized and conducted systematic sabotage in various branches of national economy in the U. S. S. R. for the same purposes;

(f) organized the preparation of subversive acts to which end corresponding groups were formed; in addition, personally drew up a plan for subversive activity in the field of power supply;

(g) maintained regular contacts with "R." and "K." in the French service (in Moscow), giving them information of an espionage character to and receiving instructions from them in verbal and written form;

(h) organized and effected the distribution of sums of money received from abroad for the criminal activities of the Industrial Party.

The other men were also found guilty of wrecking and subversive activities and espionage directed toward the overthrow of the Soviet Government by means of armed intervention. Their efforts to disrupt the Five-Year Plan, to disorganize industry through retarding production, preventing the acquisition of raw materials, investing huge sums of money needlessly, deliberately giving out incorrect figures and estimates, as well as their direct negotiations with foreign groups for armed intervention were given in detail in the sentences, which were printed in full in the Soviet press.

* * *

Some confusion has arisen over the fact that a man named Riabushinsky was mentioned fre-

quently in the course of the confessions as one of the White émigrés taking an active part in the plot, and that a man named Riabushinsky died in 1924. Certain sections of the press made much of this, offering it as an indication that all the other evidence should be discredited.

The man who died in 1924, however, was P. P. Riabushinsky, and the man referred to in the trial was his brother, Vladimir Riabushinsky. The latter is alive and lives in Paris. Last summer he wrote an article urging armed intervention in Russia, which was printed in the émigré newspaper "Vozrozhdenie," No. 1861, for July 7, 1930.

The confusion of the two men was brought out during the trial by Fedotov, who said that he himself had been confused when the name Riabushinsky was first mentioned to him in connection with the plot, since the initials of the dead man had been used by mistake in speaking of the present Riabushinsky, whereas the man referred to was Vladimir Riabushinsky.

Foreign Relations

The Soviet Union and the Disarmament Parley

AT the opening sessions of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission at Geneva, Maxim Litvinov, Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U. S. S. R., spoke at length in English urging that in view of the increasing gravity of the world situation, the commission should change its ways and widen instead of continuing to restrict the scope of disarmament. Chairman Loudon ruled that the French translation of the speech would not be made immediately, as required by the rules, but later in writing, since it had been decided to have no "general discussion." Over sixty correspondents left the council room in protest against this ruling and did not return until provided with the written translation prepared by the Soviet delegation. Subsequent attempts of the Soviet delegation to obtain real action on the question of disarmament proved futile. Even when Mr. Litvinov finally succeeded in having the word "reduce" added to the commission's resolution to limit naval armament, this was hastily qualified by the addition that they would reduce only "as far as possible," the first sentence of the naval chapter as finally adopted thus reading: "The high contracting parties agree to limit and as far as possible to reduce their naval armaments."

The French delegation had proposed that the phrase read "reduce if possible," but on Mr. Litvinov's suggestion that in that case the name of the commission should be changed to "Preparatory Commission for the Limitation of Armament if Possible" the French motion was changed to read "as far as possible."

On November 24 Mr. Litvinov left Geneva and the same day conferred with Dino Grandi, Italian Foreign Minister, at Milan. Anatole Lunacharsky remained at Geneva as the head of the Soviet delegation.

Interview With Litvinov

In a statement given to the press in Berlin on November 27, Mr. Litvinov gave the reasons for his departure from Geneva, and also for his journey to Milan. In answer to the question as to why he had left the Preparatory Commission of the Disarmament Conference in Geneva before the termination of the sessions, Mr. Litvinov declared:

"I stated my reasons in my last speech before the commission prior to my departure. The Soviet delegation took a most active part in the work of the commission, as long as there was the slightest hope that the contents of the so-called draft convention on disarmament would have a real significance. But all hope disappeared when the Soviet amendments were rejected and the commission passed the second reading of the article bearing directly on the limitation of armaments. It became absolutely clear to us that the draft projects of the convention, on which the commission, representing thirty governments, has wasted five years, might in their present form have been drawn up just as well within a week by a few well-meaning government officials and that they might be used rather as an argument against disarmament than for the actual curtailment of armaments. At present the commission is busily engaged with the question of what is termed 'publicity' and 'the exchange of information.' There is every reason to fear that at least some of the delegations intend to substitute a system of mere publicity for disarmament. But publicity in itself is not only powerless to check the competition between the powers in respect to armaments, but might even become the initiator of such competition, should the coming conference adopt any measures likely to restrict

armaments. The commission is hastily legalizing exceptions to such measures and violation of the convention. Proposals have been made at the commission by which any government need only declare that it considers itself in danger in order to have the rules of the convention suspended in its favor. Should such proposals be adopted the Soviet Union would be exempt in advance from any obligations imposed by the convention. For the U. S. S. R. does not merely feel itself threatened, but these dangers grow daily and are publicly discussed in the press, and indisputable objective proof of their existence is available.

Soviet Desires Real Disarmament

"The Soviet Union, however, does not demand for itself any exemption and is prepared to carry out steadfastly and conscientiously and on an equal basis with other countries any obligations imposed for the realization of the limitation of armaments. The general impression the Soviet delegation received during the work of the commission was that certain powers, occupying a dominant position in the world, because of the superiority of their armaments as regards both quality and quantity and trying to maintain and extend their domination, have decided not to reduce their armed strength on any account. Instead of exposing such a state of affairs and bringing it to the attention of the public, the commission has concealed it and, taking the line of least resistance, is striving for an imaginary agreement, based on those very delegations which represent the tendency to prevent disarmament, which I have just referred to. But no agreement has been arrived at because of private differences between the dominant nations. Therefore, the difficulties encountered by the commission have not been overcome, but remain a heritage for a future conference. Of course, there can be no hope of any kind of disarmament or limitation of armaments if the delegations to that conference come primed with instructions similar to those of the delegates to the Preparatory Commission. If the conference had wanted to prepare for the International Disarmament Conference, it should have appointed a new commission to begin with, which might refuse to be a pretext for the further postponement of the question of disarmament."

Conference with Grandi

In respect to his journey to Milan Mr. Litvinov said: "Mutual relations between the Soviet Union and Italy have been maintained and strengthened over a period of seven years. This fact necessitated an exchange of opinions between the leaders of the foreign policy of both countries in respect of these relations and other international problems of mutual interest. In view of the fact that the foreign ministers of European countries meet every year and even oftener, no unusual importance should be attached to a meeting between the Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U. S. S. R. and the leaders of the foreign policy of those countries which maintain not merely formally correct, but actual normal diplomatic and economic relations with the Soviet Union.

"Such meetings could be disconcerting only to those who are endeavoring to isolate and weaken the Soviet Union, or other governments, under the pretense of a desire for peace. They talk of Pan-Europe and at the same time criticize an attempt at a rapprochement between two European countries! The love of peace on the part of the Soviet Government is based on indisputable facts, and any meetings between the Soviet and other governments are solely in the service of peace. Real friends of peace can only welcome such meetings."

Note of Lunacharsky

On December 4 Mr. Lunacharsky, on behalf of the Soviet delegation to the Preparatory Disarmament Conference at Geneva, sent the Chairman of the commission the following note, in response to the request that each delegation present its suggestions in written form to be included in the report of the commission.

"Inasmuch as the U. S. S. R. is not a member of the League of Nations, the Soviet Government is participating in the work of the commission without undertaking any obligations with regard to the League of Nations. In view of this the delegation cannot adhere to the report presented by the commission to the Council of the League of Nations. However, considering on the one hand that the report is a document which will receive wide publicity, and on the other that it is designed for the needs of the future disarmament conference, the Soviet delegation asks that the present note and the enclosed memorandum setting forth the point of view of the Soviet delegation on the different sections of the draft, be attached to the report. This memorandum covers all the reservations made by the delegation up until the present with regard to the different sections of the draft since these reservations possibly do not appear in their proper places in the report of the commission."

Soviet Memorandum to Disarmament Commission

The text of the memorandum of the Soviet delegation is as follows:

True to the basic principles of the foreign policy of the Soviet Government, the Soviet delegation has taken the most active part in the work of the commission, actuated by a steadfast desire to effect really substantial measures for the reduction of all types of armament, in order to decrease even slightly the possibility of war breaking out.

I. With this fundamental problem as the basis, the Soviet delegation, in the very first period of its participation in the commission, introduced a proposal for immediate general disarmament. This proposal was rejected at the fifth session of the commission.

At that time, the commission did not quote a single argument of any weight against the Soviet proposal; it merely stated that its members had almost unanimously agreed that the project could not be accepted as a basis for their work, which would be conducted along the lines already marked out. In rejecting the Soviet project, the commission was rejecting the only effective guarantee of peace; at the same time, it openly declared that the Statutes of the League of Nations do not permit complete disarmament.

II. In an attempt to obtain at least some measure of disarmament, the delegation, while not rejecting its initial project, introduced a new draft convention for the reduction of armaments. After its first proposal was rejected, the Soviet delegation reckoned that the great majority of the commission considered the Soviet project of general complete disarmament antithetic to the idea of partial and gradual disarmament.

In its resolution of April 19, 1929, the commission rejected all three principles set forth by the Soviet delegation, thus proving the absence of any desire on its part to take a course leading to a real and substantial reduction of armaments.

III. The Soviet project for the reduction of armaments is based on three principles which at the same time are the fundamental principles for all real reduction. They were announced by the Soviet delegation on April 17th, 1929, and are as follows:

Soviet Reduction Principles

1. Existing armaments must be substantially reduced.

2. This reduction is to be based upon the principle of proportion or upon some other equally objective criterion which would also permit certain concessions in favor of less important and smaller countries.

3. Numerical coefficients for the reduction of armaments must be fixed in the draft.

IV. The successive rejection by the commission of two Soviet projects, one for complete disarmament, the other for reduction of armaments, might have served as sufficient grounds for a decision to withdraw from the commission. However, aiming to continue its efforts to obtain some palpable results from the commission and, on the other hand, not wishing to give anyone cause to ascribe the manifest failure of the commission to lack of participation on the part of the Soviet Government, the Soviet delegation continued to take part in the commission.

V. In taking part in the discussion of the plan proposed by the commission itself, the Soviet delegation attempted by means of concrete amendments and additions to make this plan at least approach the idea of some kind of a draft convention for the reduction of armaments. Unfortunately the overwhelming majority of the commission, systematically rejecting the proposal of the Soviets and following invariably the line of least resistance, deprived the project, which had contained no figures to begin with, of any significance whatever; at the same time the commission covered up and justified by this project the retention and the increase in existing armaments.

Soviet Objections to Draft Convention

VI. The Soviet delegation deems it necessary to formulate the following most important and most general and concrete objections to the draft:

1. The Soviet Delegation objects to the ambiguous formula of the first article "on the limitation and reduction as far as possible," instead of a clear and unequivocal statement that existing armaments must be substantially decreased, and states that the accepted formula leaves it entirely possible to retain and even increase armaments.

2. The Soviet delegation objects to the decisions of the commission concerning personnel for the following reasons: in view of the commission's refusal to reduce the number of reserves with military training, which constitute one of the chief elements of armed power accumulated in times of peace for the purpose of creating the immense modern armies in times of war; in view of the commission's refusal to establish a reduction in all kinds of armies of qualified professionals — officers, non-commissioned officers and pilots, a large number of whom assures a quick development of mass armies; and in view of the insufficient reduction of the time of active service—a trick by means of which some countries increase the number of trained reserves.

3. The Soviet delegation objects to the refusal of the commission to reduce definitely the materials of land armies in quarters and the reserves in the storehouses which, with the present mechanization of the army, serve to replace a larger number of men; it objects to the refusal to abolish tanks and long range artillery as the most aggressive and dangerous types of weapons for the peaceful population; it objects, also to the refusal to prohibit the introduction of new implements of war which would strengthen armament.

4. The Soviet delegation objects to the refusal of the commission to establish a low limit for naval vessels and their weapons as proposed by the Soviet delegation, in order to decrease the aggressive, destructive power of modern navies. It objects to the extremely high norms which were cited by the commission. (Note: as is known, the draft quotes the norms of the London and Washington conferences as examples.) It also objects to the exclusion from any reduction of a large number of vessels. It further objects to the acceptance by the future convention of the Washington and the London treaties which legalized the retention of the present high

level of total tonnage and a considerable increase of the vessels; it objects to the commission's refusal to forbid the adaptation of trade vessels for use in war as military units.

5. The Soviet delegation objects to the commission's refusal to forbid air bombardment which especially threatens the peaceful population; also to the commission's refusal to decrease all aviation material in warehouses; and it further objects to the commission's refusal to reduce the amount of armament which may be concentrated in the metropolis of each foreign territory separately—a means by which the colonial powers, concentrating their strength upon one of these territories, can threaten the neighboring countries or the native population. The same objection is made in the case of the troops of all armed powers.

6. The Soviet delegation objects to the commission's refusal to prohibit the manufacture in times of peace of chemical and bacteriological products used in war, and their storage for the purpose of armament in army quarters and warehouses—a practice which makes it difficult to prevent their use in the war.

7. The Soviet delegation cannot make any final decisions on the clause which limits budgetary expenses, since the commission avoided a concrete decision on this question by referring it to a committee of experts and by not solving the question on the reduction of expenses in other branches. The Soviet delegation particularly insists that the limitation of budgets alone is not a sufficient remedy when it is not combined with a direct reduction of materials.

8. The Soviet delegation gives no opinion on the last chapter of the project, in view of the fact that the question of publicity and control of armaments wholly depends on the extent to which armaments are reduced. The Soviet delegation must note, however, that it stands for equality for all participants of the convention concerning their participation in a permanent commission, and that it objects to referring the execution of the convention to the organ of the League of Nations. Besides, the Soviet delegation objects to any system which would enable each government on its own decision to surpass the established standards of armaments, thus completely eradicating the significance of the convention.

9. The Soviet delegation firmly protests against the commission's refusal to make its final decision as to the clause which permits exemption to the Western neighbors of U. S. S. R. in case of the latter not joining the convention. In view of the fact that this point is aimed directly against the U. S. S. R., the Soviet delegation protests against the decision to refer this question to the conference, by mentioning it in the report.

10. All the above statements make it impossible for the Soviet delegation to accept the draft and the convention; these circumstances strengthen the delegation's firm decision to continue its struggle for peace and to defend at the future conference its own proposals regarding disarmament.

Soviet-Chinese Conference

THE second session of the Soviet-Chinese Conference took place in Moscow on December 4. The meeting worked out a plan for the further work of the conference and formed three commissions: (1) on questions relating to the Chinese Eastern Railway, (2) on questions connected with trade relations, and (3) on questions relating to the renewal of diplomatic relations.

On December 12 Mo Teh Hui, representative of the Chinese Republic at the Conference, sent a note to Karakhan informing him that he had been compelled to return to China for a short time and had appointed a substitute to handle technical questions during his absence, to which Mr. Karakhan replied as follows:

"Dear Sir, Mr. Plenipotentiary Representative:

"I hereby acknowledge receipt of your letter of December 12 in which you inform me of your intention to return to China for a certain period.

"The Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, sharing fully your repeatedly expressed desire that the conference should actually begin the consideration of questions concerning the Chinese Eastern Railway, and concerning trade and diplomatic relations, for the consideration of which special commissions were organized at the December 4 session of the conference, will await your speedy return and the resumption of the work of the conference, as well as the fulfillment of all the other obligations taken upon itself by China in accordance with the Khabarovsk Protocol.

"Accept, Mr. Plenipotentiary Representative, assurances of my complete respect.

"L. KARAKHAN."

Greco-Soviet Convention

On November 17, 1930, Mr. N. N. Krestinsky, Assistant Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, and Mr. Psaroudas, Greek Ambassador in Moscow, exchanged ratified copies of the convention on commerce and navigation between the U. S. S. R. and Greece. This convention was signed in Athens on June 11, 1929, and ratified by the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. June 13, 1930.

Italian Ambassador Presents Credentials

ON November 18 Mr. Bernardo Attoliko, new Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary from Italy, was received by Mr. Kalinin, Chairman of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R., and other Soviet officials. On presenting his credentials Ambassador Attoliko spoke as follows:

"In entering upon my highly responsible mission I take pleasure in informing you that all my efforts will be sincerely and steadfastly directed toward strengthening and creating still more friendly relations between the Italian Kingdom and the U. S. S. R. The unbroken and normal relations which have so happily existed between our countries for seven years are a guarantee and at the same time an augury that in the future even more than in the past our relations will develop in an atmosphere of increasing confidence.

"The whole complex of our relations will derive an unquestioned advantage from the development of our economic relations. The recently concluded agreement, based on the natural community of interests between the two countries, opens a new phase in these relations which, it is to be desired, will produce abundant results, equally advantageous to both sides. With energy and conviction I dedicate my efforts to this end as well as to all things in any sphere which may serve to strengthen, maintain and develop favorably our mutual interests."

In response Mr. Kalinin declared:

"It is with the deepest satisfaction that I have listened to your declaration in which you have rightly described the favorable development of the relations between our countries and expressed the firm and well-founded conviction that in the future these relations will undoubtedly develop in an atmosphere of growing confidence. On its part the Union Government firmly intends to bend all its efforts to continue to expand the economic relations, which have already been so fruitful, between the U. S. S. R. and Italy, and also to develop friendly cooperation in other fields of international intercourse, in the conviction that this in full measure corresponds to the interests of both countries as well as that of general peace.

"It has given me the utmost pleasure to learn that your efforts in the high post of representative of Italy in the U. S. S. R. will be directed toward the fulfillment of these highly important tasks."

Ambassador of Japan Received

ON December 9 Mr. Kalinin and other Soviet officials received the new Japanese Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary, Mr. Koki Hirota, who presented his credentials with the following words:

"I recall with gratification the days when, as director of the European and American department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Tokio, I had the pleasure of participating in working out the basic agreement between Japan and the Soviet Union and of witnessing the establishment of friendly relations between the two countries on a firm and unwavering basis.

"I am convinced that Japan and the Soviet Union will continue to live in peace and neighborly relations, each fully respecting the social organization of the other. There can be no other way which will correspond to their true and steadfast interests. Both countries may consider it a positive fact that the knot of their friendship and mutual interests has been considerably strengthened since the conclusion of the basic treaty in 1925.

"As regards the different questions of a greater or less degree of importance I presume that they may be easily solved if both sides will regard them in the spirit of mutual readiness to meet each other half-way and with full respect for each other's viewpoint. My Government has instructed me to bend all my efforts in this direction."

In accepting the credentials Mr. Kalinin said:

"I have heard with satisfaction your statement that the knot of friendship and mutual interest binding our countries has strengthened considerably since the time of the basic agreement, in the conclusion of which you played a direct and highly useful part.

"I share entirely your faith in the firmness of the friendly and neighborly relations which happily exist and are developing between our countries, inasmuch as these relations are based on the mutual and sincere friendship of our peoples and on a mutual desire to strengthen further the economic and political contacts between our countries.

"The Union Government attributes particular significance to the future development of economic relations on the natural basis of complete respect for the political and economic organization of both countries, and mutual faith and concern for the interests of the U. S. S. R. and Japan."

Changes In Soviet Foreign Service

On November 24, Adolph Markovich Petrovsky was transferred from the post of diplomatic representative of the U. S. S. R. in Lithuania to that of diplomatic representative of the U. S. S. R. in Persia.

On December 2, Mikhail Andreyevich Karsky was appointed diplomatic representative of the U. S. S. R. in Lithuania to replace Mr. Petrovsky.

On December 1, Vassily V. Sakharov was relieved of the post of trade representative of the U. S. S. R. in Czecho-Slovakia and P. S. Sorokin was appointed in his stead.

Sokolnikov Replies to "Dumping" Charges

MR. GREGORY SOKOLNIKOV, Soviet Ambassador in London, in an interview published in the "Manchester Guardian" on November 21, replied to some of the attacks that have been made upon the Soviet Government for its alleged policy of "dumping" wheat and goods into Great Britain and other countries.

To the question as to whether or not Russia has been and is dumping wheat and other goods into Great Britain, Mr. Sokolnikov replied:

"The answer is, we are not. Soviet Russia is simply reestablishing her exports of agricultural products. At present our export of wheat is below the volume of the pre-war export, and the whole volume of all our exports this year is only about two-thirds of the pre-war exports. How can any one reasonably refuse to Soviet Russia the right to recover her share in the world's export trade?"

"We are told," continued Mr. Sokolnikov, "that these goods are being dumped in this country at prices below Russian home prices and below the prices which British producers can possibly produce the same goods. The reply to the first part of the question is that it is the constant aim of our financial and economic policy to make the prices on the internal market in the Soviet Union independent, as far as possible, of the fluctuation of prices on the world market.

"Thus the peasants in Soviet Russia are paid for wheat at stabilized prices, but they are also receiving manufactured goods at stabilized prices. The price of wheat in Soviet Russia is near to the pre-war price, but the prices of agricultural machinery, for instance, which are paid by the peasants are also at pre-war level."

Not Competing With British Wheat

"As to the second point, it is impossible to contend that the Russian wheat is in competition with the British wheat. Russian wheat is of a special kind and it is used for mixing with the British wheat."

"Is it a fact," Mr. Sokolnikov was asked, "that whereas dumping usually proceeds from the superfluity of home production there is no superfluity of the normal kind in Russia?"

"It is absolutely untrue that grain is being exported from the Soviet Union to the detriment of Russian consumers. The quantity of grain which will be exported this year constituted only a fraction of the big recent increase in the grain crop. The total crop of different grains in 1927-8 was 72,000,000 tons. In 1928-9 the total was 73,000,000 tons, and the minimum estimate of the crop of 1929-30 is 88,000,000 tons. There is therefore an increase of 15,000,000 tons this year. Assuming that a fourth or fifth part of this increase is exported, the increase in the amount of grain available for internal consumption in the present year will still be very large. When there has been an increased production of 15,000,000 tons the statement that Russia is exporting grain which is needed for her own people is one that can only be put forward to create political prejudice."

A Counter-Charge

On being asked what he would say to the assertion that Russian export has a political object, and is designed to create economic disorder in the countries where dumping takes place, Mr. Sokolnikov replied:

"I say that the campaign against Soviet grain exports has itself been started for political reasons. The cry 'Soviet dumping must be stopped, because it is designed to throw the capitalistic system in European countries into disorder,' was first heard in April of this year from the Russian white émigrés who form the so-called 'Russian financial, industrial, and commercial association in Paris.'

"This organization originally hoped that the cutting off of the supply of credits would bring the Soviet régime to its financial ruin. But the reestablishment of the Soviet export trade has made it possible to develop the imports of machinery, tools, and raw materials necessary to carry out the Five-Year Plan. Now the attempt to hinder Soviet imports is made through attacking Soviet exports. In recent months the anti-Soviet campaign has, in fact, assumed a new form. The Soviet Union is accused in a number of countries of intentionally bringing disorder into the world markets.

The Granary of Europe

"I would like to add that the same people who are now attacking Soviet Russia for reestablishing her grain exports, some years ago alleged in their attacks the inability of the Soviet régime to resume the role played by pre-revolutionary Russia as the 'granary of Europe.' By the operation of the Five-Year Plan the Soviet Union is developing her agriculture on a new basis of big State and collective farms, using the most modern machinery, and is ready indeed to assume again the role of the 'granary of Europe.' The assertion that our exports of wheat and other goods have a political object represents simply a hostile and absolutely unjustified attack on the careful development of the Five-Year Plan.

"When," Mr. Sokolnikov added, "the same quarters that advocated the cutting off of normal trade credits for the Soviet Union attack our export

trade, it is impossible to take their arguments seriously. If they wish the Soviet Union to pay cash for imports they must also wish that we should develop our exports.

"If the Soviet Union were to restrict her imports consequently upon a contraction of her export trade, I will only ask how this could possibly improve the world economic situation. On the contrary, the Russian imports of industrial and agricultural machinery and other goods necessary for economic reconstruction are of great importance to every country that is now struggling with unemployment and endeavoring to develop its foreign trade."

Foreign Trade by Countries, 1929-1930

THE foreign trade turnover of the Soviet Union for the Soviet fiscal year ending September 30, 1930, was $1,066,469,210 (preliminary figures), as compared with $889,405,000 for the fiscal year 1928-1929, an increase of 19.9 per cent. Exports were $516,117,550, an increase of 12.6 per cent over the previous year. Imports were $550,351,660, an increase of 27.7 per cent over the previous year. The unfavorable trade balance was $34,234,110, as compared with a favorable balance of $27,295,000 in 1928-1929. The world-wide decline in commodity prices during the year had a marked effect on the total value of exports, which was accentuated in the case of the Soviet Union by the large proportion of raw materials among the exports.

The course of foreign trade for the past few years, with figures for 1913, shows the following exports and imports:

	Exports	*Imports*
1913	$782,851,500	$707,610,000
1925-1926	348,449,000	389,546,000
1926-1927	396,807,500	366,989,000
1927-1928	398,558,500	486,520,500
1928-1929	458,350,000	431,055,000
1929-1930	516,117,550	550,351,660

The figures for 1913 include exports and imports of Poland, Finland and the border States, then part of the Russian Empire. Post-war figures do not include exports of gold.

Soviet foreign trade for 1929-1930 by commodities is not yet available. The foreign trade by countries, in rubles, is as follows:

Country	*Soviet Exports*	*Soviet Imports*
England	238,158,000	160,000,000
Germany	214,254,000	234,389,000
Italy	47,263,000	10,305,000
France	44,705,000	33,956,000
Holland	34,350,000	8,155,000
Latvia	70,083,000	14,907,000
United States	44,579,000	280,360,000
Belgium	25,620,000	7,594,000
Japan	16,838,000	16,230,000
China	25,000,000	25,000,000
Persia	61,189,000	47,355,000
Turkey	16,507,000	9,967,000
Mongolia	16,423,000	15,222,000
Scandinavian countries	32,645,000	54,883,000
Poland	14,813,000	34,807,000
Czecho-Slovakia	5,619,000	23,593,000
Others	94,124,000	91,921,000
Total Rubles	1,002,170,000	1,068,644,000
Total Dollars	$516,117,550	$550,351,660

There were several marked changes in the trade in 1929-1930 as compared with the previous year. In the list of countries furnishing Soviet imports the United States replaced Germany in first position. Imports from the United States showed an increase of 83 per cent over those of the previous year. The total value of trade with the United States increased 70 per cent. That with England increased 67 per cent. Imports from England showed nearly a four-fold increase over 1928-1929, following the resumption of diplomatic relations at the beginning of the calendar year.

On the list of countries taking Soviet imports England displaced Germany in first position. The United States stood in seventh place on this list. It stood sixth during the previous fiscal year.

The large increase of Soviet imports from the United States came during the first half of the fiscal year. Relatively the business showed some decline during the latter part of the period.

Imports from Germany, England and the United States for the past two fiscal years, in dollars, were as follows:

	Germany	*England*	*United States*
1929-30	$120,716,000	$82,400,000	$144,406,000
1928-29	97,077,500	22,814,500	78,743,500
Increase	$23,638,500	$59,585,500	$65,662,500

Exports to Germany, England and the United States, in dollars, were as follows:

	Germany	*England*	*United States*
1929-30	$110,364,500	$123,673,000	$22,969,000
1928-29	107,377,500	99,137,500	19,827,500
Increase	$2,987,000	$24,535,500	$3,141,500

The above figures bring out some striking facts about American-Soviet trade. Soviet imports from the United States in 1929-1930 were more than six times the value of Soviet exports to the United States. While imports from the United States increased $65,662,500, as compared with the previous year, exports to the United States increased only $3,141,500. The balance of trade for the year in favor of the United States was $121,437,000. In a year of sharp declines in international commerce the marked up-curve of Soviet imports from the United States stands out as noteworthy and exceptional.

Citizenship in the U.S.S.R.

FOLLOWING is the text of the new decree on citizenship in the Soviet Union which was adopted June 13, 1930:

1. With the formation of the Soviet Union a single citizenship law was established for citizens of the Soviet republics (Art. 7. Constitution of the U. S. S. R.). Every citizen of a Soviet republic is also a citizen of the U. S. S. R.

2. A citizen of the U. S. S. R. is a citizen of the Soviet republic in which he has permanent residence. However, if he should consider himself bound to another Soviet republic, either by nationality or origin, he may elect to become a citizen of that republic.

3. Every person residing within the territory of the U. S. S. R. is regarded as a citizen of the U. S. S. R. unless proved to be a citizen of a foreign government.

4. Foreign citizens who are accepted as citizens of the U. S. S. R. cease to enjoy the privileges or to bear obligations connected with citizenship of another country.

5. Citizens of the U. S. S. R. enjoy all the rights and bear all the obligations established for citizens of the U. S. S. R. and by the laws of the U. S. S. R. and of that Soviet republic in which they reside.

6. Foreign workers and peasants, living within the precincts of the U. S. S. R. for the purpose of working, enjoy all political rights of citizens of the U. S. S. R.

7. A citizen of the U. S. S. R. by right of birth is a person one or both of whose parents was a Soviet citizen at the time of his birth.

8. When a citizen of the Soviet Union marries a citizen of a foreign country, the contracting parties maintain their own nationality. The citizenship may be changed by a simplified procedure (Art. 16) if the couple so desire.

9. If both parents change their citizenship and become citizens of the U. S. S. R., or if both cease to be citizens of the U. S. S. R., the citizenship of their children under 14 years of age is also changed. Children between the age of 14 and their majority must give their consent to a change in their citizenship in order to acquire citizenship in the Soviet Union with their parents in case the latter become Soviet citizens.

The citizenship of children over 14 does not change when the parents relinquish citizenship of the Soviet Union.

10. When parents acquire citizenship of the Soviet Union, their children who are still minors also acquire citizenship upon a special declaration on the part of their parents. In order that children of 14 years may acquire citizenship, their consent must be obtained.

Children under 14 years, of foreign parentage, retain the same citizenship as their parents, if the parents, being citizens of the Soviet Union, are dead or have lost all connection with the children.

If one of the parents relinquishes his Soviet citizenship and the other has died or is completely separated from the children, the children under 14 acquire the same citizenship as the parent who relinquishes his Soviet citizenship upon a declaration being made by the latter.

11. Children, who are citizens of the Soviet Union, and have been adopted by citizens of other countries, retain their Soviet citizenship.

12. Foreigners, residing in the U. S. S. R., may become citizens of the Soviet Union by a decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R., or of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet republic in which they reside.

A decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of a Soviet republic refusing to grant citizenship may be protested by the person in question before the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R.

13. Foreign citizens residing abroad may be accepted as citizens of the U. S. S. R. by decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R.

14. Relinquishment of citizenship of the Soviet Union is granted:

(a) By a decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union, or of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet republic in question, in case of persons residing within the Soviet Union.

(b) By a decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of a Soviet Republic in the case of persons residing abroad. The decision may be appealed to the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union in case of a refusal by the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee to grant citizenship.

15. Persons who have lost their Soviet Union citizenship or who have been deprived of it, can only regain citizenship of the Soviet Union by a decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R.

16. The acquisition or relinquishment of citizenship of the Soviet Union, in addition to the methods enumerated in this degree, may be effected by a simplified procedure, i. e., by an edict of the okrug (county) executive committee or corresponding body, provided the person resides in the Soviet Union, or by an edict of a diplomatic representative of the Soviet Government if the person resides abroad.

This procedure applies in the following cases:

(a) On the acquisition of citizenship by foreign workers and peasants residing in the Soviet Union for the purpose of work, and also foreigners who enjoy the right of asylum, on account of persecution for their revolutionary activities;

(b) When citizenship is changed upon the occasion of marriage (Art. 8).

> **Note**—Okrug executive committees and Soviet diplomatic representatives abroad possess the right to refuse requests for citizenship through the simplified procedure and to propose that such requests be made in the usual way to the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union, or of the Soviet republic to which the applicant belongs.

17. Persons can only be deprived of Soviet citizenship by an edict of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R.

Decisions of the Central Executive Committees of the Soviet republics to deprive persons of citizenship require the endorsement of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union.

18. Instructions for the promulgation of the present decree are issued by the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs in agreement with united governmental political administration and the People's Commissariats for Internal Affairs of the Soviet republics.

Status of Foreign Trained Doctors

ACCORDING to instructions issued recently by the Commissariat of Health of the R. S. F. S. R. doctors who have received their medical training abroad may receive medical diplomas and licenses to carry on independent medical practice in the R. S. F. S. R. only after having completed one year of practical medical work in medical institutions controlled by the Commissariat of Health. Simultaneously with this work such persons must pass examinations on the principles of Soviet Health Protection according to the teachings of the higher medical schools of the R. S. F. S. R. The same rule may be applied in the case of foreigners wishing to practice medicine in the R. S. F. S. R., on the basis of reciprocity.

Recent Administrative Changes

Molotov Becomes Soviet Premier

VIACHESLAV MOLOTOV

ON December 19, 1930, the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. appointed Viacheslev Molotov to the post of Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. and of the Council of Labor and Defense, in place of Alexey Rykov who was relieved of these posts at his own request.

Viacheslav Mikhailovich Molotov, whose family name was Scriabin, was born in 1890 in the town of Kukark (now Sovietsk) in Viatsk Gubernia.

Molotov has been a member of the party since 1906, and was exiled several times by the Tsarist government for revolutionary activities. Before the revolution he did editorial work on revolutionary newspapers and participated in the work of the Bolshevist fraction of the Duma.

In 1916 he became a member of the Central Committee of the Party. After the February revolution he was one of the foremost members of the Petrograd committee of the Party, a member of the Petrograd Soviet and one of the leaders of the Bolshevik fraction of the Soviet of Workers' and Peasants' Deputies in Petrograd.

In the October days Molotov, as a member of the Petrograd Party committee, was a member of the military-revolutionary committee in that city. In 1918 he was chairman of the Economic Council of the North, in 1919 he did important government work in the Volga district, in 1920 was chairman of the Nizhni-Novgorod Gubernia Executive Committee, and later Secretary of the Don Gubernia Central Executive Committee. At the 10th party Congress in 1921 he was elected secretary of the Central Committee of the All Russian Party, and in 1928-29 Secretary of the Moscow Committee of the Party.

Since 1924 Molotov has been a member of the Political Bureau of the Party, since 1927 a member of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the R. S. F. S. R., and since 1929 a member of the Presidium of the All Union Central Executive Committee.

Molotov has done a great deal of writing on Government and Party matters, and on Socialist reconstruction in the village.

The Assistant Chairmen of the Council of People's Commissars are Y. E. Rudzutak, V. V. Kuibyshev and A. A. Andreyev. Vassily Schmidt, formerly one of the Assistant Chairmen, has been relieved of that post in order to become one of the Assistant Commissars for Agriculture.

Trade Commissariat Reorganized

On November 22, by government decree, the People's Commissariat for Foreign and Internal Trade of the U. S. S. R. was reorganized into two independent Commissariats: the People's Commissariat for Supply of the U. S. S. R. and the People's Commissariat for Foreign Trade of the U. S. S. R.

Anastasi I. Mikoyan, formerly People's Commissar for Foreign and Internal Trade, has been appointed People's Commissar for Supply of the U. S. S. R., and Arcadi Pavlovich Rozenholtz, formerly Assistant Commissar for Trade, has been appointed People's Commissar for Foreign Trade.

New Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection

On December 22 Andrey Andreyev was appointed People's Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection of the U. S. S. R., and Assistant Vice-Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars. Andreyev succeeds in these posts Gregory Ordjonikidze who was recently appointed Chairman of the Supreme Economic Council.

Home Affairs Commissariats Abolished

ON December 15 a decree was passed by the Soviet Government abolishing the Commissariats for Internal Affairs of the Union and Autonomous Republics. The business of these commissariats, which formerly handled police, prisons, hospitals, marriage and divorce, citizenship rights, passports and similar matters, will be transferred to the other commissariats and to independent departments now being organized.

The reason given by the decree for the change is that the necessity for centralizing various activities having no organic relation with each other which existed during the civil war and reconstruction period has given way to a need for greater efficiency, and that the Internal Affairs Commissariats have become superfluous, since their functions have overlapped those of other commissariats.

Miscellaneous News

Jewish Colonization in Biro-Bidjan

AT the Second All-Union Congress of the Jewish Land Colonization Society held in Moscow in December a report was given on the situation in Biro-Bidjan. Biro-Bidjan is a region in the Far East covering a territory about 15,444 square miles which has been especially assigned by the Soviet Government for Jewish colonization.

According to the report two thousand seven hundred Jews have already settled there. The majority of them are engaged in the wood working industry and in agriculture. There are four large State farms devoted to cattle breeding, rice, soy beans and dairying. A considerable number of collective farms have been established.

Biro-Bidjan abounds in many valuable minerals, including iron, coal, graphite and gold, and the settlers are therefore faced with favorable prospects for the industrialization of the region with the aid of government organizations.

International Bureau of the Academy of Sciences

A BUREAU for foreign connections has been established by the Academy of Sciences. The object of the bureau will be to utilize foreign scientific and technical experience to the best advantage and to furnish information regarding Soviet scientific achievements.

The new bureau will establish regular connections with foreign scientific organizations and institutions and will publish a bulletin in several languages on the current scientific work in the Soviet Union.

Among the other tasks of the bureau will be the exchange of scientific literature with foreign societies, arrangements for participation of the Academy of Sciences in international exhibitions and the scheduling of lectures and reports on vital questions of foreign science and technique. The bureau will also serve foreign scientists visiting the Soviet Union.

Health Protection in the U. S. S. R.

ACCORDING to incomplete data of the statistical section of the State Planning Commission issued on May, 1, 1930, there were altogether in the U. S. S. R. 5,902 hospitals with 281,295 beds, or one bed to 640 inhabitants in comparison with one bed to 1,180 inhabitants prior to the revolution. Apart from the hospitals 12,255 dispensaries are functioning in the Soviet Union. Of this number 2,377 are in the towns, 9,242 in the villages, and 636 are attached to the hospitals.

During the years after the revolution a large network of various dispensaries treating special diseases have grown in the U. S. S. R. There are 571 dispensaries treating tuberculosis, 640 for venereal diseases and 45 for narcotic illnesses. During one year these dispensaries have registered 25,000,000 visits. There are also 985 sanatoriums of various types with 48,000 beds.

The protection of motherhood and childhood has made particularly great strides. The number of children's institutions amounts now to 9,788 out of which total 2,214 are consultations, 1,800 regular crèches with 67,200 beds, 315 children's prophylactic dispensaries, and 136 auxiliary institutions.

Two hundred and fifty medical detachments are working on the outskirts of the U. S. S. R. In addition 64 bacteriological institutes, 787 laboratories, 88 Pasteur stations, 183 stations for the treatment of malaria, 341 disinfection institutions, 230 institutions of sanitary education, and 44 shops for the manufacture of proteses are now functioning in the Soviet Union.

Apart from the well known Crimean and Caucasian health resorts there are in the U. S. S. R. 313 rest houses with 59,463 beds. During this year 577,900 people have been cared for in these houses at various times.

At present there are in the U. S. S. R. 92,193 doctors, among them 10,868 dentists.

Soviet Marine Arbitration Commission

The Soviet Government has decided to establish a marine arbitration commission in Moscow to adjudicate questions concerning Soviet shipping. The commission consists of fifteen members appointed annually by the All-Union-Western Chamber of Commerce.

Monument to Fritjhof Nansen

The Moscow Soviet has approved the design of a monument to Fritjhof Nansen submitted by the sculptor Lutzky. The monument will be unveiled on May 13, 1931, the anniversary of Nansen's death.

A Correction

In the SOVIET UNION REVIEW *for November, 1930, in the "Calendar of Events, 1929-1930," under "June," on page 176, it was erroneously stated that Franz Josef Land had been renamed Fritjhof Nansen Land. The Academy of Sciences of the U. S. S. R. passed a resolution at the time of Nansen's death recommending that this be done as a mark of recognition of the explorer's services to the Soviet Union and to science, but official steps have not been taken confirming this.*

Some Recent Magazine Articles on the Soviet Union

Following is a list of articles on the Soviet Union published in the past few months in American magazines. The list does not claim to be complete. Hereafter the SOVIET UNION REVIEW *will list the more important articles on the Soviet Union appearing each month.*

The Theater and Literature

"Blood and Oil," by Hallie Flanagan. Theater Guild Magazine, October, 1930.
An article on the Soviet theater.

"Writers Must Work in Russia," by Albert Parry. The New Freeman, October 29, 1930.
An account of the new Soviet worker-writer.

"V. E. Meyerhold and His Theater," by Louis Lozowick. Hound and Horn, Fall, 1930.
An account of the career of Meyerhold since the revolution and his part in the transformation of the Russian theater.

"A Letter from Russia," by Joshua Kunitz. The New Freeman, November 19, 1930.
A description of how art and literature are serving the Five-Year Plan.

Industrialization and the Five-Year Plan

"Russia's Challenge to American Business," by John Carter. Scribner's, October, 1930.
An appraisal of the working of Five-Year Plan and America's part therein.

"The Soviet Challenge to Capitalism," by Calvin B. Hoover. Harper's Magazine, October, 1930.
Professor Hoover suggests that the experimental data developed in Russia might be of significance for other countries.

"Will the Five-Year Plan Succeed?", by George Soule. The New Republic, December 3, 1930.
A survey based on the report published November 1 by the London Economist.

"Industrialization of Russia," Current History, January, 1931.

1. "Soviet Claims to Progress of the Five-Year Plan," by Maurice Mendelsohn.
2. "The Five-Year Plan Under Fire," by Henry D. Baker.
An analysis from opposite points of view of the results obtained at the end of the first two years of the Five-Year Plan.

"Building a Ford Factory in Russia," by Frederick A. Van Fleet. Review of Reviews, January, 1930.
An interview with W. J. Austin, President of the firm constructing the automobile factory town at Nizhni-Novgorod.

"The Facts Behind the Five-Year Plan," by Alzada Comstock.
Barron's Financial Weekly, January 5, 1931.

"The Five-Year Plan Needs Capital," by Alzada Comstock. Barron's Financial Weekly, January 12, 1931.

Recognition

"The Soviet Union: Question of Recognition." Current History, September, 1930.
I. An article favoring recognition by an anonymous author whose "credibility and high standing" are vouched for by the editor of Current History.
II. An article opposing recognition, by John Spargo.

"The Russian Dilemma," by S. Stanwood Menken. North American Review, December, 1930.
Mr. Menken tells why he favors recognition.

"An American Loan to Russia?", by Miles M. Sherover. New Republic, December 17, 1930.
An article suggesting a large American loan to pay for imports of materials from the United States.

"Pros and Cons of Soviet Recognition," by Paul D. Cravath. Foreign Affairs, January, 1931.

Wheat

"The Russian Bear in the Wheat Pit," by Vera Micheles Dean. The New Republic, October 15, 1930.

"Russian Wheat and Soviet Farming," by Professor Alzada Comstock. Review of Reviews, November, 1930.
A review of the agricultural situation in Russia, describing visits to State farms.

"Russia and the United States in the World's Wheat Market," by C. F. Marbut. The Geographical Review, January, 1931.
Dr. Marbut, who attended the Soil Science Congress in the U. S. S. R. last summer, discusses scientifically the natural conditions for growing wheat in Russia, and describes the development of large-scale farming.

The Engineers' Trial

"The Moscow Trial," by Louis Fischer. The Nation, January 14, 1931.
An account of the engineers' trial by an eye-witness.

"The Soviet Union," by Edgar S. Furniss. Current History, January, 1931.
An interpretation of the recent treason trial.

Various

"No Unemployment in Russia," by Peter Fireman. New Freeman, October 15, 1930.

"Grasshoppers, Soldiers and Silk Weavers," by Anna Louise Strong. Atlantic Monthly, November, 1930.
Waiting in Tashkent to accompany the troops to the annual change of posts in the high Pamirs, Miss Strong observes life in Soviet Central Asia.

"Meet the Smiths of Russia," by Helen Christine Bennett. McCall's, December, 1930.
First-hand information on women in Soviet Russia, in factories, farm communities and among the intelligentsia.

"Two American Boys in the U. S. S. R.," by David and Robin Kinkhead, beginning in the New Republic of December 24, 1930.
A series of letters from two American boys who worked their way to Russia and got jobs.

"Going to School in Russia," by Ferdinanda W. Reed, Nation, December 31, 1930.
An account of a Soviet experiment in relating the child's education to its daily life under Dr. Schatsky.

"Russia Revisited," by Ferdinanda W. Reed, New Freeman, December 31, 1930.
A medical student under the Soviets described.

"Gipsy Twilight," by Maurice Hindus.
Asia, February, 1931.
An account of the transformation of the gipsies under the Soviet Government.

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

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

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

The Bullitt Mission to Russia. Testimony before the Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate, of Wm. C. Bullitt. B. W. Huebsch, N. Y. 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.

Leon Trotsky: Problems of Life. George Doran Co., New York, 1925; Literature and Revolution, International Publishers, New York, 1925; Lenin. Minton Balch & Co., New York, 1925; Whither Russia? International Publishers, New York, 1926.

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

Education in Soviet Russia, by Scott Nearing. International Publishers, New York, 1926.

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

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

Anti-Soviet Forgeries, A Record of Some of the Forged Documents Used at Several 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.

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

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

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.

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.

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

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

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

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

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Tadjikistan

By BORIS PILNYAK

In October, November and December, 1930, the Moscow "Izvestia" published a series of articles on Tadjikistan by Boris Pilnyak, the novelist. As these articles have not only a certain literary charm but also a substance of much interest, we are publishing a partial translation of them for the readers of the Soviet Union Review. Since lack of space prevents their publication in full, some liberty has been taken in cutting and rearranging the text in translation.

Tadjikistan is the seventh and youngest of the Soviet Republics. It embraces the country known formerly as Eastern Bokhara, and the Pamir plateau. It borders on Chinese Turkestan, India and a corner of Afghanistan, and is traversed by the Tien-Shan range of the Himalaya mountains, with peaks rising eight thousand feet higher than any in the Alps. Because of the inaccessibility of the high, hot valleys the mountain tribes have been shut off almost completely from the outside world. Eastern Bokhara was formerly divided for administrative purposes into nine feudal divisions ruled over by beks who gave an uncertain fealty to the Emir of Bokhara—when they found it to their advantage. The real power in the country was vested in the Tsarist garrisons. In 1926, the first Congress of Soviets of Tadjikistan, was held and in 1929 the country, formerly included in the Uzbek Republic, became a constituent republic in the Soviet Union.

During the past five years the land has been explored and is being opened up with great rapidity. Geologists are finding a surprising mineral wealth and agriculturists already have much cotton growing in the rich valleys and on the plateaus, between the mountains.

The Tadjiks are Mohammedans, but are not of the Sunnite branch found elsewhere in Central Asia. They are in many cases Shiites, like the Persians, and between the two sects is a perpetual feud of amazing ferocity and fanaticism. Many of the Tadjiks are Ishmaelites, a branch of the Shiite sect that acknowledges a supreme head in Bombay, India. Because of the known fanaticism of these mountaineers, Enver Pasha, the famous Turk,

placed his hopes on them when he tried to stir up the Holy War that was to forge the Mohammedan world into a sword that would sweep the earth free of the infidel. Like the Emir, he left ruin and death behind him in the mountain villages. In his foreword, Pilnyak tells of finding the grave of Enver Pasha.

After a brief historical description of the devastation of the country during this period, of the destruction of Hissar, the capital, and of Dushambe, and an account of the wiping out of nearly half the population, Pilnyak enters upon his story of Tadjikistan today.

TADJIKISTAN has become the Soviet Klondike—a Klondike in act and tempo and being. A genuine Klondike! Into that land where five years ago there was not a single wheel,

Where the Stalinabad Health Department was Housed until 1925.

not a wagon of the rudest kind, a railroad has penetrated. Already it has passed Stalinabad (the former Dushambe and now the capital), and pushed on through the mountains to Yangi-Bazar. Over this country fly the airplanes today, uniting it on the north with Tashkent and Samarkand and thence with Moscow, uniting it on the south with Kabul and over Kabul with India. They fly to Stalinabad, and also to Garm, a town that still has not a single wheeled vehicle. Local report has it that when the first plane appeared over Garm three people fell dead of heart failure—two women, they say, and a man. Five years ago there was not a single road, and the inhabitants travelled on horses and mules and crossed the rivers on inflated hide bags. Today, automobile roads are already under construction, carefully engineered and forced through with tractors and dynamite—roads that will reach Stalinabad and then connect it with Hissar, with Kulyab and the interior, climbing over passes covered with perpetual snow. Five years ago in all Tadjikistan there was not a school worthy of the name, with the exception of two missionary schools, and today there is not only a technical school but a high school and college. The country had no written language; today it has one, in Latin script.

Now a final word of introduction to an account of my journeyings in Tadjikistan—a historical word. The Tadjiks, those isolated people living in olden times in the valleys of Central Asia and on the plateau of Iran, are the Iranians, that ancient people from whom stemmed the modern Europeans. They were conquered by Alexander of Macedon, by the Arabs, by the Mongols, and by the Uzbeks. They were driven into these mountains, this race from which came the Germans, the Swedes, the English, and across a thousand years they have carried a speech with basic words closely related to words used in present day Europe; they have preserved folkways akin to those found among Europeans who have long ago forgotten the source and the reason. Take, for example, the customs of coloring eggs at Easter time, and of jumping across bonfires on mid-summer night's eve. The Tadjiks, Mohammedans, belonging to ancient times and shut off by their mountains from any influence of Christian custom—the Tadjiks color eggs in the

One of the New Government Buildings in Stalinabad—containing Peasant Hostel, Theater, Museum and Broadcasting Station.

spring and exchange them, and in mid-summer they, too, jump over bonfires—"for a cleansing from filth." Tadjiks as blue-eyed as any Nordics may be met on the mountain trails. Among the most strict Tadjiks, Mohammedans, are preserved traces of fire worship. The dawn of the life of our race is still in the memories of these people.

But antiquity, untouched tradition, medieval habits and customs, these were bidden farewell five years ago. Side by side now are these remnants of ancient days and the Soviet power, airplanes and hide-rafts, colleges and veiled women. Never were there such strange fellow-travellers.

A Relic of Biblical Times

In the papers recently was the news of an earthquake in the Yangi-Bazar section of Tadjikistan, in which nearly two hundred people were killed and about a thousand left homeless.

I have been in Yangi-Bazar and in its hilly environs and, although I have not definite information, it seemed probable that the mountain village of Semigandj might be among the destroyed — Semigandj, whither I travelled to behold antiquity before it had quite vanished.

My sociological project was simple: I wanted to see a Palestine-like country with an economy like that of the earliest Biblical times. And my eyes beheld just that when I travelled to Semigandj with Comrade Niazov, the People's Commissar of Agriculture for Tadjikistan. For fourteen hours we travelled in Stalinabad heat, intensified by the fine dust from the Kulyab railroad bed and then from the tracks of the caravan of automobiles. When the automobiles could no longer penetrate the mountain defiles, we changed to horses, and the horses carried us on past noisy streams that tumbled down the mountains, and walnut groves. The hooves of the horses clattered on the stony trail. The Hissar valley was below the irrigation ditches. Broader and broader grew the way and we advanced in a cloud of valley dust. The ascent was steep and mountain springs fell in cascades near us. At last we arrived at the mountain village—*kishlak*, as they called it—where the flat roof of one house made the courtyard of another, where every sound was muffled in the rush of falling water, where there was a rustling in the plane-trees and a light wind in the walnut groves.

That was Semigandj!

With the steep ascent the air grew soft and cool.

I was in ancient times, and I was there by myself, for Comrade Niazov, a Tadjik from Darwaz, spoke Russian about as well as I speak English. In every mosque in the villages is a "fire room," set aside for travellers and for the winter loafing of the village men, a combined guest-room and club-room. In summer, however, it is better to live out under the open sky, in Tadjikistan, for these rooms are stuffy and in summer are inhabited by scorpions. We arrived at the entrance to the mosque just as the mullah was calling the hour of prayer. A dozen or so old men were falling on their knees at the sound of his call, old men in robes and turbans, blue-eyed old men whose faces reminded me of the faces of old men in northern Europe. Comrade Niazov was at home among them and, turning aside for a moment from their prayers, they greeted him. The courtyard of the mosque had been beaten by the hooves of asses and horses that spent their nights there, but under the plane-trees felt mats were spread. Across the courtyard at the foot of the steep wall ran a ditch, and beyond the mosque stretched the village with the changeless mountains hanging overhead.

A Tadjik Mountain Village.

Comrade Niazov led me into a half-dark cellar, screened from the eyes of passersby, and in the chilly room a cold mountain spring fell into a natural basin. In true Biblical style Comrade Niazov invited me to wash the dust of the journey from me, remarking that the cave was really best for owls. As I washed I felt I was in an Arabian village in Palestine, a memory impressed on me from early Bible reading.

The old men had finished their prayers when we emerged and some comsomols (members of the Communist Youth League) had arrived to greet us. On the fingers of both the old men and the comsomols were rings, and in the girdles that bound the robes of the elders were tucked fresh flowers. One old fellow presented me with a posy from his girdle as he greeted us. The street was formed by the plastered mud walls of the houses, without any openings except the narrow entrance ways. Along this the peasants coming home from their work in the fields now came riding on asses, driving ahead of them the village cattle. The women came out to meet their cows and oxen and when they noticed me standing near them hastily drew down their veils. The street, the barren yellow sand that surrounded us, the absence of windows, the mud-walled village, built without a single nail, with the roofs of one house forming the court of the next and everything

secluded from the eyes of outsiders—these asses on which the men were riding, the herd being met by the women in their all-covering veils—it was all straight from earliest Bible times.

The elders spread out mats for us under the plane-trees and we all seated ourselves, removing our boots and tucking our feet under us to warm them. The tea was being heated on a brazier and as the sun set and sudden darkness came the brazier had to take the place of the sun. Tea was poured into bowls as we waited for the pilauf. Pilauf is prepared over these fires and is made of rice and mutton, seasoned with spices. I was forgotten in the conversation, for Comrade Niazov found it difficult to translate for me and finally gave up the attempt. The pilauf was served and we all ate it with our hands. That eating of pilauf with the hands is an art, just as the handling of the knife and fork is an art of the European, or the use of the chopsticks by the Chinese. I looked about me, as I did on the following day when I visited several homes as a guest at friendly parties, trying to find any article of factory make, but even the knife with which the mutton was cut was homemade. Only the tea bowls had come from Russian or Chinese porcelain factories.

I inspected the elders and the young men as the light from the fire brought their faces in relief. There was nothing about them in common with the Great Russian peasant. The peasant of the R. S. F. S. R. is now dressed in clothing from the factories, not in homespun; he has factory-made spoons instead of scoops of bread made in flat sheets such as these people use to stir the pilauf. He has glass in his windows and on his feet are some kind of boots instead of the flat slippers of sheepskin sewed together with sheepgut that these men wear. These sturdy Tadjiks, their movements and manner of conducting themselves, of speaking, their reserve and slow dignity, the flowers in their girdles and the rings on their fingers, have a tradition and culture quite foreign to the inhabitants of the R. S. F. S. R. In all matters my companions put their emphasis on the esthetic. And the conversation, though I understood little of it, was entirely concerned with impersonal matters, with public events, with various tales and anecdotes. In the morning they would come to the commissar with their petitions, but during the evening meal there was not a word of that. Moreover, not even by a hint did the conversation ever concern the women who were hidden behind their veils and the mud walls of the houses.

Night brought with it the braying of the asses, that awful noise like a rusty motor horn. Owls hooted. Louder now sounded the falling waters. The air was so extraordinarily clear that the stars seemed to touch the mountains—such a multitude of stars that it was as if they were fast against the sky and the sky was heavy with them. And the ribs on the side not warmed by the fire were frozen with cold.

Blankets and pillows and wadded robes were brought for us.

The old men and the young bade us good-bye until the dawn, placing joined hands to their hearts in farewell, and then they were gone. We two were left alone. Nearby the straw crackled under the shuffling feet of the horses. We spread out the blankets on the felt mats and, lying down, covered ourselves with the wadded robes. The stars shone through the branches of the plane-trees. And we fell asleep like the sun and the dead times, and the passing hours were marked by the braying of the asses.

The bellowing of the mullah wakened us in the morning—and also the sparkling and invigorating sun. The mountains hung over us with cold blue summits and the air had a bitter quality, like mineral water. Our host brought us a pitcher of grapes, apples, pistachios, almonds—fresh picked that morning.

We went about the village as guests and behind each narrow gate we found a teeming world, a whole world, delimited by the mud walls. Again I was back in ancient times—I received greetings as in Bible times, I saw homes like those in the Bible, built without hammers and nails, stables as of old, cowsheds, ass-stalls, sheep-pens. I saw primitive poverty—forked sticks in the place of plows, holes in the roof in place of windows in the mud-walls, sloping courtyards with ditches, courtyards built without foresight of the need for wagons. In every house were almonds and grapes, fresh gathered, and recently killed mutton. The women, when we entered the courtyards, ran like frightened mice for the women's quarters, hiding their faces behind their arms. One is not only not supposed to see these quarters,

Three Wise Men of Tadjikistan.

but is not even supposed to be aware of their existence. I saw one young girl who had remained behind on a mat under the eaves of the terrace, her eyebrows pencilled a deep black and her fingernails painted with vermillion, as were the nails of many of the men. But of the Tadjik women, more later.

Thus I saw the ancient times.

And now the papers bring news that indicates that this bit of the ancient world has been destroyed, that Semigandj is gone, and with the village has gone its primitive economy and the barbaric human relationship represented by the harem veil and mosque club.

Hissar

In Tadjikistan seven or eight years ago the social economy of the middle ages prevailed. And I went to Hissar to behold it.

Hissar was the capital of the Hissarian bekship, the richest in Eastern Bokhara, with a valley named in its honor and the icy ridge of a glacier. The ancients wrote of Hissar. Eight years ago Hissar was a stronghold of the bek, and eight years ago Hissar was destroyed by Enver Pasha. In 1926 there were only seven families left in the town.

The first cotton seed was brought to Tadjikistan in 1926. My horse bore me last summer past cotton plantations in the Hissar valley. I travelled in the heat of the day, incredible heat. I rode past a lepers' village and beyond the village in the heat of midday I saw the hillock with the ruins of the old castle. I was alone and I rode on in the dust between the mud walls of the way. In the ruins of a garden a woman was feeding chickens and, although she was unveiled, she did not turn from me, but gazed at me indifferently. The street was empty save for a Tadjik coming toward me on an ass. The street turned and twisted, widened and suddenly ended in ruins. I was in a wrecked graveyard. A little further I entered a square containing the remnants of a medrass (as the Moslem religius schools were called). I turned toward the castle and my horse mounted the steep ascent to the fortress gate. It also was in ruins. I entered and found nothing—not an undisturbed stone, not a beam, not even a bit of wall. There were not even any weeds, not a single living thing, not even a lizard. It seemed that the inhabitants had left not eight years ago, but a thousand. Only death was there, and emptiness, and burning heat. I went out through a great break in what had been the wall. It was not even possible to recreate an image of the past. I looked down from my hill-top and on all sides I could see only ruins—everywhere but in one place, a new place, where there were a number of white buildings in European style, surrounded by young poplars. A building for the executive committee, schools, a cotton factory, all built since 1926. There was nothing to do at the fortress and I left it, making my way from ruin to ruin.

Leaving this grave of the middle ages, I rode down the hill to the State grain farm where my fellow traveller awaited me. My horse trotted briskly over the hillocks that were filled from crest to crest with the multiple odors of the State farm. The wheat was already being threshed. In a hollow in the hills I saw a tractor with a threshing-machine drawn up beside it, and nearby

Writing Home to the Folks in the "Kishlak."

a great straw stack. I think it was about half an hour before I arrived at the farm mill. At the bottom of the hill stood the living quarters, the stables and peak-roofed garage before which were drawn up a row of tractors. Irrigation ditches surrounded the gardens. The soil of the Hissar valley, by the way, is extraordinarily fertile, unbelievably—trees grow in one year here as they would in five in other places. An alley of trees already grown tall was set out in front of the farm mill.

As we set off, my companion remarked that in the spring of the previous year there had been absolutely nothing here but weeds.

The middle ages were finished.

To be continued.

Molotov Reports Progress of Five-Year Plan

AT the opening session of the TSIK (Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R.) which was held in Moscow on January 4, Viacheslav Molotov, Chairman of the Sovnarkom (Council of People's Commissars) reported on the general economic, political and international situation. Extracts from his report follow:

Results of Two Years of the Five-Year Plan

"I shall begin by summing up the first two years of the Five-Year Plan. The results of these two years are particularly important because in this period we have entered for the first time on the carrying out of a definite economic plan over a number of years—the Five-Year Plan.

"The results of the first two years of the plan may best be judged by a comparison of the economic tasks we set ourselves for that period with their actual fulfillment. In this connection I will take up four aspects of the plan only.

"First the question of our national income. According to the Five-Year Plan the national income for the period that has elapsed was to increase to 58,300,000,000 rubles (over $30,000,000,000). As a matter of fact the national income increased in that period to 59,500,000,000 rubles.

"Second, industrial production. According to the Five-Year Plan the gross production of industry controlled by the Supreme Economic Council was to amount to 29,300,000,000 rubles (over $15,000,000,000) during the period under review. The actual gross production of the industry of the Supreme Economic Council during that period amounted to 30,500,000,000 rubles, or 104 per cent of the plan.

"Third, the question of capital investment in the basic fund of the socialized sector (industry, transport, State farms, collectives, etc.), which is of special importance because on it hinges our further economic growth. The figures show that instead of 12,700,000,000 rubles ($6,426,200,000) as projected by the plan, the actual capital investment for the two-year period amounted to 13,800,000,000 rubles (almost $7,000,000,000), or 109 per cent of the amount planned.

"Finally, the question of the national budget. The Five-Year Plan provided that the budget for the first two years should be 17,000,000,000 rubles. The actual budget for the first two years was 21,000,000,000 rubles ($10,815,000,000), or 24 per cent more than planned.

The Change in the Village

"Of especial significance is what has taken place during these two years in the village—the most backward section of our economic structure. The trend of the peasant masses toward socialism, the turning of the middle peasants into the road of collectivization, is a fact of vast historical importance. This factor, which has recently become so significant in the development of our country, has prepared the way for a decisive change in the policy of the Soviet Government. Namely, the change from a policy of limiting the kulak elements in the village to a policy of liquidating the kulaks as a class. This is the most important step forward of the Soviet government since the October revolution. The building of socialism on the basis of the industrialization of the country and the liquidation of the kulak as a class on the foundation of complete collectivization—these are the main elements of Soviet policy at the present time.

Shortcomings

"But in spite of the successes we have achieved in the first two years of the plan, there have also been grave defects in our work which we must not forget. The past economic year and also the just completed so-called 'special quarter', that is, the three last months of 1930, have brought out the main defects in our economic work. It is enough to point out that the control figures for 1929-30 and for the special quarter on the growth of industrial production were far from being completely fulfilled. The plan for lowering costs was not completely carried out, either. It is true that the requirements of the Five-Year Plan for a 21 per cent increase in industrial production were surpassed, the actual increase having been 25 per cent. But the control figures, which set a still higher goal, were not reached. Our first duty is to prevent this from happening in the present year.

Control Figures for 1931

"In order to present more clearly the economic picture for 1931 it is necessary to compare the plans for next year with the results of the year just passed. For this purpose I have selected two phases: the national income and the State budget. In 1930 our national income amounted to 35,000,000,000 rubles, ($18,035,000,000). The control figures for 1931 provide that the income this year shall be 49,000,000,000 rubles ($25,235,000,000) or approximately the figure originally set for the final year of the Five-Year Plan. This represents an increase of 39 per cent over the national income for last year, (although we have been careful in our official decisions to use the formula 'not less than 35 per cent,' to be on the safe side).

"It is interesting to compare these figures with the figures relating to the growth of the national

income in pre-revolutionary times. In the thirteen-year period from 1900 to 1913 the growth of the national income of Tsarist Russia attained 39 per cent, or an average of 2.6 per cent a year.

"The session of the TSIK held in December 1929 voted a budget of 11,600,000,000 rubles. This was increased by a billion rubles in the course of the year. The budget now proposed for 1931 is 21,700,000,000 rubles ($11,175,500,000).

Industrial Development in 1931

"Last year capital investments in the socialized sector (industry, transport and agriculture) amounted to 9,771,000,000 rubles (over $5,000,000,000). Capital investments during 1931 will amount to 17,017,000,000 rubles ($8,610,602,000), which represents an increase of 74 per cent. The lion's share of capital investment will be in industry. Altogether, 7,465,000,000 rubles will be invested in industrial undertakings, including electrical stations—mainly in the metal, fuel, chemical and building industries. Investments in electrical power construction will be doubled—from 450,000,000 in 1930, to 900,000,000 rubles ($463,500,000).

"Intensified work will be carried on to complete new industrial enterprises already under way, and the value of the new industrial construction to be completed during 1931 will be at least four billion rubles (over two billion dollars). The importance of this figure may be gauged by the fact that it is almost equal to the basic capital of the entire census industry of Tsarist Russia in 1913.

"The 45 per cent increase in industrial production planned for 1931 means that whereas in 1930 we doubled the pre-war production of large scale industry, in 1931 the pre-war production will be tripled. If we consider that an increase of 45 per cent in the year's industrial production is double the increase originally set by the Five-Year Plan for the third year, then the fulfillment of the new program would mean the actual completion of the Five-Year Plan in four years.

"The share of industry in the total yearly production of industry and agriculture is also growing. In the second year of the Five-Year Plan the proportion of industry in the total production of the country was 67 per cent, and in 1931 it will be 69 per cent.

Socialized Agriculture

"As a result of the growth of socialized agriculture the share of the socialized sector in the national income is growing steadily, and from 75 per cent last year has increased to 82 per cent in the present year. In 1931 the income from the socialized sector of agriculture will exceed that from the individual sector.

"It is planned to increase the 1930 seeded area of 318,630,000 acres to 353,210,000 acres in 1931, the bulk of the increase to be in the socialized sector. By the end of 1930, 26 per cent of all peasant households (over 6,000,000), were organized in collectives. The collectives have already been able to show a tremendous advantage over individual peasant husbandry. In the rapidity of expansion of their seeded area and in their increased yield the collectives already have a clear and undisputed advantage.

"Therefore the economic plan for 1931 provides for the uniting into collectives of at least one-half of all the peasants. In such important grain growing regions as the North Caucasus, the Ukrainian steppe country, the Lower and Middle Volga regions, we count on achieving complete collectivization during the present year. In 1930 alone we more than doubled the goal for the whole five-year period in the extent of the seeded area of the collectives. In 1931 we have set ourselves the task of practically doubling the accomplishments of last year. It is needless to say that this also will have an important effect toward accomplishing the Five-Year plan in four years.

The Position of Labor

"Last year a new form of socialist competition was developed—the 'vstrechnie pyatiletka'—or meeting the Five-Year Plan from below, which in practice means the voluntary acceptance and carrying out by groups of workers of production tasks even higher than those set by the plan. At the beginning of 1931 more than half of all the working men and women had entered the ranks of the 'udarniki' (shock troops). Socialist competition and shock troops are also growing in the State farms and collectives.

"A year ago we had over a million unemployed. Now unemployment has been liquidated, and moreover in a number of sections there is a shortage even of unskilled labor. The successful introduction of the seven-hour day is another index of the improvement of the conditions of the workers. In 1931 the seven-hour day will be extended to all of the railroad workers and to ninety per cent of the industrial workers. Wages will be raised in 1931 by 6 per cent in industry and 8 per cent in transport. Wages of skilled industrial workers and brain workers will be raised as well as those of the lower paid groups.

"Housing construction will be increased, the special fund for improving living conditions will be enlarged, sanitarium and rest home facilities extended and the social insurance fund will amount to 2,138,000,000 rubles ($1,101,070,000).

"With regard to the villages, and especially the poor peasantry, the government pursues a policy of increased State aid. During the recent period this aid in the form of different types of exemptions has been extended mainly to the collectives.

"The price policy of the Soviet government forbids the increase of prices on industrial or agricultural products in State or Cooperative trade. In 1931 this fact will have particular significance in view of the fact that the manufacture of goods for wide consumption will be greatly increased,

as well as the entire retail trade turnover by the Soviet Government. The increase in prices on certain articles permitted to private traders was carried out without violating the established norm of supplies for the working population."

Mr. Molotov then outlined the problems which would have to receive special attention during 1931, namely: the fuel and metal industries; transport; food and manufactured goods for the home population; the spring sowing campaign; training of technical workers for industry; lowering of production costs. He said that the commodity supply would be increased from 11,500,000,000 rubles in 1930 to 14,600,000,000 rubles ($7,321,900,000) in 1931, and the agricultural products on the retail market would increase about 25 per cent. Production costs are to be lowered by 10 per cent in general industry, 11 per cent in the food industry, and 12 per cent in construction.

The shortcomings in planning and management were then discussed at some length by Mr. Molotov who emphasized the need for more careful planning in the future, and for eliminating bureaucracy.

International Relations and Need for Peace

In conclusion, Mr. Molotov discussed the relations of the Soviet Union with other countries, particularly with regard to trade, and the efforts of the U. S. S. R., to maintain peace, and said in part as follows:

"During the past year our foreign trade, both exports and imports, has continued to develop, and we propose a further extension of our trade with other countries during 1931.

"While noting the growth of our foreign trade as a whole, we must at the same time point out that with certain countries our trade was prevented from developing along normal lines during the past year. When, instead of creating normal credit conditions, special hostile measures have been taken with regard to Soviet exports, that could not but be reflected in the cutting down of our imports from those countries.

"But our relations with the majority of foreign countries have in general progressed normally. I do not wish to enumerate now all the countries to which this refers. But in any case our relations may be said to have developed along normal lines on the whole with Germany, Turkey, Italy, England, Japan, Persia, Afghanistan, Austria, Greece, and the Scandinavian and Baltic countries. We also hope for a favorable outcome of the Soviet-Chinese conference which should carry to a conclusion the work of the Khabarovsk conference.

"The interests of the U. S. S. R. are closely bound up with the problem of strengthening peaceful international relations. The representatives of the Soviet Government on the preparatory commission, as is well known, thoroughly and repeatedly expounded the position of the U. S. S. R. on the question of peace. However, it is also well known that the work of the preparatory commission on disarmament led to no disarmament whatever. The Soviet proposals for real disarmament or at least a real reduction of armaments, were rejected by the commission.

"The attention which is given in our country to such questions as our economic plan is clear evidence of the basic policy of the Soviet Government toward the development of peaceful relations with other countries. Our chief task is the completion of the Five-Year Plan in four years. We have all the conditions necessary for carrying out this problem within the country. The increased aggressiveness against the U. S. S. R., the preparations for an attack on the part of the most extreme capitalistic circles and foreign governments must be answered by the complete fulfillment of our economic plan for 1931, and still more decisive steps by the Soviet Government toward the strengthening of peace. The success of our socialist construction and the strengthening of the defense of the Soviet Union are inseparably bound up with the further struggle to consolidate peace, to strengthen the peaceful conditions for the development of the U. S. S. R. and other countries. We are firmly convinced that the more successfully we push forward in our work of socialist construction, in completing the Five-Year Plan in four years, the more will the cause of peace throughout the world be advanced."

Financial Report

Following a report by Kuibyshev, chairman of Gosplan (the State Planning Commission) on detailed control figures in all branches for 1931, G. T. Grinko, People's Commissar for Finance, gave an analysis of the State Budget and Unified Financial Plan for 1931. The Unified Financial Plan, totaling about $16,000,000,000, differs from the budget in that it includes all the resources of the financial and economic institutions of the country. It covers almost two-thirds of the entire national income of the Soviet Union, which is expected to reach about $25,000,000,000 in 1931, an increase of 35 per cent over last year. (For a more detailed account of Grinko's report see the *Economic Review of the Soviet Union* for February 1, 1931).

Tsikhon on Labor Problems

Measures for assuring the necessary labor forces for industry and for the training of skilled labor were outlined for the Central Executive Committee by A. M. Tsikhon, People's Commissar for Labor. The first step in the direction of providing an adequate supply of skilled labor, according to Tsikhon, is the reorganization of the

Labor Exchanges so as to include in their functions the training of workers, the planning of the distribution of labor and the finding of new labor resources.

"Now that unemployment no longer exists in the Soviet Union" he explained, "any citizen desiring work has the opportunity to register immediately on the labor exchange and receive work. Directions have been given to the exchanges either to furnish work within a few days or to enroll the applicant in a course where he or she may acquire the necessary qualifications."

In 1929, according to Tsikhon's report, there were six million industrial workers in the U. S. S. R., in 1930, 7,442,000, and there are expected to be 8,888,000 in 1931. The total number of hired workers in the Soviet Union was 14,000,000 in 1930, and will be increased to 16,000,000 during the present year. Training is to be provided for 1,300,000 skilled workers in 1931. The Narkomtrud (People's Commissar for Labor) is making a special study of industries where there is a shortage of labor.

Methods of Training Skilled Labor

Tsikhon then described the different methods whereby the workers would receive training. Foremost of these will be *Fabzavuches* (factory and shop schools), which will take in 800,000 new students during 1931, making their total enrollment 1,206,000. One hundred and eighteen thousand students will be graduated from these schools next spring in place of 44,000 last year, Of the new students entering the *fabzavuches* 400,000 will be trained for industrial jobs, 140,000 for transport, 160,000 for building and 100,000 for agriculture.

A second method of providing skilled labor will be that of promotion to higher skilled jobs within the various enterprises, for which special courses have been established for adult workers on the job. Through this method 600,000 highly skilled workers will be provided. Another 200,000 will be trained in special courses organized by the government in connection with the Supreme Economic Council, for jobs in certain "narrow places" (as the Russians call weak spots) in the industrial structure. Upwards of 350,000 workers will be trained under the Narkomtrud in courses following methods worked out in the Central Labor Institute. This is a scientific institute in Moscow where labor processes are carefully studied in connection with their physiological effect on the workers, and the student trained in more efficient methods of work.

Every effort is to be made to bring the training close to the jobs in order to avoid duplication and waste effort. Thus construction workers are to be trained on the job, agricultural workers on the State farms and collectives, and industrial courses are held at the factories.

Striking efforts are being made to rationalize the whole labor problem in every possible way. Special attention is to be given this year to the problem of seasonal workers, of whom there are expected to be upwards of ten million this year in construction, lumber, agriculture and other branches. The Narkomtrud is working out plans for seasonal laborers to be given permanent jobs, by so planning construction work, for instance, that outside work shall be done in summer and inside work in winter. The need for better housing and social conditions for seasonal workers is being provided for.

Another important point emphasized by Tsikhon was the need to make use of local populations for local jobs. If, in the past, Kaluga, say, has been known for its good carpenters, the tendency has been to send to Kaluga for carpenters, even for work a thousand miles away. In the future the possibilities of the local population are to be thoroughly investigated before applications for workers are sent elsewhere. This is to be especially applied in connection with the national minorities in each region. Since so many thousands of workers have to be trained, Tsikhon pointed out, it will be far more economical to train them in their own locality.

More Jobs for Women

The problem of finding more workers is to be solved partly by attracting more women into industry. It is hoped that no less than 1,600,000 women shall be drawn into productive work this year. In order to make it possible for women who have been engaged in housework to enter upon some type of constructive activity, the number of day nurseries, kindergartens, laundries, dining rooms and so on are to be greatly increased. This is to be one of the main jobs of the Narkomtrud and its branches during the coming year. The villages are to be combed for surplus labor, and a careful accounting is to be made of the workers in collectives, so that any slack caused by the introduction of machinery and more efficient methods may be immediately taken up in some branch of the economic structure where labor is short.

Of exceptional interest were the steps described by Tsikhon to rationalize all labor processes to the utmost, to strengthen labor discipline, and to improve the measures for the protection of labor, and above all, living conditions. Narkomtrud has taken over sixteen of the largest enterprises in Moscow, Leningrad and the Don Basin, where all of these measures are to be applied until the most satisfactory results are achieved. Then these factories will be used as models and as fast as possible the measures worked out in them will be applied throughout industry. This applies not only to actual conditions on the job, where the scientific methods worked out in the Central Labor Institute will be applied, but to the home

conditions of the workers as well. Tsikhon dwelt at great length on the necessity of raising the living and cultural standards of the workers as an essential phase of the whole problem of the correct organization of labor and economic use of labor resources. Special attention will be given, too, to the problem of better care of the machinery, as well as insuring its carrying the maximum load, and the training of skilled mechanics is one of the points most emphasized in the program for training the *cadres*.

The appropriation for the protection of labor in 1931 will be $78,430,000, as against $51,500,000 last year. Over $500,000,000 will be spent on housing (twice as much as last year); almost a quarter of a billion dollars on improving living conditions (also twice as much as last year) and the social insurance budget amounts to over $1,000,000,000. Public services of all kinds are to be improved, health and rest home privileges extended, and cultural opportunities increased.

In conclusion Tsikhon discussed plans for increasing wages and for providing special rewards to those workers doing the best work and remaining longest on the job. He also said that vigorous measures would be taken to enforce the principle of single management and individual responsibility in all Soviet enterprises.

The Food Supply Improves

THE food situation in the Soviet Union during the past year has been extremely difficult; but towards the close of 1930 after the abundant harvest a considerable improvement was noticeable. Every endeavor is being made to attain still greater success in this respect throughout the current year, and far-reaching measures are being undertaken to insure an adequate food supply. Last year the almost total absence of animal products, as well as the bad sugar-beet and sunflower-seed harvest contributed to a great extent to the general shortage of food products. Such important branches of the industry as that of sugar and oil pressing showed a drop in production of 35.9 per cent and 7.6 per cent respectively below that of 1928-29. Production, however, increased considerably in other branches of the food industry; for instance, there was an increase of 70.2 per cent in the canning industry.

Food Resources Increased

With the growth in the movement for the collectivization of agriculture during the past year, the sources of food supply were increased. The achievements in the industrial field, together with the tremendous development of collectivization have provided a sufficiently sound basis to insure a fundamental change in the food industry. The improvement which set in last autumn gained considerable impetus during the "shock" quarter (October-December, 1930), resulting in a hitherto unheard of upward development in the supply of foodstuffs.

The total output of the food industry in 1929-30 under the control of the Commissariat for Trade equalled 2,531,000,000 rubles ($1,303,465,000), whereas the program for the "shock" quarter set the output at 1,498,200,000 rubles ($758,089,200), or 60 per cent of the actual production for the whole of 1929-30 and 183 per cent in excess of production for the same period (October-December) in 1928-29.

As a result of the good sugar-beet harvest the production of granulated sugar will be double that of last year and 6 per cent over the record of prewar years.

Meat and Vegetables

According to a recent report by Mikoyan, People's Commissar for Supplies, there have been organized in the U. S. S. R. since December, 1929, 128 cattle farms, stocked with 1,012,000 cows,, 116 sheep farms with 2,680,000 head of sheep, 380 hog farms with 177,000 pigs, and a number of smaller stock-breeding farms with a total of 386,-000 cows, 456,000 pigs, and 218,000 sheep. During 1931 it is proposed to increase the number of cows on State farms to 2,800,000, of pigs to 1,900,000, and of sheep to 4,400,000, while the workers on cooperative farms are expected to raise 1,330,000 pigs.

A number of practical measures have been taken to improve the work of the fruit and vegetable trusts, and to stimulate the growth of truck farms in suburban districts.

The Fish Catch

Similar gains have been recorded in the fish industry and when returns are available for the special quarter (October-December), the increase is expected to be 120 per cent over that for the same period in 1928-29. But even a gain of such dimensions has been achieved without fully exploiting the entire possibilities of the fish catch in the Soviet Union. Through organization and the introduction of improved methods the fish catch is expected to improve from year to year, so that by the end of the five-year period it will be the largest in the world. Considerable sums are being allocated for the construction of trawl-

ers and other boats to enlarge the fishing fleet and also to provide the necessary housing and other cultural requirements in the various fishing centers. The fisheries under the control of the United Fishing Industry are scheduled to total 841 by January 1, 1932, as against 379 on January 1, 1930. Factories are being built for the development of fish canning in all its branches.

Production of Fats

The production of fats is still far from adequate and although an increase of 22.4 per cent was set as the minimum program for the special quarter, the supply will not be sufficient to relieve the situation. In 1930 the area under sunflower seed was increased, but the drought had such a disastrous effect upon the crop that the harvest did not exceed that of 1929. Hence, the increase in the preparation of vegetable oils during the "shock" quarter has been mainly dependent on cotton, flax and hemp seed oils. The area under soy beans, sunflowers and other oil producing crops is to be increased this year with the object of providing oils and fats in sufficient quantities. Improved technique is to be substituted for the wasteful primitive methods that are still employed in the oil pressing industry. Factories have been planned for the manufacture of fats such as margarine and compounds of animal and vegetable fats of high nutriment value. Already two new factories produced 3,000 tons of margarine during the shock quarter, while the program for this year sets production at 60,000 tons. Eight more margarine factories are scheduled for completion before the end of this year. Six new oil pressing plants will shortly be completed and work begun on the construction of thirteen others.

Program for 1931

The year 1931 marks a considerable upward drive in the development of the food industry generally as may be seen from the following table, which indicates the increases scheduled by the Commissariat for Trade in the main branches of the industry:

	1930	1931	
Granulated Sugar	1,736,600	2,526,800	(tons)
Vegetable Fats	333,300	486,100	"
Flour	5,904,300	9,130,500	"
Grits	581,100	839,200	"
Confectionery Branch	266,600	590,000	"
Fish Catch	1,537,000	2,202,000	"
Preserved and Canned Goods	237,700,000	680,000,000	(1 lb. cans)
Canned Fish	84,000,000	135,000,000	" " "

These figures refer only to the growth of that section of the food industry under the control of the Commissariat for Trade. In addition, quite a large amount is produced by the cooperatives. The preliminary production figures for the cooperatives for this current year are: granulated sugar, 170,900 tons; vegetable fats, 17,000 tons; margarine, 54,300 tons; canned goods, 101.4 million cans; confectionery branch, 150,000 tons.

Technical Methods To Be Improved

In order to carry out these programs not only must the available supply of raw products be increased considerably, but technical methods should be radically improved, while a vast amount of new construction work and equipment will be necessary. The old plants still in use stand in need of new equipment on modern lines and new, up-to-date plants should be built in districts convenient to those sections of the Soviet Union which are being extensively developed at the present time.

Only 70 per cent of the 637,250,000 rubles ($328,837,500), assigned for capital construction for the food industry in 1929-30, was used. Several causes may be cited for this failure to accomplish last year's program, such as shortage both of materials and of skilled labor, delay in drafting plans and bad organization. In order to make good these deficiencies the sum appropriated for the "shock" quarter equalled 30 per cent of the investments for the entire fiscal year 1929-30, or 130,000,000 rubles (over $65,000,000).

The Soviet machine-building industry and planning organizations are mainly responsible for the fulfillment of the program for capital construction in the food industry. Recent re-grouping and subdivision of the basic branches of the industry should result in more effective work and less delay in carrying out plans. Organizations in charge of building plans are to receive every assistance in securing first-class specialists and if necessary technical assistance from abroad will be provided.

The machine-building industry is expected to keep pace with the growth of the food industry. In pre-war times the major part of the equipment required for food factories was imported from abroad. At the present time, despite the tremendous growth of the machine-building industry, comparatively little attention has been paid to providing for the needs of the food industry, mainly because the demand was insignificant. But now production of equipment is to be speeded up to meet the requirements of the various new branches of the food industry. Machinery and equipment never used in the country before are necessary to equip the new oil and fat manufacturing enterprises, the canning and preserving industry, and to provide motors for the fishing fleet and apparatus for the poultry industry and similar new developments.

In conclusion, reference must be made to the great necessity of providing suitable skilled workers and to this end the food industry intends to start immediately to train workers at the various factories and make it possible for the most talented workers to get a thorough training in foreign technical institutes.

Women in the Soviet Union

Women Factory Workers Subscribing to Industrialization Loan.

IN the beginning of 1930 over 750,000 women were employed in the * census industry of the Soviet Union—or almost 200,000 more than in pre-war days. But far more important than the increase in the actual number of women workers is the fact that women are entering the more skilled branches of labor for which they have not in the past been qualified. Women's labor in Russia has always been the most unskilled and the most ill paid. A large proportion of it still remains unpaid, but there is no longer any difference in wages between men and women based on any sex distinction. Differences in wages depend only on the degree of skill. Many courses are now being held where factory women may receive training to fit them for more highly skilled jobs. Women may now be found next to men at the bench. There are women turners, locksmiths, engine drivers, engineers, agricultural specialists, tractor drivers, sea captains—to mention only a few of the new skilled jobs open to women.

In the metal industry where only the crudest jobs were formerly held by women—scrubbing and cleaning and work of that type—11.3 per cent of the women employed now hold skilled jobs. In Leningrad the number is over 12 per cent, and in Moscow 13.3 per cent. Of the 1,070,435 members of the metal workers union in the beginning of 1930, 120,960 were women. That this proportion will be greatly increased in the future is evidenced by the fact that in 1927 40 per cent of the students in the factory schools, 42 per cent in the trade schools, 31 per cent in the colleges and universities and 47 per cent in the Rabfacs (Workers' Faculties) were women, and in each of these branches the number of women students has increased annually since then.

* Census industry includes industry employing 16 or more workers and using mechanical power or 30 or more workers if there is no mechanical power.

Women in Industry

Women are also taking an increasingly active part in the trade unions. At the end of 1929 there were over three million women members of the trade unions. Of these 56,608 were members of the factory and shop and local committees. About 20 per cent of the elective posts in the local county and regional trade union organizations are held by women. Of the 773 members of the presidium of the All Union Council of Trade Unions, 104 are women. On May, 1929, over eight thousand women occupied elective positions in the trade union organizations, and 273 were responsible salaried officials.

In 1929 eighteen women were acting as directors of important industrial enterprises in the Soviet Union, and many thousands hold important administrative positions in industry throughout

In the Laboratory of the Institute of Mineral Fertilizers.

the U. S. S. R. The rank and file women workers are taking increasingly active part in the production problems of industry, and have contributed a number of inventions which have helped to simplify industrial processes and reduce costs.

Women in the Government

Through the "delegates' meetings" many thousands of women are prepared annually to take an active part in government work. The delegates meetings are really citizenship schools. One out of every twenty-five working women and one out of every hundred peasant women are elected annually as "women's delegates." They attend regular courses in which they learn about the structure and operation of the Soviet Government, their rights as women citizens, and many other practical matters touching their day to day life.

Each woman delegate is attached to a section of the local Soviet, health department, cooperative, or other government or social body for practical experience to prepare her to hold elective positions, and as a result increasing numbers of women are elected each year to the village and city Soviets and to the Central Executive Committee, the highest government body in the country. Several thousand working and peasant women are presidents of village and city Soviets.

Women in Science and Literature

Many women's names are to be found on the rosters of the scientific research institutes as directors of departments and special laboratory workers. To mention a few of them: V. I. Glebova, member of the administration of the Institute of Applied Mineralogy; M. A. Aragomirova, head of the chemical laboratory of the Central Peat Station; O. S. Prokhorova, head of the scientific experimental bureau of the Central Institute of the Textile Industry; M. P. Sadovnikova, director of the psychological department of the Institute of Experimental Biology; Z. V. Ermoleva, chief assistant of the Bio-chemical Institute; O. P. Molchanova, of the staff of the Experimental Dietetics Institute. This list could be multiplied indefinitely from the faculties of the universities and higher technical institutions.

In literature the names of Lydia Seifullina, Vera Inber, Zinaida Rikhter, Alexandra Kollontay, L. Kopylova, Maria Ershova, G. Serebriakova, N. Smirnova, Anna Karavayeva, and a number of others are well known.

In the field of adult education Nadezhda Krupskaya (Lenin's widow) and V. N. Yakovleva have held important positions for many years. V. N. Yakovleva is now People's Commissar of Finance for the R. S. F. S. R. (Soviet Russia proper). She was formerly Assistant People's Commisar for Education and head of the Vocational Educational Department.

In the field of journalism M. I. Ulianova, E. E. Frumkina and T. Artiukhina are outstanding names. Throughout the country there are 20,000 women worker and peasant correspondents.

Millions of Books

THE output of Gosizdat (the State Publishing Company), the chief publishing house of the Soviet Union, publishing more than half of all the books in the U. S. S. R., was increased by 50 per cent in 1929. The original plan for 1930 provided for an increase of one-third more, but the demand for books grew to such an extent during the year as the drive of the Five-Year Plan aroused in growing numbers of the population a desire to increase their knowledge and skill, that the actual increase in books was far greater than this and almost half a billion books were published. The need to satisfy the growing demand led last summer to the concentration of all State publishing concerns under a central coordinating organization known as "OGIZ" (the initials for the Russian title meaning "The United Book and Magazine Publishing Company), and of all distribution under an organization known as "Knigocenter."

Books for the Masses

School books constitute half of the output of Gosizdat. The next largest item is what is known as the "mass book"—a sort of primer for the public in which the questions of the day are set forth in simple language for the workers and peasants. These are the instruments through which the government puts over its campaign for "liquidating illiteracy," for increasing the seeded area, getting in the harvest, selling grain to the government, organizing collective farms, and so on. For the past two years these books have dealt mostly with the various aspects of the Five-Year Plan, explaining it to the people, and bringing them into active participation. In the first part of 1930 Gosizdat had already published over a hundred books on the Five-Year Plan, and distributed fifteen million copies. During the past year this number has been multiplied many times. This so-called mass literature includes books for every type of reader from material for the organizers and instructors of the plan to the barely literate readers. It includes material about the plan as a whole, and about the plan as affecting every separate branch of the life of the country. Over a million copies of books were devoted last

year to summing up the results of the first year of the Five-Year Plan and to explaining the control figures for 1929-30. In the spring sowing campaign of 1930, Gosizdat alone issued over twenty-five million books, whereas the preceding year all the publishing houses together issued only 2,200,000. Most of this literature came from the presses in January and February so that it reached the most far away sections of the Soviet Union well in advance of the actual sowing season.

Not only has the circulation of mass books been increased to such an extent in the past few years that it is a common occurrence to have their circulation run into millions of copies, but efforts have been made to bring the masses of the people themselves into closer contact with the actual publishing, with the idea of bringing the material nearer to their needs. Thus Gosizdat has created "Workers' Editorial Councils" which discuss and criticize not only books already published, but manuscripts. Meetings are held to discuss books, manuscripts are read aloud to groups of workers and peasants for their criticism, and book exhibitions are held in the factories and villages. The number of book stands selling books directly in the factories has been greatly increased in the past year or two.

Educational Books

The present Five-Year Plan for education has gone far beyond the original estimates. By 1932 universal compulsory primary education will be in force. The number of higher schools will be greatly increased as well. All this means many millions of new school books.

In 1928 two and a half million books were published for the "likbez" schools—the schools where the adults "liquidate their illiteracy." In 1929 ten million were published for this purpose, and double that number will be issued during the present year.

In 1928, 15,500,000 school books for children were published; in 1929, 21,000,000, and a still greater number in 1930. The problem of training new specialists for industry and agriculture has put an additional task on Gosizdat. In 1929 the output of textbooks for specialists was increased by 25 per cent and last year it was increased again two and a half times. Coincident with the growth of schools has been a growth of correspondence courses of every variety. In the first part of 1930 over a half million persons were enrolled in correspondence courses, which has meant the issuance of still another type of book. The circulation of scientific books goes into tens of thousands in a short period. Such books as "A Course in Elementary Mechanics," "Road Building," "Automobiles and Their Operation," "Differential and Integral Calculus" and others of like nature are gobbled up as soon as they come from the presses. There is a particularly great demand for books on questions of industrial agriculture, on the organization of collectives and State farms, and on the use of new types of agricultural machinery.

The Campaign for Cheaper Books

One of the main concerns of the Gosizdat is to decrease the price of books, and they have succeeded in lowering prices by more than twenty-five per cent during the past two years. The "Cheap Library" published by Gosizdat is a step in this direction. In 1929 they published in this edition, costing 50 kopeks (25 cents) apiece, thirty-four titles of Soviet and foreign classics and modern literature, a number of books on social and economic questions and a number of books for children.

In 1930 arrangements were started for the reorganization of the entire printing industry through the replacement of old equipment and the building of an enormous new printing plant, as well as two new sections of the main existing plant. This, in connection with the concentration of publishing under one central organization, will make it possible to further lower the cost of books.

Graphic Art in Books

A growing number of Soviet artists are being attracted to work in the field of books not only as illustrators but in planning the entire format—the paper, the printing and the binding. Children's books have had special attention in the past, but the new primers and readers for adults are now coming out as gaily illustrated as the books for children. Photography is also becoming increasingly popular as a method of book illustration. In addition to the millions of copies of cheap editions of the classics and of modern literature distributed widely throughout the Soviet Union, many beautiful editions of the classics have been published and more are in preparation. Classical scholars have been assisting in the preparation of the literary giants of the past—Tolstoy, Dostoyevsky, Tchekhov, Turgeniev, and others — in editions containing much hitherto unpublished material, and a number of the foremost Soviet artists are engaged in the illustration and decoration of books of this type.

Growth of Soviet Radio

A Young Soviet Radio Fan.

ALTHOUGH the civil war and intervention and the resultant economic disorganization interfered with the development of popular interest in radio in the U. S. S. R. in the days when it was already used extensively in Europe and America, the use of radio is now spreading rapidly throughout the Soviet Union.

During the last few years the number of broadcasting stations and receiving sets among the population has been steadily growing, so that now the Government, together with the trade unions, operates a total of 133 stations varying from one to one hundred kilowatts in power and including some of the most powerful broadcasting stations in Europe.

The extent of the popular interest in radio in the U. S. S. R. may be gauged from the fact that there are already 2,746,000 individual radio set owners among the population (in 1929 there were 400,000), the only limiting factor to their growth being the productive capacity of the radio industry, for as soon as the output of this industry is placed on the market it is at once bought up.

The Government is doing its best to stimulate the growth of this industry. In addition to the existing stations it proposes to start building in 1931 forty-five broadcasting stations, of which thirty-eight are to be completed during the year including twenty-two of one hundred kilowatts each. It also plans to manufacture during the year 1,800,000 radio sets which added to those already in existence, will make an average of one set to thirty-five people.

The radio fans, like those interested in nearly every other line of public activity, are organized in a special society known as the Friends of Radio which now counts a membership of more than 300,000. This society publishes a large number of special radio newspapers and magazines and stimulates the interest in radio in many other ways.

This interest is as strong in the countryside as in the city, there being 2,100,000 receiving sets among the rural population as against 646,000 among city dwellers, which is a fairly good proportion considering the division of the population between town and village. Apart from the individual owners of radio sets, every workers' club and nearly half of the 25,000 "reading huts" (the village counterpart for the club) are equipped with radio sets and loudspeakers, so that the broadcasting programs are familiar to a very large and increasing proportion of the population, and the owners of individual sets constitute a very small proportion of the actual radio audience.

New Uses for Soviet Aviation

THE uses of aviation for different economic purposes has spread extensively during the past few years in the Soviet Union.

Foremost in this field is aero-photography, which is used widely in drawing up plans and maps for agricultural purposes. The first experiments in this direction were made in 1924, and during the past year many thousands of square miles were photographed for agricultural purposes. Aero-photography has been found particularly valuable in choosing sites and in the development of large State farms. It has proved useful in construction work, in forestry, in land surveying, and so on. In Central Asia it is used extensively in connection with the cotton industry and in the building of irrigation systems. It was also found very useful in the construction of the Turksib railroad.

Aviation plays an important role in the fight against harmful insects and blights in agriculture and forestry. The first attempts along this line were made during the great grasshopper plague of 1924, but were not very successful at that time except from an experimental point of view. Since then, however, considerable progress has been made along this line and the Soviet Department of Agriculture now has at its disposal a number of planes of Soviet construction equipped for spraying crops and trees. Tens of thousands of acres of crops and forests were saved from destruction by this method last year.

Aviation has become one of the chief means of fighting forest fires in the U. S. S. R. Airplanes are used in this connection, mainly to determine by aerial scouting the place of origin of the fire. Reconnoitering of this kind is especially valuable under the conditions in the U. S. S. R. with its great tracts of uninhabited forest land.

Airplanes are also used very effectively in the hunting and fishing industries of the U. S. S. R. They were first used in this way in 1927, when they assisted the Sovtorgflot's annual hunting expedition to the White Sea. Prior to 1927 the Sovtorgflot fleet was forced to navigate blindly, its way being cut partly by icebreakers, and only a comparatively small number of seal were procured. With the use of airplanes, the work became much simpler. The planes, equipped with radios, were not only able to scout for seals but to point out courses free from ice for the ships, thus eliminating the expensive work of the icebreakers. Airplanes are now a regular part of the hunting and fishing expeditions not only in the White Sea but in the Caspian, and also in the Far East and in the Okhotsk Sea.

Airplanes play an important role in the annual expeditions to the Kara Sea which travel from Western Europe by the Northern route to the mouth of the Yenesei with imported goods and carry back lumber and fur for export. Icebreakers have been unnecessary on these expeditions for the past two years, since all the ships have been piloted by airplanes.

Still another use to which aviation has been put with practical results in the Soviet Union must be mentioned. On the basis of the fact that analogical conditions for the existence of fish obtain in the Caspian and Aral Seas, the Institute of Fisheries decided to try the experiment of breeding a type of herring in the Aral Sea which until this time had not been found there. For this purpose eggs were sent by railroad from the Caspian to the Aral Sea. This experiment was a failure, however, as the eggs did not keep on such a long journey. It was then decided to transport the eggs by airplane. This method proved successful and the Aral Sea is now well stocked with Caspian herring.

The Harvest in a Central Asian Cotton Collective.

A Giant Cotton Farm

THE collectives and State farms are playing an increasingly important role in the development of the Soviet cotton industry. According to preliminary estimates about half of the entire cotton crop of the Soviet Union this year will come from the "socialized sector." One of the largest State cotton farms in the country is the "Pakhta Aral" (Isle of Cotton) farm, organized on the steppes of Uzbekistan. This State farm plays no less a role in the cotton industry of the Soviet Union than does the now famous State grain farm "Gigant" in the grain farming of the country.

"Pakhta Aral" was organized in 1924 as a result of the decision of the Soviet Government to utilize the bare unworked land of the Central Asian steppe country for the establishment of cotton plantations. Much has been accomplished in the past six years. A number of settlements have grown up around the farm. The central one is already a thriving little town with its own Soviet, a branch of the State bank, post office, radio station, club, cooperative, hospital and school. During the first year 8,645 acres of land were cultivated, and by 1930 the acreage had increased to 37,050, of which 17,290 acres were under cotton. There are 1,600 miles of irrigation ditches. "Pakhta Aral" is a seed plantation, and supplies the other State farms with selected seeds. Varieties of cotton best adapted for that region are grown here, and extensive experimental work is being done. Its seed crop last year amounted to about ten thousand metric tons. The laboratory of the plantation is carrying on interesting work in soil study and in methods of cultivation and harvesting. The station studies the type of seed best adapted to the different localities and distributes to the different producing plantations accordingly. The plantation has a good supply of traction power—over a hundred tractors and a large number of horses. There is a permanent staff of over five hundred workers and during the picking season not less than 8,000 workers are employed. On the staff of the plantation are twenty-eight "agronoms," two engineers, three hydro-technicians, one cattle specialist, and one veterinarian. "Pakhta Aral" has organized its own special courses for training workers. Two hundred students are preparing to be future directors of State cotton farms and Machine and Tractor stations. Hundreds of students from technical schools throughout the Soviet Union are sent to this plantation for practical work. By the end of the Five-Year Plan period, in 1933, the plantation will have 160,550 acres of irrigated land, and is expected to produce about 200,000 metric tons of cotton.

Invalid Labor in the U. S. S. R.

ACCORDING to a rather rough estimate, there are in the U. S. S. R. about two million persons who have been disabled as a result of war, accident or birth. While many of them have found employment and are making a living independently, the overwhelming majority depend upon the State for their maintenance and large sums are spent annually by the Social Insurance Department in pensions to invalids.

There are quite a number of invalids' cooperatives operating under State sanction and receiving special aid in the form of reduced rents, exemptions from taxes, and so on. Some of these cooperatives organize small factories or shops, some engage in trade, some hire themselves out for special types of labor. In general, however, while the problem of general unemployment existed, little attention was paid to finding useful occupation for invalids. Now that the country is actually experiencing an acute labor shortage, the government has turned its attention to this problem and some effective methods have already been worked out for absorbing a considerable number of the invalids in factory and other employment.

In order that the invalids may be employed to the best advantage, both as regards their own health and the utilization of their labor, a Central Institue of Invalid Labor has been created in Moscow for the special purpose of studying the labor processes where invalid labor may be used, and the physiological and psychological effects on the invalid observed. The Institute is also to keep statistics of the various classes of invalids in the country and to devise the best means of employing them. It will study the degree of fatigue to which invalids are subjected during work in order that their hours of work and the conditions under which they work may be so adjusted as to avoid all injury to their health. Every possible aspect of the problem of invalid labor will come within the scope of the Institute. The Institute is establishing its own experimental shops where the various problems affecting invalid labor will be solved practically.

In addition to this experimental work, the Institute will also train invalids for the various labor processes found suitable for them, in industry, agriculture and industrial production artels. This training will be carried on partly in its own shops, and partly in the factories and farms where it is proposed to use the invalids' labor. A special branch of the Instiute is devoted to training invalids for certain branches of farm labor. For this purpose a State farm completely equipped with modern machinery has been turned over for the special use of the Institute.

Considering that of the two million invalids in the country no less than 1,700,000 are believed to be capable of one form of work or another, the importance of the Institute in the educational and industrial system is self-evident.

Conditions of the Blind

There are 235,000 blind men and women in the U. S. S. R. For their assistance the Soviet Government and social agencies have appropriated special funds to extend the number of medical aid stations, to open special schools for the blind and to give them employment.

At the present time there are 380 trades in which the blind are employed with beneficial results both for themselves and for the trade. In the "Emos" electrical motor factory in Moscow, for example, 260 blind workers are employed, some of them carrying on highly skilled jobs. There are also a number of collective farms and agricultural communes employing blind men and women.

Many of the blind have been given an opportunity to receive a university education and some of them occupy chairs in the higher schools and universities of the country.

Two special magazines are published for the blind in addition to various other literature of a scientific, political and general nature.

It is proposed to start a magazine for the blind in Esperanto for the purpose of establishing connections with organizations of the blind abroad, and plans are under way for the convocation of an international congress of the blind in Moscow.

Industrializing the Tundra

THE process of industrializing the Soviet Union has penetrated even to such remote and wild regions as the tundra of the far North.

The tundra covers a territory equal in size to two or three European countries and contains inexhaustible natural wealth. The population is made up mainly of Samoyeds and Zyrians, whose chief occupation is reindeer raising. From time immemorial the reindeer industry of the tundra has been carried on in the most primitive possible way. Each year innumerable reindeer perish of every kind of disease, or of starvation, or are killed by wild beasts. In some years upwards of 25 per cent of the reindeer herds die of epidemics.

At the present time special attention is being directed toward developing the reindeer industry of the Northern tundra. Reindeer collectives have been organized, and large State farms for rein-

deer raising are being established. A huge reindeer State farm with 75,000 reindeer is already in operation. The reindeer are divided up into herds of several thousand each with each unit having its own "zoo-technicians," veterinaries, herdsmen and so on. In different parts of the tundra bases are being developed with houses for the workers, slaughter yards, refrigerators and warehouses.

Extensive scientific work is being carried on to improve the reindeer industry. Experiments are being made in the selection of food grasses and pasture. Concrete plans are being worked out for the construction of zoo-technical stations, veterinary laboratories and experimental points.

The industrialization of the tundra is opening up wide prospects. In a number of places enterprises are growing up built along the lines of production "combinats." In Ust-Usa, for instance, a canning factory is in operation which produces upwards of two million cans a year. In Komi oblast a chamois factory is projected, with a capacity of from 120 to 150,000 skins. This enterprise will unite all of the chamois handicraft industries in the region.

Along with the main articles produced—chamois and meat—a number of other manufactories are being organized, among them glue, casings, albumen, and iron preparations. The Five-Year Plan provides for the establishment of a large number of enterprises in the tundra for the working up of local products.

In connection with the industrialization of the tundra, the fish and fur industry, which are extensively developed among the Samoyeds and Zyrians, are also receiving attention. A special State farm "combinat" embracing these two branches has already been organized.

Soviet Statement on Disarmament Conference

IN view of the discussion now taking place on the question of the chairmanship, time and place of the Disarmament Conference, the diplomatic representatives of the U. S. S. R. in Great Britain, Germany, Italy, Norway, Persia, Poland, France and Japan have made the following identic oral statement to the Foreign Ministers of those countries:

"In accordance with the decision of the majority of members of the Preparatory Disarmament Commission, the Council of the League of Nations will probably take up at its next session the question of settling the time and place for calling the Disarmament Conference and the appointment of the chairman of the conference. In the opinion of the Soviet Government, the conference may have an international significance because on the results of this conference may hinge to a considerable degree the question of the prolongation and consolidation of peace or of a new and destructive war. The Soviet Government has repeatedly expressed itself to the effect that under existing conditions the only guarantee of peace would be disarmament, or at least the maximum reduction of armaments.

"It introduced draft conventions along these lines in the Preparatory Disarmament Commission, and will again present them for consideration by the conference itself. This is evidence of the special interest of the Soviet Union in the success of the conference, and of its readiness to take the most active part in the work of the conference. In the opinion of the Soviet Government, a successful outcome of the conference is possible only on the basis of guaranteeing complete equality to all participants in the conference —both great and small powers.

"The Soviet Government is forced to state, however, that this equality was violated in the Preparatory Disarmament Commission with regard to the Soviet delegation not only by the decisions of the commission itself, but mainly by the obviously partial conduct of the chairman of the commission. In the minutes of the commission not a few proofs of that statement may be found. It required special restraint and patience on the part of the Soviet delegation, and also a consciousness of the tremendous importance with which the question of disarmament is invested by its government, to keep from withdrawing from the commission because of the tactlessness and rudeness of its chairman. The fact that the chairman of the commission represents a State which for fourteen years has refused to carry on normal relations with the Soviet Union and so, deprived of reliable sources of information about the Soviet Union, has been subject to more prejudices against the U. S. S. R. than other capitalistic countries, undoubtedly explains his conduct.

"On this basis, the Soviet Government deems that all members of the conference without exception should participate in the election, and that the chairman should therefore be appointed not by a group of powers, nor by an organization to which some of the participants of the conference do not belong, but by a plenary session of the conference itself. The Soviet Government proposes that no representative of a government which has already occupied a definitely negative position in regard to disarmament at the Pre-

paratory Commission should be elected as the chairman, and hence the leader of such an important world conference. Neither does the Soviet Government deem that the representative of any government having war industries so developed as to be of international significance and hence having an economic interest in the maintenance and increase of armaments should be eligible as chairman, nor the representative of any government not pursuing normal relations with all countries participating in the conference.

"It is a self-evident fact that no person known for his public statements or his prejudices against this or that government should be elected as chairman of the conference.

"Furthermore, in order to carry on their work successfully, all the participants must be guaranteed the peaceful conditions necessary to concentrate on the problems before the conference. Such conditions were to a considerable extent denied the Soviet delegation in the Preparatory Commission due to the hostile atmosphere created around it by the Geneva press and local anti-Soviet organizations, among which must be included the well-known international organization engaged in preparing for intervention against the U. S. S. R., at the head of which is Ober, patron of the assassin of the Soviet diplomatic representative, Vorovsky. The prejudices and misconceptions about the U. S. S. R. are naturally stronger in those countries which have no representatives in the Soviet Union and are therefore deprived of authentic information about it and rely exclusively on irresponsible journalists for their information.

"The Soviet Government therefore proposes that the disarmament conference should be held in a country which has normal relations with all governments participating in the conference."

Resolution on Return of "Polar-Bear Dead"

IN the summer of 1929 the "Veterans of Foreign Wars" applied to the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs in Moscow, through Boris E. Skvirsky, head of the Soviet Union Information Bureau in Washington, D. C., for permission to send a delegation to arrange for the location, exhuming and return of the bodies of former American soldiers, the so-called "Polar-Bear Dead," in the Archangel-Murmansk district of the Soviet Union. Permission was granted and arrangements made. The delegation arrived in the Soviet Union in August, 1921, and with the help of Soviet authorities successfully performed the mission of returning the bodies of the American soldiers to the United States.

At the national convention of the "Veterans of Foreign Wars," held in September, 1930, a resolution was passed extending thanks to the Soviet Union for the assistance rendered the delegation. The resolution of the convention, follows:

WHEREAS, the Veterans of Foreign Wars presented to the Soviet Republic a plan to bring back the bodies of 125 of our comrades who were buried in forgotten, desolate Siberia and northern Russia, and after securing the approval of the Soviet Republic to this plan submitted it to our own government, who approved the plan and furnished the necessary appropriation and graves registration experts, who under the supervision of a commission of Veterans of Foreign Wars officials and of men from the State of Michigan did the actual work of finding, identifying and preserving the bodies; and

WHEREAS, the bodies were returned to this country by the Veterans of Foreign Wars, and the said Soviet Republic handled a most delicate problem with great tact, courtesy, and fairness, and the Soviet Republic gave every assistance and fullest cooperation: Therefore, be it

RESOLVED, by the Thirty-first National Encampment, Veterans of Foreign Wars of the United States, That we express our thanks and appreciation to the Soviet Republic for the help given that made possible the return of the bodies of the Michigan Polar Bear veterans to this country, where an American burial could be given to them with full honors of war in American soil, and that this resolution be forwarded through the Secretary of State, Washington, D. C., with the request that its contents be appropriately communicated to the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, provided such action is not inconsistent with the public interest.

Recent Administrative Changes

"Commission of Fulfillment"

ON December 24th announcement was made of the appointment of a "Commission of Fulfillment" whose functions would include verifying the progress of the Five-Year Plan and the strengthening of Soviet discipline. The decree on the organization of the commission is printed below:

Decree of the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R.

On the basis of the tremendous achievements of the working class of the U. S. S. R. in the work of socialist construction, the Government of the U. S. S. R. has accepted for the year 1931 a higher tempo for the development of our national economy than for the first two years of the Five-Year Plan.

With the aim of guaranteeing the fulfillment of the tasks of socialist construction undertaken and of organizing a system of verifying the actual execution of the directions of the government, the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. consider it necessary to take all possible measures to strengthen the struggle against the defects in our government apparatus and in particular the fight against bureaucracy inhibiting the growing initiative of the working masses and the village toilers. In this the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. will be guided by the instructions of Lenin to the effect that "the center of gravity should be transferred to the selection of people and to the verification of actual accomplishments."

The Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. consider the checking up of the execution of the program and the strengthening of Soviet discipline connected therewith to be one of the most important aspects of the task of guiding socialist construction.

On this basis, the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars hereby decree:

1. To establish, in addition to the two existing Commissions of the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R.—the Council of Labor and Defense (STO) and the State Planning Commission (Gosplan)—a third permanent commission of the Council of People's Commissars, to be called the "Commission of Fulfillment."

2. The main tasks of the Commission of Fulfillment are to be: verification of the actual fulfillment of the directions of the government and the strengthening of discipline in all State organizations, including economic organizations, from top to bottom.

3. The following are appointed members of the Commission of Fulfillment:

President: V. M. Molotov (Skriabin), Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars.

Vice-President: A. A. Andreyev, Assistant Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars and Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection.

Members: P. P. Postyshev, Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party; N. M. Shvernik, Chairman of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions; T. A. Yurkin, Chairman of the All-Union center of Agricultural Collectives (Kolhozcenter.)

(Signed)

Chairman of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R.,
M. I. KALININ,
Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R.,
V. M. MOLOTOV (Skriabin).
Secretary of the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R.,
A. ENUKIDZE.

Moscow, Kremlin, December 24, 1930.

On December 28, Ivan Ivanovich Mezhlauk was appointed Secretary of the Commission of Fulfillment.

New Council of Labor and Defense

On December 24th the composition of the reorganized Council of Labor and Defense was announced. V. V. Molotov, (Skriabin) is the President, Y. E. Rudzutak, Vice-Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars, V. V. Kuibyshev, Chairman of Gosplan and A. A. Andreyev, Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection are the Vice-Presidents, and the members are as follows: J. V. Stalin, General Secretary of the Communist Party, G. K. Ordjonikidze, Chairman of the Supreme Council of National Economy, K. E. Voroshilov, Commissar for Army and Navy, Y. A. Yakovlev, Commissar for Agriculture, G. F. Grinko, Commissar for Finance, A. I. Mikoyan, Commissar for Supply and M. Y. Kalmanovich, President of Gosbank.

On December 30th I. I. Miroshnikov was appointed Secretary of the Council of Labor and Defense.

Miscellaneous News

Legalization of Soviet Documents for the U. S. A.

By an agreement with the Turkish Government the Turkish Consulates in the Soviet Union hereafter may perform notary functions with regard to all documents drawn up in the U. S. S. R. and destined for the United States. This applies both to institutions and individuals.

This decision of the American Government removes to a certain degree the difficulties which have stood in the way of an exchange of documents between the U. S. S. R. and the U. S. A., owing to the existence of a law in America according to which official documents for the United States drawn up abroad are considered valid only if visaed by an American Consul residing in the country from which the documents emanate. Owing to the absence of diplomatic relations between the U. S. S. R. and the United States, such a practice could not be applied, and a highly complicated and cumbersome procedure has been necessary for the validation of documents going from the U. S. S. R. to America. This naturally affected adversely the economic relations between the two countries. The new system of handling documents by the Turkish Consulates in the U. S. S. R. is expected to be helpful in trade operations.

Turkey has Consulates in Moscow, Odessa, Tiflis, Baku, Erivan, Batum and Leninakan, at any of which documents for America may be legalized.

Dietetics Institute Opened

A SCIENTIFIC Dietetics Institute has been established by the Soviet Government in Moscow. This new institution will undertake to work out scientific diets for workers in connection with the type of work they perform. It will not confine itself to laboratory experiments but will develop actual menus which will be used in the practical daily work of feeding the masses. Its work will be of special importance in connection with the new factory kitchens which prepare food for thousands of workers daily.

The Institute is divided up into a large number of departments. One of these is a therapeutic diet clinic which is provided with 140 beds, where ill workers whose cure depends upon special diet will be taken for treatment under medical supervision. There is a department of social dietetics, which will work out problems of diet for the general public dining rooms, a section for the study of general and special physiological problems, a department on the bio-chemistry of food, one on food hygiene, and a planning and statistical department.

The work of the Institute will not be confined within its own walls. Its activities will be carried on directly in connection with factories and shops, under actual labor conditions. The Institute has already organized a special dining room for therapeutic diet in the large "Hammer and Sickle" factory in Moscow. It has organized a dietetic laboratory on problems of general diet in connection with Moscow Factory Kitchen, No. 1. The role of the planning and statistical department of the Institute is very important. Having at its disposal all the results of the scientific investigations of its various departments, it is in a position to map out plans for the organization of public feeding throughout the entire country.

The Institute has well-equipped laboratories and scientific cabinets, and its departments are headed by competent specialists and doctors. While its first task will be to work out the basic problems of diet as applied to factory workers, it will soon extend its work to problems of diet on the large State farms and collectives, and in the Red Army. A training school for workers in the field of social feeding is also being established.

Medical Service on State Farms and Collectives

DURING the past year the Soviet Department of Health has greatly extended the medical and sanitary service for the workers employed in the State farms and collectives and by the Machine and Tractor Stations. The permanent medical system has been reorganized, and special seasonal work for the rush seasons put on a more efficient basis. A considerable number of new buildings—hospitals, first aid stations, dispensaries, and so on, have been constructed during the past year on the State farms and larger collectives.

According to incomplete information, 394 medical dispensaries, 365 first-aid stations under assistant doctors, 28 dental stations, and hospitals accommodating 1,325, were opened during the last spring sowing season. In addition, 508 permanent day nurseries were established, 8,000 summer nurseries, 165 accoucheur points, and 107 consultation centers. During the harvest campaign all these same measures were carried out on a still larger scale. In some districts the work of

part of the medical staff was transferred to the fields. Over a thousand special first-aid stations were organized, and a large number of dispensaries. Over 800 new permanent day nurseries were established during the harvest season, and almost 10,000 temporary ones. About 3,000 doctors were sent out to the villages for special work during the seeding and harvesting campaigns, and more than 2,000 internes, nurses and other medical personnel. Almost all of the students graduated from the medical schools in May, 1930—2,562, were sent to the villages. Of these, 535 were sent directly to the State farms and collectives.

Ukrainian Opera Celebrates Fifth Anniversary

ON December 26, 1930, the Ukrainian Opera House of Kharkov celebrated the fifth anniversary of its founding. The establishment of this Opera in 1925 was followed by the founding of Ukrainian Operatic theatres in Kiev and in Odessa, as well as in some of the other cities of the Ukraine. In 1928, the Kharkov Opera Company made its first tour of the Ukraine, visiting the mines of the Donetz Basin and the most distant corners of the Ukrainian Republic. As a result of this tour, four traveling operatic troupes were organized which perform for audiences in every part of the Ukraine.

The Kharkov Opera has given a new stimulus to the native composers of the Ukraine. During the past three or four years the repertoire of the Kharkov Opera House has been enriched by the compositions of Ukrainian composers. When it was opened in 1925 there was not a native composer on its program. At the present time at least half of its repertoire is made up of authentic Ukrainian operas such as Liatoshinsky's "Zolotov Obruch" ("The Golden Hoop"), Kostenko's "Karmeliok," Vyrykivsky's "Pan Kanevsky," and Tolstiakov's "Combine." Altogether, the Kharkov Opera House has produced eighty operas and ballets during its five years' existence.

The Kharkov Opera House has also been influential in strengthening cultural relations among the different republics of the Soviet Union. During the past season the Tiflis State Operatic Theater presented in Georgian the Ukrainian opera, "Taras Bulba," and the Grand Theater in Moscow has included "Zolotoy Obruch" in its repertoire. This is the first time Ukrainian Opera has been heard outside of the Ukraine.

At the present time a new Opera House is being projected for Kharkov to seat 4.000 persons. An international architectural competition for the design of the new opera house is being held.

Experiments with Grain

The scientific research institute for experiments with grain and grain products carried out quite a number of experiments during the fiscal year just elapsed. It also conducted extensive experimental work in its laboratories and departments, despite a shortage of skilled workers and the rather inadequate space and equipment available. Certain results already attained may be used for practical purposes now.

Experiments have been made in the grain-elevator department comprising collections of grasses and grain; the changes resultant from the temperature in the elevator silos; the effect of dryness on the sprouting of grain; the construction of an experimental elevator; a study of the process of drying grain and extensive experiments in connection with the effect of the cleaning of grain for its preservation.

The management of the milling industry is conducting experimental work at the institute in connection with soy beans, experimental milling, water peppers, and research work into the various ways of utilizing the residue from the oil-pressing industry. Much interesting work is also being undertaken in the bakery attached to the institute.

In order to speed up the research work in the institute undertaken by the United Grain Industry, more specialists are being engaged. Furthermore, measures are being taken to enlarge the ranks of students in the various faculties employed at the institute.

The results of the experimental work done at the institute will be published in pamphlet form with a view to popularizing the work.

The United Grain Industry has assigned 5,000 rubles (over $2,500) for apparatus necessary to test the degree of moisture of grain and such apparatus are being installed at the grain collecting stations.

Dirigible Construction

IT was announced on January 24 that a fund of over four million rubles (over $2,000,000) had already been collected for the construction of Soviet dirigibles, as a result of the campaign started at the time of the visit of the "Graf Zeppelin" which greatly stimulated interest in lighter-than-air craft. "Osoaviakhim" (the Society for the Promotion of Aviation and Chemistry) has decided to organize a "Dirigible Fortnight" from January 15 to February 1 throughout the U. S. S. R. to further popularize the idea of dirigible construction and collect further funds. Preliminary operations for dirigible construction are already in progress in Moscow and Leningrad. Two dirigibles will be completed this year, and a larger one in the spring of 1932.

Aero-Sledge Transportation Tests

The Automobile and Roads Society is preparing two aero-sledge tests: Leningrad-Moscow via Novgorod, Valdai, Vychnevolochek and Tver, and Leningrad-Sebastopol with stops at different intermediary stations.

In the first test eight aero-sledges will participate. Two of them will be furnished with Soviet motors and the remainder with motors of various foreign firms. In the second drive, which is to cover 4,000 miles, three aero-sledges, followed by eighteen horsemen, will participate.

These two trips have been arranged for the purpose of testing motors and aero-sledges of various types under different conditions of snow. When the test is completed, the manufacture of aero-sledges in quantity will be started by the aviation plants. Until now, the aero-sledges have been manufactured in small shops.

The aero-sledge is the only vehicle able to cover scores of thousands of miles in certain northern districts in the U. S. S. R., which are under snow from seven to eight months in the year. These sledges will be used for medical and sanitary aid in the far northern outskirts of the U. S. S. R., also for transportation of fur and for postal communication.

Soviet Pavilion at Angora Agricultural Exhibition

The Soviet pavilion at the International Agricultural and Technical Exhibition at Angora has aroused considerable interest. Among its exhibits are tractors and various complicated agricultural machinery of Soviet construction—types of machinery either unknown in the Soviet Union up until a few years ago, or imported from other countries. Other exhibits demonstrate achievements in the field of developing such new crops as kendyr, kenafa, drought-proof seeds, and in the improvement of cattle breeding. The Agricultural Congress opened in Turkey simultaneously with the exhibition made plans for establishing closer connections between the agricultural organs of the two countries.

Illegal Transfers

The Soviet Government has declared that all currency and stock values illegally transferred from abroad will henceforth be considered contraband. All such illegally transferred goods will be confiscated and a fine will be imposed for the transfer.

Soviet Health Resorts For Foreigners

In view of the growing interest displayed by foreigners in the health resorts of Soviet Crimea and the Caucasus it has been decided to build special sanatoria for foreigners in these two regions and to divert the best hotels in the watering places for the use of foreign tourists.

Foreign Specialists and Workers in the U. S. S. R.

In addition to the 4,500 foreign engineers, foremen and workers employed in the Soviet Union under individual contracts and with firms having technical aid contracts on January 1, 1931, 13,000 more foreign engineers and workers will be employed in 1931. Of these about 3,000 will be engineers, a similar number foremen, and some 7,000 skilled workers. Europe is expected to supply about 2,600 engineers, the same number of foremen and 5,000 workers, while the rest are to come from America.

The Soviet Government has created special stores of food and other commodities by which foreigners working in the U. S. S. R. are supplied at fixed prices.

Changes in Soviet Foreign Service

On October 3, Alexander Nikitich Pozdnyshev was appointed trade representative of the U. S. S. R. in Latvia in place of Lev Pavlovich Memchenko.

On December 31 Mikhail Mikhailovich Vassiliev was relieved of the duties of trade representative of the U. S. S. R. in Italy and Mikhail Abramovich Levinson was appointed in his stead.

On January 15, Anton Moissayevich Tamarin was relieved of the duties of trade representative of the U. S. S. R. in Persia.

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Tadjikistan

By BORIS PILNYAK

A Note about the Author

Boris Pilnyak (whose real name is Boris Vogau) is one of the most interesting and gifted of the younger Soviet writers of today. He is counted as a "poputchik" or "fellow-traveller"—one of the group of writers who while not communists, have accepted the revolution and shown themselves willing to travel along with it. Pilnyak's best known works are "Leather Jackets," "The Naked Year" and "The Volga Falls to the Caspian Sea." The second of these, as well as a number of his short stories, have been published in English, and "The Volga Flows to the Caspian Sea" is announced among the books to be published in America this spring. In "The Naked Year" Pilnyak depicts the social life in the famine period, as it touches all the different types. His style reproduces the chaos of the period. Confused and sometimes obscure, this book is somewhat difficult to follow. Its kaleidoscopic contents never resolve themselves into a fixed or clear design, but it gives a powerful impression of the slow and painful emergence of order from upheaval. The new book deals with a later period.

Pilnyak was born in 1894, his father a veterinary doctor, his mother a merchant's daughter, both near to the Populist movement of the 80's and 90's. In his blood flows four strains—German, Slavic, Tartar and a little Jewish. His childhood was passed in small towns of Moscow province and in 1913 he was graduated from the Nizhni-Novgorod Professional School. He began to write verses at the age of nine and his first story was published when he was fourteen. During the revolutionary years he travelled extensively over Russia, and since the revolution he has visited Europe and the Far East. He is now visiting America.

The description of Tadjikistan, a partial translation of which we are publishing for the readers of the Soviet Union Review, appeared in the Moscow "Izvestia" during the fall and winter. Pilnyak, like most of the other young Soviet authors, draws his material from the contemporary scene. These writers are travelling over the length and breadth of the land, visiting factories, collectives, State farms, exploring newly developed regions, recording history as it is made.

Part II

Wind from Afghanistan

TADJIKISTAN met me with a wind storm—From Tashkent, that extraordinarily dull city, to Stalinabad, a Klondike city, is a journey of three and a half days by train. By airplane one can make it in five and a half hours.

The planes always take off at dawn, so dawn found me flying from Tashkent aboard a Junkers commanded by Pilot Romanov. The first stop was at the airport somewhere near Samarkand. It was located beyond the Zeravshanski oasis—really in the desert, and the white house of European style with its un-European flat roof that held the airport office and waiting-room stood out from the barrenness. A Tartar woman served tea and eggs; a battered Ford arrived from Samarkand; from some miles away came a horse with a barrel of water. We stayed for a quarter of an hour eating our eggs and drinking our glasses of tea and then went out to the plane to resume the journey. The motor was already roaring when an official ran out from the station with a telegram in his hand.

The telegram was from Termez and announced briefly:

"*Afghanets*—flight off."

We returned to the waiting-room.

An hour or so later a second plane arrived, coming from Afghanistan under the command of Semyenov, and the following dawn a third flew in, under the command of Lefchenko.

Telegrams came every hour, with further announcements concerning the progress of the *afghanets*. Every hour we had hope that we might proceed—we were twelve passengers and six aviators, sitting in the desert station awaiting the telegrams. And thus we continued to sit for three days at the Samarkand airport in the desert.

That telegram—"*Afghanets*—flight off"—really saved us from disaster.

From Afghanistan, from India, as the last burst of energy of the Indian Ocean typhoons, there sweeps down at times on Central Asia a wind that is known to most Central Asians as an *afghanets*, though the Tadjik peasants have their own name for that hot, scorching wind. They call it a *garm-sil*.

It brings incredibly stifling heat, although that in itself would not be dangerous for airplanes; but it also brings dust—fine and sharp—which is borne several miles into the air and which forms a curtain of sand through which one can not see for more than five paces. The Tadjiks count that wind peculiarly accursed for its heat and burning-

Children of a Tadjik Village on the Pamir Frontier

hot dust snuffs out all life; and for the aviators the dusty cloud is even more significant as the pilots can not see whither they are flying and the dust seeps into the motors and chokes them. A portentous matter, in truth, for pilots, that rushing hurricane of heat that whirls about as though it would hurl the very Hindu Kush mountains from their bases, and the Tien Shans as well.

The desert about the airport scorched in the heat, which almost knocked one over. Except for the yellow sky and twenty paces of the airdrome both to the right and to the left of the house there was nothing remaining in the world. Yet from the desert came a thousand songs, strange harps, weird sobs, wild songs, wails and dances. We sat cramped up in the waiting room, where on account of the possibility of passengers being detained in passing by just such storms, were kept in readiness a number of pallets, side by side, equipped, of all things, with feather mattresses. Choking with dust, we drank endless glasses of green tea, slept aimlessly, and talked the days through.

The wind and the stories brought to my mind the Russian blizzards of the middle nineteenth century, in the days of the posting stations and the station-keepers of whom Pushkin wrote, of their dreadful isolation and their dreadful dependence on the wind—things such as we were experiencing. But the *afghanets* was different, after all. It gave me a feeling of Tadjikistan and its very intensity gave the pitch of Tadjikistan of today, the pitch of Europe. Tadjikistan, being built up, being broken down, retreating, advancing, and, at last by a tremendous application of will and deed conquering its difficulties decisively

An Agricultural Specialist Giving Advice to the Members of a Tadjik Collective.

and moving from a patriarchal and medieval economy straight across to socialism. The wind that blows over Tadjikistan is the wind of release.

Through those three days of storm we talked and told stories to one another as they did in the old-time blizzard stations.

Naturally, first place in the conversation went to the pilots. They talked about unexplored mountains, about uncharted landing fields, about flights to the Pamirs and over the Pamirs. They talked of their adventures on primaeval land and in the air, of sand storms, of smashups, of events in the air when the planes became like those one-winged seraphim that could find no place on which to alight. It was clear that though the men had no sense of it they were genuine heroes, and that their heroism was the result of the conditions of their flights and the places to which they flew; for as their daily work they were guiding planes into lands where there was not even a road for a wagon-wheel and where the very sight of the planes sometimes caused the inhabitants to fall dead from heart failure. These pilots were flying this most amazing invention of the mind of man straight into today's remnant of the middle ages.

But the conversation of the passengers on their way back from Tadjikistan only added to the feeling of unreality. The agronom talked continually of hunting wild boar. And, he said, capital investment in agriculture in Tadjikistan this year had increased 1,500 per cent over that of previous years. And, by the way, when we left the airport at Stalinabad we must go straight to the Red *Tchai-Khana* (tea-house) which was located under a thousand-year-old plane-tree in the open air—for, according to the word of the agronom, it was almost impossible to get a room in Stalinabad because of the overcrowding, now that a whole row of government institutions had their offices under the branches of the old tree. But what hunting! Boars, pheasants, deer, antelope, herds of wild horses!

An engineer talked about irrigation construction on a grand scale.

A second engineer said that five years ago there wasn't a single European house in Stalinabad, and—well, now it was a European city. He said that up till now drinking water had cost a ruble (about fifty cents) a bucket—but they were going to open up a watermain at the time of the coming October anniversary celebration. Meat, by the way, cost only thirty-five kopeks (eighteen cents) a pound.

From the engineers I also learned that there are no ration books in Tadjikistan—anyone can buy in the cooperatives according to his appetite. And speaking of appetites I heard about the "long ruble," as they call easy money. Certain sharp lads, they said, traveled to Tadjikistan for these "long rubles." There was a certain engineer, for example, who bought himself eight thousand rubles worth of silk to take back to Moscow with him. Oh, just for a souvenir of his sojourn among the Tadjiks, of course.

The agronom, his mind still on hunting, told of the roads of Darwaz—which was named, by the way, after its own kind of road for the word *darwaz* means "rope-walk." And that was no

mere legend. In Darwaz there are actually certain steep mountain passes over precipices where people cross on ropes woven of willow branches.

Talking of the tempo of reconstruction in that country, said the engineer—which construction was only five years old, there was a story of the way they go at their work there. One time this spring, during the sowing campaign, the Agricultural Commissariat mobilized everything that could move so thoroughly in Stalinabad that when morning came in the whole city there wasn't a single horse, not a single automobile, not a single ass. The droshkies, the asses, and even the automobiles had trailed out for the sowing of seed on the cotton plantations. Tadjiks, Russians, Uzbeks, Arabs, Afghans—everybody had followed. And the heads of the government and other officials had to get to their offices that day as they could on foot.

The agronom said there was gold along the Vakhsh and Khingow rivers—you could see it in the sand if you sifted it from your palm.

We dwelt at length on the airport. There was no doubt that the airplane was the most magnificent achievement in the world.

The herds of boars of the agronom became mixed together in my consciousness, in these days of the Afghan station keepers, with the rush of the wind. But any impression of the middle ages was vanquished by the pilots, keeping their watch. And the wind blowing at night on the Tadjiks, the Russians and the Afghans sowing their seed, on the droshkies, on the asses, on the automobiles—that was the *garm-sil* of the socialization of Tadjikistan.

Thus, with a wind-storm, did Tadjikistan meet me.

And at last the wind died down, the desert grew quiet, the sand settled to earth. The plane shot into the heavens.

Water! Water!

The first word that I learned in Tadjikistan was "water."

The history of man has been written around water. Around the Amu-Darya and Syr-Darya grew up the culture of Central Asia, just as other cultures centered along the Yang-tsze, the Nile, the Tigris and the Euphrates. The Amu and the Syr drain Tadjikistan and the Piandj and the Vakhsh, which unite to form the Amu, are the principal arteries of the region.

In the valleys of Tadjikistan where there is no water there is emptiness, heat, sand. Nothing grows there but desert weeds, nothing lives there but toads and lizards. There is only solitude and death.

But in the valleys of Tadjikistan where there is water! There grow pistachios, almonds, walnuts, peaches of many kinds, pomegranates, grapes—every sort of fruit, Chinese nuts, Brazil nuts, castor beans, soy, sugar-cane, saffron, rice, wheat, cotton. And I have not named a fiftieth of the trees and plants to be found there. According to Prof. Vavilov, by the way, Tadjikistan is the birthplace of wheat.

Because of the lack of a wide distribution of water an elaborate system of irrigation is necessary, a system made up of reservoirs, large ditches, small ditches, water-gauges, planned and regulated now in a scientific manner. In former times the ditches were re-made every ten years under the direction of the semi-holy *mirab*, or chieftain, according to a system hallowed by tradition. Water rights were the foundation of feudal power and the *mirab*, exercising his authority, could sell the water separately from the land—and the use of the water cost more than the land itself. The *mirab* could shut off the water, or not, as it pleased him and everything that lived on the land was dependent on his will. Soviet Tadjikistan nationalized the water. It is understandable how, in spite of the *mirab*, this water, which for a thousand years had been obtained by the collective labor of the peasantry and which could be made inaccessible to that labor by the will of one man, created a cooperative instinct in the laborers and is the guarantee of the success of collectivization measures. This is the reason, apparently, why, of all the seven republics, only Tadjikistan has had no collisions and disorders in the process of the collectivization of agriculture.

At the Tadjikistan Ikramov experimental station which is under t[illegible]rection of an American scientist, studies are being made of the efficient methods of planting, watering and raising cotton, peanuts, flax, cane and so on. At the experimental station of the rice plantation named after the present president of the Tadjik Council of People's Commissars, Comrade Abdu-Rachim Khodjivaev, the Russian agronoms are breaking down the traditions of centuries, studying the varieties of rice, the methods of its cultivation and its suitability for the Tadjik valleys.

Thus, where there is water are found blooming oases, gardens and plantations; where there is no water is only emptiness and death. In ancient times when conquerers came to the land they did not attempt to take the cities but merely destroyed the irrigation ditches, leaving the oases and cities without water. The imperial Russians were the last to do this when they conquered Central Asia. They turned their cannon on the main canals.

In every city of Tadjikistan, in every *kishlak* (mountain village), around every home, circles a ditch and over the ditch hang the branches of plane-trees and apricot trees. Under the oldest plane-trees in every *kishlak* has been made a pool —a reservoir—and by the pool and under the plane-trees has been built the *tchai-khana* for rest from the heat. And in truth the ideal of the Tadjik is, according to his proverb, "A pool, a garden, and a breath of wind."

There is an anecdote that illustrates the significance of water in Tadjikistan. The story concerns the collective farm of Stora-i-Surk, or Red

Star. A hundred and four men came from the mountains into the desert, as settlers among the lizards. They came to a country that had never had water, arriving in the so-called winter time, in January. They had planned it all. They built themselves straw huts and set to work with a genuine enthusiasm. On five hundred hectares—a lot of land when it must be watered by irrigation—they dug ditches and made large and small canals with a strict system of regulating the flow. This was to be a cotton plantation. The one hundred and four men, leaving the mountains and breaking away forever, had brought their families with them into the desert. On the day when everything was ready for turning on of the water, when labor on the many miles of canals was finished, the president of the collective farm, full of pride over the five hundred hectares snatched from the desert, arrived in town and went to the office of the irrigation committee to say that all was ready, please, to give them some water. And the official at the irrigation headquarters, indifferently turning over the papers and lists, indifferently announced that the collective Stora-i-Surk had not been planned for by the irrigation headquarters, had not been put on the list, that the collective Stora-i-Surk would not be given any water. It is unnecessary to comment on these words of the bureaucrat, words which to the collective meant death—useless labor, hundreds of hours of ditches, of heat, of hunger, and now death! But the collective received its water in spite of the indifferently tired answer of the official. And when that water at last appeared on the fields, when it increased and began to trickle into the ditches of the collective, the whole hundred and four men and their wives and children with them, who had waited night and day for the arrival of the water, ran to meet it, able only to cry out the word

"Ot! Ot!" ("Water! Water!")—and weep.

A Woman Is Not a Person

In the city of Kala-i-Khum they told me that a woman had arrived from the Pamir, from the valley of Vansha, a girl of seventeen years who had stolen away from the Pamirs to study.

Kala-i-Khum the capital of Darwaz, lying on the border of Afghanistan, is not actually a city. It is a school, a hospital, a government administrative office, an office of the Turkestan Silk Company, an office of the Turkestan Wool Company, a caravanserai, a red *tchai-khana* (guest house) and a surrounding group of *kishlaks*. In the whole place, besides Tadjiks and border guards, there are fifty to seventy Europeans—doctors, technicians and so on.

In Darwaz the Tadjiks belong to the Ishmaelite branch of the Shiites, whose present head is Aga-i-Khan, the forty-eighth of his line. It is the custom for the eldest member of each family to pay the tribute for the entire family to the head of their faith and in Darwaz the payment is always made in gold. A. Gottfried has written of an episode in this connection. A governmental group on an expedition in the villages had a member possessed of a jaw filled with gold teeth. A Tadjik woman saw him in the *tchai-khana* and began to beg him to sell her the teeth, saying that the collector of tribute for Aga-i-Khan had arrived and her family had no gold. The owner of the teeth dismissed her with some joking words. On the following day the old woman sought him out again, leading with her by the hand the payment she wanted to make for the jaw of gold—her own daughter.

The veil of Islam is still commanded in Tadjikistan. A woman is not a person. She is an article of trade and of pleasure. The faces of the women are hidden behind long horsehair screens as they walk the street and at home they are shut behind the walls of the harem. The icy wall of tradition is still solid with the frost of centuries. On the day of my arrival one of my comrades had spent the night in a hill village on his journey. During the night as the hours were being counted off by the braying of the asses and the barking of the dogs he heard the voice of a woman. At first it seemed that the woman was singing some very melancholy song. Then he remembered that the women lament over the dying. Suddenly there was a confused racket. It seemed that the whole *kishlak* must hear it, but the *kishlak* lay sleeping in primitive calmness. In the morning came to the village soviet a Tadjik and announced that he had killed his wife in the night because the wife had removed her horsehair veil.

I know ten stories like this one. In the Tadjik theater two women of the troupe have been killed. One was killed by a relative, who hacked her to pieces, placed the bits of her in clay jars and buried the jars in a cellar where they lay undiscovered for a year; the other was killed behind the scenes of the theater by her jealous husband in a rage because in the course of her role she kissed another man.

The Soviet power stands most rigidly on the side of the rights of the women, and in the valleys of Tadjikistan the ice is beginning to melt. I know of another story that sounds like fiction. The wife of a certain Tadjik who had been sold to him when she was ten years old ran away from him because of his cruelty. He sought her and found her in the city, but she would not go back with him. Returning home on his ass he stopped to spend the night with an acquaintance along the road and he told his friend how they had not only driven his wife away from him in the city, but were feeding her, and had taken her into a factory where she went about without a veil and was receiving ninety rubles a month. His friend, too, was astounded and condoled with him. They lay down to sleep. And when they awakened the wife of the host in whose house the deserted husband had spent the night had disappeared. The wife

Left—Tadjik women studying at the Women's College in Stalinabad

Below—Tadjik woman in the Heavy Horse-hair "Paranja" (veil) of Islam

had run away to the city, following the first woman, having overheard the conversation of the men on the previous evening, from behind her lattice. This would be a pleasant tale if the two men had not mounted their asses in haste and pursued the fleeing woman, and if they had not cut her to pieces along the road to the city.

In the city of Kala-i-Khum they told me that a girl had arrived at the *tchai-khana*, running away from Vansha to seek learning. I went over to the guest-house. On the felt mats, leaning her elbows on her knees, sat a single lone woman among the men. Her face was covered by no veil and on her head was a tiny embroidered skull cap and two beautiful braids of hair hung over her shoulders. She was dressed in a felt traveling *khalat* (robe), below which was visible a red print dress. She wore the native boots on her feet and over them, new and shiny, were drawn—galoshes. A thin bundle was in one hand. But I have never seen such a face. I find it difficult to put my impression into words. She was not beautiful—her nose was too thin and her eyes, her large, extraordinary eyes, were lacking in feminine charm. Those eyes were truly extraordinary. She looked straight ahead of her at one spot without moving, scarcely blinking. Her eyes were the eyes of a visionary, beholding a glorious sight. I knew that the girl was only seventeen years old, but she might have passed easily for twenty-five and her eyes held the wisdom of the ancient. She sat immovable. I stopped opposite her. She raised her eagle-like eyes to me and looked through me exactly as though I had been empty space. They said she was a young Komsomol, an Ishmaelitish girl who had run away from home. Comrade Sadikov, the representative of the Turkestan Wool Company, had come across her somewhere in the mountains, and the Executive Committee was seeking a horse to take her to Garm. I could understand those eyes. She was a visionary seeking the blessed knowledge—she, an Ishmaelitish girl. That concentration was there because behind those eyes lay the deaths of hundreds of her sisters and the harems of a thousand years, and behind those eyes was—revolution.

(*To be continued*)

The U. S. S. R. and the Pan-European Commission

ON February 10 the Soviet press published the following exchange of notes between the General Secretary of the League of Nations and Mr. Litvinov, Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, relative to Soviet participation in the work of the commission studying plans for a European federation:

"GENEVA, January 23, 1931:

"Mr. People's Commissar: I have the honor to bring to your attention the fact that at the meeting of January 20, 1931, the commission for studying the problem of a European federation adopted the following resolution:

> "'In pursuance of the resolution of the plenary meeting of the League of Nations held on September 17, 1930, the commission studying plans for a European federation has decided to undertake a study of the world economic crisis, insofar as it affects the whole set-up of relations between the European states and, through the general secretariat of the League, to invite the governments of Iceland, Turkey and the U. S. S. R. to participate in this work.'

"Enclosed herewith is a copy of the above-mentioned resolution of the plenary session of the League of Nations. I am taking the liberty of sending you in addition all the documents of the commission studying the question of a European federation. The next session of this commission will be held in May. Exact data regarding the session will be supplied later. Please be so kind as to inform me whether your government will accept the invitation which I have been commissioned to transmit to you in the name of the commission studying the question of a European federation.

"Accept, Mr. People's Commissar, assurances of my profound respect.

"Acting General Secretary,
"AVENOL."

In answer to the above Mr. Litvinov dispatched the following letter to the general secretary of the League of Nations on February 6:

"Mr. General Secretary:

"I have received your letter of January 23 containing the information that the commission studying plans for a European federation has resolved to make a study of the world economic crisis insofar as this is of interest to all European states, and invites the U. S. S. R. to participate in this study.

"This information, taken in conjunction with the memorandum of the French Government with regard to the organization of a Pan-European federation, which has been officially brought to the attention of the Soviet Government, and also with the debates which took place at the last session of the commission studying Pan-Europe, insofar as the Soviet Government has been informed of these, give rise to a number of questions which are perplexing to the Soviet Government.

"Judging by the answers of the different Governments to the above-mentioned memorandum of the French Government, there exists considerable disagreement with regard to the aims intended for the new organization, and the methods of attaining these aims.

"The Soviet Government has its own ideas regarding the reasons for the constant economic conflicts between states, regarding the reasons for the economic depression and crises periodically arising in capitalist countries and regarding the way toward which humanity must strive, whereby alone true solidarity of peoples may be achieved; but there is hardly any necessity for setting forth those ideas here. However, the proposition that without a guarantee of universal peace in particular and European peace in general, and the elimination of the reasons threatening the infringement of that peace, there can be no thought of success for any attempt whatever to establishing European solidarity in economic or any other spheres, cannot be disputed by any country. Even the bourgeois economists recognize the causal connection between, on the one hand, the growing political alarm throughout the world, the ceaseless growth of armaments, swallowing up in some countries from forty to fifty per cent of the national budget, and on the other hand, the growing economic conflicts between the states and the economic crises within the various countries.

"Equally indisputable is the fact that a sincere desire for improvement in the relations between the nations and the consolidation of peace among them, which is a prerequisite for their cooperation in the economic sphere, cannot be directed toward the setting of some governments against others. Furthermore, if one speaks of a united Europe as a geographical entity without reservations regarding the fact that only those countries with a definite social and political system are meant, then it would seem that the participation of this or that country in the federation would be automatically determined by its geographical situ-

ation, which can not be changed as a result of any discussion, and that even a country belonging only in small part to this geographical unit must not be excluded.

"In view of the obviousness of these considerations it seems entirely strange and incomprehensible that one group of European States should take it upon itself to decide as to the admission or non-admission of another group of European States into a community calling itself Pan-European. More especially so when a country like Switzerland, occupying four-tenths of one per cent of the territory of Europe, or Norway, occupying about three and one-tenth per cent, opposes the admission of such a State as the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics. The U. S. S. R. occupies in Europe alone territory amounting to approximately forty-five per cent of the whole of Europe, and more than twice the combined territory of France, Belgium, Rumania, Jugoslavia, Switzerland, Spain, Holland, Sweden, Denmark and Norway, all taken together.

"In considering this question all arguments and references of a formalist legal character, which might be understood at a meeting of jurists, but not at an international political meeting of the heads of foreign departments, must be rejected as clearly inappropriate.

"If, however, it is assumed that despite the name of the organization sending the invitation to the U. S. S. R., not a union of European States is meant, but the creation within Europe of two groups according to formal juridical or social and political characteristics, the question inevitably arises as to whether equal and identical rights will be guaranteed to both sides of the organization under the proposed cooperation of these groups.

"Further, in the resolution of the commission studying plans for a Pan-Europe, is the statement that it has been decided to study the world economic crisis. From this resolution, however, it is not clear as to whether the commission has decided to limit itself to this question alone or whether it reserves for itself the right to include other questions as well within the circle of its deliberations, and in the latter event, is it proposed that only one group of European States participate in these discussions, or all nations. This question has naturally risen already because during the debates in the commission the thought was expressed that questions might come before the commission which it would be very inconvenient to discuss in the presence of representatives of the U. S. S. R., and it was not clearly indicated whether this inconvenience would be due to the fact that these questions did not concern the U. S. S. R. in any way or because they touched the U. S. S. R. too closely. If this idea is accepted by the entire commission, then a situation might be created wherein the U. S. S. R. would be participating in the work of a commission which attempted to prevent its representatives taking part in the discussions of precisely those matters which affect and interest the U. S. S. R. most closely.

"Realizing fully the impossibility of obtaining outside of the sessions of the commission any clarification of the questions above set forth and the probable difficulties for the commission to formulate clear answers, the Soviet Government has decided to take part in the immediate activities of the commission for the study of Pan-Europe, reserving the decision on its final attitude toward its further work until it has received the necessary information, and made a study of the commission itself and of the extent to which the section of the commission sending the invitation really intends to achieve unity.

"In adopting this decision, the Soviet Government is guided by its persistent desire to assist all efforts which with the help of this cooperation might be directed toward the guaranteeing of universal peace, and peace in Europe in particular, and guided also by the proposition, theoretically recognized in the memorandum of the French Government, of the sovereignty and equality of all nations, and also by the proposition that the new organization must not be 'set against any ethnic group whatsoever on other continents nor in Europe itself'.

"Accept, etc.—

"LITVINOV."

New Foreign Concessions Policy

A RECENT decree of the Sovnarkom (Council of People's Commissars) of the U. S. S. R. annuls all previous legislative acts regarding foreign concessions in the Soviet Union. According to the new law all activities connected with the granting of concessions are henceforth to be concentrated in the various commissariats. Thus questions concerning industrial concessions will come under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Economic Council, agricultural concessions will come under the People's Commissariat for Agriculture, and so on. To the Chief Concessions Committee will be reserved the right of submitting to the Sovnarkom special data relative to foreign concessions agreements and necessary amendments or annulments of the same. According to the degree the concessions committees attached to the Sovnarkoms of the various Soviet Republics and to the Trade Commissions of the U. S. S. R. in other countries, cease to function. The new law greatly simplifies the procedure of permitting foreign firms to open commercial enterprises in the U. S. S. R. All questions concerning the latter are finally decided upon by the People's Commissariat for Foreign Trade.

Expeditions and Discoveries

THE "Council of Productive Resources" of the All-Union Academy of Sciences is organizing a number of very interesting expeditions during the present year, with the aim of assisting in the solution of some of the main problems facing Soviet agriculture and industry. Among the main problems of the expeditions are a study of soils, useful minerals and power resources.

Special attention will be given to those regions having most significance from an immediate economic viewpoint—Siberia, the Northern Region, Kazakstan and Central Asia. At the same time work already under way will be continued in Transcaucasia, the Kolsk Peninsula, Bashkiria, Turkmenistan, Yakutia, the Kerchensk Peninsula and elsewhere.

One of the most interesting expeditions projected this year will be the one to Siberia. Here the special problem will be a study of the most rational use of power resources and also of those minerals lying close to the power centers—the Kuzbas, the Angara, the Yenesei and Yenesei-Khakansk regions. A very careful study will be made of the as yet entirely unexplored Tungusk anthracite basin, and the problem will also be examined of the use of the Siberian forests in connection with the further growth of the new Turksib railroad.

In Turkmenistan the expedition will study the wild vegetation, with a view to selecting certain varieties for industrial uses. In Tadjikistan new types of building material will be sought. The expedition to Bashkiria will study the land which has been set aside for the establishment of large State farms. In Yakutia the expedition will study problems of transport in connection with the development of the Great Northern Way. In the Volga district the problem of drouth will engage their attention.

The extent of the work of the Academy of Science Expeditions may be gauged to some extent by the expenditures for this purpose. In 1930, 1,300,000 rubles was spent on various expeditions, while during 1931, 5,000,000 rubles will be spent (over $2,500,000).

Conquering the North

The Soviet Union is taking new steps in the conquest of the North. A new port is projected on the shores of the North Arctic Ocean in the bay of Indiga. The construction of this port is necessary because Murmansk, the only Soviet port on the Arctic Coast which remains open, is too far from such large industrial centers as the Urals and Western Siberia. Consequently, the export of metal products from the Urals and grain and lumber from Western Siberia by way of Murmansk is too expensive.

The Bay of Indiga has the advantage that being connected with the Trans-Siberian railroad it is 2,400 miles nearer to the Urals and Western Siberia than is Murmansk. In this region, the basin of the Pechora River, huge deposits of anthracite, greater than those in the Donetz Basin, have been discovered. When Pechora is connected with Indiga Bay this coal may be transported cheaply to the Arctic Coast, where it can be used instead of coal from the Donetz Basin or from England. The supplying of the Arctic Coast with coal from Pechora should be a great stimulus to the colonization of that region and to its industrial development.

Oil has also been found in the basin of the Pechora River, and the region is heavily timbered. The extent of the goods that could be handled at the Bay of Indiga may be further estimated by the fact that it is planned to unite the Pechora and Kama Rivers with the rivers of Western Siberia.

Practical steps have already been taken in preparation for the construction of the new port. A special expedition organized by the People's Commissariat for Transport has recently returned from making a three and a half month's study of the question on the Arctic Coast. Twenty-two members of the expedition have remained in the North to study meteorological conditions, observe the movement of the ice, and to drill. Airplanes and special ships will be used in connection with this work. After about a year of preliminary observation in the region, the actual construction of the port will be commenced.

Arctic Expeditions in 1931

The All-Union Institute of the North has completed its plan for expeditions during 1931.

During this year four arctic expeditions will be undertaken. Particular interest attaches to the first one, which will leave Archangel for Vladivostok following a northeasterly direction. The main object of this expedition is to examine the "white spots" on the map of the region of "Andreyev Land," which is believed to lie between Wrangel Island and the Novo-Siberian Islands. This part of the region has never yet been visited by any arctic explorer. The expedition will travel on the icebreaker Sedov and will take along an airplane for scouting purposes.

The second expedition will go to Franz-Josef Land to replace the group of workers in the meteorological station and to carry out further scientific investigations. The special feature of this expedition will be the use of the wooden ship "Lomonosov." This will provide practical evidence for the controversy as to whether wooden vessels are the best for navigation through ice.

The third expedition will explore the Chukotsky Peninsula. The members of this expedition, which will start from Vladivostok, will investigate the natural resources of the Chukotsky Peninsula, study its geology, ethnography, etc.

Great scientific importance attaches to the fourth expedition which will survey the Khoradlaksk mountain ridge located in the region of the Lena River. This ridge is known to contain coal and it is the purpose of the expedition to investigate its quality, industrial supplies and the best methods for mining it.

Expeditions to Urals and Siberia

The Academy of Sciences is organizing this year an extensive investigation of the natural resources of the Urals and Siberia. The investigation will be in charge of Academician Fersmann who will be assisted by a skilled scientific personnel.

This year exploration work will be developed over the vast area from the Urals to Lake Baikal. The work will be conducted at such a rate as to make it possible to complete by next autumn a geo-chemical description of the Southern Urals, which will be extremely valuable in the search for minerals.

In Siberia it is proposed to carry out extensive chemical exploration in the region abounding in great salt lakes as it may safely be assumed that they will yield an immense amount of raw materials for the chemical industry of the Urals and Kuznetzk Basin.

The first party of the expedition started on its journey in late February.

A Winter Expedition to Sakhalin

Late in February several steamships left Vladivostok for Sakhalin, accompanied by the ice cutter Davydov. This is the third winter expedition to Sakhalin in the history of navigation. The first expedition was carried out by a number of Japanese vessels prior to the sovietization of the Far East, while the second was organized last year by a group of Soviet vessels.

The expedition will deliver to Sakhalin various important cargoes and will be headed by captain Khrenov who was in charge of last year's expedition to Sakhalin.

Three Years on the Indigirka River

In the winter of 1928 the Academy of Sciences sent an expedition to the region of the Indigirka River for exploration purposes. After three years of intensive work the expedition has now returned to Yakutsk on its way to Leningrad.

The expedition covered the entire ground from the source to the mouth of the Indigirka River, a course never before trodden by any scientist.

In 1929, the expedition spent the winter in Russkoye Ustie among Russian settlers who still speak the ancient Russian language and have preserved their racial purity. Here the expedition collected valuable ethnographical material.

The expedition made a topographical map of the river from its confluence with the Moma River up to the sea. As a result the old map of the river will have to be considerably altered. Near the source of the Indigirka the expedition discovered a number of previously uncharted native settlements, while some of those contained in the old map were found to have disappeared.

The expedition established three meteorological stations and collected a wealth of material on the geology, botany and zoology of the region.

It was revealed that the Indigirka River is navigable from its mouth to the Moma tributary, for a distance of 2,400 miles.

New Coal Basin in Kazakstan

The richest metallurgical industry in Urals has been greatly hampered by the absence of a strong fuel base which would correspond to its colossal ore supplies. The five-year plan provides for six million metric tons of coke for the Ural industries by the end of the plan period. The plan for the development of this industry was based on the utilization of the Kuznetzk coal basin, though it is at a distance of 3,200 miles from the Urals.

But with the discovery of the vast Karaganda coal deposits located on the territory of Kazakstan the position is radically changed. The exploring commission has established that the basin possesses twenty-eight layers of coal forty miles long and its supplies amount approximately to 30 billion metric tons. Karaganda may thus be considered as one of the most important coal basins in the territory of the U. S. S. R. The analyses made by the coal institute in Kharkov have shown that the coal of the Karaganda Basin is almost equal to the Donetz coal, being quite easily transformed into metallurgical coke, in which the quantity of sulphur is not above that of the Kuznetzk coal and in which less phosphorus is contained than in the latter. The content of 12 to 28 per cent of volatile matter in the Karaganda coal puts

it much higher than the Donetz coal and opens excellent opportunities for the development of the chemical industry in the Karaganda Basin.

The geographical situation of Karaganda is extremely favorable. To the south east of the Basin are the Kontiube-Togai iron ore deposits containing a supply of 34 million metric tons of iron, and to the south are copper deposits amounting to one and a half million tons.

The Karaganda Basin will be linked up by a special branch-line with the Turksib railroad, which is not sufficiently secured with fuel, and will thus supply the Central Asian Republics with Karaganda coal. The location of the layers is very favorable for exploitation and will make it possible to start output on a large scale in quite a short time. At present work is going on in sinking four mines which are to supply four million metric tons of coal within this year.

Results of Exploration of "Kursk Anomaly"

Academician L. M. Gubkin, one of the most prominent experts in the U. S. S. R. on mine exploration, reported a short time ago to the Presidium of the Supreme Economic Council of the U. S. S. R. on the progress made in the exploration of iron ore in the Kursk district known under the name of the "Kursk Anomaly."

The "Kursk Anomaly" was discovered a few years ago through the deviation of the magnetic needle in the Kursk district. Geologists explained this phenomenon by the existence of vast deposits or iron ore, which was later proved by further exploration work done by Soviet scientists.

During 1929-30 geological parties drilled 1,073 meters in the district of the "Kursk Anomaly," having simultaneously accomplished extensive work in topography and geodesy of this locality.

In one of the pit-holes prepared last year deposits of ore containing up to 55 per cent iron were discovered at a depth of 87 meters. However, the further deposits showed a smaller percentage of iron. Nevertheless it has been proved that the ore of the "Kursk Anomaly" is quite suitable for industrial utilization.

According to Academician Gubkin's statement the "Kursk Anomaly" constitutes a new rich source of iron ore exceeding all known world deposits.

Discovery of New Minerals

The Academy of Sciences has just received reports from three different points regarding the discovery of valuable minerals by geological parties.

Extensive deposits of graphite estimated at 57 million metric tons have been found near the village of Soyuznoye, on the bank of the Amur River. The total supplies of graphite along the Amur River banks exceed 500 million metric tons.

Another report came in from the district of Uyarsk in Eastern Siberia where layers of feldspar covering a distance of 16 miles in length and 2 miles in width have been discovered.

Finally, a geological party working in the Bajenov district in the Urals also reports the discovery of deposits of emerald and chryso-beril.

Some Educational Achievements

IN connection with the All-Russian Congress on universal education which opened in Moscow February 19th, the Moscow "Izvestia" of that date published an editorial summing up some of the achievements in the field of universal education in the Soviet Union, from which the following facts are quoted.

From 7,236,000 pupils in the primary schools in 1914-15, the number dropped to 6,808,000 in 1922-23, as a result of the civil war and economic blockade. Then the number began to increase until it reached 9,469,000 in 1925-26, and 14,000,000 in 1930—almost double the pre-revolutionary attendance.

In 1931, 82,000 elementary schools are functioning in the U. S. S. R., embracing 16,000,000 children from eight to twelve years. The Government has allotted double the amount assigned for education last year. The facilities for training specialists has also been greatly extended. In 1930, 500,000 students were graduated from universities, technicums and worker's faculties. This year over a million students will be graduated from the higher schools.

Universal education in the native tongue has been established for all the minor nationalities of the Soviet Union. According to the school census of 1911 there were among the Kirghiz people only 1.4 school children for every thousand of the population. In 1927 there were 27 to every thousand. Among the Uzbeks in 1911 only one-tenth of one per cent of the children studied in their native tongue, in 1927 the percentage had increased to 22, and in 1931, with a few rare exceptions, all the education among the Kirghiz and the Uzbeks, as well as other nationalities, is carried on in their native language.

School Children of Khabadnoye Village Listening to Radio

The survey of universal education made for the conference shows that the same initiative and energy has been displayed by the workers in making the drive on the cultural front successful, as in the task of carrying out the industrialization program in the factories and the collective program in agriculture.

In Stalingrad all the schools are directly attached to some industrial or other enterprise, where the children are given an opportunity to become acquainted with the fundamental labor processes. Some of the separate enterprises have voluntarily assigned from 20 to 30,000 rubles (from about $10,000 to $20,000) toward the "polytechnization" of the schools. A general meeting was held at which industrial and agricultural workers helped to work out a plan for introducing a polytechnical program in all the schools.

A special store has been opened supplying shoes and clothing for school children at very low cost, and a "mending shop" has been established where the mothers who work can bring their children's clothes to be repaired at a cost well within their means. The attendance of the children of this district in the primary schools is 100 per cent.

In the Yalano-Kataisky district of the Urals, a scattered agricultural region, ten of the village soviets have organized transport for the school children. Eight of the village soviets have arranged dormitories where the children from the more remote districts may remain during the week, and there have been voluntary local collections of funds to supply hot lunches to the children. All of the schools in this district are attached to agricultural collectives, where the children learn the basic agricultural processes. Through these methods the attendance of the children in this district is also one hundred per cent.

At the "Sevkabel" factory the "commission for aiding universal education" which is made up of "shock brigade" workers, has raised a fund of 16,000 rubles (over $8,000) and provided stipends for fifteen children of needy families. At Mikoyan factory in Rostov, the workers, on learning that some of the children were forced to stay away from school for lack of shoes and clothing, worked overtime to make enough shoes for the children. These are just a few examples of what is going on everywhere—in the cities, in the factory towns, in the villages.

The all-Russian conference, which was made up of teachers, shock-brigade workers, cultural workers, delegates from agricultural collectives, educational inspectors—representatives of all groups connected with carrying out the cultural program, discussed still further expansion of the cultural work. The next steps, it was decided by the conference, will be to extend universal education to the seven-year schools and to strengthen the connection of the schools with the productive processes of industry and agriculture in furtherance of the program for a general polytechnical base for all education.

"Liquidation of Illiteracy"

THE "liquidation of illiteracy" movement is going forward very rapidly in the Soviet Union. In 1913 it was estimated that at most 27 per cent of the population of Tsarist Russia was literate, while in 1930 62 per cent of the people of the U. S. S. R. was literate. Increasingly large numbers of the population have gone through the so-called "likbez" schools (schools for the liquidation of illiteracy) in the past few years; in 1927-28, 1,300,000; in 1928-29, 2,700,000, and in 1929-30, 10,500,000. In 1931 the program provides for "liquidating the illiteracy" of 25,000,000 persons —or more than double the number taken care of last year. The program for the present year involves first the task of liquidating, during the first half of the year, the illiteracy of the members of the working population in the cities between the ages of sixteen and fifty, and liquidating elementary illiteracy among the members of the village population between the ages of sixteen and forty (in the wholly collectivized areas the older groups are to be included as well).

If this program is successfully carried through, and indications are that it will be, the literacy among the Soviet population will be raised to 75 per cent during the present year. The work planned for 1931 surpasses the goal set by the cultural five-year plan for the last year of the five-year period, which provided that by 1933 between eighteen and nineteen million persons should be accommodated in the "likbez" courses. Thus the five-year plan in this particular field has been fulfilled more than two years ahead of time.

Housing Progress in 1931

DURING 1930 the sum of about 600 million rubles (over $300,000,000) was invested in housing construction by various organizations in the U. S. S. R. A total of 4,700,000 square meters of living space was built providing accommodations for 800,000 people. Another 200,000 people were accommodated in houses built by individual cooperative organizations. Thus, about one million workers and employees received new rooms during 1930.

In the big cities most of the apartment houses consist of several stories, while in the mining and lumber regions one-story houses are generally built. In 1930 the proportion of several story houses was 31 per cent as compared with 21 per cent in 1929. In many places complete new cities have been built. This applies particularly to the Don Basin and Zaporozhye where about 20 million rubles (over $10,000,000) was invested in housing schemes, during 1930. In the construction of these cities an entirely new plan is used with a view to giving them as much of a socialized character as possible.

Particularly noteworthy is the application of these new principles in the construction of the new cities of Magnitogorsk and "Green City."

The idea applied in the construction of Magnitogorsk is that each block of houses should represent a closed circle, the population of which will be served by all the necessary public utilities. In the center will be all the city institutions and higher schools. No less than 30 per cent of the total area of Magnitogorsk will be planted with parks.

"Green City," a town built right in the woods within a short distance from Moscow, is intended as a resting place. The houses there will be built in such a way as to enable both individuals and families to spend their day of rest there. Families are to be provided separate cottages of two or three rooms each. The city is planned to accommodate 10,000 persons spending two weeks here each and 30,000 others who will come for one day only. Every kind of recreation and all necessary medical assistance will be provided.

New workers' cities are being built in connection with all the new industrial enterprises being developed in the U. S. S. R.—Tractorstroy, Khimcombinat (the chemical industry combine), the immense new "Red October" metal works, the lumber and wood combine, and so on.

The foremost architects of the Soviet Union have been working on plans for these new cities, the Vesnin brothers, Ilya Golosov, the Society of Proletarian Architecture, the Society of Civil Engineers, the architectural society "Foundation," and the Society of Modern Architecture have all presented plans.

The ideal type of new city has not been fully worked out and the plans vary according to the various localities, but certain features are common to all the new projects. They are all developed on the principle of the greatest possible socialization of housekeeping and cultural activities. Connected with the living quarters are club rooms, libraries, gymnasiums and so on. Special sections are built for day nurseries and kindergartens. The entire population of the new cities is to be fed from a central "Food combinat," where all processes connected with the procuring, storing and preparation of food will be carried on. There will be no individual kitchens designed for anything beyond the simplest of cooking. The "Food Combinats" will contain stockyards, warehouses, dairies, bakeries, central kitchens. The food will be delivered to the different living quarters not in thermoses, as is the custom in the factory kitchens, but in semi-prepared form so that it will not lose its taste, and will be prepared for serving in the dining rooms of the different sections.

Five such new cities are being constructed in the Stalingrad region, each of them designed to house from 50,000 to 60,000 inhabitants. The residence districts will be divided from the industrial sections by large parks. All five of the cities, which extend along the Volga for a stretch of about fifty miles, will be connected by an electric railroad, street car lines and automobile roads. It is planned to establish State farms in the territory between the cities from which fresh vegetables, fruits and other products may be obtained. These new districts will thus combine features of city and country living.

Improved Conditions in Moscow

When the Soviet capital was transferred from Petrograd to Moscow a great number of residential houses in Moscow were taken up by Government institutions. As a result of the housing crisis thus created a special commission was organized ten years ago at the suggestion of Lenin for the purpose of examining the various institutions with a view to removing to other cities those whose location in Moscow was not absolutely essential.

Recently the commission reported to the Council of People's Commissars on the results of its ten years of work. It was revealed that the commission succeeded in vacating 1,900,000 square

meters of office space, of which 746,000 square meters were diverted to housing purposes. Much of this space was used for providing living accommodations for 50,000 students. About 400,000 square meters were turned over to workers in need of rooms, and the rest of the space was given to newly organized institutions and schools.

During 1930 alone 663 offices were thus cleared, aggregating over 280,000 square meters. Some of the rooms vacated were converted into dormitories for 14,000 students, while many workers and other people in urgent need of rooms were also accommodated.

In addition to removing offices to other cities, the commission also engaged in redistributing the offices within the city itself with a view to bringing all the most important Government departments as close to each other as possible. At the present time practically all the central Commissariats are located within the center of the city.

The Council of People's Commissars approved the work of the Commission and recommended its continuation in the future.

Community Restaurants

THE problem of replacing the individual kitchen by cooperative restaurants and by large factory kitchens serving meals on the spot as well as sending out semi and fully-prepared meals to other restaurants and to families, is an important part of the Five-Year Plan. The proportion of people served through community dining rooms and kitchens has increased greatly during the past two years. On October 1, 1929, an average of 2,200,000 hot meals were served daily in all the dining-rooms of the consumers' cooperatives of the U. S. S. R. A year later the number had increased to 11,700,000, and by January 1, 1931, to 17,000,000.

During the present year there will be a still greater increase in the number of persons served thus, due to the employment of two million or more new workers in industry and agriculture, the increase in the number of construction workers coming into the cities, and also the increase in the number of students. Considering all these factors it is estimated that during 1931 all the consumers' cooperative dining rooms together will serve up to 37,000,000 hot meals a day.

Construction work in the field of community feeding is receiving almost as much attention as industrial construction at the present time. The question is being considered of organizing a special trust for manufacturing machinery and equipment for community dining-rooms and kitchens. The capital investment in this branch of industry for 1931 will be 120,000,000 rubles (over $60,000,000). According to the plan, up to two hundred new factory kitchens will be put into operation during the present year. In a number of sections of the Soviet Union large-scale food "combinats" are being constructed, with a planned capacity of from 250,000 to 600,000 hot dishes a day. Such "combinats" are being organized in Magnitogorsk, Kuznetsk and Baku. An extensive development of large new dining-rooms is also going on in connection with the factories, schools, State farms, large agricultural collectives, machine and tractor stations, and also in lumber and fishing regions.

The plan for developing community feeding during the present year consists of the following main sections:

1. The development of a net-work of organizations for serving food in the main industrial regions—Donbas, Kuzbas and the Urals. The expenditures for construction work for this purpose in these regions is to be up to 60 per cent of all the new capital construction.

2. The development of socialized kitchens in the leading branches of industry—metal and fuel. In these industries 70 per cent of all the workers and 30 per cent of their families are to be served by socialized restaurants and kitchens, by the end of the present year.

3. The guarantee of socialized food service in large new projects under construction—Magnitogorsk, Kuznetsk, Avtostroy, etc.

4. A more complete organization of the daily meals of construction workers and students.

The turnover of the agencies for community food service reached 3 billion rubles (over a billion and a half dollars) during the past year. It is estimated that it will amount to 15 billion rubles this year—in other words 20 per cent of the wages of the workers in Soviet Russia will be spent through such agencies.

The price of meals served to the workers is very low. At the Moscow Kitchen Factory No. 1, for example, which may be taken as typical, the price of a hot, two course dinner is thirty kopeks (about fifteen cents).

This rapid development of community restaurants and kitchens has necessitated a corresponding program to train skilled workers for this field. In 1931 there will be 70,000 students in various educational institutions, training for work connected with the preparation and serving of food. In addition to a large number of short term courses which have been established a number of intermediate and higher educational institutions, specializing in food problems, are already in construction. These include special food "technicums," scientific research institutes, and a number of schools which will be attached directly to the factory kitchens where theoretical and practical work may be combined on the spot. A number of institutions to train teachers for this field are also being developed.

The Buriat-Mongolian Republic

BETWEEN the Eastern Siberian and Far-Eastern regions of RSFSR (Soviet Russia proper), on the borders of Mongolia, is situated the Buriat-Mongolian Republic, one of the autonomous republics of the RSFSR.

The Buriat-Mongolian Republic comprises an area of 707,769 square miles and has a population of 525,000 inhabitants. More than half of the population constitute Buriat-Mongolians, then come Russians, Mongolians, Chinese, Tartars and others.

The capital of the republic, Verkhne-Udinsk, is located on the great Trans-Siberian railroad and is on the Moscow-Vladivostok air line.

The chief occupations in the Buriat-Mongolian Republic are agriculture, hunting, and fishing.

Collectivization has progressed greatly during recent years. While in 1925 there were altogether twenty-nine collective farms in the Republic, in 1930 the number increased to 527 with a total area of 1,235,000 acres. State farms for cattle and sheep breeding are being established.

Squirrels, sables and arctic foxes constitute the main game. Warrens have recently been organized and the fur trade is making rapid headway.

The Buriat-Mongolian Republic abounds in useful minerals, which are, however, insufficiently explored and little exploited. Gold, graphite, asbestos and coal are being obtained from this country. Vast deposits of iron and manganese ore, also copper, tin, nickel and other metals have been recently discovered.

Three-quarters of the territory is covered with first-class forests, which supply splendid wood for airplanes and ships. The lumber industry is being rapidly developed.

The industries of the Buriat-Mongolian Republic have been developed only during recent years. A leather factory, a smelting and brick works, also a glass factory and electric power stations, have been recently constructed. The river fleet of Buriat-Mongolia has been reconditioned and a river port constructed in Verkhne-Udinsk.

The economic growth of the republic has stimulated the development of cultural institutions. The schools of this republic, numbering 1,000, embrace 85 per cent of all the children of school age. Besides, there are in Buriat-Mongolia several technical schools, a number of night schools, scientific institutions, museums and other cultural institutions.

Instead of the several assistant-doctor stations of pre-war times, there are now in Buriat-Mongolia, in all large population centers, hospitals and dispensaries. The recently organized Institute of Hygiene is carrying on educational work among the population on health questions.

A great number of health resorts have been recently organized in the vicinity of the mineral springs abounding in this region.

Civil Aviation Development

IN a recent interview with the press, P. I. Baranov, one of the heads of Soviet civil aviation, has made the following statement on the prospects of development of civil aviation of the U. S. S. R. in 1931:

At present the airlines in the Soviet Union cover a distance of 43,200 kilometers. At the end of 1931 this distance will be increased to 84,800 kilometers. Moscow will be linked up with all the outlying regions of the country. The following lines are to be opened: Moscow-Leningrad-Murmansk, Moscow-Minsk, Moscow-Kiev-Odessa, Moscow-Kharkov-Sebastopol, Moscow-Voronezh-Stalingrad, Moscow-Samara-Orenburg-Tashkent, Moscow-Kazan, Sverdlovsk-Khabarovsk-Vladivostok. A branch-line of the latter from Khabarovsk on the River Amur to Nikolaevsk-Okhotsk-Nagaev Bay-Petropavlosk Kamchatsky-Cape Wallen will be the longest airline in the world.

Another important line will be the Baku-Krasnovodsk-Ashkhabad-Chardjui line.

The new lines in the Far East together with those already existing will cover this region with a large network of airlines linking it up with the gold and hunting districts.

While previously the main industries were concentrated in the central part of the Soviet Union powerful enterprises are now being set up all over the country. The vast expanses, the lack of roads, the acute need of skilled specialists makes the aeroplane one of the most important assets of the industrialization program.

At present civil aviation is busy with preparations for the sowing campaign. This spring aviation will become a most essential part of the campaign. Spare parts for tractors and other agricultural machinery will be brought to the remotest regions by aeroplane. Aeroplanes will also assist in bringing emergency agro-technical aid, etc., to the outlying districts.

In conclusion Baranov declared that on the main airlines aeroplanes of Soviet construction and manufacture such as the three-motor aeroplane of the ANT9 type with passenger accommodation for ten and the one-motor aeroplane K4, will be used. The majority of aeroplanes will be equipped with receiving and sending radio apparatus.

Gosplan Celebrates Tenth Anniversary

ON February 22 the tenth anniversary of the founding of Gosplan—the State Planning Commission, was celebrated in the Soviet Union with many special articles surveying the progress of this organization, which has contributed more than any other agency to the economic progress of the U. S. S. R. In an article in the Moscow "Izvestia," Mr. V. V. Kuibyshev, chairman of Gosplan, writes as follows:

"Today our country celebrates the completion of Gosplan's first decade of existence. Born at the moment of transition from the period of military communism to the new economic policy, Gosplan, and our entire planning system can today look back and sum up all that has been accomplished in the period since then.

"The setting in which the foundations of the present planning system of the U. S. S. R. were laid was highly significant. The capitalist elements in the country, hostile to the work of socialist construction, attempted to solve the question of the course of economic development of the Soviet Republic in their own way. The granting of freedom of trade and a certain new lease of life to capitalism filled them with rosy hopes of a 'better future.'

"Under these circumstances our most important problem was to set against the disorganized elements of petty capitalism the organized economy of the proletarian state, to unite all its separate parts, and, controlling the 'commanding heights' of the economic sphere, to guide our economic development toward socialism. The old *laissez faire* tendencies in economic development had to be combatted with a single will and a single program of action, which could be expressed only in a *plan*.

"The concrete problems of planning with which we were confronted in 1921, were determined by the objective situation at that period. The work of Gosplan from planning 'po kusochkam' (in bits), that is, planning what particular industry to start going, what enterprises, and in what order, most needed funds and help, gradually developed into planning industrial development as a whole, first for a year ahead, and then for longer periods.

"The yearly control figures were the first stage in planning for our economy as a whole. The ideas and practice of planning which we developed from working out the annual control figures led us to the Five-Year Plan. Our first cautious attempt in this direction was made in 1923, improved ones in 1925 and 1927, and finally in 1928 we achieved the present Five-Year Plan accepted by the party and by the Congress of Soviets. After the plan for electrification of Russia drawn up under the direct guidance of Vladimir Ilyich (Lenin), this has been the most important victory in the field of socialist planning."

V. V. Kuibyshev—Head of Gosplan

In another article on the history of Gosplan it is pointed out that soon after the founding of Gosplan in 1921, it was found that it was not sufficient to concentrate all the planning work in the center, and that local planning organs were necessary as well. Accordingly economic councils were organized under the Council of People's Commissars of each of the separate republics to carry on planning work, and planning organs were also established in the lower administrative units. In addition to these territorial planning organs, functional planning commissions were established in each of the People's Commissariats to cooperate with the central organization. The Gosplan itself was divided into sections—agricultural, industrial, commercial, and so on, united in the presidium. In the first days of its existence Gosplan was compelled to deal solely with current problems—one crisis followed fast on the heels of another in those days, so that it was necessary to take up first a fuel plan, then a provision plan, then a building plan, then a transport plan, and so on, before it was possible to get at the task of coordinating all the different branches. But even in the beginning a certain amount of more general planning was accomplished. In 1921, very important work was done in the re-districting of the country on economic lines. In 1923, the first draft of a perspective plan for transport was drawn up, preliminary work on an export plan was begun, and important economic research on the principles and meth-

odology of planning was undertaken. Since 1928, the Five-Year Plan has taken precedence over all other work of Gosplan and other planning organs. Plans for economic development over a much longer period have also been made. From the beginning of 1930, when the Central Statistical Administration was abolished as a separate commissariat and its functions turned over to Gosplan, the planning has been based on more accurate statistical accounting than in the past.

On January 28th, 1931, the Central Executive Committee of the U. S. S. R. issued a decree which provides for a number of improvements in the organization and activities of Gosplan, and places it directly under the control of the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R.

On the day of the anniversary of Gosplan the first number of "Economic Life" as the organ of Gosplan and the People's Commissariat for Finance was issued. "Economic Life" was previously the organ of the People's Commissariats for Supply, Foreign Trade, Transport and Finance. In its new form it will deal more directly with problems of planning. An article describing the new functions of the paper concludes with a paragraph enumerating the things it stands for as follows:

"For a single economic plan for the U. S. S. R., built on the planned work of the smaller economic units; for verifying the execution of the plan; for bringing the planning organs close to productive processes; for establishing new methods of work by the planning organs; for the elimination of all traces of damaging activities in the planning organs; for the planning of technical progress and scientific research work."

Fiftieth Anniversary of Dostoyevsky's Death

THE fiftieth anniversary of the death of Feodor Dostoyevsky is being marked in the Soviet Union by a series of articles in the current periodicals and the publication of new editions of his works. His books have been published widely under the Soviet regime, in expensive editions prepared by scholars, and including parts of his works never before printed, and in cheap editions for the masses. Recently the letters he wrote during his stay in Germany, France and Italy, when he fled from Russia to escape his creditors between 1867 and 1871, after his return from his Siberian exile, have been published for the first time. A museum in Moscow preserves many details of his life and work.

"In what did the tremendous significance of Dostoyevsky consist?" writes one Soviet critic in a current magazine. "He was the greatest exponent of the troubled psychology, the inner contradictions, the restless sense of insecurity which was born with the breaking up of the life of the old nobles' estates, the transition of the center of intellectual interest from the spacious, leisurely life of the manor house to the five-storied city houses full of people of different conditions, leading crowded and nervous lives. The contribution of Dostoyevsky was a profound interpretation of the new style of life. Before his writings appeared, only the life of the nobility was pictured in Russian literature. . . ."

The son of a doctor, knowing himself the struggle of poverty, Dostoyevsky, according to this critic, sympathized with all the exploited ones of the earth, but remained too much of an individualist, too deeply imbedded in his own class to fully identify himself with their struggles.

A Corner of the Dostoyevsky Museum

"Fifty years divide us from the death of this gifted writer," he continues. "And yet there is something in Dostoyevsky which is not alien even to our tempestuous days. His vast dissatisfaction, his longing for social justice, his irreconcilability, his rebelliousness, his rejection of all those methods of curing social ills accessible to his class—all these things are evidence of the fact that Dostoyevsky was aware of the futility of his individual revolt. . . . In his very alarm, in his tormenting contradictions, was a certain foreboding of the future. . . ."

In another article the Dostoyevsky museum is described.

"At No. 2 Novoy Bozhedomke Street, on the lower floor of the right wing of the former Mariinsky Hospital of Moscow, the quarters of

the elder Dostoyevsky, staff physician of the hospital, have been preserved. In these quarters, where one of the greatest and most gifted writers of the past century, Feodor M. Dostoyevsky, passed his childhood, is now located the museum dedicated to him, which was organized in 1928 mainly from objects presented by relatives of the writer.

"The museum, in conjunction with the memoirs left by the brother of the writer, Andrey M. Dostoyevsky, opens before us again a picture of the patriarchal existence of the circle of persons who made up the Dostoyevsky family.

"The apartment occupied by the seven persons in the family, was of three rooms, including the entrance hall. The entrance hall was divided into two parts by a wooden partition, the dark, windowless part serving as a nursery for the older children—Mikhail and Feodor. Next was the parlor, a fair sized room with five windows, and the third room was the dining room, also with a wooden partition, dividing off the section which served as a sleeping room for the parents. In the parlor the little Feodor would stand for hours before his father repeating his Latin conjugations and declensions, while he gazed wistfully out of the window at the large and beautiful garden next to the hospital, with its rows of linden trees and little paths. Or he would sit by his father while he slept, driving away the tormenting flies.

"The objects shown in the museum give us glimpses of the entire life and creative course of Dostoyevsky. We become acquainted with his childhood interests, which left such a profound impress on his whole life. We learn the details of his sojourn in the military academy. In connection with the beginning of his creative activities is interesting to note his relations with other writers of the 40's, his acquaintance with Belinsky, the extraordinary interest of the latter in this rising literary star of first magnitude, which soon turned to indifference, and later to actual hostility. Here are to be found Nekrasov's almanac, the 'Petersburg Collection' which appeared on January 15, 1845, in which 'Poor People' was published for the first time, and here also is the number of Andrey Krayevsky's 'Otechestvennykh Zapisok' ('Notes of the Fatherland') in which Belinsky's enthusiastic article on 'Poor People' appeared, and here is the first number of the 'Sovreminnik,' ('The Contemporary'), published by Panayev and Nekrasov, in which writings of Dostoyevsky were published.

"The next section is concerned with Dostoyevsky's connection with the circle of Petrashevsk and Speshnev, his imprisonment, the sentence to be shot by the Tsarist Government. His sufferings on the day set for his execution are decribed in a letter to his brother which is preserved at the museum.

"But the death sentence was commuted to exile in Siberia, at hard labor, and next come a number of objects illustrating the period of Dostoyevsky's life spent in Omsk and Semipalatinsk, including a reproduction of the little known picture by Pomerantsev 'Dostoyevsky in the House of the Dead,' the original of which is in the Museum of the Revolution in Leningrad.

"The most interesting section of the museum is that devoted to the period of the publishing activities of the brothers Dostoyevsky. Their first journal, published from 1861 to 1863, 'Vremya' ('The Times'), suppressed by the government, was soon replaced by 'Epocha,' which continued until April, 1865, and was then discontinued for lack of funds.

"Very revealing are the account books of the Dostoyevsky brothers, written first in the hand of Mikhail Mikhailovich and later, after his death in July, 1864, by Feodor. By these may be judged the material difficulties which hampered Dostoyevsky and which laid their imprint on all his work. . . .

"A tremendous amount of work is still before the Dostoyevsky museum in collecting a great deal of material, the lack of which detracts from its value at the present time. The different sections of the museum should be supplied with fuller literary and political comments which will help the visitors to reconstruct for themselves in its entirety the tragic life of Dostoyevsky and the extent of his creative work. But in spite of its incompleteness, the museum is an interesting and valuable memorial."

New Books on U. S. S. R.

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

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

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

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

"Russia's Productive System," by Emile Burns. E. P. Dutton and Co., New York. $4.

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

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

The seven books listed above, one by an English economist, one by a German newspaper editor, and the others by Americans, all dealing with conditions in the Soviet Union from the point of view of general interest, have been published since the first of the year. They are all books of high quality, however varying the approach and the point of view. Together they afford an impressive picture of progress and development in the Soviet Union during the present transition period. The authors all write from first-hand observation.

Mr. Michael Farbman's "Piatiletka: Russia's 5-Year Plan," is an objective study from a conservative angle of the economic structure of the Soviet Union and the working of the Five-Year Plan. Mr. Farbman was sent to the Soviet Union by the London Economist to make a thorough survey. The major part of his volume was printed as a special Russian supplement to the London Economist with its issue of November 1 last. The work is one of the most impressive studies of Soviet economic affairs published abroad. The appraisal of the reorientation of agriculture is particularly informative.

"The Soviet Challenge to America" by Dr. George S. Counts has a broader scope than most books about the Soviet Union. The author is interested primarily in what the Soviets are driving at and how they are setting about the accomplishment of their aims. This book therefore has greater value for the inquiring mind than any mere study of the transition period. It is one of the few current books that fully emphasizes the importance of the educational program in connection with the upbuilding of the Soviet society. Dr. Counts has made several visits to Russia. On a recent visit he travelled 6,000 miles alone in a Ford, touching at many a remote village which had never before seen either an automobile or a foreigner. The results of this adventurous trip show in the book, which has captured the feeling of the country to a remarkable degree.

Mr. Sherwood Eddy in "The Challenge of Russia" has made a careful appraisal of progress and perspectives in the Soviet Union. The author has made several visits to the Soviet Union during the past few years and he spent considerable time there during Tsarist days, so that his background is established and his comparisons between conditions before the revolution and today are based on substantial knowledge. His book is one of the more important studies that have yet appeared.

In "The Economic Life of Soviet Russia" Professor Calvin B. Hoover has produced a comprehensive and scholarly study of the economic structure and development in the Soviet Union. His chapter on the organization of industry is probably the most thorough description made thus far by any foreign authority. His chapter on agriculture, on the other hand, suffers from the handicaps inevitable to an appraisal made during a period of complete reorientation, when the scholar as first-hand observer tends to permit the immediate difficulties and hardships to blot out the inevitable historical perspectives. The chapter on money also gives the impression that the author got a bit bemused in situations that could not be explained by familiar landmarks and standards. Professor Hoover betrays remarkable gifts of analysis, and when he is explaining facts and conditions he has all the objective absorption of the scientist. When he ventures into speculation and theory sometimes curious prejudices obtrude, and he shows a tendency to regard a phenomenon as sinister because it is new and strange. Probably the author is quite unconscious of these lapses from objectivity. In spite of them, his book will rank among the most important American studies of the Soviet economic system.

Mr. Emile Burns in "Russia's Productive System" gives a thoroughgoing study of the Soviet system of national economy, with the appropriate historical background. His description of the system of State planning and how it works is one of the most comprehensive that has appeared. The book is illustrated with charts and diagrams showing the administrative set-up in industry and agriculture. The appendix contains translations of recent decrees reorganizing the productive

structure. The student of economic developments in the Soviet Union will find the book of particular value.

"The Russian Experiment" by Arthur Feiler is a philosophical study of the Soviet Union from the point of view of a German newspaper editor. It is a book of substantial quality, though it is occasionally weakened by apparent gaps in the author's knowledge of the economics of production. The book was written in 1929, and unfortunately some of the situations which Mr. Feiler discusses at length now have merely a historical interest. The translation is excellent.

Mr. H. R. Knickerbocker is chief of the Berlin Bureau of the New York Evening Post and his account of his 10,000-mile reportorial tour in the Soviet Union, now published under the title of "The Red Trade Menace," appeared serially in The New York Evening Post. The book is not as lurid as the title might indicate. Mr. Knickerbocker went in to make a study of material progress under the Five-Year Plan. He is a skilled and shrewd reporter, and the accounts of things he himself saw are graphically and honestly presented, however one might dispute some of his theoretical conclusions. Occasionally he makes rather gross statistical errors, which are probably due to difficulties of Russian-American translation. Thus he states that Soviet timber exports increased 150 per cent in 1930 and were much larger than those of the United States. This is a large overstatement. Lumber exports proper from the Soviet Union during the fiscal year 1929-30 increased 32 per cent in volume; exports of lumber and lumber products together increased 54 per cent in volume. The value of American exports of lumber and products thereof last year was nearly 50 per cent greater than the exports of the same products from the Soviet Union. Thus Mr. Knickerbocker made a whopping statistical error on two counts. Such statistical mistakes, however, are not characteristic of his book, which is an impressive piece of reporting.

These volumes, even those written from a hostile angle, will yield no ammunition for the fantastic stories circulated in the United States that production in the Soviet Union comes from convict or forced labor. If the yarns from Riga, Helsingfors and other émigré propaganda points about forced labor were true, these first-hand observers certainly were blind men.

Mr. Knickerbocker visited many great industrial and construction projects. In some, such as the manganese mines at Chiaturi he was apparently on the lookout for forced or convict labor and he reports that he found none. He also noted that wages for underground miners there last summer were three and a third times the wages in Tsarist times; in the old days the miners worked sixteen hours a day, today seven hours a day.

After travelling 10,000 miles in the Soviet Union Mr. Knickerbocker wrote: "On this trip I observed but one gang of convict laborers, a road gang of the sort one frequently meets in Texas or any of the Southern states still using convicts on highway construction."

Dr. Sherwood Eddy, speaking of a visit to a collective farm which in the Tsarist days was a private estate where the peasants were paid ten and twelve cents a day by the feudal landlord and were lashed at the whipping post when they did not work hard enough, gives an interesting comparison of conditions today.

"Their nine modern tractors," he writes, " are working night and day on three eight-hour shifts. We noticed that one of them was operated by a woman. They have a large herd of cattle, as well as several hundred sheep and hogs. They are unusually successful in breeding horses. They have good orchards, a flour and lumber mill, and they are putting in an electric plant. The radio in the social room connects them with Moscow. The members of the commune receive an initial cash payment of fifty or sixty cents a day. Out of this they pay seventeen cents for their board and set a very good table. Their children are cared for, from birth if desired, in the nursery for infants up to the age of four, afterward in kindergarten and school, and finally, for those who are capable, right through the university, from which four have already graduated. They seem particularly successful in their care of the children. We had never seen any who were happier."

"THESE RUSSIANS," by William C. White. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $3.

In "These Russians" Mr. William C. White gives a number of conversations with and studies of various individuals he met in different parts of the Soviet Union. Mr. White spent three years in the Soviet Union and learned the language. He writes in a vivid and colorful manner. Some of his village sketches particularly are impressive. Unfortunately an undue proportion of the seventeen persons he describes, as well as the collateral characters, seem to be social misfits. Ill-adjusted persons are hardly typical in any society.

"CONVERSION EQUIVALENTS IN INTERNATIONAL TRADE," by Stephen Naft, E.E. The Commercial Museum, Philadelphia, Pa. $5.

Dr. Naft's volume contains weights, measures, gauges, currencies, technical and special units used in commerce and industry throughout the world, with conversion tables. His tables giving Russian standards and equivalents are thoroughly comprehensive and based on official figures. They should be of great value to American business men engaged in trade with the Soviet Union and to American scientists and engineers interested in Soviet construction projects.

"SOVIET FOREIGN TRADE, MENACE OR PROMISE," by J. M. Budish and Samuel S. Shipman of the Economic Division, Amtorg Trading Corporation. Horace Liveright, New York, 1931. $2.50.

Messrs. Budish and Shipman have made a conservative and thorough analysis of American-Soviet trade, its development and its relation to American foreign trade generally and to American industry, as well as its relation to the foreign trade of the Soviet Union. The handsome trade balance in favor of the United States in this commerce is set forth and explained. Some 85 pages are devoted to a study in great detail of the American imports from the Soviet Union, which last year amounted in value to one-fifth the American exports to the Soviet Union.

The analysis reveals that, according to figures of the Department of Commerce, while the greater part of American exports to the Soviet Union consist of finished manufactures, nearly two-thirds of the American imports from the Soviet Union consist of crude materials, which give employment to American manufacturers and workers in the course of being worked up into finished goods. The principal American imports from the Soviet Union consist of raw materials which America must import in quantity to feed into its factory production, and which it has been importing from various countries for a number of years, in most cases in steadily increasing quantities. Thus the trade between the two countries is complementary and has large perspectives of growth.

The book contains thorough and comprehensive chapters on "dumping," and on labor in the Soviet Union. These chapters are particularly informative in view of the fantastic stories about Soviet trade practices and about labor conditions that have been circulated in the United States.

The book, with its careful statistical background and its objective analysis of commercial realities and prospects, should prove of great value to American business and trade executives and to all persons interested in the development of international commerce. The volume affords an intimate study of the most rapidly developing market in the world today.

Some Recent Magazine Articles on the Soviet Union

Following is a list of the more important articles on the Soviet Union which have appeared since the list published in the January issue of the SOVIET UNION REVIEW.

"Young Technicians of the Soviet," Baltimore Sun Magazine, January 18, 1931.

An English scientist describes the Soviet system of technical education.

"Two American Boys in the U. S. S. R.," by David and Robin Kinkhead. The New Republic, January 28, 1931.

Final installment of series of letters commenced in December 24 issue.

"The Soviet Railway System," by Ralph Budd, President of the Great Northern Railway. Pan Pacific Progress, January, 1931.

An account of the inspection of Soviet railroads made by Mr. Budd at the invitation of the Soviet Government.

"C. A. Gill Becomes Chief Consulting Engineer of Russian Railways." Baltimore and Ohio Magazine, February, 1931.

An article on Soviet railroads in connection with the appointment of the superintendent of the B. & O. Eastern lines to Soviet advisory job.

"Will the Five-Year Plan Succeed?" by Louis Fischer. The Nation, February 4, 1931.

Mr. Fischer recapitulates the main events of 1930 and anticipates the trends for 1931.

"Americans in Soviet Russia," by William C. White. Scribners, February, 1931.

Mr. White describes the different types of American visitors one meets in the U. S. S. R.

"Russian Icons," by Alfred H. Barr, Jr. The Arts, February, 1931.

An article on the history of Russian icons and recent restoration work, in connection with the exhibition shown at Metropolitan Museum in New York, and in other cities.

"The Dragon's Teeth," by Hallie Flanagan. Theater Guild Magazine, February, 1931.

Mrs. Flanagan describes the Georgian theater in the last article of her series on the Soviet stage.

"The Continuous Working Week in Soviet Russia," by Marcel Griaule. International Labour Review, February, 1931.

A descriptionq of work under the new five-day, continuous production week, and an analysis of the results.

"Russia and the World Crisis," by William Henry Chamberlain. The New Republic, February 18, 1931.

A discussion of the Five-Year Plan, Soviet foreign relations, and "forced exports."

"The Balance Sheet of Russia's 5-Year Plan," by William Henry Chamberlain. The New Republic, February 25, 1931.

"An American Workman in Russia," by Lement Harris. Outlook and Independent, February 25, 1931.

A recent Harvard graduate tells of two years spent in the Soviet Union as a worker on a State farm and in a factory.

"Lydia Petrovna," by Eugene Lyons. The New Freeman, February 25, 1931.

A Russian girl explains "why the revolution can't go back."

"Child Welfare in Soviet Russia," by Vera Edelstadt. Current History, March, 1931.

"The Franco-British Plot to Dismember Russia," by Leonid I. Strakhovsky. Current History, March, 1931.

Historical material on the agreement between France and England in December, 1917, regarding the partitioning of Russia.

"The Soviet Union," by Edgar S. Furniss. Current History, March, 1931.

Statistical data on the Five-Year Plan, analysis of Soviet foreign trade and appraisal of present political situation.

"Meet the Younger Smiths of Russia," by Helen Christine Bennett. McCall's, March, 1931.

The third of a series of articles on the daily life of the ordinary person in the Soviet Union.

"The Smiths Step Out," by Helen Christine Bennett. McCall's, April, 1931.

The last article of the above series.

"Russia—The Industrial Laboratory," by Sam A. Lewisohn. Political Science Quarterly, March, 1931.

Some problems of labor and management in the U. S. S. R. discussed.

Miscellaneous News

U. S. S. R. Leading Purchaser of American Farm Implements

THE Soviet Union was the principal foreign market for American agricultural implements in 1930, taking 36 per cent of all exports in this category.* Exports to the Soviet Union for the year were $41,640,093, as compared with $24,488,192 for Canada and $17,440,244 for Argentina. Exports to the Soviet Union increased 106 per cent over those of 1929. Exports to all other countries showed a decrease of 39 per cent. Exports to Canada, the second best market, fell off 35 per cent, those to Argentina, the third best market, decreased by 51 per cent.

Of the Soviet purchases more than 85 per cent consisted of tractors. The remaining purchases consisted mainly of harvesting machinery and equipment, including 1,376 combines valued at $1,911,794, as compared with 435 combines valued at $700,791 in 1929. Half of the tractors exported from the United States went to the Soviet Union. The purchases included 20.447 wheel tractors. The Soviet Union took 2,589 tracklaying tractors.

Last year was the first year in which the Soviet Union was the leading purchaser of American agricultural implements. In 1929 it stood third to Canada and Argentina. Before the war the Russian purchases in this line were negligible. Of the total exports of agricultural implements to Europe in 1930 the Soviet Union took 77 per cent.

Issue Department Improves Reserves

The statement of the Department of Issue of the State Bank of the Soviet Union as of March 1 gives an indication of the greatly improved reserve position of the issue department during the past year. Note issue of 210,770,380 chervontzi (1 chervontzi=$5.14½) showed an increase of 31 per cent over March 1, 1930, while the gold holdings of 48,361,114 chervontzi showed an increase of 66 per cent.

The solid cover of gold, precious metals and foreign currency as of March 1 was 54,703,607 chervontzi, or 26 per cent, as compared with 38,895,337 chervontzi, or 25.3 per cent, a year ago. Of the solid cover March 1 gold represented 88 per cent, as compared with 75 per cent a year ago.

*All figures from "Commerce Reports," Feb. 16, 1931.

Special Commissariat for Waterways Established

On January 30th a decree was issued by the Soviet Government creating a separate People's Commissariat for Waterways of the U. S. S. R. Hitherto the waterways have been under the supervision of the People's Commissariat for Ways and Communications which included the railroads and all land and water routes. Nikolay Mikhailovich Yanson, formerly People's Commissar of Justice and Assistant Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the R. S. F. S. R. (Soviet Russia proper), has been appointed People's Commissar for Waterways.

"Commissions of Fulfillment" for the Separate Republics

On February 13th a decree was issued providing for the organization of "Commissions of Fulfillment" under the Councils of People's Commissars of the Union and Autonomous Republics and under the Regional Executive Committees. This follows the decree of December 24th, providing for an All-Union "Commission of Fulfillment" to verify the progress of the Five-Year Plan and fight bureaucracy. The decree states that the purpose of these "Commissions of Fulfillment" is to check up on the actual execution of the directions of the Government and its local organs, and to strengthen discipline in all government and economic organizations from top to bottom.

Krjijanovsky Heads Power Development

On February 11th, Gleb M. Krjijanovsky was at his own request freed of his duties as vice-chairman of the State Planning Commission of the U. S. S. R., and appointed head of the "Energocenter" of the Supreme Economic Council of the Soviet Union. The "Energocenter" is the organization directing the power development throughout the Soviet Union. Krjijanovsky also becomes a member of the Presidium of the Supreme Economic Council.

New Head of Centrosoyus

On February 11th, it was announced that in view of his transfer to other work Mr. A. D. Badayev had been relieved of his duties as chairman of the administration of Centrosoyus (Union of Consumers' Cooperatives) of the U. S. S. R., and the R. S. F. S. R. Mr. I. A. Zelensky has been appointed chairman of Centrosoyus in his stead.

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

The following list is given in chronological order.

"Ten Days that Shook the World," by John Reed. International Publishers, New York.
"Russia in 1919," by Arthur Ransome. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1919.
"The Bullitt Mission to Russia." Testimony before the Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate, of Wm. C. Bullitt. B. W. Heubsch, N. Y., 1919.
"Fighting Without a War," An Account of Military Intervention in North Russia, by Ralph Albertson. Harcourt, Brace and Howe, New York, 1920.
"The Russian Workers' Republic," by H. N. Brailsford. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1921.
"Through the Russian Revolution," by Albert Rhys Williams. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1921.
"The Russian Soviet Republic," by Edward A. Ross. The Century Co., New York, 1923.
"The First Time in History," by Anna Louise Strong. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1924.
"New Constitution of the Soviet Union." Soviet Union Information Bureau, Washington, 1924.
Leon Trotsky: "Literature and Revolution," International Publishers, New York, 1925: "Lenin." Minton Balch & Co., New York, 1925; "Whither Russia?" International Publishers, New York, 1926.
"The New Theatre and Cinema in Russia," by Huntley Carter. International Publishers, New York, 1925.
"Broken Earth," by Maurice Hindus. International Publishers, New York, 1926.
"Oil Imperialism—The International Struggle for Petroleum," by Louis Fischer, International Publishers, New York, 1926.
"Modern Russian Composers," by Leonid Sabaneyef. International Publishers, New York, 1927.
"On the Steppes, A Russian Diary," by James N. Rosenberg. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1927.
"The Russian Land," by Albert Rhys Williams. New Republic, Inc., New York, 1927.
"Russia After Ten Years," Report of the American Trade Union Delegation to the Soviet Union. International Publishers, New York, 1927.
Anna Louise Strong: "How the Communists Rule Russia"; "Marriage and Morals in Soviet Russia"; "How Business is Carried on in Soviet Russia"; "Workers' Life in Soviet Russia"; "Peasant Life in Soviet Russia." Little Blue Books. Haldeman Julius, Girard, Kansas. 1927.
Vanguard Studies of Soviet Russia. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1927-28: "How the Soviets Work," by H. N. Brailsford.—"The Economic Organization of the Soviet Union," by Scott Nearing and Jack Hardy.—"Village Life Under the Soviets," by Karl Borders.—"Religion under the Soviets," by Julius F. Hecker.—"Soviet Russia and Her Neighbors," by R. Page Arnot.—"Soviet Trade Unions," by Robert W. Dunn.—"Women in Soviet Russia," by Jessica Smith.—"New Schools in New Russia," by Lucy L. W. Wilson.—"Health Work in Soviet Russia," by Anna J. Haines.—"Liberty under the Soviets," by Roger N. Baldwin.—"The Jews and Other Minor Nationalities under the Soviets," by Avrahm Yarmolinsky.
"Soviet Russia in the Second Decade"; Edited by Stuart Chase. Robert Dunn and R. G. Tugwell of the Technical Staff of the First American Trade Union Delegation to the Soviet Union. John Day Company, New York, 1928.
"Present Day Russia," by Ivy Lee. Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.
"Labor Protection in Soviet Russia," by George M. Price. International Publishers, New York, 1928.
"Illustrated History of the Russian Revolution," 1917-1927. Ten Years' Progress Reported by Authoritative Russian Leaders, 2 Vol. International Publishers, New York, 1928.
"Russian Economic Development Since the Revolution," by Maurice Dobb. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1928.
"Guide Book to the Soviet Union." International Publishers, New York, 1928.
"American Policy Toward Russia Since 1917," by Dr. Fred L. Schuman. International Publishers, New York, 1928.
"Dreiser Looks at Russia," by Theodore Dreiser. Horace Liveright, New York, 1928.
"Lenin," by Valeriu Marcu. Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.
"Soviet Union Year Book," by A. A. Santalov and Louis Segal. George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., London, England, 1930 (May be obtained from Amtorg Publsihing Division, 136 Liberty Street, New York City. $2.50).
"Impressions of Soviet Russia and the Revolutionary World," by John Dewey. New Republic, Inc., New York, 1929.
"The Soviet Union: Reference Book on the U. S. S. R." Soviet Union Information Bureau, Washington, 1929.
"Civic Training in Soviet Russia," by Samuel N. Harper. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929.
"The Curious Lottery," by Walter Duranty. Coward McCann, New York, 1929.
"Soviet Union & Peace," A collection of official documents regarding peace and disarmament, 1917-1929. International Publishers, New York, 1929.
"Revolution of 1917," by V. I. Lenin, Volume XX of Collected Works—2 vols. International Publishers, New York, 1929.
"The Soviet Union Looks Ahead." The Five Year Plan for Economic Construction. Horace Liveright, New York, 1929.
"The Red Star in Samarkand," by Anna Louise Strong. Coward McCann, New York, 1929.
"Humanity Uprooted," by Maurice Hindus. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York, 1929.
"The Soviet Union at Work," charts and diagrams compiled by Albert A. Johnson. A. A. Johnson and Associates, Springfield, Mass., 1929.
"The New Education in the Soviet Republic," by Albert P. Pinkevitch. John Day Company. New York, 1929.
"Soviet Economic Development and American Business," by Saul G. Bron. Horace Liveright, New York, 1930.
"Soviet Russia—A Living Record and a History," by William Henry Chamberlain. Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1930. $5.
"Russia Today and Yesterday," by Dr. E. J. Dillon. Doubleday Doran, New York, 1930. $3.50.
"Voices of October—Art and Literature in Soviet Russia," by Joseph Freeman, Joshua Kunitz and Louis Lozowick. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1930. $4.
"A Ford Crosses Soviet Russia," by George S. Counts, Stratford Co., Boston, Mass., 1930.
"The Soviets in World Affairs," 2 vols., by Louis Fischer. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York, 1930. $10.00.
"Memories of Lenin," by Nadezhda K. Krupskaya. International Publishers, New York, 1930. $1.50.
"Modern Farming—Soviet Style," by Anna Louise Strong. International Pamphlets, New York, 1930. $.10.
"The Five-Year Plan of the Soviet Union. A Political Interpretation," by G. T. Grinko. International Publishers, New York, 1930. $3.50.
"The Russian Experiment," by Arthur Feiler. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1930. $3.
"Piatiletka: Russia's 5-Year Plan," by Michael Farbman. New Republic, Inc., New York, 1931. $1.
"The Soviet Challenge to America," by George S. Counts, Associate Director International Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University. The John Day Company, New York, 1931. $4.
"The Challenge of Russia," by Sherwood Eddy. Farrar and Rinehart, New York, 1931. $2.50.
"The Economic Life of Soviet Russia," by Calvin B. Hoover, Ph.D., Professor of Economics, Duke University. The Maccillan Company, New York, 1931. $3.
"Russia's Productive System," by Emile Burns. E. P. Dutton millan Company, New York, 1931. $3.
"The Red Trade Menace," by H. R. Knickerbocker. Dodd, Mead and Company, New York, 1931. $2.50.
"These Russians," by William C. White, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1931. $3.
"Soviet Foreign Trade, Menace or Promise," by Budish and Shipman. Horace Liveright, New York, 1931.

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◆ Containing ◆

SIXTH CONGRESS OF SOVIETS

MOLOTOV'S REPORT

AGRICULTURAL SITUATION

TADJIKISTAN, by Boris Pilnyak

SOVIET FOREIGN RELATIONS

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Molotov Reports to Congress of Soviets

THE report of the government to the Sixth Congress of Soviets, which opened in Moscow on March 8, was made by Viacheslav Molotov, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars. In describing the activities of the government during the past two years Molotov first stressed the point that the most important change that had taken place in the Soviet Union since the Fifth Congress of Soviets in 1929 was that the socialized elements of the national economy had gained absolute supremacy as a result of the progress of socialist industry and the growth of State farms and collectives. After a discussion of the general international situation and a review of the various anti-Soviet campaigns launched during the past two years, Molotov took up the questions of alleged Soviet "dumping" and "forced labor." He pointed out that the real background of the anti-Soviet "dumping" campaign could be exposed by certain elementary economic facts.

The "Soviet Dumping" Myth

"In 1913," he said, "Russia's share in the world's exports was altogether about 3.5 per cent, which was rather little. Well, we have not reached that level yet. For, in 1930 our share of world's export was only 1.9 per cent. Thus, even as compared with the insignificant level of Russian exports in the past, our exports today are hardly more than one-half of that. As regards the exports to individual countries in 1929, Soviet exports formed 0.5 per cent in England, Italy and France, and 2.6 per cent in Germany, which was the highest level reached.

"It is to be regretfully observed that even in absolute figures, our exports are considerably below pre-war. As against the 1,500,000,000 rubles* of Russian exports in 1913, our exports in 1930 amounted only to about 1 billion rubles, which was a reduction of half a billion rubles. Yet, in 1913 nobody was lamenting that the exports of Tsarist Russia were the cause for economic crisis in the capitalist countries.

"The preposterous character of the explanation of the crisis as due to 'Soviet dumping' may be pointed out by still other facts. In both Europe and America industries making products which our country does not export at all, but imports from them, are caught in the common crisis.

"Indeed, can the depression of the steel industry be seriously ascribed to the effect of 'Soviet dumping'? The U.S.S.R. does not export, but

*A ruble is equal to 51.5 cents.

it imports metal. Or, can 'Soviet dumping' explain the crisis of machine construction in America and Europe? The crisis in that industry is growing, whereas the Soviet Union increases year by year the importation of equipment from Europe as well as from America. Or, does 'Soviet dumping' account for the catastrophic curtailment of automobile production? Does it not sound ridiculous at a time when we have to import large quantities of automobiles from abroad?

"Such instances might be quoted *ad infinitum*. Suffice it to say that the U.S.S.R. is the only country which not only has not curtailed, but on the contrary, has considerably increased its imports during the last year.

"By this I do not mean to say that we are not extending our exports, or that we do not contemplate such extension in the future. On the contrary, we are increasing our foreign trade turnover, and to meet our growing annual imports we also increase our exports. This is to the advantage of everybody concerned. . . . "

With regard to the accusations of "forced labor" in the Soviet Union, Molotov pointed out the absurdity of using such a term to describe conditions of labor in a country where the means of production are actually in the hands of the workers, where unemployment no longer exists, where the seven-hour day is gradually being extended to all branches of industry, and even the six-hour day exists in many of the more dangerous trades, where wages and social insurance funds are steadily growing, and where the growth of the "socialist competition" movement is evidence of the interest of the workers in their jobs.

Labor Conditions in the North

With regard to the Soviet lumber industry, Molotov gave the following picture of conditions in the northern districts:

"Let me say at once that in those lumber camps about which so much is now written abroad, there are now engaged during this season 1,134,000 workers, all of them employed on the usual condition of free labor, no convict labor whatever being employed.

"Nevertheless we never intended to conceal the fact that we do employ the labor of healthy and able-bodied convicts on some communal and road work. We have done so before, are doing so now, and shall continue to do so in the future. This is only to the advantage of society. It is also to the advantage of the convicts, who are thus taught to do useful work and to be useful members of society.

"In a number of northern districts, about which so much is being written by the foreign newspapers in connection with the campaign against 'forced labor', we have indeed employed and are employing the labor of convict prisoners on certain jobs. But the facts to be stated below will clearly demonstrate that the labor of the convict prisoners has nothing whatever to do with our export products.

"Let us enumerate the objects on which convict labor is employed.

"In Karelia the road from Kem to Ukhta, 208 kilometers in length, has already been built by convicts, and also the Parandovo-Kiksh highway, 190 kilometers long. Such work is unquestionably essential to the country.

"Of exceptional importance is the present work of digging the White Sea-Baltic canal in Karelia. This canal, having a length of 914 kilometers, embracing the Ladoga and Onega lakes, is to unite the Baltic Sea with the White Sea. Connected with the digging of this canal is extensive work on excavation and on draining operations on the lakes and rivers forming part of the canal system. At the present time there is work going on in the district of the Vyg Lake. The digging of the canal is to be completed in the course of two years.

"In the Northern Region we are also carrying out a number of important road-building and railway construction projects. Thus, in the northern district the Siktivkar-Ukhta road is being built, having a stretch of 313 kilometers, of which 160 have already been completed. The road leads to the Ukhta district where oil prospecting operations are in progress. Moreover, in the same district the Siktivkar-Pinyug railway, with a stretch of 305 kilometers, is being constructed entirely by convict labor. Ninety-seven kilometers of this railway track has already been completed. This work may play a big role in building up the oil area in this district. The Ukhta oil region is going to be of importance to the surrounding districts as well as to the whole of the Union.

"Upon all those works in the aforesaid districts there are about 60,000 people employed.

"I should like to add a few words about the working and living conditions of the convicts in those districts. In all the camps the working day has been set at 8 hours for the convicts. While receiving the necessary rations, and also monthly wages of from 20 to 30 rubles in cash, the amount of work required from the convicts does not exceed that of the free laborer. The convict camps constitute settlements where the workers walk about unguarded and enjoy perfect freedom of movement. There is a great amount of cultural and educational activity going on among the convict laborers, books and periodicals are received, and so on. Thus, in the autumn of 1930 there were about 10,000 people in the northern districts enjoying the benefits of craft and technical education. . . .

"It seems to me that a part in stopping these fables about 'forced labor' in the U.S.S.R., can be taken by those representatives of foreign countries, and representatives of foreign newspapers, who are resident in the U.S.S.R. Of course, the attempts made abroad to appoint of-

ficial committees to 'investigate' the situation in the U.S.S.R. are quite unacceptable to the Soviet Government, as such an investigation would be incompatible with the sovereign rights of our State. No free and sovereign state would agree to such a one-sided 'investigation.' However, the representatives of foreign countries and of foreign newspapers resident in Moscow enjoy here entire freedom of movement, and, if they desire, they may become personally convinced how utterly groundless are the lies spread abroad about 'forced labor' in the U.S.S.R. If they think it necessary, any one of them may travel to the spot where export goods are produced, for instance, export timber, and convince himself that there is no connection whatever between such export goods and the employment of convict labor, or of any labor of a compulsory character. . . .

"If there be any need for it, we shall agree, upon terms of equality, to the appointment of any foreign delegations elected by the workers themselves to come here and study labor conditions on the spot. Who should be interested in the conditions of labor in our country, or in any other country, more than the workers themselves? Let such an opportunity be granted the foreign workers by those in authority. We only insist that, on terms of equality, similar facilities be extended by foreign governments to our workers to study conditions in their respective countries."

Foreign Relations of the U.S.S.R.

Turning to the question of disarmament, Molotov stated that the failure of the preparatory commission for the disarmament conference to make any headway whatever in the direction of real disarmament had caused the Soviet delegation to disassociate itself from the work of the commission. Speaking of the International Disarmament Conference to be convened in February, 1932, he said:

"As regards the U.S.S.R., it can participate in the disarmament conference only to the extent that this conference will really endeavor to bring about disarmament, or at least, a substantial reduction of armaments. At the same time, we can only warn the capitalist powers that neither prior to the conference, nor in the conference itself, shall we allow any decisions and treaties arrived at in our absence and without our participation to be imposed on us."

In the section of his report dealing with the international relations of the Soviet Union, Molotov emphasized the necessity for the U.S.S.R. to maintain peace and to develop its economic relations with the rest of the world.

"In its struggle for universal peace," he declared, "and for the strengthening of its peaceful relations with other countries, the Soviet State has, on more than one occasion, demonstrated its consistency and its exceptional firmness. This policy will be continued by the Soviet Union, bearing in mind that the strengthening of universal peace is to the interest of the workers, not only of our country, but of all countries.

Germany

"The two years which have elapsed since the Fifth Soviet Congress may be subdivided into two periods. The first period covers the end of 1929 and the beginning of 1930. In my report to the Soviet Congress I cannot avoid mentioning the fact that, to our profound regret, the German government and public circles during the first period seemed to be carried away by the wave of the anti-Soviet 'crusade' which for a time constituted a menace to the development of Soviet-German relations. However, since the middle of 1930 a favorable change has taken place in the relations between the U.S.S.R. and Germany, which I note with satisfaction. The fundamental line of Germany's recent foreign policy in regard to the U.S.S.R. has been that of friendly cooperation, and of continued improvement of the relations which have stood the test of nine years, and which, I am firmly convinced, may and should be further developed in our mutual interest and the interest of universal peace. The present visit of a delegation of leading German industrialists to this country furnishes an additional proof of the fact that the German leaders understand the importance and value of Soviet-German economic cooperation. Permit me to express my conviction that the visit of this delegation, and its direct negotiations with the leaders of Soviet industry, will bear fruit and will strengthen even further the foundation of our economic relations.*

Italy

"Our relations with Italy during these two years have developed normally and on the whole satisfactorily. In regard to trade relations, there was a certain improvement. An agreement was signed last summer (August 2) under which the Italian government is to guarantee long-term credits on orders placed by our State organization in Italy, which makes possible a considerable extension of our purchases in Italy. The terms of this agreement have already been not only fulfilled but exceeded and in a shorter period than was expected. At the same time there is to be observed in Italy a considerable interest in a number of our articles of export, such as oil, grain, coal, timber, etc. The experience of the development of our economic ties with Italy is the best proof of the possibility and of the mutual profitableness of trade relations between the U.S.S.R. and the capitalist countries, regardless of the dia-

*On April 14th it was announced in Berlin that additional long-term credits had been extended on Soviet orders for $75,000,000 worth of industrial equipment.

metrically opposite character of the two systems.

"The revival of Soviet-Italian relations made it expedient to arrange for a personal meeting for the exchange of views between our Commissar for Foreign Affairs, Litvinov, and the Italian foreign minister, Grandi. Since the greatest menace to peace at the present time is the formation of an anti-Soviet bloc of the capitalist powers, any *rapprochement* between the U.S.S.R. and another country, especially an important country like Italy, is bound to serve the cause of peace.

Turkey

"During the recent period our relations with Turkey continued to be strengthened. This was reflected in the visit paid by our assistant foreign commissar, Karakhan, to Turkey in December, 1929, and in the signing of the Soviet-Turkish protocol at Angora extending for another two years the Paris Pact between U.S.S.R. and Turkey. Supplementing the provisions of the Paris Pact, the Angora protocol extended the obligations of the signatories, binding both sides to refrain from negotiating with neighboring states without informing each other, and from signing any treaties with those states without securing the consent of each other. The visit of Tewfik Rushdi-Bey to the U.S.S.R. in 1930 has further extended the personal contact between the leaders of the foreign policies of the U.S.S.R. and Turkey, serving as a fresh proof of friendship.

"The development of the economic and cultural relations between Turkey and the U.S.S.R. continues. In the course of last year negotiations were started for a Soviet-Turkish trade agreement, which is shortly to be signed. Thus, we have a general strengthening of the friendly relations between Turkey and the U.S.S.R., and practical cooperation in a number of fields.

"Today a telegram was received from Angora regarding the signing of the Soviet-Turkish agreement yesterday. Under the terms of this agreement both sides bind themselves to advise each other six months ahead in case any new warships are ordered or launched for the Black Sea fleet. Of course, agreements of this kind are no substitute for our disarmament proposals, but in this case the agreement affords additional proof of mutual confidence.

Great Britain

"As already stated, great changes have occurred in our relations with Great Britain since the last Congress. The defeat of the Conservatives in the general election of 1929 was at the same time the defeat of their foreign policy. Both the U.S.S.R. and Great Britain are interested in the development of our mutual economic relations, and we have already certain successes to register in this respect. During the first year of our normal relations—that is, during 1929-30—Soviet imports from England increased from £9,912,000 to £15,395,000. We have every ground to anticipate the further development of our economic relations with Great Britain.

"It should also be noted as a welcome fact that at present there is a mixed Soviet-English commission of experts meeting in London to check up and adjust mutual material claims.

"Nevertheless, we cannot help alluding to the fact that the British Parliament, and part of the British press, are the arena for endless manifestations of outspoken hostility to the Soviet Union. Notably, the Conservative Party is doing everything possible to wreck Soviet-British relations. The Soviet government must warn the Congress about the necessity of keeping a particularly vigilant eye on the development of the situation in England, for the anti-Soviet campaign and the intervention movement in that country are led by the most influential leaders of the Conservative Party and former members of the Cabinet.

Japan

"Our relations with Japan are continuing to develop normally, in the direction of the further strengthening of our friendship, and of the mutual understanding based upon the Treaty of Peking.

"I note with satisfaction the fact that during the years which have elapsed since the signing of the treaty, and particularly during the last two years, there was not a single political conflict recorded between the U.S.S.R. and Japan. At the same time there was considerable extension of our trade relations, our trade being already four times above the pre-war level of trade between Japan and Tsarist Russia.

"The controversy which arose partly on the grounds of carrying out the terms of the fishery concessions has been settled, and we believe all questions will be so settled in the future, in the spirit of friendship and in strict accord with the treaties. Naturally, the Soviet government was bound to meet with due resistance the attempts of greedy groups of capitalists who wanted to ignore the fishing convention, as well as Soviet laws.

"Mutual respect for the interests of both countries, and strict observance of treaty obligations, should be the basis for the further development of our amicable relations.*

Persia and Afghanistan

"During the period under report there has been no change in our relations with Persia. I may particularly note that we have already started negotiations about the conclusion of a Soviet-Persian trade agreement, which will further contribute to the strengthening of our relations.

"As regards Afghanistan, the Soviet govern-

*Since this report was made Anikiev, trade representative of the U.S.S.R. in Japan, was severely wounded in an attempt on his life by a Japanese citizen. An exchange of notes has taken place between the U.S.S.R. and Japan.

ment has consistently maintained the position of strengthening amicable relations and the independence of Afghanistan. At the present time our mutual relations with Afghanistan are developing normally. I may particularly note the development of our economic relations with Afghanistan which are constantly growing. On the order of the day is now the question of signing a trade agreement, the necessity of which is recognized and admitted by both sides. We have every ground to anticipate the further growth and strengthening of our relations with Afghanistan.

France

"In the foregoing part of my speech I have already referred to our relations with France; I have also dealt with this question in my report before the session of the Central Executive Committee of the Union. No substantial change has since occurred. . . .

"During the last two years there were exceptional difficulties placed in the way of the activity of our trade delegation and of our economic agencies in France. I am referring to the proceedings in the French courts in connection with law suits entered upon by shady personalities flocking to Paris from different countries, and invariably obtaining satisfaction from the French courts for their fictitious claims against our economic organizations. In this connection the French courts did not hesitate to accept the obviously false evidence given by forgers and swindlers.

"After what I have said, there is no need to dwell at any length on our relations with France. It must be regretfully admitted that in the domain of Soviet-French relations an exceptionally grave and serious menace to the cause of universal peace is harbored. Not in vain has the French government invariably declined our proposals for the signing of a non-aggression treaty, as though the elimination of the danger of disturbing the world peace did not concern the interests of the French government. Nevertheless, we are prepared to continue our efforts towards the strengthening of our mutual relations if we see sincere readiness on France's part as well to improve Soviet-French relations.

Poland and Other Countries

"Our relations with Poland, unfortunately, still leave a good deal to be desired. Notwithstanding the acceptance by Poland of our proposal to sign the Moscow protocol, our repeated attempts in the direction of strengthening Soviet-Polish relations have not met with the necessary response. On the other hand, as immediate neighbors, we cannot help turning attention to the fact that Poland during the whole of the last three sessions of the disarmament preparatory commission, persistently and actively participated in the rejection of all proposals for real reduction of armaments whether made by Soviet or other delegates.

"In our relations with the Baltic countries—Latvia, Esthonia, and Finland, there has been very little recent change. It should be said only that the influences of large foreign powers hostile to the Soviet Union are continuing to exercise by no means negligible pressure on the policies of those countries.

"Our relations with Lithuania, and also with Danzig, are quite normal and systematically improving.

"Our economic relations with Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, as well as with Austria, are developing normally.

"Greece is the only Balkan country which established normal and amicable relations with the U.S.S.R., as far back as 1924. I think it necessary, therefore, to make special mention of the fact of the development and strengthening of Soviet-Greek relations during the period which has elapsed since the Fifth Congress of Soviets.

"Mention should be made also of the development of our relations with Hedjas and Yemen.

China

"There is no need now to dwell in detail on our relations with China. . . .

"We continue to hope for the successful completion of the labors of the Soviet-Chinese Conference; at the same time we shall follow with the utmost vigilance the machinations of our enemies, exposing their activities which are both provocative and hostile to the interests of the peoples of the U.S.S.R. and China, and realizing the necessity for us to be prepared to repel all attempts to disturb the peace in the Far East."

United States

Referring briefly to the relations of the Soviet Union with the United States, Molotov pointed out that regardless of the steady and considerable growth of trade relations between the two countries, especially the growing Soviet imports from the United States, anti-Soviet activities had been carried on resulting in embargoes on the exportation of Soviet goods to America, and warned that this would have an inevitable effect on Soviet imports from America. Molotov also referred to anti-Soviet activities being carried on by agents of the Vatican.

Concluding his review of foreign relations, Molotov declared:

"The fundamental slogan of the foreign policy of the Soviet Union was, and remains, that of strengthening the cause of peace. With this slogan the rule of the Soviets was born, and for it, it will continue to struggle, frustrating all the attempts of foreign interventionists, of expelled former Russian capitalists, and of their agents within the country.

"The struggle for peaceful conditions of development in the Soviet Union is insolubly bound up with the struggle for the strengthening of our

fraternal relations with other nations. The struggle for peace under present conditions directly implies the struggle against the preparations in progress for anti-Soviet intervention, and against its imperialist instigators. We openly speak to the toilers of the Soviet Union, and to the workers of all countries, about the growing danger to the cause of peace. At the same time we express our implicit confidence in the fact that an armed attack on the U.S.S.R. at this stage will prove even more dangerous for those who dare disturb the peace, and attack the Soviet Union."

Internal Problems

In speaking on questions of internal policy, Molotov enumerated five important political results that had been achieved since the last Congress of Soviets, as follows:

1. The carrying out in full, with a surplus in all the basic indices, of the Five-Year Plan.
2. The liquidation of unemployment.
3. The solution of the grain problem.
4. The turning of the peasant masses to the road of collectivization.
5. The elimination of the kulaks as a class.

As concrete data on the economic growth during the past two years, he presented the following figures (furnished by the State Planning Commission of the Union):

The Fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan 1928-29 1929-30

	Contemplated for 2 years	Fulfilled in 2 years	Percentage of fulfillment
National income (in billion rubles)	58.3	59.5	102
National budget (in billion rubles)	17.0	21.0	124
Capital investments in the basic public enterprises, at current prices (in billion rubles)	12.7	13.8	109
Aggregate output of planned industries (including food products), in prices of 1926-27 (in billion rubles)	29.3	30.5	104
Area under crops (in million hectares)	239.0	245.8	103
Production of marketable grain (in million bushels)	221.2	267.3	121
Turnover of freight (in million tons)	350.9	409.2	117

Molotov further stated that in the field of electrification the plan for the past two years has been completely fulfilled. In production costs, however, the achievement was only 11.4 per cent reduction as against 14.5 per cent called for by the plan. The progress in industrialization, he said, may be gauged by the change that has occurred in the relation between industry and agriculture, the share of industry in the combined output of industry and agriculture having risen during 1928-30 from 57 per cent to 67 per cent.

The claim that the grain problem had been solved, he explained, was based on the fact that during the present year 21,440,624 metric tons had been collected by March 1st, when the grain-purchasing campaign was still not completed, whereas in 1913 the entire amount of marketable grain (outside of the villages) amounted to 21,228,340 metric tons. Of that quantity three-fourths was produced by the landlords and kulaks. This is now being replaced by the grain of the State farms and collectives. The latter have this year produced one and a half times the amount of marketable grain expected from them in 1933, and the State farms will reach their 1933 schedule in 1931. Molotov then summarized the progress of collective agriculture which is given in more detail in the reports on agriculture printed elsewhere in this issue.

In outlining the plan for the present year Molotov stated that this year is really the decisive year of the Five-Year Plan. The control figures (which represent an upward revision of the original plan figures) call for an increase in the national income of 39 per cent, an increase in industrial production of 45 per cent, a reduction in production costs of 10 per cent, and the launching of 518 new industrial enterprises as against 323 in the past four years. Molotov predicted that the Five-Year Plan in iron, steel, rolled steel and cotton goods would be fulfilled in four years; in cement, anthracite, peat and sugar in three years; in copper, oil, machine, ship and engine building in two and a half years. He stated that the five-year goal for the general production of all industries under the Supreme Economic Council would be reached in three and a half years, and in the basic branches of industry in three years.

Molotov dwelt at some length on the technical problems involved in carrying out the program, declaring emphatically that a mastery of technical methods and a thorough understanding of production processes were absolutely indispensable to the success of the plan. In this connection he stated that due to increased facilities for technical training provided in the past few years there would be three times as many engineers and technicians in Soviet industry this year as in 1927, and double the number of scientific workers.

Summing up the present situation Molotov pointed out that the Sixth Congress of Soviets coincided with the completion of ten years under the New Economic Policy, during which period the national income had increased four-fold, the gross production of census industry twelve and a half times, the seeded area one and a half times, the trade turnover five and a half times and railroad freight six times. The share of the private sector in the production of census industry has decreased from 36 per cent to five per cent, in the seeded area from 99 per cent to 67 per cent, and in retail trade from 75 per cent to 5.5 per cent. The number of industrial workers has increased from 2,430,000 to 6,359,000, the average monthly wages per worker in census industry have advanced from 14 rubles to 80.4 rubles per month,

and the monthly output per worker has increased five-fold.

In conclusion Molotov declared that the position of the Soviet Government was still that described by the Soviet representative at the European Economic Conference in 1927, in the following words:

"Socialism represents not only a system of economic and social equality. Socialism first of all means peace. The contradictions between the two economic systems which for a certain historical period must inevitably exist side by side in no way preclude the possibility of a practical working agreement between them."

Review of Agricultural Situation

THE Sixth Congress of Soviets devoted the major part of its time to a consideration of the agricultural situation. Yakov Yakovlev, People's Commissar for Agriculture of the U.S.S.R., opened the discussion of agriculture with a report on the sovhozes (State farms).

Yakovlev, Commissar for Agriculture

Yakovlev began with the statement that when in 1928, the Government passed a resolution to organize on the unworked land in the R.S.F.S.R. and the Ukraine a chain of sovhozes which within four years would produce about 16,500,000 metric tons of marketable grain, the proposal had seemed fantastic to many. By 1930, however, the "Zernotrest" (Grain Trust) had organized 143 sovhozes, with 4,322,500 acres of seeded area, which had produced in the last harvest 11,800,000 metric tons of commercial grain (including the grain of the other sovhozes specializing in other products). At the present rate of progress about 32,000,000 metric tons of grain is guaranteed by the sovhozes for the harvest of 1931, and it is planned that they shall more than double that amount by 1933.

In addition to the grain farms Yakovlev reported the organization of large State farms specializing in other agricultural products. Thus the "Skotovod" (Cattle Trust), organized in 1929, developed in one year a chain of 140 sovhozes covering about 50,000,000 acres with 1,200,000 head of cattle. In March, 1930, the "Svinovod" was organized, and by the first of 1931 had established 350 sovhozes covering almost 3,000,000 acres, with 218,000 hogs. The "Maslotrest" (Dairy Trust), organized July 27, 1930, was operating 52 sovhozes by the end of the year, covering 3,210,000 acres, with over 50,000 head of cattle. The "Ovtsevod" by the end of 1930 operated 115 sovhozes, covering 32,100,000 acres, with 2,700,000 head of sheep. All the livestock farms together cover a territory of almost 90,000,000 acres of land which is being brought into use for the first time an area several thousand square miles larger than the State of New York.

The "Soyussakhar" (Sugar Trust), which operates the longest established and best organized system of sovhozes, produced in the 1930 harvest 350,000 metric tons of grain and 300,000 metric tons of beets. In 1930, the sovhozes seeded 19,760 acres of flax, and over 110,000 acres of irrigated land were sown to cotton. The same intensive development is planned for State farms specializing in technical crops as in livestock. Taken altogether Yakovlev reported that the total commercial production of the sovhozes for the past year amounted to over $100,000,000.

Sovhoz Defects and Their Remedies

After enumerating the achievements of sovhozes, Yakovlev turned to a discussion of their defects, of which he said, the gravest were: (1) misuse of machinery, (2) poor organization of harvest work, (3) insufficient mastery of the technical problems of agriculture.

He then proceeded to outline the measures necessary to eliminate these defects. With regard to the first of these he declared that anyone who was wilfully careless with machinery must be held to a strict accounting. A step had been taken in this direction by the recent Government decree making deliberate injury to machinery a criminal offense. Next, each tractor must be one person's responsibility, and to insure continued care of tractors by responsible people the tractorists must be a permanent staff and not just seasonal workers. The repairing of machinery must not be carried on feverishly, when the time for using it is already at hand, as has sometimes happened, but should be so organized that repairing is constantly going on in the machine shops, and so that each battery of machinery is prepared for use well in advance of the season. A system of hitches suitable to the large tractors now being used must be worked out. Proper machinery to permit the high-powered tractors which have been proved most efficient on the large areas of

the new sovhozes has been lacking, and in Yakovlev's opinion one of the greatest necessities is to develop proper machinery so that the tractors may work to their full capacity.

The lack of proper organization of harvest work in the past, according to Yakovlev, has been largely due to the rapidity with which the large farms were established, and the introduction of so much machinery formerly unknown in the U.S.S.R. The combines, for instance, which were used by the thousands this year, whereas there was not a single one in Russia prior to 1925, had struck fear to the hearts of many a sovhoz director who found it difficult to cope with the problem of coordinating the different types of work necessary in using the combine to its fullest capacity. In spite of these difficulties Yakovlev stated that the combine had proved its preeminence as a harvesting machine, and that within a few years the combines would undoubtedly be the chief harvesting machines used by the collectives as well as by the sovhozes. For this, more skilled workers and better organization were essential. Another important point for sovhoz directors to realize was, he said, that different sections demand different methods of organization, and many well trained and capable young directors had failed to take local conditions into consideration.

In reporting on the livestock farms Yakovlev stated that there were more defects in the livestock farms than in the grain farms due to the shorter period they had been functioning and the more complex nature of their work. Until now the main difficulty has been the lack of a trained staff. This situation is already being remedied since 25,000 students have passed through short term training courses in recent months, 18,500 students are now receiving practical instruction on the cattle farms, and a number of new institutions have been opened for training livestock specialists. The main emphasis in the near future is to be the better organization of fodder supplies, the improvement of breeds, and the extension of water facilities.

Agricultural Zoning

Yakovlev reported that the question of agricultural zoning has received a great deal of attentior and every effort has been made to place the different types of farms in the most suitable regions. Thus the chief grain farms are being established chiefly in the North Caucasus, the Ukrainian steppe lands, Siberia, the Ural district, Northern Kazakstan, the lower Volga region, and the Far East. The cattle farms are to be confined chiefly to Kazakstan, Siberia, the lower Volga, the North Caucasus, Central Asia (chiefly sheep-breeding). The aim is also to establish the livestock farms near rivers and near large meat consuming centers. The dairy zone includes the Urals, Siberia, the Northern butter exporting districts, the consuming areas (near the large towns), the Ukraine, and other districts rich in natural fodder and by-products which may be used as fodder. The cotton and fibre plantations are to be concentrated in Central Asia, Transcaucasia, the Southern part of the North Caucasus and the Ukraine. Vast tracts of unused land appropriate for cattle and dairy farming lie along the Eastern rivers and the Northern part of the consuming zone—the rich meadows of the lower stream of the Irtysh, the Ob and the Yenesei Rivers for instance, as well as many others. Yakovlev pointed out that these plans for agricultural zoning were of importance to the collectives as well as the sovhozes, since their work should follow the same lines.

Importance of Sovhozes to Peasantry

In summing up the activities of the sovhozes Yakovlev stated that while their chief role was that of supplying marketable products to the State, of almost equal importance was their function of serving as a model for the peasants and collective farmers.

"The whole of the foregoing," he declared, "shows what a tremendous role is played, and will be played by the sovhozes, as factories of marketable products. For this very reason each step forward in the development of the sovhozes improves the material conditions of the workers and of the peasants."

"Of course, this does not limit the role of the sovhozes: by their progressive technique, and by their socialist forms of labor organization, they have certainly played a leading role in inducing the peasants to turn to collectivization. You all know about the great assistance given by the State farms to the collective farms. Thus, in 1930 they ploughed 800,000 hectares and sowed 700,000 hectares for the collective farmers and for poor and middle individual peasants, besides training hundreds of thousands of workers of the collective farms. Many other cases of this kind of assistance could be mentioned.

"Stress ought to be laid on this role of our State farms as models of big farming, as a school of the new technique for the peasants.

"Any attempt on the part of State farms to absorb collective farms would constitute a flagrant violation of the policy of the Soviets. The sovhozes are enterprises organized and run by the State on the same lines as the socialized industries of the State, whereas the collective farms are voluntary organizations of peasants carrying on their own agriculture upon land belonging to the State and leased to them for purposes of cultivation. The masters on the collective farms are the collective farmers, while the State assists them in every way, allowing them the use of the best soil, extending considerable privileges to them, and helping them through the establishment of State workshops for tractors and agricultural machinery."

Children of a Collective Farm

Following Yakovlev's report on sovhozes the Congress heard reports from the chairmen of the State trusts in the different branches of agriculture, who gave detailed accounts of the progress and difficulties of the State sheep, cattle, dairy and seed farms, which in all cases showed a much greater productivity than that of individual peasants or collectives engaging in the same form of agriculture. After a general discussion of the work of the State farms, Yakovlev proceeded to his report on collective farms.

Progress of Agricultural Collectives

Yakovlev reported that on March 1, 1931, over* nine million peasant farms were organized into collectives, which meant that at least 30,000,000 adult peasants had been convinced by their own experience of the superiority of collective method over their old individualistic way of farming, since the voluntary principle had been strictly adhered to in the past years. In 1928 the number of peasant households organized collectively was 400,000; in 1929, 1,000,000; in 1930, 6,000,000. The increase in the seeded area during the same period was as follows: 1928, 4,940,000 acres; 1929, 16,055,000 acres; 1930, 106,210,000; 1931, 158,550,000 acres.

All peasants who joined collectives during 1930, according to Yakovlev, increased their incomes by at least one and a half times. This was due to several factors—the better use of horses, the possibility of using agricultural machinery too expensive for the individual farmer, the elimination of fences, which meant that a greatly increased acreage per peasant could be cultivated, the use of selected seed distributed by the Government, which in addition to these other factors meant an increase in the actual crop by at least 15 per cent, and the general application of better technical methods. During the first year of their mass development, 1930, the collectives sold three and a half times as much grain to the Government as the kulaks had in 1926-27, and one and a half times more than the landlords sold in pre-war days. Yakovlev reported that in the spring of 1930 85,000 large collectives, comprising 6,000,000 poor and middle peasant farms, were able to sow 81,016,000 acres, while the remaining 20,000,000 individual peasant farms sowed a total acreage of 130,416,000. In other words, the 6,000,000 collectively organized farms were able to sow more than half (62 per cent) of the area sown by 20,000,000 individual peasants.

Yakovlev stated that while the results of the collective movement were gratifying it was natural that there should have been many mistakes, since the sudden change of the peasant from farming seven or eight acres to farming 5,000, 10,000 and even 15,000 acres necessitated learning an entirely new set of rules. The main difficulties, said Yakovlev, had been the poor quality of the accounting done in the collectives, and the fact that many of them had attempted an equal distribution of the harvest, rather than payment according to labor done, and that this had resulted in many abuses. Therefore it was proposed that the piece-work system be adopted generally and that in the future the chief rule of collective organization should be: "He who does more and better work shall receive more, he who does not work shall receive nothing."

Piece-Work System for Collectives

"With the question as to how the income is to be distributed in the collective," said Yakovlev, "is inseparably connected the question of the method of labor organization best adapted to bring out all the advantages of collective organization, and in order to place a solid foundation under the system of the distribution of income on the basis of labor performed rather than on the basis of equal distribution. There is no use in

A Turkoman Peasant Learns to Drive a Tractor

*On April 1, it was reported that 10,000,000 farms had joined collectives.

speculating about this. It is only necessary to examine the results of the experience of the best collectives. This experience demonstrates that the only correct method of labor organization in the collectives is the piece-work system, because it is the only method which provides an incentive for every member of the collective to perform his or her best work. And under the piece-work system equal distribution cannot possibly be effected."

Yakovlev then explained that the basis of reckoning payment in the collectives should be the working day, or a portion of the working day. Thus, so many acres plowed, so many loads carried, so many cows attended to, would constitute a working day. The man who fulfilled this norm would be paid the minimum rate for one working day. The man who did double this amount would be paid for two working days, and so on. The norm of work would be left to the collectives themselves to decide. The administration would work out a plan, and this would be subject to ratification by a general meeting of all collective members. Yakovlev then cited instances of a number of collectives which had changed from equal distribution to a piece-work system. In every single instance the output per worker was greatly increased, frequently doubled and even tripled. At a recent conference of collectives held in Moscow it was found that all those collectives showing the best results were using the piece-work system. The piece-work system in the collectives has usually been applied to brigades or groups who are given certain tasks to fulfill in certain periods. If they exceed their allotment, the surplus is then divided among the members of the group. Yakovlev stated that in the brigade or group system of work it had been found that the smaller the group the more effective the results. He advocated the application of the piece-work method in the case of the individual as well as the group.

Under the piece-work system it was of course, he said, necessary to make some provision for workers having large families. One method of handling this problem has been to guarantee a certain number of working days to those workers with large families, and to give them a certain preference in the distribution of work so that they may be sure to have enough for their families. Another method has been to create a special fund to care for those members of the collective not able to work. In practice both methods are frequently combined. Yakovlev pointed out that the women were everywhere in favor of the piece-work system, since it was the one sure method of equalizing the payment of men and women, as many of the peasant men still cling to the old idea that women's labor is worth less than men's.

Yakovlev emphasized the importance of the quality of the work done as well as the amount, and said that reductions in payment must be made in cases of sloppy work. He also suggested that in order to insure more careful handling of tools and machinery workers must be made responsible for returning them in good condition, and that in certain instances a portion of a working day might be added to the account of those returning their tools in the best condition.

Role of Machine and Tractor Stations

Yakovlev concluded his report on collectives with a survey of the work of the machine and tractor stations. These are stations organized by the State through "Tractorocenter," fully equipped with batteries of tractors and other necessary machinery, a staff of trained workers, and well organized machine shops. These machine and tractor stations make contracts with the collectives to plow, seed and harvest their crops, for which they receive a certain portion of the harvest, training the collective members themselves to operate the machinery. Yakovlev pointed out that they were in no sense merely renting stations, but that they actually served as organizing centers and technical bases for the collectives. Two years ago one machine and tractor station was organized as a demonstration. In 1930 there were 159 in operation. At the present time there are 1,200 which have concluded contracts for the cultivation of about 42,000,000 acres of land. Two hundred more of these stations will be developed in the course of the year. At the previous Congress of Soviets it was decided that the machine and tractor stations should develop about 7,500,000 acres in the five-year period. They have done so well that in the spring and fall of 1931 it is estimated they will work about 62,000,000 acres, and about three times that much land by 1933.

Sixth Congress of Soviets

THE Sixth All-Union Congress of Soviets opened on the evening of March 8th in the Grand Opera House of Moscow, with an address of welcome by Mikhail Kalinin, chairman of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R.

There were present at the Congress 2,403 delegates, 1,570 with decisive votes and 833 with advisory votes. The number of delegates permitted by the constitution is actually 1,781, but a number of delegates in the section where the spring sowing campaign was already under way, felt that their presence was more urgently required in their own districts.

Of the delegates to the Sixth Congress 54.7 per cent were workers, 25.9 per cent peasants, and 19.4 per cent office workers. Of the workers attending the Congress, 82.2 per cent were members of "shock troops," and of the peasants 93.2 per cent were members of collectives.

More women attended the Sixth Congress than any previous Congress of Soviets. At the First Congress of Soviets there were altogether 44 women delegates, or 2.9 per cent of the total number. At this Congress 321 women delegates attended, constituting 20.9 per cent of all the delegates. Among the women 51.4 per cent were workers, 41.7 per cent peasants, and 6.9 per cent office workers.

Among the total number of delegates 72.8 per cent were members of the Communist Party, 2.4 per cent members of the League of Communist Youth, and 24.8 per cent non-party members.

Representatives of sixty-six different nationalities participated in the Congress, some of whom were attending an All-Union Congress for the first time since the establishment of the Soviet Government.

Increased Activity of Voters

More voters participated in the election campaign preceding the Congress than in any previous election since the establishment of the Soviet Government. The number of voters participating in the cities increased from 70.6 per cent in the last election to 75.2 per cent this year, and in the country districts from 63.5 per cent to 71.8 per cent. The number of women participating in the elections increased from 30 per cent in 1926 to 62 per cent this year.

The main reports at the Congress (printed elsewhere in this issue) were made by V. M. Molotov, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars, who reported on behalf of the Government, and Y. A. Yakovlev, Commissar for Agriculture of the U.S.S.R. The latter's report was supplemented by reports of the heads of the various agricultural trusts and departments. A. S. Enukidze, secretary of the Central Executive Committee, reported on Constitutional questions.

After thorough discussion by the delegates of all the reports, resolutions were passed endorsing the policy pursued by the Government, outlining the future course of development in each field, and urging increased efforts in carrying out the program of industrialization embodied in the Five-Year Plan in the shorter periods mentioned by Molotov, and in completing the process of socializing agriculture through the State farms and collectives.

Resolutions of Congress

The resolution on agricultural collectives called for a program of increased government aid to peasants organizing collectively, including the following points:

1. In 1931, 120,000 additional tractors are to be sent to the collectives.
2. In the next two years 1,040 additional machine and tractor stations are to be organized.
3. The value of agricultural machinery and implements furnished the collectives this year is to be almost $400,000,000 as against about $200,000,000 worth supplied last year. Seven thousand trucks and light automobiles will be sent to the collectives.
4. About two million and a half tons of fertilizer will be sent to the collectives, and $20,000,000 worth of supplies for combatting pests.
5. Over 2,000,000 tons of improved and selected seed are to be supplied to the collectives.
6. Over half a billion dollars is to be advanced to the collectives and machine and tractor stations for long term loans and about $180,000,000 advance will be paid out to collectives for contracted crops.

The resolution stated that collectivization would be completed in all basic respects by the end of the Five-Year Plan, and that the artel is retained as the basic form of collective organization at the present stage of development. The need of greater mechanization for all processes was stressed, and also of special aid for the livestock and dairy collectives.

The resolution on constitutional questions confirmed the changes that had been made since the last Congress of Soviets. One of the most important of these changes has been the elimination of the "okrug" as a geographical and political unit, thus making the "rayon" (a division which would fall somewhere between a township and county) the main administrative center for the economic and political problems of the village.

At the same time the village and city Soviets have been strengthened, increasing the union between agriculture and industry, and bringing the government organs nearer to the people. The elimination of the okrug has changed the order of election to the All-Union Congress. Thus the village Soviets now elect delegates to a rayon congress, which in turn elects delegates to the regional or oblast Soviet Congresses. The city Soviets also elect their delegates to the regional or oblast congresses. The regional or oblast congress in turn elect delegates to the Soviet Congresses of the separate Republics. The delegates to the All-Union (Federal) Congress of Soviets are also elected by the regional and oblast congresses of Soviets, and in the cases of the smaller Republics, not having regional or oblast divisions, they are elected directly by the Republic Congresses. The autonomous republics and autonomous oblasts elect their own representatives to the All-Union Congress of Soviets irrespective of whether or not they fall within regional units.

The following changes to the Constitution* were adopted by the Congress of Soviets:

Constitutional Changes

The Sixth Congress of Soviets, fully endorsing the measures taken by the Government of the U.S.S.R. in changing the methods of work and the structure of the central and local organs of the Government with the aim of fully adapting them to the problems of Socialist construction, hereby decrees to make the following changes in the Constitution of the U.S.S.R.:

1. The entry of the Tadjik Socialist Soviet Republic into the Union shall be indicated in the covenant regarding the organization of a Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, by the addition to the text of the introductory part of the covenant (Section II of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R.), after the words "The Uzbek Socialist Soviet Republic," of the words "and the Tadjik Socialist Soviet Republic." The introductory part of the covenant will then read as follows:

"The Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic, the Ukrainian Socialist Soviet Republic, the White Russian Socialist Soviet Republic, the Transcaucasian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (consisting of the Soviet Socialist Republic of Azerbaidjan, the Soviet Socialist Republic of Georgia and the Soviet Socialist Republic of Armenia, the Turkoman Socialist Soviet Republic, the Uzbek Socialist Soviet Republic, and the Tadjik Socialist Soviet Republic, by this covenant enter into a single Federal State to be known as the 'Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.'"

2. The word "supplies" shall be added to point "g" of Chapter I of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R., which will then read as follows:

"(g) Control of foreign trade, and establishment of a system of supply and internal trade."

3. To add the words "single financial plan" to point "k" of Chapter I of the Constitution, which will then read as follows:

"(k) The approval of a single financial plan and a single State budget for the U.S.S.R., comprising the budgets of the Constituent Republics; determination of the taxes and revenues applying to the whole U.S.S.R., as also of deductions therefrom and additions thereto for the budgets of the Constituent Republics; authorization of additional taxes and dues for the budgets of the Constituent Republics."

4. To replace article 9 of the Constitution with the following:

"9. The Congress of Soviets of the U.S.S.R. shall be composed of representatives of City Soviets and Soviets of urban settlements on the basis of one deputy for each 25,000 electors, and of the representatives of village Soviets on the basis of one deputy for each 125,000 inhabitants."

5. Article 10 of the Constitution shall be changed to read as follows:

"10. Delegates to the Congress of Soviets of the U.S.S.R. shall be elected as follows:

"(a) Directly at the Congress of Soviets of the Union Republics in those cases where the latter have no regional or oblast divisions;

"(b) At the regional and oblast Congresses of Soviets in the Union Republics having such divisions;

"(c) At the Congresses of Soviets of the Republics of Azerbaidjan, Georgia and Armenia and at the Congresses of Soviets of the autonomous republics and oblasts, whether or not these are a part of regional and oblast units."

6. In article 21 of the Constitution in place of the words "three times a year," the words "not less than three times in the period between the regular Congresses of Soviets of the U.S.S.R.," shall be substituted. The article will then read as follows:

"21. The regular sessions of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. shall be convened by the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee not less

Moscow Housewives at an Election Meeting

* Copies of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R., to which these changes apply, may be procured on application to The Soviet Union Information Bureau.

than three times in the period between the regular Congresses of Soviets of the U.S.S.R. The extraordinary sessions shall be convened by decision of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., upon the demand of the Presidium of the Council of the Union, or the Presidium of the Council of Nationalities, and also upon the demand of the Central Executive Committee of any one of the Constituent Republics."

7. In article 34 of the Constitution, in the section enumerating the languages to be used in the Union Republics, the Tadjik language should be included. The article will then read as follows:

"34. The decrees and decisions of the Central Executive Committee, of its Presidium, and of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. shall be printed in the languages in general use within the Constituent Republics (Russian, Ukrainian, White Russian, Georgian, Armenian, Azerbaidjan, Uzbek, Turkoman, and Tadjik [Farsian])."

8. In article 37 of the Constitution the following changes shall be made:

a. The words "Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R." shall be replaced by the words: "The Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. and of the Council of Labor and Defense";

b. The words "People's Commissar for Foreign and Domestic Trade shall be replaced by the words "People's Commissar for Foreign Trade";

c. The words "Director of Central Statistical Board" shall be omitted;

d. The following words shall be added: "People's Commissar for Waterways," "People's Commissar for Agriculture," "People's Commissar for Supplies," and "Chairman of the State Planning Commission." Article 37 of the Constitution will then read as follows:

"37. The Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. shall be the executive and administrative organ of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., and it shall be formed by the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. as follows:

Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. and of the Council of Labor and Defense;
Vice-Chairmen;
Chairman of the State Planning Commission;
People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs;
People's Commissar for Army and Navy;
People's Commissar for Foreign Trade;
People's Commissar for Transport;
People's Commissar for Waterways;
People's Commissar for Posts and Telegraphs;
People's Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection;
Chairman of the Supreme Council of National Economy;
People's Commissar for Agriculture;
People's Commissar for Labor;
People's Commissar for Supplies;
People's Commissar for Finance."

9. Point "d" shall be added to article 44 of the Constitution, as follows:

"(d) The Collegium of Transport Affairs."

10. The following paragraph shall be substituted for article 45.

"45. In its plenary session the Supreme Court of the U.S.S.R. shall consist of the following members: The chairman of the Supreme Court, a vice-chairman, the chairmen of the plenary sessions of the Supreme Courts of the Constituent Republics, the chairman of the Collegium of the Supreme Court of the U.S.S.R., and four members appointed by the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. among whom shall be included one representative of the Joint State Political Administration of the U.S.S.R. The chairman and vice-chairman of the Supreme Court shall be appointed by the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R."

11. The following changes shall be made in article 51 of the Constitution:

a. The words "Foreign Trade" shall be substituted for the words "Foreign and Internal Trade."

b. The note to this article shall be omitted.

c. The word "Waterways" shall be added, and article 51 will then read as follows:

"51. The Federal People's Commissariats for the whole U.S.S.R. shall be the following:
Foreign Affairs;
Army and Navy;
Foreign Trade;
Transport;
Waterways;
Posts and Telegraphs."

12. The following changes shall be made in article 52:

a. The words "Central Statistical Board" shall be omitted.

b. The words "People's Commissariat for Agriculture" and People's Commissariat for Supplies" will be added. The article will then read as follows:

"52. The Joint People's Commissariats of the U.S.S.R. shall be the following:
Supreme Council of National Economy;
Agriculture;
Labor;
Supplies;
Finances;
Workers' and Peasants' Inspection."

13. The following changes shall be made in article 67:

a. The words "People's Commissar for Supplies" shall be substituted for the words "People's Commissar for Trade," and the words "Foreign Trade" shall be substituted for the words "Foreign and Domestic Trade";

b. The words "People's Commissar for Internal Affairs" and "Director of the Central Statistical Board" shall be omitted;

c. The words "Chairman of the State Planning Commission" and "Water Transport" shall be added. The article will then read as follows:

"67. The Central Executive Committees of the Constituent Republics shall establish their own executive organs which shall be the Councils of People's Commissars, consisting of the following:
"Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars;
Vice-Chairmen;
Chairman of the State Planning Commission;
Chairman of the Supreme Council of National Economy;
People's Commissar for Agriculture;
People's Commissar for Finance;
People's Commissar for Supplies;
People's Commissar for Labor;
People's Commissar for Justice;
People's Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection;
People's Commissar for Education;
People's Commissar for Health;
People's Commissar for Social Welfare,
and also, with an advisory or deciding vote, according to the decisions of the respective Central Executive Committees of the Constituent Republics, the plenipotentiaries of the People's Commissariats of the U.S.S.R. for Foreign Affairs, Army and Navy, Foreign Trade, Transport, Waterways and of Posts and Telegraphs."

14. The following changes shall be made in article 68:

a. The words "People's Commissariats for Supplies" shall be substituted for the words "People's Commissariats for Trade";

b. The words "Central Statistical Board" are to be omitted.

c. The word "Agriculture" is to be added.

The article will then read as follows:

"68. The Supreme Councils of National Economy and the People's Commissariats for Agriculture, Supplies, Finance, Labor and Workers' and Peasants' Inspection of

the Constituent Republics, while subordinate to the Central Executive Committees and Councils of People's Commissars of the Constituent Republics, shall in their activities, carry out the instructions of the corresponding People's Commissariats of the U.S.S.R."

15. In article 70 the words "in the six languages" are to be replaced by the words "in the seven languages."

Election of Soviet Officials

THE TSIK (Central Executive Committee) elected by the All-Union Congress of Soviets, consisting of the Council of the Union of 472 members elected on a proportional basis, and the Council of Nationalities, consisting of 138 members, elected on the basis of five members from each constituent and autonomous republic, and one each from each autonomous region, held its first meeting on March 19th, under the chairmanship of Mikhail Kalinin.

The TSIK elected the following twenty-seven members of the Presidium to serve as the supreme legislative, executive and administrative body of the Soviet Union between the sessions of the TSIK, which are held three times a year:

Nedyrbay Aitakov, A. A. Andreyev, K. S. Atabayev, Yuldashbay Akhun-Babayev, Dadash Buniat-Zade, A. S. Enukidze, V. P. Zatonsky, L. M. Kaganovich, M. I. Kalinin, S. M. Kirov, A. S. Kiselev, S. V. Kossior, Gazanfar Mussabekov, Maksum Nusratulla, M. D. Orakhelashvili, G. I. Petrovsky, Y. E. Rudzutak, N. I. Skrypnik, A. P. Smirnov, A. M. Tagirov, Abdulkhay Tadjiev, K. V. Ukhanov, A. I. Khatskevich, Faizulla Khodjayev, A. G. Cherviakov, V. Y. Chubar, N. M. Shvernik. In addition twenty-three candidates, or alternate members, were elected.

The following seven presidents of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. were elected:

Mikhail Kalinin, Gregory Petrovsky, Alexander Cherviakov, Gazanfar Mussabekov, Faizulla Khodjayev, Nedyrbay Aitakov, and Maksum Nusratulla.

A. S. Enukidze was elected secretary of the Central Executive Committee, and S. E. Chutzkayev was elected chairman of the budget committee.

Council of People's Commissars

The following members of the Council of People's Commissars, which is the executive and directive organ of the Central Executive Committee, were elected:

Chairman: V. M. Molotov (Skriabin).

Vice-Chairmen: A. A. Andreyev, V. V. Kuibyshev, Y. E. Rudzutak.

Chairman of State Planning Commission: V. V. Kuibyshev.

People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs: M. M. Litvinov.

People's Commissar for Army and Navy: K. E. Voroshilov.

People's Commissar for Foreign Trade: A. P. Rozenholtz.

People's Commissar for Transport: M. L. Rukhimovich.

People's Commissar for Waterways: N. M. Yanson.

People's Commissar for Posts and Telegraphs: N. K. Antipov.*

People's Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection: A. A. Andreyev.

Chairman of Supreme Economic Council: G. K. Ordjonikidze.

People's Commissar for Agriculture: Y. A. Yakovlev.

People's Commissar for Supplies: A. I. Mikoyan.

People's Commissar for Labor: A. M. Tsikhon.

People's Commissar for Finances: G. F. Grinko.

Election of R.S.F.S.R. Officials

At the session of the newly elected Central Executive Committee of the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia Proper) held on March 6th immediately on the close of the Fifteenth Congress of Soviets of the R.S.F.S.R., Mikhail Kalinin was elected chairman of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee, and Alexey Kiselev was elected Secretary. The following members of the R.S.F.S.R., Council of People's Commissars were confirmed:

Chairman: D. E. Sulimov.

Vice-Chairmen: D. Z. Lebed, T. R. Ryskulov.

People's Commissar for Labor of the R.S.F.S.R.: M. M. Romanov.

People's Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection of the R.S.F.S.R.: N. I. Ilin.

Chairman of the Supreme Economic Council of the R.S.F.S.R.: K. K. Strievsky.

People's Commissar for Finances of the R.S.F.S.R.: V. N. Yakovleva.

People's Commissar for Supplies of the R.S.F.S.R.: N. B. Eismont.

People's Commissar for Education of the R.S.F.S.R.: A. S. Bubnov.

People's Commissar for Agriculture of the R.S.F.S.R.: A. I. Muralov.

People's Commissar for Health of the R.S.F.S.R.: M. F. Vladimirsky.

People's Commissar for Social Welfare of the R.S.F.S.R.: I. A. Magovitsyn.

Chairman of State Planning Commission of the R.S.F.S.R.: M. I. Rogov.

*On March 30th Alexey Rykov was appointed Commissar for Posts and Telegraphs, and Antipov was made Assistant Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection.

Tadjikistan

By Boris Pilnyak

Part III

Along the Road

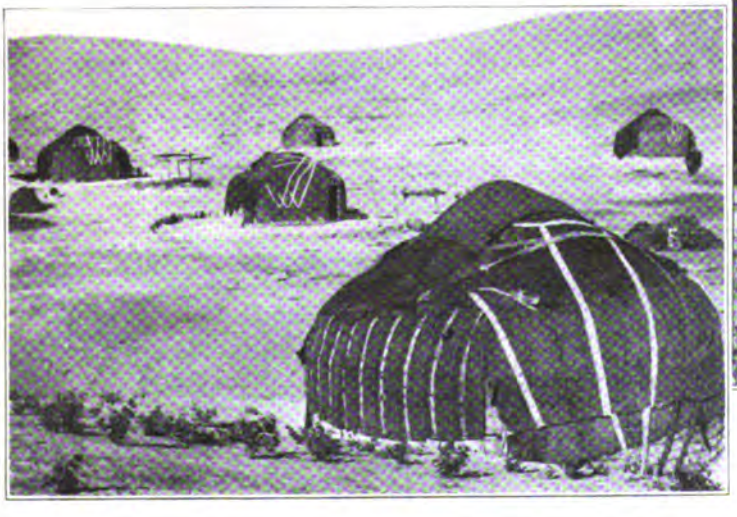
IN the passes, in the wastes of stone and snow, in the valleys along the gray faces of those great mountain crags—which are labelled "unexplored territory" in the maps, everywhere we met strange caravans of mules driven by Tadjiks. The asses bore telegraph poles,—how did they avoid being dragged with the poles into the crevasses? — and they bore drums of telegraph wire — window frames, hinges and doors for ovens, glass, corrugated roofing iron, medicine, books, newspapers, cotton print, notions and all the other things demanded by civilized man who is penetrating into the mountains of the Soviet Union. On one of the mountain paths we met a party of explorers, investigators, geologists—they were seeking wild boars in the mountains, bears, silver, asbestos, gold. Among the hills and into the mountain villages travel doctors, agronoms, roadbuilders, irrigation engineers.

Our traveling was not in European style certainly. When we traveled from sun to sun we spent the nights in the *kishlaks* (villages) that lay along our way, we bathed in mountain springs, we slept in mats spread under sycamore trees and ate the food brought to us by the people—thick sour milk, fresh milk, green tea, lamb with rice.

I shall never forget the *kishlak* of Sagyr Dasht where twice we spent the night. It lies between the passes of Zakh-Bursi and Khabu-Rabat—or really on the pass of Khabu-Rabat. It lies at the snow line and there is not a twig, not a tree in that *kishlak*, though below it on the mountain sides hang little fields of barley and wheat. Even in July it is cold there. We saw hardly any people in the *kishlak*, the men having gone out all over Tadjikistan and Central Asia to work. We stopped at the last and highest house in the village and looking down could see the roofs of the village lying in steps below us. On these roofs—which served as courtyards for the houses above—occasionally appeared women, with their two long braids hanging to their knees, their heads covered by their long cloaks. They were sifting the wheat which was winnowed by the breeze and singing strange throaty songs filled with the snowy sadness of the mountains. They hummed away when they saw me watching them.

With the setting of the sun it was impossible to remain on the courtyard roof because of the bitter cold. Heavy wadded robes were brought to us to cover us for the night and we lay close to the fire on the felt mats.

Another thing I shall not forget is a conversation with a master iron craftsman in Khala-i-Khumb. The valley of Vancha in Darwaz has been famous for ages for its iron and its iron craftsmen. This craft is dying out. In Khala-i-



Above—The Town of Ura-Tube in Tadjikistan
Left—Summer Encampment of Tadjik Nomads

Individual Plots of Tadjik Peasants, Now Being Replaced by Collectives

Khumb live two of the masters. Though both very old, they are important citizens of that little capital. We went to call on the elder. The door of his shop was propped open with a stone and a little lad ran off to seek his grandfather. The old man came to us, bowing low in greeting and placing his hands on his breast. He was old but hale and his pace was that of a European. He was blue-eyed and his *khalat* (robe) was immaculate. He invited us to enter his smithy. His whole craftsmanship was exercised in a space of four square meters. A spring bubbled into a basin in the corner. Over the forge whistled a hand bellows. The old fellow sat down to his work tucking his feet under him. With pride he announced that he was by birth an inhabitant of the Vancha valley. He picked up two daggers which he had just finished and exhibited them to us. In the corner a pile of shoes for horses and mules were being hammered out. The old master talked of the craftsmanship of the Vancha and he said that the ore was still brought down from the Vancha on little asses. He, the old man, himself smelted the ore in his forge and made from it remarkable steel. The quality of the ore varies and the old man had his standards. When the iron went soft from one test in the oven—that showed poor ore and that batch went for asses, shoes. The handles of his daggers were made of goats' horns which the master inlaid with silver and in silver he wrote his name on the blade. He was in truth a master. He told us, further, how formerly his colleagues collected gold, washed it and worked it.

The workship was dusky and smelled of iron filings. Tea was put before us and he asked the pleasure of welcoming us to *pilauf* in his home.

I inspected a little bar of iron which had been forged the day before with no less craftsmanship than the dagger.

As we were saying our farewells the old man asked, "Tell me! Is it true what travelers tell that in the valleys of Europe there are ovens in which can be smelted ten, a hundred or more poods of ore at a time?"

We told him of the steel mills.

The old man blinked his eyes and became lost in thought. At last he said, "Well, I understand now why my children have spurned my trade. My art must die. My children chose well! . . . "

Stalinabad, the Capital

THREE times I viewed that city as I came in from the sky and as the plane circled over it, preparing to alight—each time making slow circles over the town, searching out the landing place through the dust that hung over the city. The city below wallowed in dust but each time behind the dust the appearance of the city was changed—here were emerging walls of new buildings, there were ruins being torn down along the ancient streets. In 1925 there was not a single European house in Stalinabad, today it is a city with European streets, classical facades on buildings of the Central Executive Committee and the preparatory technical school, standing on foundations in the style of the 20th century, of apartments houses for workers, of encircling rotundas in the city parks, of theaters, circuses, squares. These things I could see from the sky.

On the ground I realized that the best way to see this city was from an airplane . . . this city which is taking every possible measure to become European (electricity, asphalt roads, parks, theaters, symphony concerts, modern water system

and all the rest) at the same time is not a city, but rather an encampment. Stalinabad is being built at lightning speed. But each year it doubles its population, in geometric progression, and the building cannot possibly keep up with the people.

The whole city is in construction. When I left Stalinabad two months later, much of what was being built while I was there was finished, but there was as much building activity as ever—more and more new buildings being added.

The People of Stalinabad

People from all over the world have gathered here. In the streets of Stalinabad, around the house of the *dekhans* (peasants) on Lenin Square, in the crowded by-streets around the market place, you may meet white-robed Hindus, Kazaks in sheepskin breeches, Turks in huge fur caps, turbanned Afghans, as well as Tadjiks, Ossetians, Circassians, Georgians (with daggers in their belts) and Tartars. In the crowd, too, are many Russians, in canvas boots and tropical helmets.

In Khodjent is an ethereal oil mill, with laboratories and a plantation of ether-bearing plants. Lavendar and ambrosia grow there, and the rare *victoria regia* (royal water-lily) flowered there this year — probably for the first time in the U.S.S.R. Three years ago the chemical engineer, V. S. Isayev, went to the Central Executive Committee of Khodjent and told them that the subtropical climate of Khodjent made it an exceptionally good place for an ethereal-oil mill. Isayev received some money, performed some magic, and today he is the director of the only mill of its kind in the U.S.S.R., with a budget of seven million rubles, a mill which aims to replace the imported ethereal oil with its own product. Let everyone who knows what it is to love and respect his work imagine the happiness of the engineer, Isayev, under whose hands this mill has grown and the *victoria regia* flowered!

Nowhere in the U.S.S.R. have I seen such respect for initiative, for labor as in Tadjikistan—in this country, being newly built, where each one who works inevitably becomes an innovator, a pioneer, a creator, in this country where everything begins from nothing.

And how great is the need for people in Tadjikistan!

The homes of the comrades—Government officials—with whom I stayed at different times were always full of people—sleeping sometimes on the floors and in the corridors. They had no time to themselves. Like hundreds of others I saw, they never got to bed before two o'clock, they rose at seven — working, working, working, day and night, because they know better than anyone else the beginning and the end of the building of Tadjikistan. They are doing the building, and they know how costly, how irrevocable is every minute of building—the building of socialism on the soil of the middle ages. Under their hands, and the hands of those who are working with them, are growing new irrigation systems, thousands of acres of cotton, ethereal-oil mills — gold, coal, oil, asbestos. They are reconstructing human relations, destroying barbarism, the "shariat" (Mohammedan church law), reconstructing the rights of labor, building collectives. The first collective was organized in 1928—and from 1929 to 1930 the seeded area increased by 900 per cent, and the marketable production by 1300! In place of the old bazaars they are building cooperatives. From the dust and ashes of war with the middle ages, they are building the European city of Stalinabad.

A City of Youth

The People's Commissar for Education, Nissar Mukhamedov, writes in Arabic, he does not know how to write in Russian—hardly even speaks it. He was born in India, of Afghan blood—and he is one of the wisest people I have ever met, and one of the most cultured! In a former chapter about the mountain Tadjiks I wrote of a girl who came from the Pamirs to find knowledge. Comrade Nissar is the leader of girls and youth like that—there are hundreds of them around him—Octobrists, Pioneers, Comsomols. Comrade Nissar is more than the leader of these boys and girls. In August of this year was held the first all-Tadjik congress of linguists, laying the first stone of a scientific foundation for the Tadjik language. Under Comrade Nissar's guidance seven newspapers are published. But I am writing now not of Comrade Nissar, but of Stalinabad and youth—and Stalinabad may be called a city of youth and of schools. Girls and boys from the high Pamirs, from the valleys, from the gardens of Western Tadjikistan, are studying in the schools, in the technicums, in the normal schools, at the tractor courses, in the railroad, agricultural, business and party schools. The leather jackets of the Comsomols and the red ties of the pioneers—among the khalats of the old people—are the most frequent costumes on the streets of Stalinabad, young city of a young country.

The chief publishing center of Stalinabad is an exact copy of the Commissariat for Education building. Papers go out from here to all corners of Tadjikistan—and into this building come people who are making literature—for Tadjikistan already has its own literature. There are already many young writers and poets in Stalinabad who have their own society, their own groupings, their own literary life, just as in the studios around the house of the *dekhans* the actors, musicians, and singers foregather, to restore and create Tadjik art.

Around Stalinabad—it lies in a valley—are the mountain peaks, covered with eternal snows—a gray, calm cosmos. This summer workers from

the Moscow State Theater of Opera and Ballet came to Stalinabad and collected the music and dances of Tadjikistan in order to present an opera on Tadjikistan to be called "The Mountains Are Stirring."

Yes, the mountains are stirring!

Five years ago in Stalinabad there was not a single European house, not a single wheeled cart —today even the calm of the mountains has been disturbed by the building. From an airplane, from the sky, can be seen how the whole Hissar valley, where Stalinabad lies, is being rebuilt. Through the middle ages and the mountains trains are rumbling. In all directions from Stalinabad automobile roads lead into the mountains. Bridges have been built and are being built across the rivers—in the mountains, schools, hospitals, rest homes, sanitaria are going up. The valley is covered with collectives. Over the city hangs the dust of building. At night the mountains see an extraordinary sight—how Stalinabad shines and burns with electricity. The city of Stalinabad does not sleep even at night, in the colossal and beautiful effort of building socialism —of rearing new streets and houses, new interests and new human relationships out of the dust and rubbish of the past.

The End.

Foreign Relations of the Soviet Union

A SUPPLEMENTARY protocol to the Soviet-Turkish Protocol of December 17, 1929, was signed on March 7 in Angora by Tewfik Rushdi-Bey, Foreign Minister of Turkey, and Mr. I. Z. Suritz, Soviet diplomatic representative in Turkey. The text follows:

"Both high contracting parties, by virtue of the principles laid down in the treaty of December 17, 1925, and in the protocol of December 17, 1929, striving towards strengthening peaceful and friendly relations between both countries and being firmly convinced that the only real guarantee of lasting peace is the effective reduction of all types of present armaments and expressing unwavering determination to continue in the future their efforts directed towards the attainment of a universal reduction of armaments, have found it desirable, with a view to proving anew the mutual confidence which has been so happily established between both countries, to supplement article 2 of the protocol of December 17, 1929, by the following mutual obligation:

"Neither of the high contracting parties will commence building any naval military craft increasing the composition of its military fleet in the Black Sea or in neighboring seas, order such craft from foreign shipbuilding yards, or undertake any measure which would increase the present composition of its fleet in the above mentioned seas without giving six months notice to the other contracting party."

On the ratification of this supplementary protocol it will form an inalienable part of the protocol of December 17, 1929.

Soviet-Turkish Trade Treaty

A treaty of commerce and navigation between the U.S.S.R. and Turkey was signed in Moscow on March 16 by L. M. Karakhan, assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, on behalf of the U.S.S.R., and by Hussein Rahib-Bey, the Turkish Ambassador in Moscow. This treaty replaces the Soviet-Turkish trade treaty concluded on March 11, 1927, which expired on October 19, 1930.

The new trade treaty concerns questions of immigration, regulations regarding juridical entities, the status of the trade mission of the U.S.S.R. and its branches in Turkey, questions of import and export, questions of transit, and also questions of navigation. The chief sections of the treaty are based on the most favored nation principle. The contracting parties agree not to undertake, in trading with each other, any restrictions or conditions not also applied to other countries. In the new treaty the U.S.S.R. confirms the right set forth in the treaty of 1927 of transit for Turkish goods through Batum, and in addition extends to Turkey the right to ship goods from foreign countries having trade agreements with the U.S.S.R. The treaty also contains a number of provisions aiding the development of navigation between the U.S.S.R. and Turkey.

The treaty has been concluded for a year, and will be automatically extended if neither of the contracting parties raise any objection, on the expiration of the year. In case of objection, the treaty will remain in force for six months thereafter. The treaty is subject to ratification.

The new agreement creates a favorable basis for the development and extension of economic relations between the U.S.S.R. and Turkey. The new treaty will enable both contracting parties to increase their trade turnover both with respect to the export of Soviet goods to Turkey, and the purchase of Turkish goods.

The treaty marks the further cementing of Soviet-Turkish friendship and with the other agreements in force between the two countries, creates a solid basis for the further strengthening of the friendly relations between them.

March 16, the day of the signing of the new trade treaty, also marked the tenth anniversary of the treaty of friendship concluded between the U.S.S.R. and the Angora Government on March 16, 1921. Congratulatory telegrams were exchanged between Foreign Commissar Litvinov and Tewfik Rushdi-Bey in which both expressed their satisfaction at the fruitful results of the treaty of friendship and their desire for the continuance of the friendly relations between the two countries. "Izvestia" of March 16 marked the anniversary with an article which concluded with the following paragraph:

"The basis on which Soviet-Turkish friendship has been built up has been that of striving for security, the preservation of all revolutionary achievements, non-interference in each others' internal affairs and an active struggle for peace, while bending all our efforts toward internal economic and cultural construction. These principles have been tested by the experience of ten years and have proved their vitality. On the tenth anniversary of the Moscow protocol we may say with great satisfaction that Soviet-Turkish relations represent one of the brightest pages in the history of the relations of the Soviet Union with the outside world."

Relations with Persia and Afghanistan

The end of February marked the tenth anniversary of the signing of the first treaties between the Soviet Republic and Persia, and the Soviet Republic and Afghanistan.

On February 26, 1931, the Soviet-Persian treaty of friendship, establishing normal diplomatic and trade relations between the two countries, was signed in Moscow. This was the first treaty concluded by the Soviet Republic with any Eastern country. Immediately after the signing of the treaty with Persia normal trade relations opened between the Soviet Republic and Persia. The trade turnover has increased from a little under $3,000,000 in 1921 to about $70,000,000 in 1929-30. On the basis of the treaty of 1921 such questions as fishing rights on the south shores of the Caspian Sea were settled. Extending these relations the two countries concluded in 1927 a further pact on neutrality, non-aggression and non-participation in hostile groupings. On the basis of the precedent established in the Soviet-Persian treaty, Persia was able to achieve customs autonomy, in 1928.

In connection with the tenth anniversary of the Soviet-Afghan treaty the Afghan ambassador in Moscow, Mohammed Azis-Khan, made the following statement:

"February 28 markes the tenth anniversary of the signing of the Afghan-Soviet treaty, the first formal act strengthening the friendship between Afghanistan and the Soviet Union. This treaty was followed by a number of other agreements on special questions of interest to both countries and within a comparatively short period the relations between the two countries had been strengthened to such an extent that the ground was prepared for the treaty concerning neutrality and mutual non-aggression which was signed August 31, 1926. The further development of the relations between the two countries gave repeated proof of the good-will of both sides in the solution of complex questions of current politics.

"This basic principle in the policy of the two countries has not changed and after the accession to power of the new Afghan padishah, Mohammed Nadir-Khan, the friendly relations, interrupted by the events of 1928, were resumed on the basis of the same treaties and agreements which were concluded under the government of Amanullah.

"The new government of Afghanistan, from the moment of its coming into power, solemnly declared its sincere desire to establish the closest and most friendly relations with all countries of the world, and in particular with the U.S.S.R.

"I sincerely hope that the desires of both governments in the direction of future *rapprochement* and mutual understanding will have positive results, and that all questions which remain unsettled, including questions of trade relations, will, in spite of their complexity, be solved to mutual advantage. I personally regard very optimistically the prospects of our future relations, and will sincerely welcome every step in the direction of strengthening Soviet-Afghan friendship."

The U.S.S.R. and the World Grain Parley

THE international grain conference which opened in Rome on March 26th, was attended by a Soviet delegation consisting of Prof. Leon N. Kritzman, one of the vice-chairmen of Gosplan, A. A. Kissin, member of the collegium of the Foreign Trade Commissariat, and Prof. N. N. Tulaikov, vice-president of the Lenin Agricultural Academy. Prof. Kritzman, the head of the delegation, was elected to the presidium of the Congress.

In the statement made by Prof. Kritzman at the conference, he emphasized the fact that the present severe agricultural crisis was actually due not to overproduction but to underfeeding and a low standard of living for the masses in many countries of the world, and that therefore measures like acreage reduction and preferential tariffs proposed at the conference, which could only result in a still further lowering of the living standards of the masses, would only create greater difficulties. Prof. Kritzman pointed out that the Soviet Union occupied a unique position.

"The world economic crisis," he declared, "stopped at the border of our country. The tremendous growth of Soviet industry has necessitated a considerable growth in agriculture as well, which depends in the main on the internal market. The increase in the internal demand makes necessary for us a further advance in our agriculture. This advance is expressed in entirely new forms of large scale State and collective agriculture, employing the latest technical methods. The transition to large scale, mechanized agriculture makes it possible to lower considerably the costs of production which have previously already been lowered by the revolution, the elimination of rent and the burden of debt. A tremendous role in the cutting of production costs has also been played by the circumstance that with us labor of the masses has actually become free labor, without compulsion and without the threat of unemployment—socially conscious labor, performed in the interests of the whole collective."

Prof. Kritzman pointed out further that in Russia a lot of the problems responsible for the crisis in the rest of the world do not exist—namely, over-production, the sale of surplus stocks, depressed prices, unemployment and so on.

"Our exports," he continued, "the aim of which, particularly in the case of grain is to secure funds for our imports, are up against the unfavorable selling conditions due to the fall in world prices, notwithstanding the fact that they are still far below pre-war exports.

"Added to this are the measures directed against our exports by the financial organizations of different countries, and of separate governments, which further complicate the market situation, and increase the disorganization of the market in general, and the grain market in particular. The Soviet delegation is prepared to consider any proposal directed toward the improvement of the situation that has been created, and acceptable from an economic and financial viewpoint. Entirely unacceptable to the Soviet Union, however, is any measure in the field of preferential tariffs designed to create special conditions for separate European countries exporting grain."

In answer to a statement by the chairman of the conference, Prof. Kritzman declared that the proposals of the Soviet Union could not have been made known previously, since the problems before the conference had been considered at different conferences and meetings where an attempt had been made to solve European problems without the participation of the largest European country —the Soviet Union. Prof. Kritzman said that strange ideas had existed with regard to the possibility of putting into effect serious measures in the field of world agriculture without the participation of the Soviet Union.

"The Soviet delegation," concluded Prof. Kritzmån, "will take part in the consideration of problems which are on the agenda of the present conference without, however, binding itself by any decisions proposed or adopted at any place whatever without the participation of the U.S.S.R."

Mo Teh-hui Returns to Moscow

ON March 28th Mo Teh-hui, representative of the Chinese Government at the Sino-Soviet Conference which was interrupted some months ago when he left for China, returned to Moscow to resume negotiations. With him came members of the technical staff of the delegation. The delegation was met at the station by the head of the second Eastern Department of the Soviet Commissariat for Foreign Affairs, Mr. Kozlovsky, and other officials of the Foreign and Railroad Commissariats. At a speech in Mukden before he left for the U.S.S.R., Mo Teh-hui declared:

"I have received additional instructions from the Central Government regarding the settlement of all the questions at the conference with the aim of establishing a real and complete *rapprochement* with the Soviet Union." He said further that the Nanking Government now occupied a clearer and more concrete position with regard to the U.S.S.R. and said he considered that the example of Sino-Soviet relations established in Manchuria opened the possibility of establishing similar relations for all of China.

Book Notes

"MAKING BOLSHEVIKS," by Samuel N. Harper. University of Chicago Press, Chicago. $2.

Professor Harper's book represents six lectures given at the University of Chicago, designed to describe the activities and functions of the various militant groups in the forefront of the upbuilding in the Soviet Union, as observed by the author during a visit in 1930. Professor Harper describes the little volume as in a sense an appendix to his earlier book, "Civic Training in Soviet Russia," for which he gathered his material in 1926. The present book is written in an easy, popular style. It is an interpretation by a student familiar with the Russia of pre-revolutionary days. This familiarity gives the author valuable background; in some instances, also, it appears to make it more difficult for him to understand the present arrangements. The book has an index and is illustrated by several cartoons from the Soviet Press.

Miscellaneous News

New Achievements in Physical Research

Academician Joffe, who has gained world renown by his discoveries and inventions in the field of physics, recently reported to the Council of People's Commissars on the attainments of the Physico-Technical Institute in Leningrad, of which he is director.

The Physico-Technical Institute has developed into one of the most important centers of physical research in the world. There are complete fields of science in which the Institute leads the way, such as the field of the electrical and mechanical properties of solid bodies. The Institute has thoroughly investigated and definitely revealed the nature of electrical current in insulators, and has thrown a new light upon the phenomena of solidity, fragility and, particularly, viscidity of solid bodies.

The work of the Institute in this field is of enormous practical importance. At the present time the strength of materials used in production and construction is generally multiplied by a coefficient of safety from five to ten times higher than is necessary. The Institute has patented about one hundred of its inventions which afford tremendous possibilities for economizing materials owing to the extension of the limits of mechanical and electrical strength.

The Institute has also designed appliances for the protection of low tension lines from high-voltage currents. About 6,000 of these appliances have been put to use and where they are employed the lines protected by them have been safeguarded against all danger resulting from breakdowns of electrical machinery.

The Institute has produced a system of telephotography comparing favorably with any of those existing abroad.

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Kolpino Radio Station

The new Kolpino radio station which has just been completed near Leningrad was put into regular operation on February 1.

The Kolpino station is the second 100-kilowatt broadcasting station in the U.S.S.R., but compared with the older station of similar capacity, that of the Central Trade Unions, this station has a number of important improvements both of design and operation.

The sending apparatus of the Kolpino station will serve as the prototype of a series of similar 100-kilowatt radio stations to be built by the Soviet Electrical Trust under the Five-Year Plan. At the present time two stations of the same kind are under construction, one in Noginsk, close to Moscow, and the other in Novosibirsk.

During the tests the Kolpino station made a special connection with the radio station at Franz Josef Land, the northernmost station in the world. A splendid reception was recorded on both sides, it being noted that the broadcast from the Kolpino station was heard much more distinctly and loudly than that from the old Leningrad radio station.

■

Utilization of Solar Energy

The Thermo-technical Institute of Leningrad has lately been given much attention to heliotechnical problems. At a national congress of helio-technicians, shortly to be held in Moscow, a representative of the Institute will report on the results of their experiments.

Professor Weinberg, of the Institute, has drawn up the first complete helio-map of the U.S.S.R. The Institute has also designed the first "sun boiler" in the U.S.S.R., which is now being assembled in Ashkhabad and will be brought to Leningrad when completed to be put into operation. In this connection, laboratory experiments have been conducted with a model of this boiler for the study of the various heat processes within it.

The results already achieved show that the "sun boiler" designed by the Institute is superior to those existing abroad, its coefficient of efficiency being three times as high as those of foreign manufacture.

■

Growth of Soviet Cooperatives

The membership in the Consumers' Cooperatives in the Soviet Union has increased during recent years as follows:

Number of Cooperative Shareholders	
January 1, 1928	18,132,000
January 1, 1929	24,644,000
January 1, 1930	37,715,000
January 1, 1931	59,700,000

Thus it appears that during the past three years the membership in the Consumers' Cooperatives has more than tripled. The greatest increase in membership has taken place in the village where the number of shareholders has grown from 11,161,000 in the beginning of 1928 to 39,200,000 at the beginning of the present year. As a result of this increase in membership the percentage of the adult population of the villages enrolled in the cooperatives has increased from 16.3 per cent to 52.3 per cent during the same period.

The percentage of the urban population enrolled in the cooperatives increased from 32.6 to 82.2 per cent during this period.

The growth of capital stock has proceeded at an even greater rate, as illustrated by the following table:

Capital Stock of Consumers' Cooperatives	
January 1, 1928	91,000,000 rubles
January 1, 1929	211,700,000 rubles
January 1, 1930	463,900,000 rubles
January 1, 1931	902,500,000 rubles

Thus the capital stock has increased ten fold during the past three years. Of this amount the capital stock of the village cooperatives has increased from 43,100,000 rubles at the beginning of 1928 to 543,800,000 rubles at the beginning of the present year and the capital stock of the city cooperatives has increased from 47,900,000 rubles to 358,700,000 rubles in the same period.

■

New Tax for Rural Development

According to a decree issued by the Government of U.S.S.R., a new tax, to be levied only once, will be introduced this year, in rural districts of the Soviet Union. This tax will be turned over in full to the district and village budgets and will be spent exclusively on the economic and cultural development of the villages.

Collective farms and those members of the collectives having individual incomes, will not be taxed.

The tax will be carried out on the basis of the single agricultural tax, various grades of assessment being established. The economic strength of the districts as well as the average income of the peasants will also be taken into consideration.

The decision of the Government has been adopted in connection with various proposals, advanced by local Soviets, to utilize the growth of the income of the villages in 1930-31 for strengthening the district and village budgets with the object of the economic and cultural development of the villages.

■

First Gipsy Soviet

The members of the collective farm, "Trudovoi Tsigan" (Gipsy Toiler), in the Mineralovodsk district, have elected their own Soviet. This is the first gipsy Soviet in the Northern Caucasus.

The collective farm has built this year model stables for good breed horses and opened a school where tuition is conducted in the gipsy tongue.

The gipsy collective farmers have issued an appeal to all gipsies wandering in the Northern Caucasus urging them to settle down and organize new gipsy collective farms.

Some Figures on Newspapers and Books

THE increase in the amount of paper used from year to year for publishing purposes may serve as an indication of the growth of publishing in the U.S.S.R. Thus, 142,200,000 metric tons of paper were consumed in publishing in the U.S.S.R. in 1929, 211,500,000 tons in 1930, and during the present year, according to the plan, 232,500,000 tons of paper will be used by the publishing industries. The consumption of paper by the newspapers has increased at the swiftest rate —from 94,000,000 metric tons in 1929 to 134,-000,000 during the present year. The circulation of newspapers in the Soviet Union has increased during the past two years as follows:

Total circulation of Soviet newspapers	
1929	12,500,000
1930	22,330,000
1931	27,000,000

The circulation of newspapers in pre-war Russia was 2,728,000.

Along with the growth of the daily press there has been an intensive increase in book publishing. In 1914 book publishing in Tsarist Russia reached the record figure of 130,000,000 copies. This number was surpassed in 1924, the first year the publishing industry really got on its feet after the years of disruption. In 1928, 250,000,000 copies of books were published, in 1929, 335,000,000 and in 1930 over 500,000,000. The greatest increase has been in literature on technical, production, and social and political problems.

■

Tours to the Soviet Arctic

"Intourist," the organization which arranges visits by foreigners to the Soviet Union, is organizing next summer an excursion on the icebreaker Malygin into the Northernmost section of the U.S.S.R., Franz Josef Land and, time and ice conditions permitting, also to Wiese Land which was discovered in the summer of 1930. The excursion will be arranged for from 30 to 50 tourists.

Until very recently a visit to Franz Josef Land was considered an unusual feat even for a well organized and properly equipped arctic explorer. Now, as a result of the work of Soviet seamen and scientists interested in the North, Franz Josef Land will become accessible to ordinary tourist excursions.

"Intourist" has recently undertaken a new type of foreign hunting excursions for foreign tourists. A group of hunters organized by the Travel Bureau "Nordisk," arrived in February in Leningrad from Sweden. They left with huntsmen and guides of the "Intourist" for the Northern Region where they will hunt bears, wolves and foxes.

Arctic Museum Organized

The All-Union Arctic Institute is organizing an Arctic Museum in Leningrad. The museum will contain various materials, documents, pictures, diagrams and films connected with arctic expeditions.

A special department of the museum will be devoted to the rescue expedition of the ice-breaker Krassin which came to the aid of the airship "Italia" two years ago. A great panorama of the Northern outskirts of the U.S.S.R. will also be installed in the museum.

■

Pre-Historic Animals Discovered

The paleontological expedition of the Academy of Sciences which carried on explorations last summer along the shores of the river Uda, in the region of Nizhe-Udinsk, Siberia, made some important discoveries. At a height of about 900 feet above the level of the river, two caves were found containing the remains of many prehistoric animals including foxes, martens, reindeer, wolves, small rodents, flying mice, some of them rare specimens. All of the fauna were found in a remarkably well preserved condition. They have been shipped to Leningrad, where they are being prepared for the museums.

■

Yakutian Dictionary

Professor Pekarsky has completed the Yakutian dictionary, upon which he has worked for almost fifty years. He began collecting material for this dictionary while in his exile in the Yakutian region in the eighties.

As a result of his many years' work, the Yakutian people will get a scientific dictionary containing 25,000 words, which will be one of the most complete dictionaries ever created for the Eastern nationalities of the U.S.S.R.

■

A Factory-College for Engineers

A committee has been organized in Leningrad by a group of representative engineers for the purpose of raising funds among engineers and technicians for the construction of a model factory to serve simultaneously as a school for engineers. The factory is to employ 4,000 men who while working there will go through a two-year course of theoretical studies, so that half the workers will be graduated as engineers every year.

It is estimated that the cost of the factory-college will be 7,500,000 rubles ($3,862,500). The money is to be raised by the engineers voluntarily contributing a part of their bonuses and fees for rationalization suggestions.

■

Tenth Anniversary of Moscow Jewish Theatre

The Jewish Theatre, established in Moscow in 1921, is now celebrating the tenth anniversary of its existence.

During this period the theatre produced chiefly the Jewish classics—Goldfaden, Sholom Aleichem, Peretz, Mendel, and Moikher-Sforim, giving an artistic presentation of the history and daily life of Jewry.

In 1928 the Jewish theatre made a successful foreign tour, and upon returning to the U.S.S.R., made a complete change of policy. The theatre now concentrates upon modern topics. One of the plays to be presented in 1931 will be Ernst Toller's "Boiler Fire," which will be directed by the eminent German theatrical director, Edwin Piskator.

■

Plays and Lectures for Foreign Workers

The Art Department of the People's Commissariat for Education has decided to organize a group of actors and lecturers, who will give performances and deliver lectures in English and German to foreign workers and specialists working in the U.S.S.R. Two German theatres are already being organized. In addition it is planned to organize two travelling theatres which will not only give performances but also coach amateur circles of foreign workers.

It has also been decided to gather together the foreign workers in Moscow in order to ascertain the kind of plays they would like to have presented, as well as to discuss with them other ways of providing for their cultural needs.

■

Special Valuta Commission Abolished

On February 4th it was announced that the Special Valuta Commission attached to the Narkomfin (Commissariat for Finance) of the U.S.S.R. had been abolished and its functions given over to the Narkomfin. Socialized enterprises and organizations now have the right to transfer currency abroad within the limits of the monthly valuta plan, without special permission. Improper use of valuta resources will be punished by law.

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Changes in Soviet Foreign Service

A. A. Dedya has been relieved of the duties of trade representative of the U.S.S.R. in Esthonia, and Gustav Kasparovich Klinger was appointed in his stead on February 21.

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Planning Scientific Research

THE first All-Union Conference on Planning Scientific Research opened in Moscow on April 6. More than a thousand delegates from all over the Union, representing universities, scientific institutions, industry and agriculture were present.

The delegates agreed that the principle of planning must be applied to scientific work, that science must be linked up directly with life, must be made an organic part of the economic structure of the Soviet Union, and that wherever possible scientific laboratories be connected directly with industrial and agricultural undertakings. It was brought out that no restriction of scientific activities was implied in the insistence that science must be put to practical uses. Rather, the possibilities of scientific work are thereby greatly expanded, since there is literally no limit to the scope of the plans for economic and cultural development being worked out in the Soviet Union. The fulfillment of the present Five-Year Plan and the plans for the more distant future already launched offer limitless opportunities for scientific labor. All the vast natural resources of the U.S.S.R. must be studied and adapted to social uses. Scientific research and activity of every kind are needed in this process. Scientists will have the resources of the State at their disposal and a new incentive in the assurance that whatever of value they discover will be put to immediate use.

Growth of Soviet Science

Lomov, Assistant Chairman of Gosplan, was the first speaker of the conference. He emphasized the importance of the place accorded to science under the Soviet Government. For the period from 1800 to 1917, the number of scientific institutions in Tsarist Russia grew from 4 to 289. By 1930 the number had increased to 1,500. For 117 years before the revolution, in other words, 283 scientific research institutions were opened, while during 13 years since the revolution, 1,200 or five times as many, have been established. In 1800 Tsarist Russia had 200 scientific workers; in 1917, 4,240. By 1930 there were 24,000 scientific workers in the Soviet Union.

"The first *piatiletka* (five-year plan) will soon be finished," concluded Lomov, "science is already faced with vital problems connected with

the next stage of our construction—the next *piatiletka*. We must reach a production of 60,000,000 kilowatts of power, 60,000,000 tons of iron, 400 to 450,000,000 tons of coal, 150,000,000 tons of oil. For this all our own scientific resources are necessary, and in addition we shall have to learn things from Europe and America in the field of technique for a long time to come."

Bukharin's Speech

Nikolay Bukharin, member of the All-Union Academy of Science, then spoke in part as follows:

"Always and everywhere," he said, "science, in the last analysis, develops on the basis of the practical needs of the given epoch. In a class society, science is concentrated in the hands of the ruling class, and reflects its philosophy. The tremendous problems of socialist construction which confront us demand a gigantic increase in the role of science in the system of socialist labor in the U.S.S.R. This requires an absolute and categorical break with the feudal and bourgeois traditions of old academicism, and a complete over-hauling of the whole system of scientific research institutions to fit them to solve practical and urgent problems. This requires planning throughout all of our scientific research work.

"The application of the principle of planning to our whole system of scientific research work, concentrating attention on the most vital problems, organizing correctly the distribution of labor among the different fields of scientific work, will make possible the more rapid development of science and will transform it into a powerful lever for the technical and economic revolution required in the building of socialism."

"The planning of scientific research work should include the following: determination of the proportion to be allotted to scientific research work in the budget of the country; planning the organization and activities of scientific research institutions; the geographic distribution of scientific institutions and the distribution of funds among the different branches and of scientific workers. All planning must take strict account of the specific characteristics of different types of scientific work and bureaucratic tendencies must be avoided."

In closing Bukharin stressed the point that the methods of planning must be such as in no way to hamper the initiative and creative activities of the scientific workers participating in socialist construction.

Some of the Problems Discussed

In the discussion which followed Bukharin's address Professor V. L. Komarov, vice-chairman of the Academy of Sciences, pointed out that since only one-third of the Soviet Union is inhabited the first problem before science is to make an inventory of all the resources of the country, and that the work of expeditions in particular must be put on a planned basis to avoid the over-lapping that had sometimes taken place in the past.

Prof. A. F. Joffe, head of the Leningrad Physico-Technical Institute, said that the planning of scientific work was important not only in the interests of socialist construction but of science itself. He also pointed out the advantages of collective work in science, and said that some of the most important scientific discoveries had come not where people were working alone, but when whether deliberately planned or not, the energies of hundreds of people had been concentrated around a given subject.

Prof. Joffe urged greater use of motion pictures and radio to further scientific information. He outlined a plan for making invention and scientific research accessible to all. Science, he said, must embrace all productive processes, all the phenomena of life. Workers everywhere should be encouraged to exercise their creative faculties in working out new processes and inventing new tools and machinery. To this end, he said, definite problems should be given workers in every field, and the technical personnel of factories and farms should direct their work. This could be greatly stimulated, he said, through the development of socialist competition and shock brigades in scientific work, one department or one factory challenging another to solve certain definite problems.

Prof. Joffe on Power Development

In an article on "The Technique of the Future," written in connection with the conference, Prof. Joffe opened up exciting vistas of what science might do when man had learned to use the power resources of the world more efficiently.

"The rich flowering of science," he said, "opens unimaginable aspects of the world around us, filling life with new beauties. For whatever we do—whether setting street cars or trains in motion, lighting buildings or running industry, we need power first of all. The richer we are in power, the richer will be our technical development. But our modern power system is barbaric and criminal. We burn up the energy of the sun that has been stored a million years in coal—but we use only about 20 per cent of its potential power, and let the remaining 80 per cent go to waste. In a few hundred years, at this rate, we could use up all the power resources of the past. And the solar energy of the sun, bestowed on us each day, we do not use at all. It alone might fulfill all our needs. . . ."

Prof. Volgin of the Academy of Sciences explained that since the reorganization of the Academy a year ago it had come nearer to the problems of planning science. The Academy, in endeavoring to bring its work into harmony with the Five-Year Plan has been concentrating on the problem of the utilization of the raw

materials and power resources of the country, and is looking ahead to the problems of a Fifteen-Year Plan as well. He said that a special section of the Academy would devote itself to questions of the cultural revolution, including ethnological studies of the various racial groups and the development of their national cultural life.

Prof. A. Fersman reported on new mineral resources, and the study of the physical and chemical structure of ore. He stressed the necessity of employing scientific methods in prospecting for ore.

"The geologist must be a technologist, too. He must not only recognize mineral ores found but know what uses may be made of the minerals he discovers." He cited the experience with Khibinsk apatite as an example of this. At first the idea was to get apatite—a fertilizer. It was thought that the nepheline, found in the ore, decreased its value because the apatite had to be separated from it. Study of nepheline has shown that it is even more valuable than apatite. There was still another ore, which at first was thought to be debasing the nepheline. This ingredient—egeline—was found to contain a considerable amount of vanadium, which will probably make egeline the most valuable of all the ingredients of Khibinsk ore.

Professor Alexandrov spoke on the "geographic centres of new construction work and the problem of regional combines." He declared that what is now central U.S.S.R. may very soon become the "economic borderland." He indicated as a possible future centre, the now nearly uninhabited regions of Angara and Yenesei.

Prof. G. M. Krjijanovsky, former head of Gosplan, quoting Lenin's famous statement that "Communism is the Soviet Government plus electrification of the whole country" outlined the plans of the Electrification Commission for coordinating industrial production in different sections of the country on the basis of power resources, for reconstructing industry and transport on the basis of an ever greater use of electricity, and a wider use of electricity in agricultural processes.

Science and Agriculture

Prof. N. I. Vavilov, head of the Lenin Agricultural Academy, spoke of the service of science in connection with the agricultural collectivization movement.

"Before the revolution," he said, "the science of agriculture was completely divorced from reality. The total seeded area in Tsarist Russia constituted about 4.5 per cent of the entire area. There were great land reserves entirely uncultivated. In 1931, we are increasing the seeded area by 12 per cent. The development of sheep and cattle raising through our sovhoz system makes it possible to use great expanses of land unsuitable for cultivation. We shall push our agriculture northward and eastward to the farthest possible limits.

"This year we produced only half a million tons of super-phosphates, and in 1933 we will give agriculture 12,000,000 tons which surpasses the amount of fertilizer used by Germany. By 1936-37, we shall be able to provide 32,000,000 to 33,000,000 tons of fertilizer, which equals the world production at the present time. However, even this amount only takes care of the needs of our industrial and technical crops. The carrying out of our plan for mineral fertilizers requires extensive experimental and research work.

"Our socialized agriculture is faced with the problem of a new and more rational distribution of crops, the replacement of extensive cultivation by more intensive and productive methods, increasing the assortment of crops and providing raw material for industry."

Prof. Vavilov then discussed scientific problems in the field of increasing the production of technical crops, and the development of new plants providing raw materials for the textile industry, and stressed the importance of the new rubber bearing plants. He then turned to the problem of livestock and said that within three years the number of horned cattle in the country would be tripled and that the number of hogs would increase thirty-fold in the same period, which meant new problems for science in the selection of breeds and in rationalization of feeding.

"By the end of the second Five-Year Plan," he concluded, "we foresee the complete mechanization of all the processes of agriculture. This means that entirely new forms and types of machinery corresponding to the needs of socialist agriculture, must be worked out.

"The collectivization of agriculture which is developing so rapidly means that science must turn its attention exclusively to problems of large scale agriculture. All the efforts of our experimental institutions must be in this direction.

"Our immediate problem is to tie up all of our scientific work with that of industry and with the whole system of scientific research work in the Soviet Union. We put before the conference the question of creating a single planning center for all scientific research work."

The concluding sessions of the conference were addressed by V. M. Molotov, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars, and V. V. Kuibyshev, Chairman of the State Planning Commission. Resumés of their speeches will be printed in the next issue of the "Soviet Union Review."

On the Spring Seeding Front

SINCE February the Soviet press has been full of plans for the spring sowing campaign. Its eight-column heads, when not announcing such matters as a conference of scientists in Moscow, the conclusion of the Five-Year Plan for oil in two and a half years, or urging better housing conditions for the workers in the Don Basin, have been given over almost entirely to announcements that this or that district has completed its plans, has started its seeding, or to exhortations that no one shall lag behind in the spring agricultural campaign. The "scandals" aired in the Soviet press have been concerned with man-handling of machinery, failure of spare parts to arrive in time, or evidences of planlessness and delay in the preparations.

While the lateness of the spring, which was almost a month behind the spring of last year, delayed the spring sowing campaign somewhat, there is no reason to believe that the plans for extended acreage in this spring's sowing will not be fulfilled. Each day brings reports from State farms or collectives that have not merely completed but surpassed their program. The program of the 157 State grain farms of the Zernotrest called for the seeding of 8,358,480 acres, four times the acreage of last year, and the Soviet papers reported on May 1st, when the seeding period was still not over, that 93 per cent of this program had already been carried out. The collectives, which now include over 50 per cent of the peasants, were a little behind the State farms, not having the same advantages of organization or equipment, since many thousands of them have only been formed within the past few months, but through the enthusiasm engendered through intensive development of "shock brigades" and "socialist competition" between farm and farm and district and district, they have largely overcome their inexperience in collective organization and methods. The State farms and the Tractor Stations have helped them with machinery and expert advice, many of the collectives held "seeding drills" beforehand, to make sure that all equipment was in readiness and that each worker knew his place. And when the late spring shortened the season, many of the State farms and collectives instituted a double shift system, working by night as well as by day.

General Staff for Spring Seeding

In Moscow a general staff of the spring seeding campaign was organized, a special commission of the Council of People's Commissars from whose office were sent forth mechanics, agronoms, veterinaries, and students to help in the more backward areas. This commission gathered information from all parts of the country about the preparations and progress of the campaign, saw to the distribution of seed and equipment and workers. To them came requests for everything from caterpillar tractors to cooks. One State farm wired to the Commission, "We want three cooks"—and got them—for the "Narpit" organized a special course and trained 27,000 cooks especially for field work. The commission carried on a special campaign for the care of horses, as well as machinery. It was arranged that as soon as one State farm or collective completed its program it send men and machinery to help some weaker neighbor.

The Machine and Tractor Stations not only had 37,502 tractors in condition for the spring seeding but helped organize food brigades and medical care. All the Machine and Tractor Stations were equipped with telephones for the spring work, as well as the collectives which they serve. One hundred doctors were sent from Leningrad and 340 from Moscow to the "spring seeding front." The People's Commissariat of Health supplied 150 doctors from its institutes.

Seeding Preparations on a Sovhoz

A picture of the spring preparations as carried on in the large sovhozes (State farms) of the Zernotrest is given in a letter to "Izvestia" by a correspondent at "Verblud," the 300,000-acre Training and Experimental Farm near Rostov in the North Caucasus. The letter, in part, follows:

"In making ready for our second spring the 'shock troops' of the Experimental Training Farm were faced with a host of difficulties. A serious situation appeared at the very beginning of our repairing campaign. There were no spare parts for the caterpillars and auto transport. The imported spare parts, we were informed, could not possibly reach us before the end of February. What to do?

"The heads and the shock troop workers of the central repair shops in seeking a way out, came to the only possible conclusion—Don't wait for the spare parts from America! Mobilize all our resources, and make our own spare parts!

"A foundry was equipped in short order. From Odessa four old worn out lathes were brought, to supplement the four we already had. The sovhoz started mass production of spare parts for tractors. By our own efforts we were able to manufacture a large quantity of parts—250 different kinds, including such important ones as pistons, piston rings, piston rods, connecting rod nuts, valves, cylinders. New pistons were made for 55 machines. Over 1,000 piston rings were made in the repair shop.

"Certainly the work was not perfect, since the shock workers in our machine shop had had no experience in mass production of spare parts. Some of the pistons were defective, some of the new parts didn't work. But on the whole the quality of the work was satisfactory, as was proved by the way the machinery has stood up under the home-made repairs.

"At the request of the sovhoz 'Skotovod' we sent ten of our newly repaired caterpillars to Prikumsk to haul fodder for them. Through rain and storm, over the trackless steppe, those caterpillars did a daily stint of from 70 to 100 kilometers. Each tractor made an average of a thousand kilometers altogether, and there were no cases of breakage due to the poor quality of the spare parts.

"As a result of the intensive work all repairs of tractors and auto transport were completed ten days ahead of time. From March 5th to 15th the social organizations of the sovhoz carried on a survey to make sure that everything was in readiness for the sowing campaign, and found the sovhoz prepared in all important respects. More than enough seed, cleaned and selected, was on hand. Of the total stock of 4,781 tons, 3,480 tons had already been shipped to the various sections of the sovhoz where it was stored and ready for use the moment the campaign should start. All of the principal equipment and most of the fuel necessary had also been hauled to the sections where it would be used. Food supplies for the different brigades of workers were guaranteed for the whole period of the seeding. At the same time quite a number of defects were discovered in the preparations. Thirteen new tractors ordered from Novorossisk had not yet arrived; twenty drills and certain other machines were lacking. A representative was immediately sent to the neighboring sovhoz 'Gigant' to secure additional machinery. It was found that while there were enough specialists and skilled workers for each section, there were not enough seasonal unskilled workers. Contracts for work to be done for the various collectives had not been fulfilled completely, the medical service was imperfectly organized, and so on.

"On March 15th, the final day of the survey, a conference was held, attended by representatives of the nine collectives of which the sovhoz is 'patron,' as well as by representatives of all the sovhoz departments. Three of the sections received prizes for having made the most efficient and complete preparations. Prizes were also given to the best of the shock troop workers of the machine shop and garage who had put through the repairs ahead of time.

"Six of the collectives reported that they were entirely ready for seeding. The three others had not quite completed their machine repairs and seed cleaning.

"The general conclusion of the conference was:

" 'Our main difficulties are behind us. In all the essentials, the Experimental-Training sovhoz is ready for seeding. The minor details still unattended to will be taken care of in the days still remaining before the seeding commences. We shall carry on the spring seeding campaign not worse, but better than last year!'

"Our sovhoz plans to seed 113,620 acres this spring of its own fields, and will plow 39,520 acres for collectives. The shock troop workers have undertaken to exceed this plan through socialist competition.

"Three of the sections have worked out their own 'vstrechnie' program, pledging themselves to increase their output, lower the number of stoppages, and decrease the use of fuel. According to rough preliminary estimates their program will mean an economy of 6,000 rubles (over $3,000) to the sovhoz, and will cut down the seeding period by one day. The Comsomol section No. 3 has pledged itself to seed six thousand hectares instead of the five thousand allotted them, in the same period and with the same machinery.

"The specialist shock troops have pledged themselves to cut down the entire seeding period from fifteen to thirteen days by more efficient distribution of people and machinery, by increasing the number of drills to be hauled per tractor.

"The production conference revealed a new wave of enthusiasm on the part of the workers, specialists and students of the Experimental Training sovhoz. This is the best pledge that it will come through its second spring with new victories."

On April 18th it was reported in the press that the Experimental-Training Farm had completed the seeding of 117,354 acres, 104.6 per cent of its program, and sent its fleet of tractors to work for neighboring collectives. On the same day its neighbor "Gigant" finished sowing 288,000 acres, instead of the 265,000 called for in the program, taking nine days instead of ten for the work, and placed its tractors and drills at the service of its neighbors.

Michurin, the Soviet Burbank

Translated from an article by V. Kudashov, in "Nashi Dostijenia," Jan., 1931

Ivan Vladimirovich Michurin

I WAS taken to call on Ivan Vladimirovich Michurin by Andrei Bacharev, the editor of the local newspaper. We left the town of Koslov behind and as we came to the river, beyond which lies the chief experimental station, we could see the modest brick house in which Michurin lives.

"And there," pointed the editor, "is where he loves to fish. You know, he has even trained the ordinary river-frogs to come up on the bank and eat from his hand."

We were met by Michurin's second assistant, Pavel Yakovlev, who appeared unexpectedly from among the green branches of the cherry trees.

"The old man asleep?"

"Oh, no! He was up long ago and is out inspecting the new greenhouse that is being built."

And around the corner of the new greenhouse we turned to a bench where sat an old man wearing a cotton jacket and a grey cap, who was leaning with muscular hands on a staff in front of him. It was Michurin. Around him circled a flock of sparrows. Bacharev greeted him, introduced me and stated my errand.

"He wants to interview you."

"Well, what of it?" muttered Michurin and gazed gloomily over the nursery.

The interview was not beginning well.

He turned suddenly to Bacharev. "Those workers that were here on an excursion, they are all right. They understand and will do well. But after they had seen everything do you know what they said? They said, 'Why do some of the professors say your hybrids are illegitimate?' Humph!"

"What did you say?"

"What? Oh, I told them to go back and say to those professors that they were probably illegitimate themselves."

Smoking a fragrant little cigar through a short glass holder he gazed out over the garden, at the rows of trees, the far gray balls of clouds. A flock of sparrows, eyeing us suspiciously, drew near him.

"They're afraid of you," he said and drew some crumbs from his pocket. He turned suddenly to me, "Where do the workers get such questions? Of course you'll write something about the gardens. But no lies, please. The majority lie. One dirty dog made a hullaballoo in newspaper style and said Michurin had flowers blooming in zero weather. Humph! Pavel Nickanorovich, show the comrade the nursery. It's too hard for me to walk with you."

The garden was crowded with trees of all heights and with plant-beds on all sides, and around us blew the tender scent of bright roses and the faint odor of ripe berries.

"Everything you see here," began Yakovlev, "is due to the exclusive work of Ivan Vladimirovich. For 55 years, he literally has not left his plant-beds nor taken his hands from the earth. His accomplishments were not recognized by us for a long time. He had to work entirely alone, without material or moral support. The Americans were the first to recognize his work. The Department of Agriculture of the United States sent their specialists to him for years before the revolution. Oftener than anyone else came the American botanist Meyer. He took away with him a tremendous number of Michurin's varieties and bred them widely in America, so it is not strange that Michurin is better known in America than in this country. The Americans were so much interested in his work that as far back as 1912 they were offering him a fine salary and all research facilities and assistance. Yes, if we had the American initiative we would already have thousands of gardens with these improved plants of Michurin's. He has developed about 300 entirely new fruits, berries, garden plants and flowers and an even greater number are at present under experiment. He has evolved 25 kinds of grapes, 52 kinds of cherries.

"It is at the bottom of Michurin's philosophy that man can and should constantly get better and more plants, adapted to local climates and bearing fruits suitable to the needs of mankind. The great problem is solved by special Michurin methods of work. Ordinarily plants are pampered, they receive an abundance of manure and the best of nursing. Michurin, on the contrary, applies the strictest, as he calls it—the Spartan method of up-bringing. He says that a pampered

tree is like the pampered son of a nobleman—it cannot endure the unprotected life, the difficulties of life. In order for the tree to be a stoic, to be able to withstand misfortune and hard climatic conditions, Michurin forbids any coddling of the tree, any loosening up of the soil around its roots, any use of fertilizer, any muffling up against the winter. It must work for itself and seek out what it needs for life. A plant unable to stand these Spartan conditions is thrown out of the nursery. Only under these conditions could that fine line of peach trees there, which have successfully withstood our excessively cold winters, been raised.

"In the south the grapevines are bent down and covered with earth in the winter, but our vineyard in spite of the severe climate does not need any care during the bitterest cold. Over there is a new and serious rival of the grape, the famous *Aktinidia*, best of all existing berries. True, it has one defect, a too tender skin, but Michurin has already done what is necessary to remedy that and that berry will be suitable for long distance transportation, for export.

"Eat some of our cherries, but, please, don't throw the stones away. They are more valuable to us than money. Michurin developed that cherry especially for planting in fields between the sowings of grain to hold back the winds in winter that blow away the snow from the ground and endanger the crops. You ask why it has such low branches? The winds of the fields can not blow it down and its crops can be picked without special ladders. And it bears well—one little tree will give 13 kilograms of fruit. We have plums without seeds. And there is a tree that looks like a cherry but it has berries that hang in bunches like grapes. It has abundant fruit and is a hybrid of hogberry with cherry. On certain bunches as many as forty berries have been counted. And we have hybrids of pears with rowans, apricots with plums, melons with squash. . . .

"These covered with mats are perennial tomatoes. Some work has just been done on them and they must be protected for a little while from the rays of the sun. As you know, tomatoes are set out each year as seedlings which is a waste of time and money to the country. Ivan Vladimirovich commissioned me to raise perennial tomato plants with the fruit growing on bushes like, for example, raspberries or currants. Well, that matter is settled. It is now only a matter of time. That reminds me of the success of Gorshkov! One rainy summer Ivan Vladimirovich was raising a new kind of strawberry and he was much annoyed to have so many of the berries spoiled by the sogginess of the soil. Why, he asked himself, was it not possible to make strawberries grow on bushes? Remembering that there is one wild bush-plant that is akin to the strawberry he commissioned Gorshkov to cross that with the cultivated berry to get a hybrid with a plant that would give him the result he desired.

"Further, we have here berries of great value to the chemical industry—an indelible dye—and, here's a luxury, the famous lily violet of Michurin which fills our garden with the odor of violets in the evening. For this the Dutch made Michurin the offer of a tremendous sum if he would sell it to them exclusively. But he isn't that sort of person."

Yakovlev motioned me to taste other fruits and continued:

"Ivan Vladimirovich made a revolution in horticulture and created a method the use of which will

Above—Some of Michurin's Hybrid Berries
Right—Picking Apples in the Michurin Orchard

change our gardens completely. Though we adopt his method, however, we can not achieve his 'miracles.' He arrived at many of his most important discoveries by that feeling, that intuition, that belongs to great teachers and artists. We have gotten much from him and he is full of the desire to pass results of his half-century of observation and experiment on to us, but he can give only part—it is not in his power to transfer that extraordinary sensitiveness that was born in him, apparently, and which is his genius. There! He is calling us."

In spite of his 80 years Michurin has preserved his energy and strength. His great head is slightly flattened and bald, his ears large, his chin sharp, his eyes black and the thin beard silvery. In speech he is simple and direct.

"Throw away that cigarette you are smoking—it's mixed with the devil knows what," he rumbled and he gave me some of his own tobacco and a little machine to roll a fresh cigarette. "Nu! Why are you here?" He spoke to a peasant who had shuffled up.

"Please, I came to see you. I heard about you at the collective farm. I—I—that is, I want to see your trees. . . "

"Well, there they are. Go and look at them." As the peasant went off he snorted. "They come to me and look at me as though I were an orang-utang. Come, we'll drink tea."

As we sat down among his charts and maps he turned to the editor, "Do you know what? The president of the district came to me today to say they want to make a jubilee celebration for me. What nonsense! Meetings, speeches, kisses. What's the idea?"

The editor shouted, "Ivan Vladimirovich, you don't have it right. The party and the social organizations want to change the name of this town from Koslov to Michurin in your honor."

Michurin interrupted, "I know. But why should they celebrate me? It's my varieties, my hybrids they should celebrate. I am no meteor flash. But my hybrids, the new kinds of plants, they will remain for centuries. They should have the jubilee. They must be helped to spread . . . But these jubilees! People get crazy ideas. Why, you should have heard them at the last one. One woman came up to say, 'We have a son who is out of his mind, and they say you are a conjurer, that you can make miracles. Help us!' "

The editor broke in, "The jubilee is being organized not only for you but for the purpose of acquainting the masses with your accomplishments. For you have conquered nature—"

"Don't say that," cried Michurin. "One can't conquer nature and it isn't necessary. One must become acquainted with her laws and understand them. And my purposes are practical. We have plants here, new varieties of plants that were formerly found only in the far south. That wasn't conquering nature, but it was working with her according to her laws to produce plants suitable to our needs. We needed fruits that would satisfy certain demands for quality, for quantity, for suitability for transportation. Formerly hybrid trees have been propagated by grafts. That method is costly in time and money and is now unnecessary. These hybrid fruit trees multiply from seeds. And that is important. In the south the melons ripen in a hundred days. Here in Koslov the time of bright sunshine is less so I have a new hybrid, the Kommunarka, that matures in 50 days or less. In other words, plants to satisfy the needs of man are being developed by hybridization. Soy beans love the south, but we can now grow them even as far north as Vologda if we want to.

"I tell Bacharov here that when he writes in his newspapers about getting a better harvest he mustn't spend all his time talking about new machines and tractors. Remember that to better the harvest one needs better plants, better seed. The time will come when the grains of wheat and rye will be the size of beans. Give us time, give us time, and we will yet have palms growing under the skies of Koslov."

Recent Agricultural Legislation

New Agricultural Tax

THE agricultural changes incident to the mass movement of Soviet peasants into collectives, which already includes half of all the peasants in the U.S.S.R., the goal set for the end of the present year, have made necessary certain changes in the method of agricultural taxation which were embodied in a new law issued on March 29th of this year.

The system of taxing agricultural collectives has been changed completely in the new decree. Instead of a tax based on the average income, the tax will be based on the actual financial condition of each collective, just as in any large industrial undertaking. Thus the whole question of bookkeeping and accounting becomes very important to the collectives.

The rate of taxation for collectives is considerably lower than that for individual peasants. In the collectives each ruble of gross income is to be taxed from three to four kopeks, while the income of individual households will be taxed from four to thirty kopeks per ruble. The proportional system of taxing the collectives and the exemption of considerable parts of their incomes from any

taxation whatever through various special provisions, will greatly lighten the taxes levied on the collectives.

In the new tax law the exemptions are made exclusively for the purpose of increasing production. All income derived from livestock is exempt from taxation, and all income derived from any increase in the seeded area. Special exemptions are granted to collectives planting technical crops. The rate of taxing all such crops is very low. Exemptions in connection with livestock raising and technical crops are also extended to individual poor and middle peasants.

The former policy of reducing taxes for all of the poorer farms remains in force. Collectives in which the gross income per person does not exceed sixty rubles, are freed entirely from taxation. Substantial reductions are also made in the case of those collectives which have accepted as members peasants formerly entirely exempt from taxation. The system of taxing the middle peasant is as before based on the policy of strengthening the alliance between the middle peasant and the workers by encouraging collective organization. The new law continues the former policy of exemptions for middle peasants who extend their sowing and raise livestock and technical crops.

The new law is further designed to stimulate "contractation"—the system whereby individual peasants and collectives contract to raise certain crops for sale to the government, on which they receive advance payments and other assistance. Under the new law the income from the sale on the private market of any products for which contractual obligations have been completely fulfilled, will not be taxed.

With regard to kulak farms, the new law provides for taxing each farm individually, according to actual income, and not according to a general norm. The rate of taxation to be applied to kulak households is from 30 to 70 per cent. "Dekulakized" households will not be taxed individually, provided they have no hidden sources of income, but the exemptions granted to the poor and middle peasants will not be extended to them.

The receipts from the new agricultural tax are estimated at 500,000,000 rubles (over $250,000,000). While this represents a comparatively modest sum in the entire Soviet budget it will be an important factor in the budget of the local government organizations to which the entire sum received through agricultural taxation will be distributed for use in the village.

The tax will amount to about 2.5 per cent of the peasants' income, and 10 per cent of the entire amount the government will spend in 1931 on agricultural reconstruction. The average tax per one household in the collective farms will amount to a little over 9 rubles, on socialized property and about 4 rubles on unsocialized property. The individual middle peasant household will be taxed about 18 to 20 rubles.

Piece Work System for Collectives

STRICT measures are being taken to complete the introduction of the piece work system in the agricultural collectives. Following the resolution of the VI Congress of Soviets in favor of the piece work system of payment, a decree was issued on April 24th by the Narkomzem (People's Commissariat for Agriculture) and the Kolhozcenter explaining the way in which Articles 14 and 15 of the Model Constitution for Agricultural Collectives,* in which the piece work system was enunciated in principle, are to be applied. The text of the decree follows:

"The chief agricultural work in agricultural artels is to be done according to the piece work system.

"The administration of each collective will work out forms of each kind of work and the payment for each type of work in terms of working days. The reckoning must be based on the degree of difficulty of performing the definite type of work, the amount of experience and skill required for its performance, the quality of the work done and its importance to the collective. The estimates worked out by the administration are to be presented for final action to the general assembly of collective members.

"The distribution of the income of the artels among their members is to be made not on an equal basis, but in strict accordance with the number of working days to each member's credit (with the exception of five per cent of the income which is to be distributed among the collective members in proportion to the property contributed to the socialized fund of the collective).

> "NOTE: Collective members having large families will receive, through action taken by the administration and general assembly of collective members, special assistance either from a fund created for those who are unable to work or through guaranteeing to the working members of such families, in the distribution of work, a sufficient amount to enable them to provide for the non-working members of their families."

In order to insure the early introduction of the piece work system the Narkomzem and the Kolhozcenter issued a further decree providing that the system be put into effect not later than April 10th in the agricultural collectives of the North Caucasus, the Ukraine, the Lower and Middle Volga and the Central Black Earth region, and not later than April 15th in all remaining regions.

To assist the collectives in carrying out the system within the allotted period it was further decreed to send out a special corps of workers trained in problems of labor organization to help

* Printed in the Soviet Union Review for April, 1930.

the collectives in their transition to a piece work system, to print daily reports in the press of the most successful examples of the application of the system by various collectives, to extend the system of "towing," that is, to send groups of workers from the collectives which have completed the transition to the piece system to spend a few days at the more backward collectives showing them how it is done.

Mutual Aid Societies for Collectives

ACCORDING to a recent decree provision has been made for the organization of Mutual Aid Societies in connection with the agricultural collectives along the lines of the societies which have been of such great value to individual peasants who have lost their crops or become incapacitated in some manner. The purpose of the collective Mutual Aid Societies is to supply funds or other forms of assistance to the collective members who are unable to do their share of the collective work. The societies are to be organized on a voluntary basis, a two-thirds vote of a general meeting of collective members, or a delegate meeting being necessary as authorization. All of the members of the collectives are then enrolled in the Mutual Aid Society, and may call on it for aid in case of illness, accident, the death of the supporter of the family, pregnancy, child-birth or other reason preventing the individual or family from contributing his or her share to the general work of the collective. The amount of help to be given will be determined by vote of the general or delegate meetings of members. All forms of social insurance due from other sources will be paid through the Mutual Aid Societies. The village Soviet or social insurance organization will pay over to the Mutual Aid Society treasury whatever funds are assigned for this purpose by the State and local governments.

The Mutual Aid Societies' own funds are collected from the proceeds of the collective itself. Each member pays a small entrance fee, and a certain percentage of each year's returns are set aside for this purpose. In cases where whole districts have become collectivized, the existing village Mutual Aid Societies will be reorganized into Collective Mutual Aid Societies. The collective members may also decide on other ways of increasing the funds of the Mutual Aid Societies such as allotting funds received through payment of fines, and so on. The Mutual Aid Societies come under the general supervision of the People's Commissariats for Social Welfare of the various Republics.

Misuse of Machinery a Punishable Offense

THE proper use and care of the new and complex machines required to carry out the Soviet industrialization program is one of the chief requisites for the success of the plan. Every effort is being made to train an adequate number of skilled workers to handle the machinery and to instil a more careful attitude in all those having anything to do with machinery. In this connection the following decree making avoidable damage to agricultural machinery a punishable offense has recently been issued:

"The Soviet Government has spent huge sums in obtaining tractors and agricultural machinery for the socialized sector of agriculture. In order that this equipment for agricultural production be used to the fullest extent, particularly careful treatment is necessary.

"However, as a result of criminally careless treatment of tractors and agricultural machinery numerous instances of damaging and breaking the machines have occurred. In order to put an end once and for all to such offenses, the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. hereby decree:

"To propose that the following provisions be included in their criminal codexes by the Union Republic Governments:

> " 'For the spoiling or breakage of tractors and agricultural machinery belonging to State farms, machine and tractor stations and collectives, if the spoiling or breakage is the result of a criminally careless attitude toward such property—forced labor for a period up to six months.
>
> " 'For such action repeated continuously or resulting in heavy losses—imprisonment for a period up to three years.'

2. If the breakage or damage is inconsiderable, then instead of taking the matter to court a penalty may be imposed in accordance with the rules of internal order, and a fine assessed in accordance with the existing law.

3. All matters pertaining to the damage or breakage of agricultural machinery are to be taken up by the court immediately. The court examination of the more important cases should as a general rule take place at the State farms, machine and tractor stations and collectives in the presence of the workers and collective members."

Individual Responsibility for Tractors

ON March 23rd a decree was issued by Yakovlev, People's Commissar for Agriculture, requiring that all State farms and machine and tractor stations so organize their work that the tractorists shall be a permanent staff of workers and that two or three tractorists (depending on the number of shifts) be "attached" to each tractor and made responsible for its care. One of these will be appointed foreman, with the duty of constantly watching the condition of the tractor and supplementary machinery, reporting needed re-

pairs and seeing that the machinery is properly oiled, and so on. The foreman is also responsible for checking the work of the other tractorists under him.

The decree further provides that the work must be so organized as to permit sufficient time for examination and repair in the transition from one type of work to another. Special examinations are required after every 500 hours of work. The tractorists are made responsible for the overhauling at the end of the year and for current repairs. Wherever possible the tractorists are given jobs in the machine shop repairing tractors, to increase their skill in this direction. If this is not possible, other technical work is to be found for them in the machine and tractor station or farm during the season when the tractors are not at work.

In order to encourage a careful attitude toward the tractors and other machinery a special fund is to be organized from which premiums are to be paid at the end of the year to those whose tractors are in the best condition, have the best record of work and have been most economically operated. Injury to machinery by non-observance of these regulations is made a legal offense.

Soviet Oil Plan Completed in Half Time

IT was announced by the Soviet Oil Syndicate early in April that the oil industry of the Soviet Union had completed its Five-Year Plan in two and a half years. In 1930, the Soviet Union produced 18,650,000 tons, double the pre-war amount. This year's program calls for an output of 26,633,000 tons of oil, which will be triple the pre-war production.

Under the original Five-Year Plan the daily oil output was to reach 57,000 tons in 1932-33. However, during the first ten days of March the average daily output amounted to 58,000 tons. Thus, the present production already surpasses that scheduled for the end of the Five-Year Plan.

The refininfi of oil is also progressing favorably. Under the Five-Year Plan the daily amount of oil distilled in 1932-33 was to be 52,200 tons. Last February the daily average was 48,800 tons, and the figure set for the last year of the plan will shortly be surpassed.

In 1913, the oil industry employed about 52,000 persons. In 1930, their number was 72,000 and this year the figure is expected to rise to 81,000.

Working conditions have radically changed. The pre-war earnings of an oil worker amounted to about 430 rubles per year on the average (according to the inquiry of 1909). In 1930, the average yearly wages in the oil industry reached 1,144 rubles and in 1931 the average according to the plan should be 1,181 rubles. The increase in real wages was even greater. Before the revolution only a negligible section of the workers enjoyed vacations and only about half of the force was subject to sickness benefit, which did not amount to the full wages. There was no provision for health resorts and sanatoria for workers. At the present time the oil workers all enjoy an annual vacation period with full pay and receive their full wages from the insurance fund in case of illness. Workers not only receive medical treatment free of charge, but are also sent to health resorts and rest homes.

Before the war the average hours were ten per day. At the present time the seven hour day is being introduced, and in a number of oil plants the workers are already enjoying the seven hour day.

Large sums have been invested in housing schemes and the oil workers have been moved from their old and ramshackle huts into modern houses with all conveniences. In 1931 another 14

Derricks in Lenin District of Baku Oilfields

New Apartment Houses of Baku Oil Workers

million rubles will be spent in building houses for the oil workers. A number of large kitchen-factories have been constructed. The kitchen-factories of Baku have a capacity of 160,000 meals per day. In Grozny a kitchen-factory is being built with a capacity of 100,000 meals per day and another kitchen-factory is being built in Maikop with a capacity of 30,000 meals.

The Oil Syndicate is now preparing a plan of further development under which the output in 1933 is tentatively fixed to be two and a half times as large as the estimate for that year under the Five-Year Plan.

The Soviet Union is investing much capital in the development of the oil industry. In 1929-30, the sum of 300 million rubles (over $150,000,-000) was invested, and this year 400 million rubles more have been assigned to the oil industry.

An extensive program of oil refineries and pipelines is being carried out. This year new refineries are being built with a capacity of 8,800,-000 tons per year. A factory is being built which will work over 1,300,000 tons of mazout annually. Twenty new cracking plants are being installed in different factories to obtain benzine from mazout; together they are expected to yield 1,000,000 tons of benzine per year.

The existing factories are also being extended and modernized. The paraffin mill in Grozny, which had a capacity of 10,000 tons per year, is being enlarged to a capacity of 24,000 tons.

The number of oil pipelines is being constantly increased. In addition to the Baku-Batum pipeline of 840 kilometers, there is the Grozny-Tuapse pipeline which at present handles 1 million tons annually. The latter is being increased to a capacity of 1,700,000 tons. A new pipeline is being built from Grozny to the Ukraine, over a distance of more than 1,000 kilometers. Its capacity will be two and a half million tons of oil products annually. Another pipeline is being built between Maikop and Armavir.

Much attention is being given to the supply of electrical power to the oilfields and refineries. The "Red Star" electrical station of Baku is being enlarged from 100,000 to 124,000 kwts., while the "Leon Krassin" power station is also being extended from 18,000 to 62,000 kwts. capacity.

New Decree on Inventions

A NEW decree designed to encourage inventions and technical improvements and insure their wider application has just been passed by the Soviet Government.

According to the new decree the inventor may choose whether he simply be recognized as the author of the given invention, in which case he receives certain payments and privileges, or whether he shall be granted exclusive rights to the invention. In the first case an inventor's certificate will be given him, and in the second case a patent.

When a certificate is given, the right to use the invention within the limits of the U.S.S.R. belongs to the government. Cooperatives and other socialized organizations may also make use of inventions coming within their sphere of activities on an equal basis with the government.

If the invention is recognized as of value to the Soviet Union the inventor receives recompense from the government or the institution employing him. The worker inventor in such cases also receives a number of privileges: housing privileges; preference in entering educational institutions; special opportunities for positions in scientific research and experimental institutions; employment exclusively in connection with inventing work, in the case of those inventors showing most ability; additional vacation; eligibility for personal pension, and so on.

In cases where a patent is requested no one may make use of the invention without the permission of the person holding the patent. The holder of the patent may exploit his invention in accordance with the law governing private enterprise. A foreign inventor or juridical entity may exploit the invention in accordance with the laws regarding the use of foreign capital in economic activities within the limits of the U.S.S.R. Patents are given for a period of fifteen years. Patents on inventions are subject to special taxes. The inventor taking out a patent does not receive the special privileges enumerated above.

The holder of a patent must, either himself or through his licentiate, bring his invention into industrial exploitation within the U.S.S.R., within

three years of the receipt of the patent. If he fails to do this a forced license to exploit the invention may be given to the interested organ or person. If the invention is of substantial importance to the State, it may be alienated at any time or a forced license may be made out in favor of the State organ concerned.

Certificates of invention, but in no case patents, are given under the following conditions:

a. If the invention was discovered in connection with the work of the inventor in any scientific research institution, experimental station, construction bureau, laboratory, or other organization connected with the socialized sector, in the process of examining, working over or testing inventions;

b. When the invention is made in connection with some special task for a State organ or an organization connected with the socialized sector;

c. If the inventor has received material assistance from the State or a socialized organization in working out the invention.

Persons offering technical improvements which do not come in the category of new inventions to the State or socialized institutions, receive premiums according to a special scale. In certain cases provided for in the decree and instructions, they may receive special privileges. They may receive certificates that their improvements have been accepted.

In order to encourage and assist inventors and to insure a prompter and more effective use of inventions and technical improvements special commissions on inventions are being organized in connection with the People's Commissariats, the central bodies in the various fields of industry, agriculture and the cooperative movement, and also in connection with separate enterprises. Commissions on Inventions may also be organized in connection with the People's Commissariats and the Economic Councils of the separate republics.

These commissions will be under the direction of a Central Invention Committee of the STO (Council of Labor and Defense). This central committee will have a bureau which will determine whether the invention is new, and give the author's certificates and patents, and another bureau for the consideration of complaints.

The selection of inventions useful to the country shall be made by the invention bureaus connected with the separate branches of industry. For each invention recognized as useful, a special plan of exploitation shall be drawn up. Each useful invention must be introduced in all enterprises of the given field in which it may be used to advantage.

If an invention made in connection with a certain enterprise or trust or suggested to them may be used by them to advantage, then the enterprise or trust may test and use the invention without waiting for the decision of the central organization, but informing it of such action.

The inventor has the right to be present when the question of the usefulness of his invention is considered. Representatives of the trade union and inventors' associations concerned may also be present. The decision on the question of the usefulness of the invention may be appealed both by the inventor and the inventors' association. The inventor is invited to participate in developing and testing his invention, and if it is an invention of importance, also in the drawing up of a plan for its use.

The selection of useful technical improvements which are not new inventions is as a general rule taken care of in the invention committees of the separate enterprises.

In selecting useful inventions and technical improvements, those having a particular economic importance for the U.S.S.R. are set aside, special persons are made responsible for their introduction, and the central invention commission is notified. In case nothing is done in such a case within six months the central inventions commission must be notified of the reasons, and if nothing is done within a year the matter will be turned over to the Workers' and Peasants' Inspection for investigation.

Applications for author's certificates or for patents must be sent to the Commission on Inventions of STO accompanied by full description and drawings. If all the necessary data is supplied and on preliminary investigation everything seems to be in order, a statement of priority is given the applicant, dated from the time of the receipt of the application by the Commission, or, in cases of dispute, from the date of mailing.

Those inventions will not be recognized as new which have been used before the application within the U.S.S.R. or abroad, or have been described in the press or by other means become publicly known. Author's certificates or patents may be given, however, in the following cases:

a. If the inventor, not more than six months before the application has made either within the borders of the U.S.S.R. or abroad, reports on his invention in scientific research institutions, in the invention commissions, or in enterprises where the invention could be prepared, tested, and applied.

b. If in the same period the inventor has used his invention within the Soviet Union with the aim of testing or perfecting it.

Publication of the invention before the application without the consent of the inventor is a legal offense, and does not deprive the inventor of the right of receiving his author's certificate.

Expert study of the invention to determine whether or not it is new shall be carried out in the order of receipt of applications and must be

completed not later than six months from the date of application.

Refusal of the bureau to grant an author's certificate may be appealed within a period of three months to the complaint bureau. The decision of the latter is final and is not subject to further appeal.

Inventions and improvements relating to national defense are secret. In addition, secrecy may be required in the case of any other inventions or improvements if such action is in the interests of the State. Publication in the press or by any other means of information regarding secret inventions and improvements is forbidden. Secret inventions and improvements may be offered only to the State organizations of the U.S.S.R. with which they are concerned, and may be used only by them.

The patenting and sale abroad of inventions made within the borders of the U.S.S.R. may be effected only with the permission of the Committee on Inventions of STO, and under conditions by it established.

Labor Conditions in the Lumber Industry

THE working day of the lumber-jack in pre-revolutionary Russia lasted ten or twelve and sometimes even fourteen hours. According to data collected by the "Free Economics" Society that existed in those days the fellers earned 67 kopeks a day for ten hours work, the sawyers 98 kopeks and the carters 57 kopeks. At the present time, with an eight-hour day, a wood-cutter earns (if reckoned in pre-war rubles) from 1 to 1.70 rubles, a sawyer from 2.20 to 2.40 rubles, a carter from 1.25 to 2.50 rubles.

Living conditions among the workers were formerly very bad, even according to the low standards of those days. The "quarters" of the lumber-jacks usually consisted of low earthen huts without windows or floors or even chimneys. Beds or even shelves were undreamed of luxuries. Medical aid and supplies were entirely lacking.

While life in lumber camps is rough going at best, conditions have been greatly improved under the Soviet régime. First of all the methods of labor, while still somewhat primitive, are gradually being lightened by the introduction of machinery. Quite a number of foreign specialists are working in the Soviet lumber industry on technical aid contracts. In one of the districts visited by the newspaper correspondent Henry Wales, he tells of finding a camp of thirty-five expert Norwegian lumber-jacks imported to teach the most efficient methods. These Norwegians have recently renewed their contract to remain two years more in the Russian forests.

One of the Crack Women Wood-cutters of the North

In the Northern Region, the Urals, Karelya and the Far Eastern Region tractors are being largely used for hauling instead of horses. Motor saws are being rapidly introduced. The ordinary roads are being replaced by artifically constructed roads of ice and also by railroad branch lines.

The Soviet Labor Code operates in the lumber camps just as it does in the factories and mines and farms. In addition the lumber-jacks are protected by collective agreements concluded between representatives of the administration and the trade union. These agreements strictly define the obligations of the economic organizations toward the workers.

Among the usual obligations undertaken by the industry are the following: The administration transports the workers to the place of work and back at their own expense; wages must be paid at least twice a month; the amount of work required may be increased only in proportion as improved technical conditions make it possible without putting additional strain on the workers. On the basis of the collective agreements the wages in the lumber industry have increased considerably over those of pre-revolutionary days. The permanent corps of lumber workers earn on an average of from 65 to 120 rubles a month. In the brigades where the labor is divided into separate processes and the productivity is therefore much higher, the wages of the lumber-jacks are still higher, sometimes amounting to ten rubles a day. In addition to this it must be remembered that the regular lumber workers receive the benefit of all forms of social insurance, which means a considerable addition to their wages. According to recent figures compiled by Gosplan the wages of seasonal workers in the lumber industry are 57 per cent higher than the wages of seasonal agricultural laborers hired by individual peasants.

At the present time lumber workers so desiring

may receive part of their wages in kind. In 1930 the cooperatives shipped 20,000,000 rubles worth of commodities of which there was a shortage to the lumber regions to be used as payments in kind, and during the first quarter of the present year 38,000,000 rubles worth of such goods has been shipped. In addition to the general commodities for the lumber regions special clothing is provided for the workers in the lumber regions. The clothing fund for this year amounts to 900,000 pairs of boots, 110,000 pairs of "valenkis" (heavy wool boots), 350,000 pairs of shoes, over 36,000 sheepskin coats, and so on. Warm clothing necessary for working is provided to the workers free of charge.

While living conditions are necessarily very crude in the lumber camps, they are being improved from year to year. The Government spent 34,000,000 rubles last year in the construction of hospitals and housing accommodations for lumber workers. In the Northern Region alone last year there were constructed 1,700 new barracks and cottages, twenty-eight homes for clerical workers, 355 community dining-rooms, 362 bath houses and 305 club buildings. In the woods where the work is going on are medical and dental stations, and the essential druggist supplies are available. Hundreds of travelling moving picture apparatuses have been distributed among the lumber camps. Every camp is equipped with radio. About $5,000,000 was spent last year for providing entertainment and instruction to the lumber jacks.

Measures for the protection of labor are being greatly expanded. In 1927-28 about $100,000,000 was spent for this purpose, and this sum was tripled last year. In addition to this the lumber trust sets aside certain amounts from its own funds for this purpose.

A New Type of Factory School

THE pressing demands of the growing industries of the U.S.S.R. for more and still more labor power has given rise to the development of entirely new forms and methods of education. The training of skilled workers has to a large degree been transferred directly to the industrial enterprises where theoretical teaching is linked up as closely as possible with the practical experience of the workers on the job. The factory school is becoming one of the most prevalent types of educational institution in the Soviet Union.

One of the best examples of this type of education is found at the Moscow metal works, "Hammer and Sickle." Not so very long ago only a few hundred of the more than six thousand workers employed in this factory were taking courses. There was only the regular factory school for young workers, and an evening workers' school. At the present time there is a huge, complete educational "combinat" connected with the factory covering every stage of education, beginning with the teaching of illiterates, and ending with advanced technical training.

One of the central links in this educational chain is the evening workers' school where the unskilled and semi-skilled workers receive the theoretical instruction necessary to prepare them for more highly skilled work. Twelve hundred workers are attending this school, including two hundred workers' wives, who are being trained for industrial jobs. The teaching is carried on in two shifts, and takes up twelve hours of every five-day week. The entire course lasts for nine months. The course includes general instruction and special subjects connected with the industry. The theoretical work is so planned as to be closely connected with the practical production work of the factory. Thus the workers attending the courses make sketches of the machines with which they are familiar, and mathematical computations about the raw materials used and goods produced by the fac-

Practical Work in Physics in a Moscow Factory School

tory. The school has already had a very positive effect on the work of the factory. The workers are taking far better care of the machinery and there are fewer breakages and accidents.

There is also a technicum connected with this factory. The students for the technicum are selected from the skilled workers who have a long industrial record. The technicum course lasts from two to two and a half years, and is organized in the following manner: Each student works at his regular job for fifteen days of each month, has six rest days during the month, and devotes the remaining nine days entirely to study. The workers are paid during the time they attend the technicum at the same rate as when they are on their regular job. Here also, the theoretical work of the school follows closely the practical work of the factory. On completing the technicum course, those workers who wish may continue their education still further and enter the higher technical school organized at the same factory, where in another two or two and a half-year course they are trained to take the most highly skilled jobs in that particular industry.

In addition to the evening school, the technicum and the higher technical school, the educational "combinat" of the factory includes courses for the liquidation of illiteracy, a school for factory apprentices, a regular seven-year school for the children of the workers, and various courses on general subjects.

Altogether 4,500 workers in this particular factory are taking some form of educational work. This includes all the young workers in the factory, and half of the adult workers.

The educational combinat of this factory continues to expand. Special courses for the training of teachers are now in process of organization. Buildings are in construction close to the factory, where eventually all these educational activities will be housed, and the school buildings are being equipped in the most modern way. Four million rubles (over $2,000,000) is being spent on the educational buildings.

"Hozraschet" — the New Credit System

ON March 20th, the Soviet Government issued a decree providing for the introduction of the "hozraschet" system for all socialized enterprises of the Soviet Union. The chief innovation in this decree is that in the future, while a general credit limit is established for each undertaking, the State bank will issue funds only on the basis of actually fulfilled contracts, that is to say, on presentation of receipts showing that goods have actually been produced, delivered, and accepted.

This new decree carries still further the credit reform put into effect a year ago whereby all commercial credit operations carried on directly between economic organizations were discontinued and the handling of all credit transactions was turned over to the State Bank, which thus became a central clearing house. This reform eliminated all crediting through bills of exchange, and since then credits have been given directly from the bank, according to the production plan for the year. The weakness of this system was the tendency to "automatic crediting." Since the trusts, factories and factory departments knew that they could draw a certain amount of credit for the year there was no financial pressure to keep them up to the mark in such matters as supplying goods on time, cutting costs or improving quality. The credit was forthcoming whether or not contracts were properly fulfilled. The previous reform helped greatly in strengthening the ruble by limiting the needs of currency through the formation of a central bookkeeping apparatus, and this new reform is designed to limit the use of currency between industrial undertakings still further.

The "hozraschet" system places far greater responsibility for efficient and economic methods on the separate enterprises than heretofore, since they will be able to get credits from the State Bank only in the measure in which they fulfill their obligations before other industrial bodies in supplying them with goods, materials and so on. Thus the advancing of credits is made directly dependent on the execution of concrete business transactions.

The form for the settlement of bills between undertakings may, according to the decree, be established in the contract itself, making it possible for industrial bodies to adjust their settlements to the character of the business carried out by them. The bill of acceptance is recognized as the preferred form of settlement, since it establishes direct contact between the contracting parties, permitting the purchaser to check up the goods delivered as to quality, assortment, and so on.

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Administrative Appointments

On March 30th Alexey Rykov was appointed to the post of People's Commissar for Posts and Telegraphs. Nikolay Antipov, who formerly held this post, was transferred to the post of Assistant People's Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection.

On April 23rd G. I. Krumin was relieved of the duties of responsible editor of the Moscow "Izvestia," at his own request, and Ivan Mikhailovich Gronsky was appointed in his place. The following editorial collegium was appointed to serve with him:

A. I. Marin, K. B. Radek, V. V. Ossinsky, Y. G. Selikh, F. D. Kretov, and V. S. Medvedev.

Foreign Relations of the Soviet Union

U.S.S.R. and Pan-European Conference

THE Moscow "Izvestia" on April 27th published the notes exchanged between Sir Eric Drummond, Secretary of the League of Nations, and Maxim Litvinov, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, with regard to Soviet participation in the Pan-European Conference. The note from Sir Eric Drummond, dated Geneva, May 1, follows:

"I have the honor to inform you that the third session of the Commission of Inquiry into the European Union will open on Friday, May 15, 1931, at 11 o'clock, at the General Secretariat in Geneva.

"Herewith is enclosed a temporary agenda of this session in the form in which it was drawn up by the organizing sub-commission, meeting on March 24 and 25. As is apparent from this document, certain of the countries have retained for themselves the right of proposing a change in the order of the questions to be considered, at the time of the May session. It is therefore, I regret to say, not possible for me to inform you regarding the exact time when the commission will enter upon the consideration of the questions listed in the temporary agenda under paragraph 3-m."

Litvinov's Reply

On April 23rd, Mr. Litvinov replied as follows:

"Mr. General Secretary,

"I am in receipt of your communication dated April 1st, advising that the third Session of the Commission of Inquiry on the European Union will open on May 15, 1931, at 11 a. m., at the Secretariat of the League of Nations and enclosing a preliminary agenda including the following three items:

"1. Report of the organizing sub-commission on the constitution, organization and methods of work of the commission. 2. Proposal for the participation of the Danzig Free City in certain work of the commission. 3. Economic questions: world economic crisis insofar as it is of interest to the European countries as a whole. The third item is accompanied by a note to the effect that in accordance with the decision of the January Session of the commission, the Governments of Iceland, Turkey and U.S.S.R. may be represented in the discussion by the commission of this item of the agenda.

"Should this note be understood to mean that in the discussion of the first two items on the agenda the three States mentioned in this note shall not be represented? Such an interpretation in my opinion would be contrary to the original decision of the commission. This decision was to the effect that the commission has decided to study the world economic crisis insofar as European States as a whole are interested and to invite, through the General Secretary, the Governments of Iceland, Turkey, and the U.S.S.R. to participate in this study. Since the commission has not included any other questions in its study the decision means that the three States mentioned in the resolution are to participate in the whole work of the commission.

"While participating in the whole work of any commission each State has the right to express its opinion on the form of organization of the commission, its constitution, its composition and methods of work, as these organizational questions cannot but influence the direction of the work and even the decisions. This right may be disputed only in cases where the participation of any State is restricted to certain questions, but no such decision has been adopted in relation to the Soviet Union, Turkey and Iceland, by the Commission of Inquiry into the European Union. If, therefore, the decision of the organizing sub-commission means the exclusion of these three States from participation in the discussion of the first two points of the agenda, it either contradicts the January decision of the commission, or constitutes an advance decision on a question which at least remained open, namely the question of the participation or non-participation of these three European States in consideration of the material questions which the commission might subsequently include in its work. Should this question be decided in the affirmative, the three invited States have the indisputable right to participate in decisions on organizational questions as well. In excluding the three States from the participation in these questions the organizing sub-commission is evidently acting on the assumption that these States might be drawn into the solution of certain but not all of the problems which are before the commission. However, I am not aware upon what such an assumption is based.

"Interpreting the decision of the organizing sub-commission in this restricted sense you deemed it necessary, Mr. General Secretary, to advise us of the impossibility of fixing precisely the date on which the commission will take up the discussion of the third item on the agenda, apparently assuming that the delegation of the U.S.S.R. should not arrive in Geneva before this time. You also, regrettably, failed to indicate who precisely is able to determine the time.

"Thus you invite the delegations of three European States to come to Geneva without giving a definite date.

"Following your first invitation in connection with Pan-Europe I was obliged, in pointing out the vagueness and ambiguity of the decision of the January Session of the commission, to note that those 'invited' will have to go to Geneva in order to learn exactly for what purpose they were invited. Now, after your second letter I am obliged to point out it is proposed that those 'invited' go to Geneva in order to learn also for what date they are invited thither. I believe it would be difficult to find any precedent for such a method of invitation in either European or non-European countries. Such an invitation might be objectively interpreted as intended to provoke its own rejection, if we overlooked the degree of sincerity and frankness which is absolutely necessary on the part of sponsors of such a momentous affair as the unification of Europe.

"Requesting you to bring the above to the notice of the organizers of the May session of the commission, I beg to advise that the delegation of the U.S.S.R. will be prepared to arrive at Geneva between the 15th and 25th of May and will await exact information as to the date of its invitation to Geneva, but please remember that it will be unable to arrive there from Moscow sooner than the fourth day after the receipt of a communication."

* * *

On May 11th, Mr. Litvinov left Moscow for the Geneva conference, accompanied by Mr. Stein, chief of the Central European Department of the Soviet Commissariat for Foreign Affairs.

German-Soviet Credit Agreement

AS a result of the recent visit of a group of German industrialists to the Soviet Union a credit agreement on purchases of German products for the Soviet Union amounting to $75,000,000 was signed on April 14, in Berlin, between the Commission of the Supreme Economic Council of the U.S.S.R. headed by Piatakov and the representatives of a group of German industrialists. The full text of the agreement follows:

1. With the aim of extending German-Soviet trade the Supreme Economic Council of the U.S.S.R. will place orders amounting to 300 million marks with German firms during the period from April 15 to August 31, in addition to the normal amount of business. These orders will be placed by the Supreme Economic Council and the U.S.S.R. on the basis of the conditions contained in the present agreement, providing satisfactory terms may be reached with the firms in question regarding technical conditions, prices and time of delivery.

2. Orders placed on the basis of the present agreement must be distributed among the respective firms before August 31, 1931.

3. Agreements on orders concluded in the Soviet Union with Soviet organs competent to decide on industrial orders, should in the shortest possible time and in unaltered form, be countersigned by the Trade Delegation of the U.S.S.R. in Germany. The Trade Delegation of the U.S.S.R. in Germany will take upon itself the necessary guarantee with regard to this agreement, in accordance with article 9 of the German-Soviet Trade agreement of October 12, 1925.

4. The following are the conditions for orders placed before August 31, 1931, on the basis of the present agreement:

Conditions of credit and payment:

a. For orders on which until now twelve months credits have been granted: 20 per cent in advance by bill of exchange on placing the order, to fall due thirteen months after the delivery of the goods; 55 per cent by bill of exchange on delivery of the goods, to fall due thirteen months after date of delivery and another of 25 per cent payable after 17 months. The average credit term for these orders will thus be fourteen months.

b. For orders which have heretofore been granted 18 months credits: 20 per cent by bill of exchange in advance on placing the order, to fall due after 20 months from the time of the delivery of the goods; 55 per cent by bill of exchange on the delivery of the goods, to fall due within a period of 20 months and another of 25 per cent payable within 24 months. The average credit term for these orders is thus 21 months.

c. For orders on which 24 months credits have heretofore been granted, 20 per cent advance by bill of exchange on placing the order, to fall due 27 months from the time of delivery of the goods; 50 per cent by bill of exchange on delivery of the goods, payable 27 months from the time of delivery and one of 30 per cent to fall due within a term of 33 months. The average credit term for these orders will thus be 28.8 months.

5. Interest must be reckoned quarterly and paid either in cash or in six months acceptances, as the purchaser desires.

For all bills of exchange the purchaser will pay interest at the rate of two per cent above the interest rate of the Reichsbank. Bills given on account of advance payments are free of interest for the first three months of the term. The rate of the Reichsbank on the day of presentation of the bill of acceptance will determine the rate.

Both sides are agreed that the payments must be made and the acceptances delivered in the periods set by the agreement.

6. Obligations for the placing of orders in definite amounts and under definite conditions contained in the general agreement existing before the present agreement becomes operative will not be nullified by the present agreement.

7. Agreements previously signed by the Trade Delegation of the U.S.S.R. in Germany will not be subject to any changes in connection with the present agreement, irrespective of when these agreements were concluded. All agreements concluded after the entering into force of the present agreement, that is, during the period from April 15 to August 31, of the present year, will be subject to the terms of the present agreement.

8. In the event that German firms in concluding agreements with Soviet organs which are placing orders, require that Berlin be designated in the agreement as the place of venue, neither the Soviet organs placing the orders or the Trade Delegation of the U.S.S.R. will have any objection insofar as agreements concluded under the terms of the present agreement are concerned.

9. The Supreme Economic Council of the U.S.S.R. reserves for itself complete freedom of choice of firms in the placing of orders; likewise the individual German firms are entirely free to decide whether or not and to what extent they desire to accept orders under the terms of the present agreement.

10. The Trade Delegation of the Soviet Union will enter in the near future into negotiations with competent German economic organs with regard to a revision of the general conditions of delivery, established November 9, 1927, and especially concerning the specifications for inspecting and installing. Until such revision is made the present conditions of delivery laid down by the Trade Delegation of the U.S.S.R. in Germany will remain in force.

Italo-Soviet Credit Agreement

ON April 28th a new credit agreement was signed in Rome between the U.S.S.R. and Italy whereby the Italian Government guarantees credits extended by Italian exporters of goods to the Soviet Union up to 75 per cent of the total value of the exports. The new agreement provides for purchases to the amount of 350 million lire ($18,400,000) and replaces the earlier agreement concluded on August 2, 1930, under the terms of which the Soviet Union undertook to buy Italian products to the amount of 200 million lire during the year ending July 31, 1931. The new agreement was made necessary by the fact that the U.S.S.R. completed purchases to the specified amount in less than a year.

The agreement was signed on behalf of the Soviet Government by Mr. Levenson, Trade Representative of the U.S.S.R. in Italy, and on behalf of the Italian Government by M. Moskoni, Minister of Finance, and M. Bottai, Minister of Corporations. The terms of the agreement follow:

Text of the Agreement

1. The Italian Government hereby gives assurance to purveyors in the form of a State guaranty, as provided in the Royal decree of June 2, 1927, No. 1046, revised and enacted as the law of June 14, 1928, No. 1470, on orders placed in Italy for Italian industrial products by the People's Commissariat for Foreign Trade through the Soviet Trade Delegation in Italy during 1931 to amounts not in excess of 350 million lire, inclusive of the credit charges. This sum of 350 million lire may be increased by agreement between the Soviet Government and the Italian Government. The aforementioned assurance is subject to the following general and special conditions:

(a) The guaranty takes the form of liquid credits for the supply of Italian goods to the U.S.S.R., (b) the extent of the Italian Government quaranty on every individual order amounts to 75 per cent of the general value of each shipment that is to be exported, inclusive of the credit charges in accordance with the Royal decree of August 22, 1930, No. 1404. Every guaranty provided by the present agreement may take advantage of the concessions in the Royal decree of October 24, 1929, No. 2010, which provides that the purveyor need not cover a part of the shipments, amounting to 15 per cent of the value of the entire shipment, by any insurance whatsoever.

In accordance with this a guaranty is provided for each payment after subtracting the part not covered by insurance from the last payments, or, in case the latter should be inadequate, from the payments made immediately preceding the last.

2. The aforementioned orders of the Soviet Trade Delegation will be placed for the categories of goods enumerated in table I, appended to the present agreement. It is thereby understood that orders for ships and shipping accessories may not exceed the total sum of 100 million lire.

3. As a rule payments by the U.S.S.R. will be made in instalments: maximum and average credit periods for each category of goods supplied are indicated in table I, which is appended to this agreement; average credits for orders for all categories of goods in their entirety, with the exception of ships, in the amount of 250 million lire will average 25 months after the date of delivery; should orders for ships total less than 100 million lire, the balance between the maximum sum allotted for ship purchases and the actual sum spent may be utilized for the purchase of other goods of any category without affecting the aforementioned average of 25 month credits for 250 million lire; the terms of payments for such additional purchases are as indicated in table I, independent of the aforementioned average credit period of 25 months. Credits for other categories of goods, not provided for in the present agreement will be determined by the Italian Minister of Finance in conjunction with the Soviet Trade Representative in Italy.

4. Premiums in accordance with this guaranty are determined annually on lines indicated in table II, appended to this agreement.

5. Information concerning every request in respect of the conversion of an assurance into an actual guaranty will be granted interested firms within a period of twenty days of the said request.

6. The Soviet Trade Representative in Italy retains full liberty in the choice of purveyors.

7. Orders within the limits of this agreement will be placed on the Italian market, on the basis of the technical and trade conditions obtaining in other countries for the goods required.

8. The Italian Government organs will recommend those Italian firms and enterprises interested to render technical aid to industrial organs and enterprises in the U.S.S.R.

9. The present agreement which is valid during the year 1931, will be automatically renewed for another year unless three months' notice of termination be given before the period elapses; however, the Italian Government may consider the present agreement annulled before the end of the year, even before the lapse of the necessary notice period, should the Trade Delegation fail to place orders during that period amounting to 75 per cent of the sum specified in paragraph 1. Orders placed and specifically drawn up in the period between January 1 and April 20, 1931, will be included in the general sum of 350 million lire credits, but are subject to the conditions of the agreement of August 2, 1930. The present agreement completely supersedes that of August 2.

APPENDIX

Table I

Credit Periods in Months from Date of Delivery

	Maximum	Average
1) Ships	54	42
2) Ball-bearings	36	24
3) Machinery and Equipment	36	29
4) Electrical Equipment	36	29
5) Machines for Chemical Industry	36	24
6) Machines for other industries	30	21
7) Automotive products	36	22
8) Airplanes and airplane motors	36	28
9) Measuring and optical apparatus.	28	20
10) Chemicals and dyestuffs	12	12
11) Fertilizers	12	12
12) Various metals	12	12
13) Special steel	24	24
14) Steel wire	15	15
15) Crude and Refined Sulphur	9	9

Table II

Rates of Annual Insurance Premiums

For orders with a maximum credit term of 24 months, 1 per cent; of 36 months, 1.20 per cent; of 54 months, 1.40 per cent.

Soviet Note to Japan Regarding Attack on Anikiev

"Izvestia" of April 3rd printed the following Tass despatch concerning the Soviet note of protest to Japan in connection with the attempt made on March 16th to assassinate Anikiev, commercial counselor of the Soviet mission to Japan:

"On March 23rd Mr. Troyanovsky, diplomatic representative of the U.S.S.R. in Japan, sent the Japanese Government a note of protest in connection with the attack on the commercial ad-

viser of the Soviet embassy in Japan, Mr. Anikiev, and the failure of the Japanese officials to take the necessary measures for his protection.

"In the note it was emphasized that the attempt had been preceded by a fierce anti-Soviet campaign headed by certain circles of Japanese industrialists in an attempt to create an atmosphere hostile to the Soviet Union and its official representatives in Japan.

"The note pointed out that the Japanese Government itself had considered the anti-Soviet campaign carried on by the heads of the fishing industry to be of a serious nature, and foresaw the possibility of excesses.

"The note also directed the attention of the Japanese Government to the statement by the director of the firm 'Nichiro,' Mr. Hiratsuki, published in the press—a statement in which the director of the firm, inspired by the anti-Soviet campaign in the press, justified the criminal attack on Mr. Anikiev and called for new terroristic acts against the official representatives of the U.S.S.R. in Japan.

"In the note the hope was expressed that the Japanese Government would keep the Government of the U.S.S.R. informed with regard to all measures which it undertook with the aim of a thorough inquiry into the conditions and circumstances of the attack on Mr. Anikiev and of bringing to an accounting of all those guilty of preparing for the attack and inciting to new attacks, and also with the aim of preventing the repetition of such acts.

"In view of the fact that no answer to this note had been received from the Japanese Government up to the evening of April 1st, Mr. Karakhan, Assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, on instructions from the Union Government, made a statement to the Japanese Ambassador, Mr. Hiroto, in which he called attention to the fact that the Japanese Government had regrettably failed, up to this time, to answer the note of the Soviet Government of March 23rd and expressed the hope that the Japanese Government was aware of the indignation and amazement which the attack on Anikiev had aroused in the U.S.S.R., and that the Japanese Government understood the urgency of carrying out the measures indicated in the note of March 23rd, to create a friendly atmosphere which would guarantee a quick settlement of the questions in dispute between the U.S.S.R. and Japan.

"Mr. Karakhan also pointed out in his statement that the anti-Soviet campaign which had preceded the attack had not abated subsequently and that the U.S.S.R. was for this reason further justified in counting on the Japanese Government for information in the shortest possible time regarding the measures taken with the aim of averting the possibility of new anti-Soviet acts on the part of irresponsible elements in Japan."

Japanese Reply

On April 11th "Izvestia" published the following report from the Tass Agency on the Japanese answer to the Soviet note as reported on April 3rd.

"In a note delivered to Mr. Troyanovsky on April 7, the Japanese Government expresses deep regret concerning the attack on Anikiev and gives data with regard to the course of the investigation and evidence in the trial of Sato who made the attempt on the life of Anikiev.

"The Japanese Government denies that there is any connection between the attempt and the hostile campaign which the heads of the Japanese fishing industry have been carrying on against the U.S.S.R.

"The Japanese Government also emphasizes that it did not have in view any such act of violence as that which actually occurred, when it warned the Soviet Government of the possibilities of excesses on the part of the representatives of the Japanese fishing industry through the Japanese ambassador in Moscow.

"With regard to the protest of the Soviet Government that the Japanese Government had not taken sufficient measures for the protection of Mr. Anikiev, the Japanese Government declares that it deeply regrets that the attack of which Mr. Anikiev was the victim, could have occurred in spite of all the measures taken by the Japanese Government.

"The note further states that Sato has been turned over to the Tokio district court on the charge of attempted assassination, that the trial is now in the stage of the preliminary investigation, on the basis of which Sato will receive strict punishment in accordance with Japanese law.

"In conclusion the Japanese Government assumes, on the basis of the evidence, that no one but Sato was involved in the attempt. If, however, it develops that there were any accomplices, they will of course also be tried in accordance with the laws of Japan.

"The Japanese Government assures the Soviet Government that it is prepared to take all possible measures necessary to prevent the recurrence of any such regrettable incident."

Soviet Statements at World Grain Conference

Speaking at the International grain conference in Rome, Mr. A. A. Kissin, member of the Soviet delegation, stated that the proposal to reduce acreage brought forward at the conference would be entirely unacceptable to the Soviet Union with their program of increasing the general living standard of the country. In connection with the question of agricultural credits, Mr. Kissin declared:

"The establishment of a more rational system of offering our agricultural products, in accord-

ance with seasonal demands, would depend to a large extent on the possibility of securing credits for that part of our exports. This consideration may be of some interest to the representatives of other exporting countries. From this point of view we are prepared to cooperate with other exporting and importing countries, particularly with regard to simplifying international credit conditions."

In discussing the quota system in the sale of agricultural products, Mr. Kissin stated that it was first of all necessary to know just what kind of quotas were meant, since disproportionate quotas might injure the vital interests of the countries concerned. He pointed out that the exports of the Soviet Union were essential in order to meet the payments for the constantly increasing imports.

"A number of countries importing our grain," he continued, "England, Italy and Germany—are interested in normal conditions for our exports, since the Soviet Union has no other way in which to pay for its imports. On the condition that the quota system would lead to more normal prices, and if more favorable financial conditions were offered, the Soviet Union would be prepared to consider coming to an agreement on a quota system with the representatives of other countries, including those across the sea. At the same time, in the opinion of the Soviet delegation, prices must be established at a level which would not in any event be contrary to the interests of the great consuming masses."

At the closing session of the conference Prof. L. N. Kritzman, head of the Soviet delegation, made a speech reviewing the grain situation in which he declared that while the conference might lead to improved economic relations between the Soviet Union and other countries, it had not reached any solution of the world grain crisis.

"We are faced," he said in conclusion, "with the necessity of improving our economic relations with other countries, particularly in the field of grain, because the world economic and agricultural crisis affects conditions of export for us adversely in connection with falling prices. Such an improvement in economic relations between us and any other country, on mutually advantageous conditions is entirely possible, as has been proven by experience, notwithstanding basic differences in social and economic structure."

Professor Kritzman outlined the following prerequisites for such improved relations: 1. the establishment of such financial and credit arrangements as, in connection with certain agreements regarding grain exports, would obviate the necessity for the Soviet Government to limit its steadily increasing imports from other countries; 2. protection of the interests of the laboring masses of all countries, who are the consumers of grain; 3. the abolition of special restrictive measures against Soviet grain exports.

In conclusion, Professor Kritzman stated that the delegation would take up with the Soviet Government the question of Soviet participation in the proposed conference of exporting countries.

The Soviet delegation refrained from voting on the resolution worked out by the first committee of the conference, leaving the final decision to the Soviet Government, and voted against the resolutions of the second and third committees on long term credits and preferential tariffs.

Renewal of Sino-Soviet Conference

On April 11th, the Sino-Soviet Conference was resumed at a meeting attended by the entire Soviet and Chinese delegations. The Chinese delegation was supplemented by the new technical delegates, who arrived in Moscow with Mo Teh-hui on March 28th. This is the third meeting of the conference since Mo Teh-hui's first visit to Moscow for the purpose of conferring on Sino-Soviet relations with particular reference to the Chinese-Eastern Railway dispute on, May 9, 1930.

Embargo Against Canadian Goods

On April 18th Mr. A. P. Rozenholtz, Commissar for Foreign Trade of the U.S.S.R., issued a decree forbidding the placing of orders for any Canadian goods or the use of any Canadian ships by any Soviet importing organizations or trade delegations.

This decree, which was issued on the basis of the resolution to cut down purchases in all countries establishing special restrictive measures against imports from the Soviet Union, passed by the Council of People's Commissars last October, is in answer to the edict of the Canadian Government forbidding the importation into Canada of goods of Soviet origin.

Technical Aid Agreement with Vickers

It was announced in London on April 28th, in a joint statement signed by Saul G. Bron, Soviet trade delegate in Great Britian, and Sir Philip Nash, chairman of the Metropolitan-Vickers Electrical Company, Ltd., that a technical aid agreement had been signed between the Soviet Government and the Vickers firm. According to the agreement the Vickers Company undertakes to provide technical assistance in the manufacture of steam turbo-generating equipment, heavy electrical equipment, industrial motors, condensing equipment and switch gear, in plants to be built in the Soviet Union by the All-Union Electro-Technical Combine. This is the second technical aid agreement signed between Vickers and the Soviet Government.

Book Notes

"WHY RECOGNIZE RUSSIA?" by Louis Fischer, Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York. $2.00.

In this book Mr. Fischer discusses the arguments for and against the recognition of the Soviet Government by the United States. He gives a brief history of the relations between the two countries and takes up the legal aspects of the problem and examines the various matters in dispute between the two countries. The volume is thoroughly documented. Mr. Fischer is the author of the two-volume history of the foreign relations of the Soviet Union, published under the title of "The Soviets in World Affairs."

"PROGRESS IN THE SOVIET UNION. PAST—PRESENT—FUTURE." Compiled by Albert A. Johnson, A. A. Johnson and associates, Springfield, Mass.

This is Mr. Johnson's third volume of graphs and charts on life and progress in the Soviet Union, adding new data and information and including detailed results of the accomplishments of the Five-Year Plan up to January, 1931. The material has been compiled from official sources and covers the following fields: administration, national economy, industry and transportation, labor, agriculture, trade and finance, education.

"THE ROAD TO THE GREY PAMIR," by Anna Louise Strong. Little, Brown and Company, Boston. $3.00.

Miss Strong gives an interesting account of her adventurous journey into the wild mountain country of the Pamirs, through territory where the great Khan rode with his horsemen and where Marco Polo explored the "Roof of the World." The narrative includes a description of a nomadic local administration, "The Soviet of the High Pastures." The journey took Miss Strong into remote, exotic outposts of Soviet territory, in desolate country sparsely inhabited by wandering tribesmen and herdsmen.

"LENIN," by D. S. Mirsky. Little, Brown and Company, Boston.

"LENIN, RED DICTATOR," by George Vernadsky. Yale University Press, New Haven, Conn.

"LENIN, GOD OF THE GODLESS," by Ferdinand A. Ossendowski. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.

The Mirsky biography is a sympathetic study, deliberately impersonal, probably somewhat too philosophical for American tastes. The book is obviously written primarily for persons with considerable background, so that to the uninformed reader the historical treatment will seem sketchy in places. The author is well equipped and has written with strict historical fidelity and sincerity.

Mr. Vernadsky is an émigré and his volume reflects the émigré point of view. Allowing for the point of view, the volume is an attempt at a serious appraisal. In places the historian Vernadsky rises above the émigré Vernadsky and the result gives interest and historical value. Unfortunately the author was not capable of seeing Lenin clearly and of seeing him whole.

Mr. Ossendowski's volume is a tabloid nightmare compounded of sensationalism and pornography. The author makes no pretense at keeping to historical facts. The book is rubbish.

Some Recent Magazine Articles on the Soviet Union

A chronological list of the more important articles on the Soviet Union which have appeared since the list published in the March issue of the SOVIET UNION REVIEW.

"Soviet Russia's Five-Year Plan for Radio," by Martin Codel, Electronics, March, 1931.
Facts and figures about radio in the U.S.S.R.

"Will Yiddish Culture Survive in Russia?" by M. J. Greenstone. The Menorah Journal, March, 1931.
A letter from a Jewish journalist who has lived for some time in Russia.

"Foreign Trade of the Soviet Union, 1929-30," by E. C. Ropes. Commerce Reports, March 23, 1931.
Official statistics of imports and exports, listed by commodities and countries.

"The Russian Looks at the World," by Walter Duranty, New York Times Magazine, Sunday, March 29, 1931.
An analysis of the outlook of the average Russian under the Soviet Government.

"Russia," by Col. Hugh L. Cooper. Engineers and Engineering, April, 1931.
An address made before the Society of American Engineers.

"Is New Russia Built by Americans a World Menace," by Michael Mok. Popular Science Monthly, April, 1931.
Some interesting data on industrialization projects, and some pretty glaring misstatements of fact.

"Five Years in Three," by Joseph Stalin. The Living Age, April, 1931.
Translation of a speech made by Stalin to a conference of Soviet Industrial leaders in which he urges mastery of technique.

"The New Drive Against Russia," by Oswald Garrison Villard. The Nation, April 1, 1931.
Mr. Villard, writing from Europe, reviews recent evidences of a move for economic boycott of U.S.S.R.

"Our Unofficial Emissaries to Russia," by N. K. Fleming. Baltimore Sun Magazine, April 12, 1931.
Some opinions and experiences of American technicians in the Soviet Union.

"Literature in the U.S.S.R.," by Josephine Herbst. The New Republic, April 29, 1931.
Impressions of the Kharkov Conference of Revolutionary Writers.

"An American Engineer Looks at the Five-Year Plan," by H. J. Freyn, The New Republic, May 6, 1931.
Extract of a speech made before a meeting of the Taylor Society.

"The Soviet Union," by Edgar S. Furniss. Current History, April and May, 1931.
Surveys of recent events.

"Our Engineers Find Romance in Russia," by Ella Winter. New York Times Magazine, May 10, 1931.
Conversations with American engineers encountered here and there in Russia.

"I Work for Russia," by Walter Rukeyser. A series of six articles in The Nation.
I. "State Trust and the Five-Year Plan," May 13th issue.

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

The following list is given in chronological order.

"Ten Days that Shook the World," by John Reed. International Publishers, New York.
"Russia in 1919," by Arthur Ransome. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1919.
"The Bullitt Mission to Russia." Testimony before the Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate, of Wm. C. Bullitt. B. W. Heubsch, N. Y., 1919.
"Fighting Without a War," An Account of Military Intervention in North Russia, by Ralph Albertson. Harcourt, Brace and Howe, New York, 1920.
"The Russian Workers' Republic," by H. N. Brailsford. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1921.
"Through the Russian Revolution," by Albert Rhys Williams. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1921.
"The Russian Soviet Republic," by Edward A. Ross. The Century Co., New York, 1923.
"The First Time in History," by Anna Louise Strong. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1924.
"New Constitution of the Soviet Union." Soviet Union Information Bureau, Washington, 1924.
Leon Trotsky: "Literature and Revolution," International Publishers, New York, 1925: "Lenin," Minton Balch & Co., New York, 1925; "Whither Russia?" International Publishers, New York, 1926.
"The New Theatre and Cinema in Russia," by Huntley Carter. International Publishers, New York, 1925.
"Broken Earth," by Maurice Hindus. International Publishers, New York, 1926.
"Oil Imperialism—The International Struggle for Petroleum," by Louis Fischer, International Publishers, New York, 1926.
"Modern Russian Composers," by Leonid Sabaneyef. International Publishers, New York, 1927.
"On the Steppes, A Russian Diary," by James N. Rosenberg. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1927.
"The Russian Land," by Albert Rhys Williams. New Republic, Inc., New York, 1927.
"Russia After Ten Years," Report of the American Trade Union Delegation to the Soviet Union. International Publishers, New York, 1927.
Anna Louise Strong: "How the Communists Rule Russia"; "Marriage and Morals in Soviet Russia"; "How Business is Carried on in Soviet Russia"; "Workers' Life in Soviet Russia"; "Peasant Life in Soviet Russia." Little Blue Books. Haldeman Julius, Girard, Kansas, 1927.
Vanguard Studies of Soviet Russia. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1927-28: "How the Soviets Work," by H. N. Brailsford.—"The Economic Organization of the Soviet Union," by Scott Nearing and Jack Hardy.—"Village Life Under the Soviets," by Karl Borders.—"Religion under the Soviets," by Julius F. Hecker.—"Soviet Russia and Her Neighbors," by R. Page Arnot.—"Soviet Trade Unions," by Robert W. Dunn.—"Women in Soviet Russia," by Jessica Smith.—"New Schools in New Russia," by Lucy L. W. Wilson.—"Health Work in Soviet Russia," by Anna J. Haines.—"Liberty under the Soviets," by Roger N. Baldwin.—"The Jews and Other Minor Nationalities under the Soviets," by Avrahm Yarmolinsky.
"Soviet Russia in the Second Decade"; Edited by Stuart Chase, Robert Dunn and R. G. Tugwell of the Technical Staff of the First American Trade Union Delegation to the Soviet Union. John Day Company, New York, 1928.
"Present Day Russia," by Ivy Lee. Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.
"Labor Protection in Soviet Russia," by George M. Price. International Publishers, New York, 1928.
"Illustrated History of the Russian Revolution," 1917-1927. Ten Years' Progress Reported by Authoritative Russian Leaders, 2 Vol. International Publishers, New York, 1928.
"Russian Economic Development Since the Revolution," by Maurice Dobb. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1928.
"Guide Book to the Soviet Union." International Publishers, New York, 1928.
"American Policy Toward Russia Since 1917," by Dr. Fred L. Schuman. International Publishers, New York, 1928.
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Litvinov at Geneva

MAXIM LITVINOV, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, proposed an economic non-aggression pact in his address before the League of Nations Commission for the Study of a European Union at Geneva, May 18. The delegates of twenty-seven countries attended. The complete text of Litvinov's speech follows:

"Mr. President, allow me first of all to thank you for your very kind words of welcome to the new arrivals in Europe. My presence here will, I am sure, greatly rejoice all the geographers of the world, for it confirms, at least partially, the theory that the territory of the former Russian Empire is still to be found in Europe.

"My position here is somewhat unique, if only because the country I represent is not passing through a crisis, but is experiencing unprecedented development in every branch of its economic life. This does not, however, mean that we are totally unconcerned by the world crisis, or that the interests of the Soviet Union are not thereby affected. The Soviet Union is at the present moment engaged in trade with the vast majority of European and non-European countries, a fact which in itself makes the economic perturbations in these countries anything but a matter of indifference. The fluctuation of prices is also an example of the way in which the crisis affects us. The execution of the far-reaching plans for the high-speed industrialization of the Soviet Union, necessitates and will continue to necessitate an annually increasing importation of industrial goods from other countries. My country has to rely, for the payment of such imports, almost exclusively upon its exports of raw material. The decline in the price of raw materials during the last few years, taken in conjunction with the practically unaltered level of the prices of manufactured goods, reacts, of course, detrimentally upon the economic life of the Soviet Union. Thus the immediate connection between the world crisis and the interests of the Soviet Union is evident. Indirectly, these interests are encroached upon by various schemes against the Soviet Union conceived, and to a certain extent carried out, by some States, whether in futile attempt to extricate themselves from the crisis or with other aims for which the crisis serves as camouflage.

"Last but not least, the relations to be established between the Soviet Union and other European countries cannot fail to react upon the development of the crisis.

Causes of Crisis Discussed

"I think I have said enough to demonstrate clearly what our interests are in the study undertaken by this Commission of the problem of the world crisis. I do not know if any delegates have effective remedies to offer for the complete rehabilitation of the world. For my own part, I think no such remedies exist, or can exist. Anyhow, you will scarcely expect any such proposals, in this place, from a representative of the Soviet Union. It is common knowledge that we consider economic crises of over-production to be crises arising out of the capitalist system itself and inseparable from it. They are rooted in the profound clash of interests within this system, and make their appearance periodically, at more or less regular intervals.

"No one is likely to deny, however, that the present crisis is the worst ever experienced by the capitalist system. This time we are confronted by an industrial crisis inextricably bound up, and not merely coinciding, with an agricultural crisis. The mutual interplay of these crises inevitably intensifies and prolongs the economic crisis as a whole.

"The gravity of the situation is enhanced by the policy of monopolist bodies endeavoring to maintain high prices on the national markets of the various countries. No one can deny that this policy considerably hampers the absorption of stocks, creates almost insuperable difficulties in the way of getting goods to the consumer, and thus furthers the prolongation of the crisis.

Post-War Conditions Blamed

"It is generally recognized that the gravity and acuteness of the present crisis, especially in European national economy, are to a great extent due to the fact that they have their origin in special post-war conditions, caused by the disorganization of world economy during the war, the system of post-war treaties, international indebtedness, new military blocs, and so on.

"It seems to me, therefore, that the Commission ought to devote its main attention to the study of those specific causes which have made the present crisis so acute, and of the measures capable of eliminating them, so that, if the crisis cannot be mitigated it shall at least not be allowed to become worse.

"The causes I have in view must, of course, be sought on the political as well as on the economic plane. They have their roots in the general situation arising as a result of the world war and post-war policy. I will merely enumerate them with the utmost brevity. The immediate connection between the increase in the burden of taxation and the crisis is too obvious to require emphasis. It is equally obvious that the increase in the burden of taxation is chiefly caused by tenacious militarism and the incessant growth of armaments. Despite the Locarno, Kellogg, and a host of other pacts, upon which certain pacifist circles laid such high hopes, the growth of armaments shows no signs of decline or even of arrest, nor has the work of the Preliminary Disarmament Commission provided much ground for hope in that direction. The policy of forming military-political blocs continues and is turning Europe, and indeed the whole world, into a series of armed camps, whose only thought is to prepare for fresh sanguinary conflicts. The existence of these groups naturally intensifies competition in armaments, each State being forced to keep a look-out, not merely on this or that other State, but also on whole groups, existing or potential.

Political Differences Growing

"As economic differences increase, so political differences become even more acute; witness the increase of protectionism, which has a particularly detrimental economic effect on post-war Europe, where the length of land frontiers has been increased by twenty thousand kilometers or about 30 per cent. It is, moreover, impossible to ignore the part played in creating and stimulating the crisis by yet another consequence of the war, namely, the burdens imposed upon European countries, in some cases in the form of reparation payments, in others through the so-called inter-allied indebtedness. This burden is felt most heavily by the broad masses of the population; it reduces their purchasing power, and prevents them from absorbing production. To this should be added the irregular and disproportionate distribution of world gold reserves, which lie useless in the vaults of a few countries; their inert mass presses heavily upon all the other countries, which are suffering from a gold deficit.

"Special emphasis should be laid upon the menace which the lowering of the purchasing power of the broad masses of the population in town and country constitutes, connected as it is with unprecedented unemployment, the systematic lowering of wages, the reduction of the working days of the employed, the cutting down of social insurance expenditure, and the increased burden of taxation, which falls heaviest of all upon the shoulders of labor.

"All these factors are creating in Europe, and throughout the world, an atmosphere of political uncertainty, the fear of impending catastrophe. This atmosphere affects the credit policy of the banks, paralyzes investment, holds up the capital required for constructive work and thus still further intensifies and prolongs the existing crisis.

"The feeling of mistrust and uncertainty prevailing in Europe is at the same time artificially enhanced by anti-Soviet campaigns, aimed at

proving the necessity and inevitability of a military attack by the capitalist countries on the Soviet Union, an attack, the plans and conditions of which are openly discussed in the press and at public meetings.

The U.S.S.R. and World Trade

"As I have already stated there is no lack of attempts to make of the world crisis a starting-point for these campaigns. Certain capitalist circles which are particularly interested in distracting attention from the true causes of the present crisis, are endeavoring, with peculiar zeal, to divert inquiries into wrong channels, on the ludicrous assumption that practically the only cause of the present crisis is the very existence of the Soviet Union. To show how utterly absurd this is, it will be enough to point to the exceedingly modest place occupied at present in world trade by the Soviet Union.

"The absurdity of the thesis is also proved by the fact that it is by no means only the markets to which the U.S.S.R. exports, but, to a considerable extent, the markets from which it imports, that have been affected by the crisis. The figures quoted in the report of the economic organization of the League furnish a sufficiently vivid illustration of this statement. Thus between September, 1929, and March, 1930, the price of coffee fell 40 per cent, the price of tin 20 per cent, and the price of rubber 40 per cent. During the same period rice went down 49.2 per cent in price, olive oil 23.8 per cent, silk 48.1 per cent, and so on. Economic crises existed before the Soviet State came into being and, this being so, we are entitled to assert that the present crisis would have been more acute and wide-spread if Tsarist or Bourgeois Russia, that is to say a political-economic organism similar to that of the rest of the world were in the place of the Soviet Union, for it would undoubtedly have been drawn into the general crisis, and brought its whole weight to bear upon it. Statesmen especially concerned to stave off social unheavals in other countries would have yet another care, and would perhaps be forced to call special international conferences to find means for averting social upheavals arising out of the crisis in Russia.

Soviet Orders Increasing

"And now I should like to ask, does the fact that one-sixth of the world, or almost one-half of the territory of Europe, is untouched by the crisis, that there is in the world one country whose imports of manufactured goods from other lands is increasing with every year, instead of falling off, whose orders are pouring into the factories of those lands, reducing unemployment, supplying foreign ships with freight, that this country has no unemployment, and its population is not pouring in its thousands to other lands in search of work, as they did under the Tsarist régime, —does this intensify or mitigate the world crisis? Does the fact that the Soviet Union is absorbing from 50 to 75 per cent of the total export of certain branches of the machine industry in Germany, Austria, England and Poland, intensify or mitigate the world crisis? There can be no sort of doubt that Soviet orders, increasing from year to year, constitute a mitigating factor in the crisis. If it is borne in mind that 53.5 per cent of the total tractor exports of the United States went to the U.S.S.R. in 1930, that in the same year the U.S.S.R. received about 12 per cent of the textile machinery export of Great Britain, and from Germany 23 per cent of the total export of agricultural machinery, 21 per cent of lathes exported and over 11 per cent of the total export of other machinery, while in the first quarter of 1930 out of a total output from Polish foundries amounting to 77,100,000 tons, of which 30,800,000 were exported, the Soviet Union alone took 30 million, it becomes obvious that there can be only one answer to the question whether Soviet foreign trade is increasing or mitigating the present economic crisis.

Export Position of U.S.S.R.

"It must be obvious to all that Soviet imports are a mitigating factor in the crisis, especially of Europe, since Soviet orders are more and more being transferred to European countries. Surely it is unnecessary to point out that once the importance of Soviet *imports* is admitted, you cannot very well object to Soviet *exports* which must be made to balance imports.

"In recent anti-Soviet campaigns prominence has been given to the supposed unfavorable influence upon prices in the world market of raw material exports from the U.S.S.R. Of course, no one will deny the lowering effect of any mass of goods on the market. But the same effect is produced by the same bulk of exports from other countries. Why, then, are the Soviets, rather than any other exporters, to be considered as the culprits in the matter of falling markets?

"How is it that exports from some lands are legitimate, while exports from others constitute an offense against world economy? What grounds are there for the limiting of exports of some countries in the interests of others? Before going any further I should like to remind you that Soviet exports in the majority of cases are far from having attained the pre-war level.

"The wheat exports of Tsarist Russia, for instance, amounted to 25 per cent of world exports, whereas even in 1930, the Soviet Union exported not more than 20 per cent of the wheat on the world market. Soviet manganese exports were only 35 per cent of world exports, as against 51 per cent from Tsarist Russia. The flax exports of Tsarist Russia composed 53 per cent of all flax on the market, that of the Soviet Union being only 42 per cent. Tsarist Russia exported 78 thousand

tons of butter as against 10 thousand from the Soviet Union. Why then, one asks, were not Tsarist exports subject to condemnation, since their withdrawal from the world market would have sent up prices considerably, to the advantage of competing countries?

"The Soviet Union is still only beginning to win back, with regard to exports, the place it was forced to abandon owing to the war, military intervention and blockade. Again, why does not the increase in, say, Canadian wheat from 2,350,000 tons in 1913 to 10,900,000 tons in 1929, or the 810 per cent increase in Argentine butter exports evoke any protests?

Soviet Dumping Denied

"Some time ago attempts were made to justify the campaign against Soviet exports by flinging the accusation of 'dumping' against the Soviet Union. Not only could this accusation not be substantiated; it was, on the contrary frequently and publicly refuted, and that not only by official representatives of the Soviet Union, but also by impartial investigators and economists even in capitalist countries.

"We do not, of course, deny that the special conditions of agriculture and foreign trade in the Soviet Union allow the sale of agricultural products at lower prices than can be offered by other countries. These specific conditions are the absence, thanks to the nationalization of land, of those heavy calls upon the peasant population—rent, lease, mortgage—which are such a drain upon agriculture in other lands, absorbing sometimes 70 per cent of the cost of production, and the elimination of private profits, exchange speculation and the middleman. In the last resort, however, world markets are regulated by the law of supply and demand.

"We are, of course, not interested in a lowering of world prices which would result in a lowering of our export receipts, which, as is generally recognized, are essential to us for covering the machinery imports we need for the building up of our industry, and would delay the fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan. We have, however, no desire to speculate in booms or slumps at the expense of the consumers of bread. It is in conformity with these considerations that we consented to take part in the Grain Exporters' Conference beginning today in London.

"It is perfectly obvious that low prices cannot be regarded as indicating 'dumping.' If, however, by 'dumping' is to be understood the policy of high monopolist prices on home markets and cut prices for export, it will be found that it is precisely the capitalist countries which are guilty in this respect, as to which we have authoritative and candid admissions.

"In the Report of the International Labor Bureau there are interesting data as to that breach between home and export prices which is said to constitute 'dumping' and which is connected precisely with the policy of monopolist prices on home markets. I could quote examples indefinitely, drawn exclusively from the capitalist press. In Czecho-Slovakia, for instance, sugar was sold last year for about 555 Czech crowns per hundred kilograms wholesale, and 600 crowns retail, while the export price was 80 crowns per 100 kilograms; in Poland the price on the home market was 400 zloty and on the foreign market 300 zloty; in Germany the price per 50 kilograms was 23-24 marks at home and 6.7 and 5.8 marks abroad. There were also well known examples of agricultural 'dumping.' I need not dwell upon these points, which I suppose are known to you all through the various reports communicated to this Commission.

"Only a few weeks ago M. Hotowetz—one-time Czecho-Slovakian Minister for Trade, declared that it would be pharisaical to accuse the Soviet Union of dumping, since neither Czecho-Slovakia nor any other capitalist country was any better in that respect. He especially named such exports as sugar and iron.

"Gentlemen, I have dwelt at length on the question of 'dumping,' not only because the accusation has been advanced in respect of our exports, but also because the policy of 'dumping,' consisting in the establishment of high monopolist prices on the home market, constitutes—as I have already pointed out—one of the real factors complicating and intensifying the crisis.

Dangers of World Price Discrepancies

"High prices prevent the absorption of stocks, they arise out of the 'dumping' of monopolist organizations carrying out export, and high protectionist tariffs in the countries importing the corresponding products. The breach between export and home prices was touched upon in the Report of the Economic Organization of the League, without, it is true, any explanation of its causes, and without any conclusions being adduced. The fact, however, that with a 48.3 per cent lowering of the price of wheat from March, 1929, to March, 1931, on the open market in London, there is, in spite of an acute agrarian crisis, a 28.5 per cent rise in the price of wheat on the Berlin market, and a 12.9 per cent increase on the Paris market, shows clearly that such a policy with regard to prices can only curtail the already low purchasing powers of the broad masses, and render still more acute the existing crisis.

"Thus the only way in which the crisis can be mitigated is by creating conditions which would at least do something to increase the purchasing power of the masses, and facilitate the absorption of goods stocks. And yet the proposals to which I have listened in this Commission tend precisely towards the intensification of the specific conditions of our times preventing the mitigation of the crisis. These proposals would result in the

further development of the policy of high prices, which are so grave an evil of the present economic situation. For, after all, what does the proposal made by the French delegate, Monsieur Poncet, with regard to the extension of the present practice of international organizations in separate branches of industry, amount to? The existence of steel and copper trusts has not staved off a crisis, but the existence of such cartels keeping up price-levels in the face of over-production has brought about a state of affairs in which stocks cannot possibly be absorbed, and the crisis threatens to expand far beyond the usual limits. This being the case, the proposal of the French delegate is seen to be aimed at the expansion and spreading to new spheres of the existing policy of capitalist amalgamation, establishing high prices for securing monopolist excess profits. It would seem that the mitigation of the crisis called for precisely opposite proposals.

International Anti-Dumping Pact Urged

"In view of the importance of this question, and of the false accusations of 'dumping' levelled at the Soviet Government, I would suggest that the States meeting here should adopt a joint declaration, subsequently to be converted into an international Convention, for the compulsory filling up of the breach between these prices, and compulsory sale on the home market at prices not higher than on the foreign market. While we categorically deny the existence of Soviet 'dumping,' we would not refuse to take part in such an international act, which would indubitably have a most favorable effect upon the economic position of the broad masses of the population, raising their purchasing power and helping to absorb over-production, and thus mitigating the crisis.

"I am endeavoring to map out the lines along which means might be sought for the mitigation of the crisis. The first essential, however, is to abandon false ideas. Such a false idea is the incessant harping upon the Soviet Union, the fight against which is declared to be the only radical means of curing the world of such crises now and forevermore. A campaign like this may appear to be of temporary advantage to certain interested circles or even countries—not necessarily European—competing with the Soviet Union in the supply of the world market with raw materials, but it can never have anything in common with the interests of Europe as a whole nor with the world crisis inasmuch as it affects the collectivity of European States.

"Not much imagination is required to realize that in depriving Europe of a market so important and rapidly expanding as the Soviet Union, in depriving whole branches of industry of orders and thus increasing unemployment, the world crisis will be intensified and not lessened.

"Unfortunately, up to the present, correct ideas as to the prospects for the development of economic relations between the U.S.S.R. and the countries surrounding it have not been sufficiently widespread. The reconstruction going on in the country, the carrying out of the Five-Year Plan, do not and will not lead to the curtailment of the Soviet Union's foreign trade. The more our national economy develops, the stronger it becomes, the greater will be its demands with their almost infinite potentialities. In addition to this, moreover, experience has shown the uselessness of such anti-Soviet campaigns, proved among other things by the fact that, in the very heat of the anti-Soviet campaign, the Soviet Union has concluded the most important industrial contracts in Germany and Italy, is extending its trade with England and other European industrial countries, and is entering into negotiations with countries which have hitherto hesitated in this respect. Is not this sufficient proof that business considerations and economic interests of the capitalist countries (precisely during the present crisis) demand not conflict, but the extension and consolidation of relations with the Soviet Union, and that anti-Soviet campaigns have nothing to do with the crisis, but merely pursue either political or narrow competitive aims?

Peaceful Cooperation Possible

"While pointing out the favorable influence of the Soviet Union's foreign trade on the present world crisis, I am far from desirous of creating an impression that there is harmony of interests between the two systems—the capitalist and Soviet—now existing in Europe. The differences between these two systems exist and will continue to exist. These two systems are struggling and will continue to struggle against each other by the very fact of their existence and development. The question is whether this struggle and development will be allowed to follow a natural process or whether both systems will have recourse from day to day to mutually hostile measures which can have no decisive influence on the outcome of the struggle, but will turn out to be two-edged weapons.

"There are persons and organs of the press (I do not know how seriously they are to be taken) who ascribe to the Soviet Government a 'diabolical plan' for the sale of export goods below cost price, with the sole aim of disorganizing capitalist economy. It would be difficult to imagine anything sillier than such a plan, which, while not deciding the fate of capitalism, would nevertheless bring down export receipts and consequently reduce imports to the U.S.S.R., thus delaying socialist reconstruction, which is an infinitely more important factor in the struggle of the two systems. No less absurd are plans for combatting Soviet foreign trade for, while not deciding the

fate of the Soviet system, these strike a far heavier blow at the capitalist States, where the crisis can only be rendered more acute by the fulfillment of such plans.

U.S.S.R. a Fact to be Reckoned With

"On the other hand, it would be naive to expect capitalist States consciously and impartially to assist in the construction of socialism in the U.S.S.R., or the Soviet Union consciously to strive for the strengthening of the capitalist system. The question can only be one of economic agreements and dealings between capitalist countries and the Soviet Union, mutually advantageous for all parties concerned, and for which there is ample scope. I am leaving aside for the moment the possibility of military attack on the Soviet Union and have in view a peaceful period of a given duration.

"It is time to realize that the Soviet Union is a fact that has got to be reckoned with, that the Soviet Union cannot be made to disappear by the incantations, abuse and the resolutions of certain groups and individuals, still clinging to their dreams of somehow getting rid of it by magic. If the countries here represented decided at a world conference meeting at Geneva exactly four years ago, to pass a resolution on the possibility of the peaceful co-existence of the two systems at a given historical stage, how much more reasonable to recognise and loyally carry out this resolution now, when the Soviet Union is still stronger, when it has shown in the last few years the immense scope of all its branches of economic construction, which have won the admiration of foes as well as friends, a mighty popular enthusiasm without which this construction would have been absolutely impossible.

"The Commission for the Study of the European Union cannot base its work upon a campaign, or the incitation to a campaign against any country or group of countries, without contradicting its own declared principles and aims.

"I began, gentlemen, by saying that I would propose no means for the elimination of the conflicts within the capitalist system, which are at the basis of the world crisis. I do think, however, that something might be done for the removal of phenomena unnecessarily aggravating these conflicts and increasing and prolonging the crisis. This requires, in the first place, the avoidance of everything tending to increase still further the atmosphere of mistrust, uncertainty and grievance, the existence of which makes it of no avail to speak of the peaceful economic cooperation of nations.

Dangers of Preferential Tariffs

"I am as yet unaware whether effective suggestions have been made to this Commission on the lines I have indicated. I know a great deal has been written and said about the establishment of the preferential tariff system. I do not feel quite clear as to the exact meaning of this. Does it mean the establishment by every European country of special preferential tariffs for the products of other European countries? It seems to me that something else is intended, namely, the extension of preferential tariffs and other privileges for certain countries or groups of countries only. If that is so, would not that mean the transference to the economic plane of those very methods which before and after the War were applied—with extremely unfortunate results—on the political plane? Would it not result—instead of the realization of the principle of a United Europe proclaimed in this Commission—in the division of Europe into economic groups and camps destined not to cooperate, but to combat similar groups, the stimulus in these combats being not so much economic as political motives? We know, for instance, that when the question of help for the so-called Danube countries was raised at Paris, the representative of Yugoslavia declared (if I remember rightly) that this help would be more of a social than a political nature. Here we see the question treated without a word about economics or the crisis, but simply from the political point of view. It seems to me that the creation of new blocs and groups, or the consolidation of those already in existence; the artificial economic support of some countries to the detriment of others, can only render the economic and political struggle now going on still more acute, increase the existing confusion and chaos and lead to results in direct contradiction to the slogans according to which this Commission was called to life.

Economic Non-aggression Pact Proposed

"It seems to me that the establishment of an identical attitude towards all States and—since we are now speaking of Europe — towards all European States, would do much more to facilitate the carrying out of these slogans, more especially that of the peaceful cooperation of nations. This demand that each European State should agree to establish identical treatment for all other States, would eliminate all elements of discrimination whatsoever.

"I should explain that, in advancing these proposals, I by no means intend to limit the sovereignty of States historically and economically disposed to special forms of close relationships. The principle of the free self-determination of nations, including the right of each State to enter into any unions and federations, so long as it is done really freely and not for temporary combinations directed against other countries, must remain inviolable. I may describe my proposal as a kind of economic non-aggression pact. I have endeavored to expound the idea of such a pact in a draft

protocol, which I venture to bring before your attention. I do not know what your attitude will be to such a protocol, gentlemen, but it will at least serve as evidence of the readiness of the Soviet Union—sure of its strength and utterly absorbed in the fulfillment of the vast tasks of internal construction confronting it—to adhere as before to the principle of the peaceful coexistence of the two systems at the given stage of history, and of its having no aggressive intentions, whether of a political or economic nature, against any other nations."

Text of Soviet Proposal

The text of the draft protocol presented by the Soviet delegation follows:

The representatives of the European countries enumerated below, recognizing

That mitigation of the economic crisis which has affected the national economy of most of the countries of the world, requires in addition to the renunciation of war as a means for the solution of international conflicts the complete cessation of all forms of economic aggression, both avowed and concealed, by separate countries or groups of countries;

That the cessation of economic aggression is an essential condition for the peaceful cooperation of States in the economic field, irrespective of their systems;

That such peaceful cooperation is possible and desirable in the interest of mitigating the economic crisis of European countries in the first place;

Taking into consideration that the cessation of economic aggression will help to put an end to the present atmosphere of mistrust, uncertainty and alarm, which gravely affects the economic position, and hoping that inspired by their example all other countries will join in this protocol, have decided to recommend that their respective governments sign the following protocol:

1. The contracting parties once more solemnly affirm the principle of the peaceful coexistence of countries irrespective of their social, political and economic systems, proclaimed by the International Economic Conference of 1927.

2. In accordance with paragraph 1, the contracting parties undertake not to apply any discrimination whatsoever in their relations with each other, and regard the adoption in any of their countries of a special regime directed against one or several countries subscribing to this protocol as incompatible with its principles.

3. This protocol is to be ratified and will come into force between those of the contracting parties who submit their ratification papers to the president of the Commission for the Study of a European Union. This protocol may be subscribed to by all the States of the world. Notification of adherence is to be submitted to the president of the Commission for the Study of a European Union and the agreement will immediately come into force between the States newly subscribing to it and all other participants. The president of the European Commission will notify all adherents of the protocol of each new ratification or adherence immediately upon receipt of the ratification papers.

Land Mortgage Bank Opposed

In the discussion regarding the establishment under League of Nations auspices of an international mortgage credit company, Mr. Litvinov declared that such a plan would not have the desired effect, since it would mean that credits could be procured only by the proprietors and rich farmers, while the numerous small peasants owning no valuable property, or having long since mortgaged it, would get no help.

"Something different is necessary," he said; "that is, to lend money not on buildings, but on agricultural crops ready for market. Only under the organization of such a form of credit could the farmer hold his crops until a favorable time and not throw them on the market at once, especially in a period of falling prices. By easing the condition of the masses of farmers, helping them to sell their products at favorable prices, we should increase the purchasing power of the farmers in relation to industrial goods, which would have a favorable effect on the industrial crisis. Such results cannot be expected if the bank will give only mortgage credits."

Litvinov Accepts Commission's Program With Reservations

At the concluding meeting of the commission on May 22, when the program of economic action drawn up by the sub-committee on procedure was presented for discussion, Litvinov reiterated the Soviet position on preferential tariffs, saying that to grant privileges to one group of countries would lead not to a united but to a divided Europe, and that therefore he must offer reservations on that point. He further declared that while he could not agree with all the formulas presented in the program, he did not wish to hold up the meeting by making specific reservations and therefore would simply make a general reservation, and that he would accept the program as a whole insofar as it did not contradict the general principles set forth in his (Litvinov's) statement of May 18th, with special reference to the situation of the U.S.S.R. as a non-member of the League of Nations.

In explaining his economic non-aggression project to the commission, Mr. Litvinov said:

"It would hardly create the proper atmosphere for considering the proposed protocol if I were to begin by citing examples of actions of different countries contrary to its spirit. My proposal means the acceptance of certain general principles which must govern in international economic relations, if we are to achieve the economic cooperation which is the recognized aim of the European commission. Briefly, the governments signing this protocol will pledge themselves to abstain from hostile measures in the economic sphere against any country or group of countries, from political or any other motives. In other words, this protocol proposes to outlaw economic warfare, and may therefore be compared with political non-aggression pacts.

"The sub-committee has not deemed it necessary to recommend any special procedure on this question and has decided to put it up to the commission. Certain of the delegates have expressed doubt as to whether the delegates would have the right to sign the protocol at the present time. It has been argued that the protocol came as a surprise and was not known to the countries participating in the commission. I may say that spontaneity is of tremendous importance in all matters of non-aggression and universal peace. If a man finds it necessary to think for a long time before answering the question as to whether his intentions were peaceful or hostile, his answer might lose its value. Here are gathered the foreign ministers of all Europe, men who know the policies of their governments, know whether or not they are in agreement with the principles of the protocol. I see no reason for not deciding this question on the spot. Our chairman has said that the conclusion of an economic non-aggression pact would be a great accomplishment. For my part, knowing the peaceful policy of my government, I am ready to sign the protocol immediately. To request that the representatives of other countries express themselves on this point would hardly seem too much to ask."

After discussion of the various economic remedies offered at the sessions, a series of sub-committees were organized to work out further details for presentation to the next session of the European Commission in September. The Soviet Union is represented on all the sub-committees with the exception of that on unemployment. Mr. Litvinov asked that the U.S.S.R. be excused from membership in the latter since unemployment is non-existent in the Soviet Union.

The commission decided that further study be given to the economic non-aggression pact offered by Litvinov, and charged the coordinating subcommittee with the task of working out a protocol along the lines of the Soviet proposal.

U.S.S.R. at Wheat Export Parley

MR. I. E. LUBIMOV, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Trade of the U.S.S.R., and chairman of the Soviet delegation to the London conference of wheat exporting countries, addressed the conference on May 21.

Informing the delegates of the present status of wheat production in the U.S.S.R., Mr. Lubimov stated that the wheat crop of the Soviet Union last year amounted to 29,500,000 tons, of which 23,400,000 tons were consumed within the country, leaving a surplus of about 6,100,000 tons. At the beginning of the new sowing campaign the quantity of wheat exported from last year's crop totaled 3,500,000 tons. Mr. Lubimov stated that with regard to the next harvest, approximately 31,122,000 acres of winter wheat were sown last fall, and the spring sown area would amount to about 73,360,000, making a total area sown to wheat this year of over 104,000,000 acres, from which it is expected to harvest around 36,500,000 tons. Mr. Lubimov explained that the State and collective farms, the Soviet planning system and the use of modern machinery made it possible for the Soviet Union to produce a high quality of grain at a lower cost of production than was possible in a number of other countries.

The proposal for regulating the grain market by a reduction of the area under cultivation, Mr. Lubimov declared to be entirely unacceptable in view of the Soviet program for industrial expansion and improved living conditions for the working population. It seemed advisable, he said, to allow each country to decide for itself whether to curtail production of agricultural commodities.

Lubimov stated that the regulation of wheat exports by fixing definite export quotas would be acceptable to the U.S.S.R., provided that the quota for the U.S.S.R. were based on the quantity of wheat exported before the war, and if the largest wheat exporting countries would participate in the scheme. The proposal to establish fixed prices for wheat was not, he said, acceptable to the Soviet delegation.

In connection with the proposal of some delegations to distribute wheat exports by quarters throughout the year, Lubimov declared the Soviet delegation to be in entire agreement with this plan. On the other hand, he said, the conference must recognize that as wheat represents one of the main sources for covering Soviet liabilities for imports, and in view of the special financial regimen established by international banking and capital for the U.S.S.R., adequate credits must be guaranteed for the financing of those quantities of wheat which, in consequence of the agreement may be kept in stocks within the U.S.S.R. The wheat stocks in the U.S.S.R. in this connection could serve as security for credits.

Foreign Relations of the Soviet Union

Soviet-Lithuanian Treaty

A protocol prolonging for five years the non-aggression and neutrality treaty of 1926 was signed on May 6th in Moscow by People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs Litvinov and the Lithuanian Minister to Moscow Mr. Baltrushaitis.

The text of the protocol follows:

Taking into consideration that the Treaty between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Lithuanian Republic signed in Moscow on September 28, 1926, has effectively served to strengthen and develop the friendly relations between the two States and consolidate the peace in Eastern Europe, the Central Executive Committee of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the President of the Lithuanian Republic, inspired by the desire further to promote and develop their relations and animated by the spirit of peace and sincere friendship, have decided to prolong the term of operation of the said Treaty and have appointed for this purpose as their representatives:

Maxim Litvinov, member of the Central Executive Committee of the Union of Sovet Socialist Republics and People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, on behalf of the Central Executive Committee of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and the President of the Lithuanian Republic Jurgis Baltrushaitis, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the Lithuanian Republic in Moscow, who having communicated their full powers to each other, found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following decisions:

Article 1

The Treaty concluded between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Lithuanian Republic in Moscow on September 28, 1926, with the two notes thereto appended of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and of Lithuania, is hereby extended for a period of five years from the date of the expiration of the term of the said Treaty. Unless one of the contracting parties notifies the other six months before the expiration of the Treaty of its desire to open negotiations for a new form of political relations between the two States, the Treaty will be regarded as automatically prolonged each year.

Article 2

The present protocol is drawn up in Russian and Lithuanian. In its interpretation both texts are considered authentic. The protocol is subject to ratification in the shortest possible period. It becomes effective from the date of the exchange of ratification documents which is to take place in the city of Kaunas.

Commenting editorially on the renewal of the pact with Lithuania, *Izvestia* of May 7 said in part as follows:

"The signing of the protocol extending the period of the Soviet-Lithuanian Treaty of non-aggression and neutrality of 1926 is an event the political significance of which goes far beyond the boundaries of Soviet-Lithuanian relations.

"The protocol of May 6 is a new link in the development of Soviet-Lithuanian relations. The peace treaty of July 12, 1920, established in practice the principle of the right of all nations to self-determination proclaimed by the October revolution, and became the foundation of the friendly relations between the Soviet Union and Lithuania. The treaty of non-aggression and neutrality of September 28, 1926, signified the further formulating and strengthening of these relations. In signing the treaty of 1926, Lithuania was the only one of the Baltic countries to respond to the Soviet proposal to conclude guarantee pacts, thus evincing its agreement with the principles constituting the basis of the foreign policy of the Soviet Union which have since found their expression in similar treaties with other countries.

"The protocol of May 6 is a new indication of the firm determination of the Soviet Union and Lithuania to continue the traditional friendly line of Soviet-Lithuanian relations on the basis of mutual respect for territorial sovereignty and inviolability, on the basis of non-participation in political agreements with any other countries directed against one of the partners to the treaty. The protocol establishes the fact that this line, pursued loyally by both sides, has been wholly justified from the point of view of the interests of both countries and of maintaining and promoting peace in Eastern Europe.

"The Soviet Union has given repeated expression to its unchanging desire to see the Lithuanian Government and the Lithuanian people free and independent, aware that the independence of Lithuania is one of the basic factors for peace along the Western boundaries of the land of Soviets. The friendliness of Soviet-Lithuanian relations has served to restrain imperialistic plans for the enslavement of Lithuania, in violation of the sovereignty and independence of the Lithuanian State and has thereby insured the maintenance of peace. From this point of view the protocol of May 6 will unquestionably reflect favorably on the international situation of the Lithuanian State, and strengthen its role and importance in Eastern Europe."

Protest Against Finnish Anti-Soviet Campaign

IN connection with recent anti-Soviet activities in Finland, N. N. Krestinsky, assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, sent a note of protest, on May 17, to Eino Westerlung, Finnish Chargé d'Affaires in Moscow. The note warns that the anti-Soviet atmosphere being cultivated in Finland is a direct threat to the peaceful relations between the Soviet Union and Finland and hence to general peace.

"The propaganda," says the note, "is carried on at meetings and in the press and acquires an even more serious character from the fact that the persons and organizations carrying it on are supported by official institutions. Recently this propaganda has developed into a systematic campaign aiming at the alienation of the Karelian Autonomous Republic and certain districts of the Leningrad region from the Soviet Union, and in certain circles has even gone so far as to advocate the annexation by Finland of the entire northern section of the Soviet Union as far as the Ural Mountains." Instances are cited of Finnish claims to a "greater Finland" through annexation of Soviet territory, made recently in the press and at public meetings by prominent Finnish officials.

The note then takes up the espousal by certain organizations hostile to the Soviet Union of the cause of the "persecuted Ingrian tribes," the spreading of false and slanderous information regarding the conditions of the Ingrianlanders in the U.S.S.R., raising funds for their "defense" and so on, all with government sanction. These activities have created an atmosphere of such hostility to the U.S.S.R. that it has been very difficult for the Soviet representative in Finland to carry out his duties, a situation further aggravated by persecution of employees of the Soviet Legation. Furthermore, the note continues, the police interfered in no way with the hostile demonstration of Fascist students before the Soviet Legation on May 12, and in spite of the Soviet protest, the Finnish authorities have given no guarantee that such conduct would not be repeated.

The note further points out that in spite of repeated reassurances by the Finnish Government, that the persons guilty of violating the Finnish-Soviet border by violently deporting Finnish citizens across to Soviet territory would be brought to account, no action whatever has been taken against these persons.

Finally, Krestinsky calls attention to the fact that the so-called Lapuan (Fascist) movement has done everything possible to disrupt Soviet-Finnish trade, including attacks on both Soviet trading organizations and Finnish organizations carrying on Soviet trade, with no opposition whatever from Finnish authorities.

The note protests categorically against all these acts and places full responsibility for their results on the Finnish Government.

The presentation of the Soviet note to Finland coincided with the deliverance of a Finnish note to the U.S.S.R. about alleged mass deportations from Ingria of peasants of Finnish origin. Commenting on the Finnish agitation on behalf of the Ingrianlanders, the Moscow *"Pravda"* says that it is inspired by the Finno-Swedish lumber magnates and their supporters in other countries, who are suffering from the competition of the Soviet lumber industry and would like to control the rich Karelian timber lands.

On May 24 Mr. Krestinsky sent an answer to Finland protesting Finnish interference in Soviet internal affairs, and asserting that the Finnish population of Leningrad province enjoyed all the rights accorded to national minorities under the laws of the U.S.S.R.

Japanese-Soviet Fishery Accord

The fishery dispute arising from the refusal of certain Japanese fishing companies to agree to the official Soviet rate of exchange was temporarily settled on April 23, when Troyanovsky, Soviet diplomatic representative in Japan, informed the Japanese Government that the proposal to fix the rate of exchange for the payment of rent by Japanese companies fishing in Soviet waters at 32.5 sen had been accepted as a temporary solution. This rate was accepted by the Soviet Government as a basis of paying the obligations now due, with the understanding that negotiations would be continued to settle upon the final rate.

New Danish Envoy Received

On April 8th, M. Ovey Engel, new Danish Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the Soviet Union, was received by Mikhail Kalinin, President of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., M. M. Litvinov, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, and other members of the Soviet Government. On presenting his credentials M. Engel declared that Denmark and Iceland valued highly the satisfactory relations existing between them and the U.S.S.R., and would sincerely welcome the further development of economic and cultural relations.

New Persian Envoy

On May 6, the new Persian Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to the Soviet Union, Fatulla Khan Pakrevan presented his credentials to Mikhail Kalinin, Chairman of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R.

Science and the Five-Year Plan

THE concluding session of the All-Union Conference on Planning Scientific Research* was held in the Hall of Columns in Moscow on April 11. V. M. Molotov, chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the Soviet Union and V. V. Kuibyshev, Chairman of Gosplan, addressed the delegates on the importance of science to the success of the present Five-Year Plan and the next one, drafts of which are already being prepared.

Molotov and Kuibyshev Address Conference

"The success of the Five-Year Plan," said Molotov, "has enabled us to take up now, in 1931, the task of completing the foundations of our socialist economy, and to outline our plans for the next decade. This brings forward again the question of the mastery of technique. The role of scientific and technical work, the training of scientific and technical workers, and creating proper conditions of work for them become questions of paramount importance.

"Without going too deeply into details, it may be stated that as a result of this conference, definite measures will soon be taken to aid the further development of scientific research work in our country, and that a unified plan will be assured. It must be kept clearly in mind, however, when we speak of the necessity of planning our scientific research work as a whole, that it is essential that bureaucratic tendencies be avoided.

"The conditions of work of our scientists are of the utmost importance. Special attention must be given to the working conditions of our scientists and technicians. This must include both the older scientists and the young scientific workers. It is particularly important that proper living conditions be provided for scientific workers."

Molotov then outlined the policy of the Soviet Government with regard to the material welfare of scientific workers, the endowment of scientific institutes and laboratories, and the publication of scientific research works. In conclusion he stated that the whole economic policy of the Soviet Government is based upon the results of scientific research and investigation, and that to this fact are attributable in no small degree the achievements of socialist construction.

V. V. Kuibyshev in surveying the progress of the Five-Year Plan, spoke in part as follows:

"Many of the speakers at this conference have stressed the connection between scientific research work and our economic plan. This is quite correct. Permit me, therefore, to begin with a survey of the progress of the Five-Year Plan, after which I shall take up the problems of scientific research connected with it.

"A great many separate enterprises and even whole branches of our national economy have completed their Five-Year Plan in two and a half years. A number of the key industries will finish the five-year program in the course of 1931, in three years—the anthracite industry, machine construction, tractor and automobile construction, electro-technical industry, the seeded area in agriculture, railroad freight loadings, and so on.

Problems of Second Five-Year Plan

"This dissipates any doubt as to the fulfillment of the Five-Year Plan in four years—that is, in the calendar year of 1932, and brings to the fore the working out of a new perspective plan to begin with 1933.

"The Government has decided that this perspective plan shall be another Five-Year Plan. This second Five-Year Plan will mean the final victory of the socialist elements in the village, it must tackle the problem of eliminating the contradictions between town and country.

"Even though in 1933 the production of pig-iron will reach 17,000,000 tons as against 4,500,000 in pre-war times, this will hardly suffice to meet the needs of the country. Vast quantities of metal will be needed in carrying out the program for mechanizing agriculture, extending the railroad system and the gigantic machine building program. The development of each separate branch means additional requirements from other branches. Agriculture needs the chemical industry as well as metal to furnish it with fertilizer. The second Five-Year Plan must give more attention to chemicals.

"The growth of industry means new construction for housing and social needs. We must build new cities. The population of the Ural-Kuznetsky Combinat alone will be doubled and even tripled in the second Five-Year Plan. This in turn means a great jump forward in construction materials—so one thing is bound up with another.

Economic Growth and Science Inseparable

"The rate of economic construction and science are tied up in the closest way. But our scientific work is not proceeding at a rate corresponding to the rest of our development. Take the question of the study of our natural resources. There is no other country so rich in all kinds of natural

*See May issue of *Soviet Union Review* for report of Conference.

resources as the U.S.S.R., and yet we are poor in our knowledge of what we have. How little we know of our non-ferrous metals, of such light and rare metals as magnesium, aluminum, nickel, pewter, molybdenite. We are one of the few countries having rich supplies of helium. The same is true of our ferrous metals. We have unquestionably sufficient reserves of mineral ore to carry out any metallurgical program we might desire, and yet the discovery of new reserves is left largely to chance. So with coal—oil—chemicals—we have barely scratched the surface of our reserves in these fields.

"In the field of power we must increase our present electrical power eight or ten times in the next five-year plan. We must study such problems as obtaining power from differences in temperature in the north rivers and the Arctic Ocean; we must learn to utilize solar power, to use coal while it is beneath the surface of the earth.

"In agriculture we have such problems as the development of rubber-bearing plants to free us from importing rubber, sterilization of the soil as a means of getting rid of harmful insects, new types of machinery for seeding and harvesting, speeding up livestock growth through ionization, the electrification of dairy farming and of all work connected with livestock raising.

"Our tremendous tasks of construction in the field of transport cannot be solved without the help of scientific research in working out more efficient types of engines and rolling stock, of automatic couplings and brakes, in electrifying large sections of our railroads.

"Aviation—the standardization and mechanization of building materials, new types of building materials from cheaper raw materials—here we have a boundless sea of work. In machine building we are still borrowing ideas and models from the capitalist world. We must work out our own. There are limitless possibilities for scientific research work in this direction. We must have new machinery for the mechanization of all labor processes, especially in road-building, peat production and lumbering.

Coordinated Scientific Work Essential

"For us it is essential to have not merely the scientific thought of specialized branches, but the combination of all scientific efforts into one coordinated whole. In such projects as the Ural-Kuznetsky Combinat, Dnieprostroy, Donbas and elsewhere we have various branches of industry—mining, metallurgy, chemicals—grouped around one power center into powerful combines, and we must be able to call upon all branches of science to work together.

"The solution of all these problems with which scientific workers are faced requires a mastery of technique and science by the masses, and the farther this process of mastery goes, the fainter will become the boundary line between physical and mental labor. Only when the masses of the people begin to take part in scientific creation will we be able to make use of all the advantages of the socialist system in the field of science.

"The resolutions passed by this conference on the problems essential to research workers in the various branches of science marks the beginning of planning in scientific research. It means that scientific and technical workers will be given the position that belongs to them in socialist construction."

Lunacharsky on Planned Science

In an article published in "Izvestia" Anatole Lunacharsky, head of scientific institutions of the R.S.F.S.R., points out that the insistence on putting science to practical uses does not mean that there will be no place for abstract science.

"As to those scientists who are investigating abstract scientific problems far removed from practical aims," he writes, "we can reassure them that the U.S.S.R. does not intend to abolish research in the higher forms of theoretical synthesis, to interfere with the free search for new phenomena or the working out of new laws by pioneer investigators in their own way.

"But we point out that if from time to time fruit does ripen on the high branches of the seemingly lifeless tree of abstract science, more often it is the crudest problems of practical life, the needs of labor, that inspire the human mind to work out its most brilliant inventions, that create in it ideas which later become the basis for the broadest generalizations.

"We rest assured, therefore, that if we put before the Soviet scientific world, before all Soviet scientific research institutions, the colossal tasks resulting from the needs of socialist construction in the U.S.S.R., theoretical research will go forward rapidly. Science is developing and can develop only on a basis of collective work. Where is the scientist to be found who could make progress, if he did not have the work of his predecessors and contemporaries? Where is the scientist who by publishing the results of his work would not bring a new element into the work of other scienists?"

Radek on the Science of the Future

In an article titled "Forward, Science!" also published in the "Izvestia," Karl Radek describes his impressions of the conference for planning scientific research.

"It is enough to read the article of Prof. Joffe about the technique of the future," he writes "and to consider the problems he has set forth, to say to oneself that never has humanity given itself greater tasks, to feel pride in being present at the first conference of scientific research institutions

called together to formulate a plan for their work.

"No one who was present at the Congress of Soviets in 1920, when Krjijanovsky presented the GOELRO (electrification) plan and when, before the eyes of delegates from all over the Soviet Union, enveloped in their *tulups* (the fuel crisis was severe at that time, and it was freezing in the room), the map sparkled with electric lights marking the places from which the waves of electrical power would flow in the future, will ever forget that scene. Some of those present mocked. Those who had party tickets in their pockets winked and said 'Oh, he's a clever one that Vladimir Ilyich—to carry people through hunger and cold with a dream.' Still others muttered 'not electrification but electrofixation.'

"The GOELRO plan is almost completed, and sitting now in the Hall of Columns we think of those who ten years from now will remember the great beginnings made at this conference which is laying the basis for the peaceful victorious forward march of science in the interests not only of the U.S.S.R., but of all future humanity.

"In the Hall of Columns we have heard reports on subjects which have rarely been talked of before at great public meetings—on physics and chemistry. Much of this we political and social workers, illiterate in matters of natural science, do not comprehend. But for our children an understanding of these things will be obligatory. Candidates for admission into the party ten years from now will be asked not merely why Lenin split with Martov and Axelrod over the first paragraph of the party constitution in 1903, but whether there is a grain of materialism in Einstein's relativity theory, and in what it consists.

"And we of the older generation, sitting in the Hall of Columns, cannot but rejoice for the future generation who will master the great science of nature and place it at the service of all mankind.

"Writing this I apologize for the phrase 'the future generation.' The generation which is now going forth with the slogan 'to overtake and surpass world technique' must master science—this is the slogan of the next ten years and I am deeply convinced that it will be carried out."

The New Science of Agriculture

By Prof. N. I. Vavilov
Head of the Lenin Agricultural Academy

With the organization of large State farms on territory covering hundreds of thousands of acres, and the establishment of large livestock farms with many thousand head of cattle, the need of a new technique, an entirely new scientific approach arises. The mechanization of agriculture and the construction of new giants in the agricultural industry have revealed the inadequacy of the knowledge at our disposal for the solution of the most pressing problems of production.

Not so very long ago our agricultural science was engaged on such problems as working out a light type of plow to be pulled by weak peasant horses. To-day we already have in the country about 200,000 tractors, combine factories, plants manufacturing thousands of machines of various types, some of which none of our agronoms had ever even seen up to a few years ago. This is the reason that it is necessary in the shortest possible time, to coordinate our research work with the demands of the socialist reconstruction of agriculture on the basis of large scale specialization and mechanization of production.

In the summer of 1929 the Lenin Agricultural Academy was established, and instructed to work out a plan for the reconstruction of all agricultural experimental work in order to devote it fully to the needs of socialized and specialized production. During 1930 the chief features of the new type of experimental work were outlined and were adopted by the collegium of the Narkomzem (People's Commissariat for Agriculture) of the U.S.S.R. at the end of last year.

The new system differs radically from that which obtained in the past, and so far as we know, the Soviet system of scientific research work in agriculture differs from that of any other country. In contrast to the regional type of combined experimental stations, including all the branches of agriculture—the system which prevails in the United States and on the basis of which our own experimental work developed after the October revolution—we are now building our experimental work on entirely different principles.

In the first place the new system is a single, country-wide system. The entire system of research work in the field of agriculture is now concentrated entirely under the direction of the Lenin Agricultural Academy.

At the basis of our scientific research work in the service of agriculture is the principle of specialization. The present rate of development of production requires the most concrete and exact scientific direction. We cannot be satisfied with general, encyclopedic instructions. Production must be bound up with science in the closest possible way. This is possible only through the establishment of institutes devoted to the different branches of agriculture, connected with production and studying all sides of production.

On the basis of the decree of the Narkomzem

thirty-five branch institutes have been opened covering the most important branches of plant and animal husbandry.

These specialized experimental stations represent important research institutions which must be equipped according to the last word in science. They include in their scope everything connected with the given branch beginning with the cultivation of different varieties and ending with the working up of products and farm organization. They will include such departments as selection, agro-technique, chemical technology, agro-meteorology as applied to the respective branches, the economics and organization of specialized agriculture in the given branch, and plant protection. Each of these institutions will have connected with it a system of local stations and branches. These sub-stations will be adapted to the special districts where they are situated. Their problem will be the solution of the problem of that particular district. The branches will have to do with specific technical questions of each particular locality—effect of different types of fertilizer on the soil and so on.

This specialized system of experimental work differs radically from the former encyclopedic approach when the regional stations embraced all branches of agriculture and studied all kinds of crops. The present regional and district experimental stations have been entirely reconstructed. The number of experimental station under the new system has been doubled.

Some of the specialized institutes are directly connected with production. Some of the new institutes are connected with factories and some of the local stations have been established directly on the new sovhozes. In addition we have a number of experimental factories and farms carrying on practical research work on a large scale. There is no doubt that such a combination of research work with production will yield results of tremendous practical importance.

At the same time our economic development requires that our research work be maintained at a high theoretical level, that the most scientific methods be used, and that new methods of research should be developed.

In addition to this system of specialized institutes and their sub-stations, we have in the Lenin Institute a number of general institutes covering the main divisions of agricultural science. Institutes of horticulture, livestock, mechanization of agriculture, electrification of agriculture, reclamation, soil science, agricultural economics and organization, collective organization and so on. These general institutes have as their problem the working out of the methodology of agricultural research, the scientific direction of the work of the specialized institutes, coordinating their research work and handling new problems.

In view of the exceptional importance to us of questions of the distribution of crops, the general institutes must carry out extensive scientific work in the field of zoning and planning agricultural production.

In order to carry out this plan of coordinating the research work as applied to the problems of the different regions, the different regions are now establishing oblast, regional and republic "agricultural organizing institutes," in connection with the local agricultural commissariats. Their problems include serving the needs of the given region and making use of the local specialized institutes and sub-stations.

Such is our new system of experimental work. The system of experimental institutions has not yet been fully developed since we have not yet sufficient trained research workers to man all the stations proposed.

The chief features of the new system are, however, already in operation and there is no doubt that within the next year or two the whole system will be completed.

Wages in the Past Two Years

DURING the first two years of the Five-Year Plan the increase in wages in the Soviet Union has been greater than envisaged in the plan. The following table gives a picture of the movement of wages in the main branches during the past few years:

	Average annual earnings for 1930 (in rubles)*	*Percentage of 1927-28*	*Average annual earnings for 1931 (control figures)*	*Percentage of 1927-28*
Industry	1,011	123	1,046	127
Railroad transport	1,002	122	1,103	134
Water transport	1,151	129	1,272	122
Educational workers	887	135	982	149
Entire non-agricultural sector	947	124	1,007	132
Agricultural sector	496	162	617	202
Entire proletariat	881	129	945	139

The wages for all hired workers in the U.S.S.R. taken together have increased by 29 per cent during the first two years of the five year plan period, whereas the plan provided for an increase of 16 per cent during this time. During the present year a still further increase is taking place, which will amount to an average of 39 per cent for all workers, whereas the increase provided in the plan was to have been 25 per cent.

In carrying out the program for increasing wages the government is concentrating its attention on the most poorly paid sections of the work-

* A ruble is equal to 51.5 cents.

ers. This explains the fact that the greatest increase has taken place in the agricultural sector where the wages are now 102 per cent higher than they were three years ago. The collectivization movement has had a great effect on the increasing of wages.

The wages of railroad workers have increased during the past three years by 34 per cent as against an increase of 19 per cent planned, while the wages of water transport workers have increased by 42 per cent.

The greatest increase in wages among industrial workers has been in the anthracite industry where wages have increased by 40 per cent, not counting an additional 20 per cent increase for underground workers which is now being introduced in accordance with a recent government decree. In the metallurgical and chemical industries wages have been advanced by one-third during the period in question. In 1927, 24 per cent of the metal workers received wages of less than fifty rubles a month—and now less than nine per cent are in this category. At the same time the percentage of workers receiving from 100 to 150 rubles a month has practically doubled.

The total wage fund of the Soviet Union has increased at a greater rate than the average level of wages since not only have wages been raised in every branch of industry, but many new workers have been employed. Thus in 1930 the total wage fund for all hired workers amounted to 12,500,000,000 rubles, or 160.3 per cent of what it was in 1927-28. During the present year the wage fund will amount to 15,300,000,000 rubles, or almost double that of three years back. In this respect the provisions of the Five-Year Plan have been exceeded by 45 per cent. If we take separately the wage fund for industry, the provisions of the Five-Year Plan have been exceeded by 56 per cent.

Any consideration of wages in the Soviet Union must include the various forms of "socialized wages" which come to the workers in the form of social insurance, cultural advantages and so on which are increased year by year in the effort to raise the general living standards. For 1931 371,000,000 rubles have been assigned to provide for invalids and for pensions to families losing their breadwinners—an increase of 81 per cent over the funds assigned for this purpose in 1927-28. For medical aid to the insured 430,000,000 rubles will be spent during the present year, 77 per cent more than three years ago. Payments for illness will amount to 378,000,000 rubles—an increase of 77 per cent. Over a billion rubles will be spent in housing this year—two and a half times as much as was expended for this purpose the first year of the plan. The fund for improving the living conditions of workers this year amounts to 285,000,000 rubles—three times as much as three years ago. Over 150,000,000 rubles will be spent on special measures for the protection of labor—safety devices and so on. For the extension of socialized restaurants and kitchens 120,000,000 rubles has been assigned — twelve times as much as was spent in 1927-28, and almost forty million meals a day will be served through these agencies.

Taking all these measures together it may be said that real wages have increased by almost seventy per cent over the wages of pre-war days.

Trade Unions Reorganized

THE reorganization of the Soviet Trade Unions decided upon at the recent plenary session of the All-Union Council of Trade Unions is now in process of completion. The reorganization means, briefly, the breaking up of the large unions, some of which had over a million members, into smaller units, corresponding to the different branches of each industry. Thus the metal workers union in which there were formerly 1,200,000 members has been sub-divided into seven independent unions: the metallurgical, transport machine building, agricultural machinery, electro-technical and power, automotive (automobile, tractor and aviation), general machine construction, and non-ferrous metal fabricating. The metal mining workers, formerly in the miners' union, will now be brought under the metal workers group of unions.

Similarly the miners' union has been divided into four independent unions (ores, coal, oil and slate, and peat); the agricultural workers union into four (State grain farms, State stock farms, machine and tractor station workers and agricultural laborers, and sugar workers); the chemical workers, textile workers, construction workers municipal workers and workers in commercial enterprises have been reorganized into three separate unions apiece. In place of the twenty-two trade unions which existed formerly there are now forty-four.

A number of internal organizational reforms are being carried on at the same time. Each union is to have production sections corresponding to the branches of the industry concerned. There will also be production councils for the separate trades.

This reorganization of the trade unions is not in any sense to be understood as a departure from the industrial principle in the trade union movement of the U.S.S.R. The reorganization of the unions was made necessary by a number of economic, political and social factors. In connection with the rapid growth of the last few years the whole character of Soviet industry has been transformed. The opening up of many new branches of industry has brought into being numerous new economic organizations with which the trade unions must have dealings. The union of metal

workers, for instance, had to deal with twenty-eight different branches of the industry, and was therefore unable to take an effective part in the solution of the production problems of the different branches of industry. The reorganization brings the unions much closer to the interests of production and the daily needs of the working masses.

The new labor problems which have arisen in connection with mass collectivization and sovhoz construction have also been an influence in the union reorganization. Still another factor was the complete cessation of unemployment in the Soviet Union, and the need for training skilled workers for industry caused by this situation. Finally the new socialist forms of labor which have been developing in the past few years had much to do with the reorganization. Over half of all workers are members of "shock brigades," and 72 per cent are taking part in socialist competition of one kind or another.

The breaking up of the unions into smaller units opens up many improvements in serving the material and cultural needs of the workers. Local offices for the payment of social insurance are being opened in many factories as a result, "closed distribution centers" are being established in factories where the workers have not had this advantage, community dining rooms are being established, and educational work increased.

Some Statistics on the Soviet Press

THE financial turnover represented by all types of publishing in the Soviet Union amounts to over $250,000,000, more than double that of two years ago. This sum is distributed as follows: $135,000,000 in book publishing, $30,000,000 in magazines and $90,000,000 for newspapers. The limiting factor in the development of publishing is not popular demand or the will of the government, but the state of the paper industry which, although growing rapidly, is still far from supplying the amount needed.

Production costs of the publishing industry in the Soviet Union in 1931 are estimated at over $175,000,000, or 1.4 per cent of all industrial costs. Two and a half times as much is spent on the publishing industry as on the mining industry in the Soviet Union and over twice as much as on the glass industry.

In 1926 the amount spent by the Soviet population on books and periodicals amounted to about $.35 per person, in 1930, to about $.70. The greatest increase in reading has taken place in the village. In 1926 the expenditure per person was $1.40 in the cities, and $.06 in the villages, and in 1930 it was over $2.00 in the cities and about $.20 in the villages. Of this amount roughly one-third was spent for books—a little less than a third in the cities, a little over a third in the villages.

At the present time there are 1,409 newspapers being published in the Soviet Union with a total circulation of 30,800,000 copies, as against 605 in 1928, with a circulation of 8,800,000. In Tsarist times, the total newspaper circulation amounted to 2,700,000.

While the circulation of Soviet newspapers is still far behind that of American newspapers, which is estimated at 54,000,000 for 1931, the rate of growth is much faster in the Soviet Union. In the nine years from 1922 to 1931 the total circulation of American papers increased by 12.5 per cent, while in the same period the total circulation of the Soviet press increased by 2500 per cent.

The Five-Year Plan for the press provided that a total circulation of 28,600,000 should be reached by 1932-33.

The geographical distribution of the press may be seen from the following table:

Distribution of Press

	No. of papers	Circulation	Percentage to whole: No. of papers	Percentage to whole: Circulation
Central	44	11,500,000	3.5	38
Republic	130	5,200,000	9.5	17
Oblast and Regional	130	7,800,000	9.5	25.5
City District	65	1,300,000	4.5	4.5
Rayon (country dist.)	1,040	5,000,000	73	15
	1,409	30,800,000	100	100

In the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper) newspapers are published in 41 languages, in the Ukraine—seven, in White Russia—five, in Transcaucasia—eight, and in Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan in three different languages each. In addition to the above mentioned papers the number of papers published in factories and shops, sovhozes and collectives has greatly increased in the past year and a half. In January, 1931, there were 1,200 factory and shop papers with a circulation of 2,000,000, and over 460 sovhoz and collective papers with a circulation of over a million.

Up until the last year and a half it has been necessary for the government to subsidize the newspapers to the extent of about $13,000,000 a year since many of the district papers and those published for the national minorities were run at a loss in the beginning. The increasing demand of the population for reading matter has, however, changed this situation and in 1931 a profit of over $30,000,000 is expected for the publishing industry. In this connection it should be noted that since there is very little advertising done in the Soviet Union and the press is almost wholly devoted to reading matter, only a negligible part of the income of newspapers and magazines is derived from this source. This will make possible the re-equipment and recon-

struction of the typographical industry, which is using outmoded and outworn machinery, left over from pre-revolutionary days, along more modern and efficient lines. The manufacture of typographical machinery in the U.S.S.R. is being undertaken this year.

Lack of paper has been perhaps the greatest handicap to the printing industry in the Soviet Union. Judging by the demand, the production of the publishing industry might be almost doubled within a short period if there were a sufficient supply of paper. The growth of the manufacture of paper within the Soviet Union will help to cover this problem. In 1927 practically no newsprint at all was produced in the U.S.S.R., but this year the entire Soviet press is printed on newsprint of domestic manufacture. In 1926 the domestic production of paper amounted to 283,600 tons, and 146,500 tons was imported. In 1931 the domestic production will amount to 612,000 tons, and only 22,000 tons will be imported. In 1926, 410,000 tons of paper was used in the Soviet Union, and in 1931 the figure will amount to about 634,000 tons.

Goods Shortage Eased

ON May 12 a decree was issued designed to increase the supply of ordinary commodities available for the general Soviet population and rationalizing their distribution through the consumers' cooperatives by opening a large number of new stores specializing in certain lines of goods.

To this end special wholesale departments have been organized under Centrosoyus handling the following categories of goods: clothing, rubbers, shoes, textiles, hardware, handicrafts, groceries, fruits, vegetables, dairy products and so on. Corresponding retail departments are to be organized in the republics, regions and oblasts with, in addition, furniture, meat and poultry, bakery and childrens' goods departments. Each department is to have separate stores instead of having a general store system as hitherto, except in certain localities where this is not expedient.

In furtherance of this plan several thousand new food stores are to be opened before autumn for the sale of bread, meat, poultry, fish, vegetables, fruits and dairy products. At least 200 new stores will be opened in Moscow, 150 in Leningrad and the Donetz Basin, a hundred each in cities such as Kharkov, Kiev, Rostov, Baku, Nizhni-Novgorod, Ivanovo-Voznesensk, Tiflis, Sverdlovsk, Stalingrad, Odessa and Tashkent and at least eighty in each of the other large cities and industrial centers of the Soviet Union. The decree announces that since the consumers' cooperatives are the chief retail selling agency the share of State organizations in retail trade is not to exceed 30 to 35 per cent.

Large mechanized bakeries are to be established by Centrosoyus throughout the country. The cooperatives will also have their own truck gardens, and dairy farms, and raise pigs and poultry on a large scale.

In order that the cooperatives may concentrate their efforts on supplying the population with food and other goods, they are henceforth to be relieved of certain other functions carried on in the past. Day nurseries and other childrens' institutions run by the coperatives are to be turned over entirely to the departments of health or education under whose jurisdiction they belong. Cooperative laundries are to be turned over to the city and and town Soviets to be operated as a municipal enterprise. Socialized food distribution, whether through restaurants or kitchens, is to be handled as an independent section of the Centrosoyus, with which all the work of "Narpit" (the socialized food distribution center) will be combined.

Short term courses for the training of at least 150,000 cooperative workers for positions as store or restaurant managers, salesmen, chefs, bakers, organizers, farm directors and so on are to be held during 1931.

While prices will remain the same in all the "closed distribution centers" in the factories and other establishments which sell goods to the workers on a card ration system, a higher rate of prices, running from 3 to 50 per cent, will prevail in the new cooperatives in the cities. There will be no card system in these stores.

Recent Government Decrees

New Citizenship Decree

On April 22, 1931, a new decree on citizenship in the U.S.S.R. was ratified by the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. This decree replaces the citizenship decree of June 30, 1930 (published in full in the *Soviet Union Review* for January, 1931), and the decree on simplifying the procedure for acquiring or relinquishing citizenship in the U.S.S.R., of November 23, 1930. The substance of the decree is practically the same as that of the former decree, the changes being largely of a technical nature. The complete text of the new decree follows:

1. With the formation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics a single citizenship law was established for citizens of the Soviet republics (Art. 7. Constitution of the U.S.S.R.). Every citizen of a Soviet republic is also a citizen of the U.S.S.R.

2. A citizen of the U.S.S.R. is a citizen of the Soviet republic in which he has permanent residence. However, if he should consider himself bound to another Soviet republic, either by nationality or origin, he may elect to become a citizen of that republic.

3. Every person residing within the territory of the U.S.S.R. is regarded as a citizen of the U.S.S.R. unless proved to be a citizen of a foreign government.

4. Foreign citizens who are accepted as citizens of the U.S.S.R. cease to enjoy the privileges or to bear obligations connected with citizenship of another country.

5. Citizens of the U.S.S.R. enjoy all the rights and bear all the obligations established for citizens of the U.S.S.R. by the constitution and laws of the U.S.S.R. and of that Soviet republic in which they reside.

6. Foreign workers and peasants, living within the precincts of the U.S.S.R. for the purpose of working, enjoy all political rights of citizens of the U.S.S.R.

7. A citizen of the U.S.S.R. by right of birth is a person one or both of whose parents was a Soviet citizen at the time of his birth.

8. When a citizen of the Soviet Union marries a citizen of a foreign country, the contracting parties maintain their own nationality.

The citizenship may be changed by a simplified procedure (Art. 16) if the couple so desire.

9. If both parents change their citizenships and become citizens of the U.S.S.R., or if both cease to be citizens of the U.S.S.R., the citizenship of their children under 14 years of age is also changed

Children between the age of 14 and their majority must give their consent to a change in their citizenship in order to acquire citizenship in the Soviet Union with their parents in case the latter become Soviet citizens.

The citizenship of children over 14 does not change when the parents relinquish citizenship of the Soviet Union.

10. When parents acquire citizenship of the Soviet Union, their children who are still minors also acquire citizenship upon a special declaration on the part of their parents. In order that children of 14 years may acquire citizenship, their consent must be obtained.

In cases where one parent is a Soviet citizen and one is not, children under 14 years, remaining with the parent who is a foreign citizen retain, on the declaration of the latter, the same citizenship as that parent, providing the parent who is a citizen of the Soviet Union has died or has lost all connection with the children.

If one of the parents relinquishes his Soviet citizenship and the other has died or is completely separated from the children, the children under 14 acquire the same citizenship as the parent who relinquishes his Soviet citizenship upon a declaration being made by the latter.

11. Children, who are citizens of the Soviet Union, and have been adopted by citizens of other countries, retain their Soviet citizenship.

12. Foreigners, residing in the U.S.S.R., may become citizens of one of the Union republics and thereby also of the Soviet Union by a decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., or of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet republic in which they reside.

A decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of a Soviet republic refusing to grant citizenship may be protested by the person in question before the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R.

Foreigners applying for citizenship in the U.S.S.R. and at the same time for citizenship in one of the Union Republics, must indicate in their application the Union republic in which they desire citizenship.

13. Foreign citizens residing abroad may be accepted as citizens of one of the Union republics and thereby of the U.S.S.R. by decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., and in cases when the application is received by the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Union Republic, by decree of the latter.

14. Relinquishment of citizenship in the Soviet Union is granted:

(a) By a decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., or of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Union republic in question, in case of persons residing within the Soviet Union.

In case of a refusal by the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Union republic, the applicant may appeal to the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R.

(b) By a decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. in case of persons residing abroad.

15. A person who has lost citizenship in the U.S.S.R., and in a Union republic may be restored to citizenship in the U.S.S.R. by decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., or by decree of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of that Union republic of which he was a citizen.

Persons who have been deprived of their citizenship in the U.S.S.R., and in a Union republic may be restored to citizenship by the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., or the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Union republic by decree of which they were deprived of citizenship.

16. The acquisition or relinquishment of citizenship in the Soviet Union, in addition to the general procedure outlined in the preceding articles of this decree, may be effcted by a simplified procedure, as follows:

(a) By an edict of the regional (oblast) executive committee, the Central Executive Committee of the autonomous republic and the Executive Committee of the autonomous oblast, provided the applicant resides in the Soviet Union;

(b) By an edict of the diplomatic representative of the Soviet Union if the person resides abroad.

Central Executive Committees of Union republics may delegate to separate rayon executive committees and, in the case of cities which have been made independent administrative-economic units, to the city Soviets, the right to decide on the granting or relinquishment of citizenship by

simplified procedure on the application of persons residing within the U.S.S.R.

This simplified procedure may be applied in the following cases:

(a) On the acquisition of citizenship by foreign workers and peasants residing in the Soviet Union for the purpose of work, and also foreigners who enjoy the right of asylum on account of persecution for their revolutionary activities;

(b) When citizenship is changed upon the occasion of marriage (Art. 8).

Note: The organs mentioned in this article have the right to refuse requests for citizenship through the simplified procedure and to propose that such requests be made in the usual way to the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union or of the Soviet Republic to which the applicant belongs.

17. Persons may be deprived of citizenship in one of the Union republics and hence in the Soviet Union by edict of the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Soviet Union or the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the Union republic to which he belongs.

18. Instructions for the promulgation of the present decree are issued by the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs in agreement with the United State Political Administration.

Distribution of Profits of State Enterprises

In connection with the introduction of the "hozraschet" system, a new decree has been issued on the distribution of profits of State enterprises, as follows:

1. The profits of State (including municipal) enterprises which are operating on the basis of economic accounting *(hozraschet)*, according to the 1929-1930 balance, shall be distributed as follows:

(a) Eleven per cent of the net profits for the fund for improving living conditions of workers and employees;

(b) Twenty per cent of the net profits for income tax;

(c) The remainder of the net profit is to be applied toward increasing the basic capital.

Note: Enterprises which have already made advance payments out of their surpluses to the State in 1930 are freed from the income tax for 1929-1930.

2. The profits of State enterprises, according to the balance for the period October-December, 1930, are to be distributed as follows:

(a) To the State—the part established by Article 2 of the decree on deductions from the incomes of State enterprises of September 2, 1930 (Collected Laws of U.S.S.R., 1930, No. 46, Art. 478);

(b) nine per cent of the net profit for the fund for improving living conditions of workers and employees;

(c) the remainder of the net profit to be applied to increasing the basic capital of the enterprise.

3. In credit institutions the portion of the net profit remaining after the deductions under (b) and (c) is to be applied not to basic but to reserve capital.

4. The profits of Gosbank, the Bank of Long Term Credits for Industry and Electrical Enterprises, the Communal Bank, the State Insurance Fund of the U.S.S.R., and the State Savings Funds are to be distributed as provided in the decrees on these institutions.

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5. The amount of the deduction for funds for the improvement of living conditions of the workers and employees established for State enterprises (11 per cent on the balances for 1929-1930 and 9 per cent on the balance for October-December, 1930) is also extended to other enterprises, institutions and organizations which have established such a fund through deductions from their net profits.

A second decree provides for payment to the State from the profits of State enterprise as follows:

1. State enterprises financed through either State or local budgets shall make payments out of their profits to the State (including income tax) to the following amounts: 10 per cent for industrial, agricultural, transport and communal enterprises; 50 per cent for Gosbank and other banks; 85 per cent for commercial enterprises.

2. In the case of enterprises not financed by the budget due to the fact that their financial plans provide for accumulation of surplus exceeding the expenditures for capital construction and increase in their own liquid capital, a larger deduction for the State is required. The amount of deduction in such cases is to be determined annually by the Council of Labor and Defense, the economic councils of the Union Republics and the local executive committees under whose jurisdiction they come, but it must not be less than 20 per cent of the net profits (includig income tax).

Improved Conditions for Scientists

The Sovnarkom has recently issued a decree aiming to improve the living conditions of scientific workers throughout the Soviet Union and to aid in the development of scientific research work in the U.S.S.R.

The decree provides for the organization of a special Scientists' Aid Commission under the Sovnarkom of the U.S.S.R., which will take over and add to the functions of the "Tsekubu" (Central Commission for assisting scientists), which was formerly attached to the Sovnarkom of the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper).

One of the chief tasks of the new commission will be to help scientific and technical workers in their scientific research work by more extensive publication of scientific works, purchasing scientific literature and materials from other coun-

tries and providing further facilities for scientific study abroad than have been available in the past.

Greater attention is to be given to the material and living conditions of scientific workers, and providing more favorable conditions for them to carry on their work. This includes medical service, increased opportunities to visit rest homes and sanitariums, more adequate housing accommodations, and pensions.

On the other hand, an effort will be made by the State to avail itself to an even greater extent than in the past of the services of Soviet scientists, by calling in scientific workers to assist in the solution of special scientific problems connected with socialist construction in addition to their regular work.

Additional funds have been appropriated to carry out the provisions of the new decree, and a special effort will be made to satisfy individual requests of scientists and professors for special literature or material which they may need from abroad.

Decree on State Arbitration

The Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. has ratified the decree on Government arbitration. The decree provides for the setting up of State arbitration commissions under the Council of Labor and Defense of the U.S.S.R. (STO), under the Economic Councils of the Unions Republics (which are branches of the State Planning Commission), under the Councils of People's Commissars of the autonomous republics and under the regional and oblast executive committees, in place of the existing arbitration committees for the settlement of disputes arising between government institutions.

V. V. Schmidt, formerly People's Commissar for Labor of the U.S.S.R., has been appointed chief arbiter for the State Arbitration Commission of the Council of Labor and Defense.

Book Notes

"RED BREAD," by Maurice Hindus. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York. $3.50.

In "Red Bread" Mr. Hindus has produced another of his studies of the Soviet village during the transition period. He treats with dramatic simplicity the struggle between the old ways and the new ways, the changing point of view in the younger generation, the personal dislocations and hardships involved in the agricultural revolution, the transformation of the village after the coming of modern methods of production and the advent of the new machines. The author tells his story for the most part out of the mouths of the villagers themselves. There is, as he remarks at the end, both turmoil and agony in his picture of the transition, but hope and promise are everywhere implicit in the change.

"PAN-SOVIETISM," by Bruce Hopper. Houghton Mifflin and Company, Boston and New York. $2.50.

Mr. Hopper spent two years in the Soviet Union making a study of the country under the auspices of the Institute for Current World Affairs. He is now a lecturer at Harvard University and his "Pan-Sovietism" is a reproduction of eight lectures given before the Lowell Institute. The book contains some interesting historical perspectives, some shrewd expositions and comparisons, and a number of rather astounding interpretive blunders and naive assumptions. The style is easy. It is entitled to be rated among the serious studies of the U.S.S.R. by American visitors.

"NEW RUSSIA'S PRIMER—THE STORY OF THE FIVE-YEAR PLAN," by N. Ilin. Translated by George S. Counts and Nucia P. Lodge. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston and New York. $1.75.

This book was written by N. Ilin, a young Soviet engineer, as a textbook for Russian school children. It is one of the many textbooks being produced in the Soviet Union designed to interest children in the drama and romance of modern machinery, in economic processes and in the building up of their country. The simple story gives a more comprehensive and impelling picture of the creative effort in the Soviet Union than many a more pretentious statistical volume could give. The book is a selection of the Book of the Month Club. Professor Counts has written a sympathetic introduction. The translation is excellent.

"ECONOMIC HANDBOOK OF THE SOVIET UNION." American-Russian Chamber of Commerce. $1.00.

This book of some 150 pages is closely packed with statistical and economic information about the U.S.S.R. The material is based on official data and statements of various departments and bureaus of the Soviet Government. The volume represents a comprehensive and concise treatment of all aspects of Soviet economy of interest to American business men. It contains two maps.

Miscellaneous News

Kharkov Theater Competition

IT was announced in Moscow on May 7 that three Americans, Alfred Kastner, Eric Engerder and Carl Meyer, shared the first prize for the recent international competition for the new Ukrainian theater at Kharkov. German and Ukrainian groups of architects who submitted designs adjudged of equal merit were the other recipients of first prizes which amounted to 8,000 rubles apiece. Normal Bel Geddes, the American designer, was also awarded a prize for the originality of his design.

In the rules issued for the contest particular emphasis was laid on the necessity of acoustics adequate for a theater to seat 4,000 persons, stage mechanization, fire protection and safety provisions which would enable the audience to clear the building in two minutes in case of fire. A system of well equipped dressing and rest rooms, workshops, sewing rooms, an electric plant and outdoor promenades were also included in the specifications.

It was reported that 146 projects were sent in altogether, ninety-seven of which were foreign, from fourteen different countries. In addition to the United States, Germany, Holland, Japan and Roumania were among the countries whose architects competed.

So large was the exhibition that no building in Kharkov was large enough to house it, so the competition was not held until warm weather, when one of the large new workers' clubs, with spacious tents added on, could be used for the purpose. The jury consisted of distinguished Soviet architects and theatrical producers, among them Prof. Rielsky of the Moscow Architectural Institute, and Prof. A. P. Schusev who designed the tomb of Lenin. While the final decision has not yet been reached on the type of theater to build, it is planned to start construction this year.

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Commercial Operations of Foreign Companies in the U.S.S.R.

THE Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. has issued an ordinance regulating the operations of foreign companies on the territory of the U.S.S.R. Foreign commercial, industrial and other economic organizations as well as individuals owning commercial, industrial and other economic establishments abroad, may engage in commercial operations on Soviet territory and open branches or offices for this purpose, only by special permission of the Foreign Trade Commissariat of the U.S.S.R. Transactions concluded by such foreign companies and individuals without the permission of the Foreign Trade Commissariatt are held invalid.

Foreign companies and individuals are not obliged to secure special permission from the Foreign Trade Commissariat in case their actions in the territory of the U.S.S.R. are limited solely to negotiating and concluding separate transactions with various All-Union foreign trade organizations and independent offices and do not have the character of regular commercial activity.

Foreign companies and individuals allowed to engage in commercial operations are subject to all laws of the U.S.S.R. and to ordinances of Government bodies and are liable for obligations connected with their activity in the U.S.S.R. with all their property no matter where it may be located.

State, cooperative, public and private institutions, enterprises and organizations as well as individuals are forbidden to enter into any commercial transactions with foreign companies and individuals which do not have special permission to engage in commercial operations in the territory of the U.S.S.R. The laws on foreign trade must be strictly observed in the conclusion of commercial transactions with foreign companies and individuals possessing such permission.

Persons employed in institutions, enterprises and organizations of the socialized sector may not act as representatives of any foreign organizations or individuals. Citizens not employed in the socialized sector are allowed to act as representatives for the transaction of commercial operations on behalf of those foreign companies and individuals who possess a special license of the Foreign Trade Commissariat.

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Relief for Earthquake Victims

EXTENSIVE aid has been organized throughout the Soviet Union for the stricken population of the districts of Transcaucasia, which suffered from the earthquake on April 27, when over fifty villages were destroyed and hundreds of human beings and thousands of cattle perished. About 80,000 people were reported to be without shelter, before relief arrived. The main shock of the earthquake was in Nakhichevan, a tiny autonomous republic in the Mt. Ararat section with a mixed Tartar and Armenian population. Nakhichevan is a part of the Azerbaijan S.S.R. though surrounded by Armenia. Zanzegur and

other sections of Armenia also suffered extensive damage. The main occupations of the 105,900 inhabitants of Nakhichevan are farming and cattle breeding, and this district is also known for its salt mines.

On receipt of the news of the earthquake the central Government of the U.S.S.R. appropriated over a million dollars for relief. Large sums were also voted by the other constituent republics as well as the Leningrad and Moscow Soviets and by other State and economic organizations, including "Kolhozcenter," which contributed $500,000 especially for the aid of the collective farms.

In addition to mobilizing the resources of the Red Cross and the Crescent (Mohammedan Red Cross) societies, a campaign has been carried on among the members of the general population for help in funds, food and clothing. The newspapers have opened subscription lists and the trade unions have assigned large sums. Thirty-seven medical and sanitary detachments, many carloads of food and clothing have been sent from various parts of the country.

Special commissions have been organized by the government for the restoration of the affected districts, including geologists, economists, agronoms, builders, hydrologists, surveyors and doctors. These commissions are surveying the region to determine the best places for building new villages, the best types of houses and so on.

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A Seismological Institute in the U.S.S.R.

A Scientific Research Seismological Institute has been opened in Leningrad.

During this year the institute will open seismic stations in Stalingrad, Erivan, Krasnodar and Grozny. An anti-seismic department is also being organized which will engage in investigation of most rational methods of building for the localities subjected to earthquake. Artificial grounds are now under construction which by means of a special vacillating machine will be subjected to various shocks similar to those which take place in nature. Various buildings will be tested on these grounds, as well as the materials of which the buildings most suitable for the localities subjected to earthquake will be constructed.

In connection with the earthquake in Nakhichevan and Zangezur, a special commission attached to the institute has been set up which will study the results of this catastrophe. For this purpose a special technical group has been sent to the district. During the summer a scientific exploration seismological expedition will work in the Caucasus.

An international conference devoted to the opening of the institute will be convened on August 26th. Scientists of Germany, France, Holland, and other countries are to attend this conference.

■

The U.S.S.R. in Figures

According to latest data compiled by the Statistical Department of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., the area of the Soviet Union is 8,199,258 square miles (21,236,100 square kilometers).

At January 1st, 1931, the population of the U.S.S.R. was 161,006,200. Out of this number 110,932,500 live in the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia Proper), 31,403,200 in the Ukrainian Republic, 5,246,400 in the White Russian Republic, 6,426,700 in the Transcaucasian Federated Republic, 4,685,400 in the Uzbekistan Republic, 1,137,900 in the Turkoman Republic, and 1,174,000 in the Tadjikistan Republic.

There are in the U.S.S.R., 698 towns, including 135 towns which represent independent administrative and economic units, 490 workers' settlements and 69,846 village soviets.

In addition to the three republics in the Transcaucasian Federation, there are in the U.S.S.R., fifteen autonomous Republics, 18 autonomous oblasts, 14 oblasts and krais (regions), 15 okrugs (of which ten are administered by national minority groups), 2,697 rayons (townships).

■

Successful Results of Ionization Experiments

Professor Chizhevsky has recently carried on successful experiments with regard to the ionization of the air breathed by poultry and livestock, which have resulted in increased growth of the animals under experimentation. The People's Commissariat of Agriculture has investigated and endorsed his work, and as a result the Council of People's Commissars has issued a decree providing for the use of ionization in the Sovhozes of the Poultry Trust, the Dairy Trust and the "Svinovod," under the direction of Professor Chizhevsky.

In addition Prof. Chizhevsky has received a premium of ten thousand rubles (over $5,000) for his discovery.

■

State Farms

There are now 4,015 State farms in operation throughout the U.S.S.R., covering an area of 45,400,000 hectares. Of these 2,310 are in the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper), 203 in White Russia, 84 in Central Asia, 1810 in the Ukraine and 108 in Transcaucasia. The Land Fund Administration has set aside 78,871,000 hectares more for the development of new sovhozes. A large portion of this land, never before used, will be put into operation in 1931.

Combine "Soilbreaker"—A New Soviet Invention

A new type of combine, known as the "soilbreaker," which plows, harrows and sows in one process, has been designed at the Leningrad Institute for the Mechanization of Agriculture under the direction of Engineer Gank. The idea of the machine was developed by the Inventor Pavlov. Leading soil scientists who have investigated the model of the new machine have pronounced it to be entirely feasible, and an experimental machine is now being manufactured at the Leningrad machine construction plant.

■

Arctic Air Lines

The Soviet civil aviation administration has fitted out an expedition to the Arctic Ocean, headed by the well known Arctic flyer, Slepnev, for the purpose of organizing new airlines on the Arctic Coast.

The expedition will travel from Moscow to Yakutsk via Irkutsk and thence by motor boats to the northernmost point in the U.S.S.R., the town of Gulun.

The expedition will spend about two years in the north.

■

Academy of Art Science Organized

An Academy of Art Science with separate departments devoted to each branch of art is to be organized to replace the separate Institutes of the Arts which have heretofore existed—the Institute of Archeology and Art Science, the Institute of Literature and Language, the Institute of Musical Science, the Moscow State Academy of Art Science and the Leningrad Art Institute. In addition to the State Academy of Arts a State Scientific Research Language Institute is also being established.

■

International Press Exhibit

An International press exhibition displaying exhibits of the world periodical press of 228 countries, in 161 different languages is now being held in Tiflis. Forty-four per cent of all the languages in which the press of the world is published fall to the share of the Soviet Union, where half of 182 different nationalities, speaking 149 different languages or dialects have their own native press. The exhibition will be displayed in several large towns in the U.S.S.R., and abroad after it closes in Tiflis.

■

Daylight Movies

The Soviet inventor, Bogach, has invented an appliance which when attached to a cinema apparatus or projection lamp makes it possible to show ordinary films on a screen in broad daylight with the same clarity as in absolute darkness.

A special commission, including representatives of scientific institutions, the motion picture industry and the press have tested the new invention and found it satisfactory.

■

New Pushkin Manuscripts Discovered

Eight original Pushkin manuscripts, four of which have never been published, were discovered in Ulianovsk, in the apartment of the writer, V. M. Nazarev, a friend of Annenkov, the well known critic of the last century.

■

Foreign Language Experimental Theater

After a year and a half of preliminary work a group of theatrical and literary people in Moscow have organized the "Moscow Foreign Language Experimental Theater." The theater will give performances in English, French and German. The casts will be made up from actors and actresses of the regular theaters who know these languages. The new theater will serve the double purpose of providing entertainment for foreign workers and specialists in Moscow, and instruction for the many Russian workers who are interested in learning other languages.

■

Social Insurance in the U.S.S.R.

During the 15 months ending January 1, 1931, the Social Insurance Department paid out the sum of 2,119,100,000 rubles (over a billion dollars), including 459,200,000 rubles for temporary disability, 386,100,000 rubles for pensions to aged and orphans, and 429,100,000 rubles for free medical aid to workers and employees. Smaller sums were expended on maternity allowances and unemployment benefits, the latter ceasing completely during the last quarter of 1930, when unemployment was totally eliminated.

In the course of 1930 the Social Insurance Department maintained 661,270 workers and employees in rest homes, 78,500 in sanatoria and 19,500 in health resorts.

In addition the Social Insurance Department invested 225,100,000 rubles in workers' housing schemes and 66,100,000 rubles in schools for training skilled labor.

■

Administrative Appointments

On May 5th, Nikolay Krylenko, former chief prosecutor of the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper), was appointed People's Commissar of Justice of the R.S.F.S.R. On May 11th, Andrey Vyshinsky was appointed Chief Prosecutor in his place.

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Stalin on New Economic Problems

A speech made by Joseph Stalin before a conference of industrial managers held in Moscow June 23, translated from the Moscow "Izvestia" of July 5.

FROM the materials presented at this conference it is apparent that from the point of view of fulfillment of the plan our industry presents a motley picture. There are branches of industry which during the past five months showed an increase in production of 40 to 50 per cent as compared with last year. There are other branches which showed an increase not exceeding 20 or 30 per cent. Finally, there are separate branches of industry which showed a minimum increase, somewhere from 6 to 10 per cent and even less. Coal and metal industries are among the latter. The picture is varied, as you see.

How are these variations to be explained? Wherein is the cause of the lagging of some branches of industry? What causes some branches of industry to show an increase of only 20 or 25 per cent and the coal and metallurgical industry to show an even smaller increase, trailing along after the other branches of industry?

The cause for this lies in the fact that recently the conditions of industrial development have changed radically. A new situation has been created which demands new methods of leadership and some of our industrial directors, instead of changing their methods of work, are still continuing to work as of old. The trouble, then, lies in the fact that new conditions of industrial development demand new methods of work. Yet some of our industrial directors do not understand this and do not see that it is necessary to apply new leadership. That is the reason for the lagging behind of some branches of our industry.

What are these new conditions of industrial development? Where do they come from?

There are at least six of these. Let us look into them.

1. Labor Power

We must speak first of all about providing sufficient labor power for industrial enterprises. Formerly, the workers usually went to the factories themselves. There was a certain natural flow in this respect. This natural flow was the

result of the fact that there was unemployment, there was stratification in the village, there was poverty, there was the fear of hunger, which drove people from the village to the city. Do you remember the formula: "The flight of the peasant from the village to the city"? What was it that forced the peasant to run from the village to the city? The fear of hunger, unemployment, the fact that the village was a stepmother to him and he was ready to run away from her even to the "devil's horns" just in order to get any kind of work.

This was the situation not so long ago.

Can it be said that at present we have a similar picture? No, that cannot be said. On the contrary, the situation is now changed radically, and precisely because the situation has changed we no longer have the natural flow of labor power. What is it that has changed during this time? First, we have liquidated unemployment. Hence, we have destroyed the force which exerted pressure upon the "labor market." Secondly, we have undermined at the root the stratification of the village, which means that we have overcome that very mass poverty which drove the peasant from the village to the city. Finally, we have supplied the village with tens of thousands of tractors and agricultural machines, we have done away with the kulak, we have organized collective farms and given the peasants the possibility of living and working as human beings. At the present time the village can no longer be called the peasants' stepmother, and just because it can no longer be called a stepmother the peasant has begun to stay in the village and we no longer have the "flight of the peasant from the village" or the natural flow of labor.

From this it follows that from a policy of natural flow it is necessary to change to a policy of organized selection of workers for industry. But for this there is only one method, the method of contracts between industrial establishments and collective farms and their members. You know that this method has already been adopted by some industrial enterprises and collective farms, and experience has shown that the practice of contracting has proved successful for the collective farms as well as for the industrial enterprises.

It follows, secondly, that it is necessary to go over immediately to mechanization of the most difficult labor processes, developing this mechanization in all branches—in the lumber industry, the construction industry, the coal industry, loading and unloading, transport, metallurgy, etc. This does not mean, of course, that it is necessary to do away with manual labor. On the contrary, manual labor will play a most important part in industry for a long time to come. But it does mean that the mechanization of labor processes serves for us as the new and decisive force without which it is impossible to continue our new rate or scale of production.

We still have not a few industrial directors who "do not believe" in mechanization or in contracts with collective farms. They are those same industrial directors who do not understand the new situation, do not want to work in the new way, and sigh for the "good old days" when labor "came of itself" to the enterprises. It is needless to say that such industrial directors are as far as the sky from the earth from those new problems of industrial development which we have to face in this new situation. They apparently think that the difficulties with labor power are an accidental phenomenon, that the shortage of labor power will disappear by itself as a result, so to speak, of the natural flow of events. This is an error, comrades.

The difficulties in regard to labor power cannot disappear by themselves. They can disappear only as a result of our own efforts.

Thus, the task is to organize the securing of labor in an organized way, by means of contracts with collective farms and by means of mechanizing labor processes.

This is how the question stands with regard to the first new condition in the development of our industry. Let us go on to the second condition.

2. Wages

I have just spoken of the necessity for securing workers for our industrial enterprises in an organized way. But to secure workers is not the whole problem. In order to provide our enterprises with labor power it is necessary to attach the workers to the enterprises and to create a more or less permanent staff for each enterprise. It is hardly necessary to prove that without a permanent staff of workers who have to some extent mastered the technique of production and have become accustomed to the new machines it is impossible to make progress. Without a permanent staff it would be necessary each time to begin anew the training of workers and thus waste much valuable time which could otherwise be used for production.

What is the actual situation now? Can it be said that the staff of workers of industrial enterprises is more or less permanent? No, unfortunately, we cannot say that. On the contrary, we still have the so-called shifting of labor in our enterprises. More than that, in a number of enterprises the labor turnover is not only not disappearing but, on the contrary, is growing and increasing. At any rate, you will find very few enterprises where the labor personnel has not changed during the half year or quarter at least 30 or 40 per cent.

Formerly, during the period of restoration of our industry, when technical equipment was not complex, and the scale of production not very

great, it was possible somehow to "tolerate" the so-called shifting of labor. Now it is another matter. The situation has radically changed. At present, in the period of extensive construction, when the scale of production has become gigantic and the technical equipment extremely complex—this shifting of labor has become the foe of production, disorganizing our enterprises. To tolerate at this time the huge labor turnover would undermine our industry, wreck the production plans, and prevent improvement in the quality of production.

Wherein lies the cause of this labor turnover?

In the incorrect organization of wages, in an incorrect wage-scale system, in a "leftist" equalization of wages. In a number of enterprises our wage scales are so arranged that the difference between skilled and unskilled labor, between hard and easy labor has practically disappeared. The result of equalizing wages is that the unskilled worker shows no interest in becoming skilled, and is thus deprived of prospects of promotion. Hence, he considers himself merely a visitor at the factory, who is working just long enough to "save up" a little and then go to some other place "in search of luck." This equalization of wages leads the skilled worker to travel from enterprise to enterprise in order to find finally a place where skilled labor is properly valued.

Hence the "universal" shifting from enterprise to enterprise, the high turnover of labor.

In order to do away with this evil it is necessary to abolish equality of wages and the old wage scales. In order to do away with this evil it is necessary to organize a system of wage scales which would take into account the difference between skilled labor and unskilled labor, between hard labor and easy labor. We cannot tolerate a situation where the skilled metal worker should receive the same wages as the floor sweeper. We cannot tolerate a situation where a locomotive engineer should get only the same wages as a copyist. Marx and Lenin say that the difference between skilled labor and unskilled labor will exist even under socialism, even after the destruction of classes, that only under communism must this difference disappear, hence that wages even under socialism must be paid according to work performed and not according to need. But our "equalizers" among the industrial directors and trade unionists do not agree with this and assume that this difference has already disappeared under our Soviet system. Who is right, Marx and Lenin or the "equalizers?" We must suppose that in this Marx and Lenin are right. But this means then that the people who are building up the wage system on the "principle" of equalization without taking into account the difference between skilled and unskilled labor are breaking with Marxism, are breaking with Leninism.

In every branch of industry, in every enterprise, in every shop, there are leading groups of more or less skilled laborers who must be attached to the industry if we really want to insure a permanent staff of workers for the enterprises. They, these leading groups of workers, make up the basic link of the industry. To attach them to an enterprise, to a department, means to stabilize the entire staff of workers. It also means to strike at the root of the labor turnover. But how can they be attached to the enterprises? This can be done only by promoting them, by increasing their wages, by establishing wage scales which would properly compensate the skill of the worker. And what does it mean to promote these workers and to raise their wage level? It means, in addition to everything else, opening up prospects of promotion to the unskilled workers and the creation of an incentive for advancing into the ranks of skilled labor.

You are well aware that we are in need of hundreds of thousands, even millions, of skilled workers. But in order to create skilled workers it is necessary to provide incentives and opportunities for the untrained workers to move upward. And the more boldly we strike out on this course the better, because this is the chief way of halting the shift of labor. To economize in this respect is criminal, is contrary to the interests of our socialist industry.

But this is not all.

In order to keep workers from shifting about still further improvements in the commodity supply and living conditions must be made. It cannot be denied that not a little has been done during the past year in housing and supplies. But what has been done is entirely insufficient for the growing requirements of the workers. We cannot content ourselves by saying that formerly housing facilities were worse than they are now and that therefore we can get on with what has been done. We cannot say that formerly the matter of supplies was still worse than it is now, and therefore we should be satisfied with the present situation. To look to the past for solace is the mark of a decadent and extinguished people.

We must not judge by the past but by the growing requirements of our workers at the present time. It must be understood that the conditions of the workers have radically changed. The worker of today is not the same as the worker of the past. The worker of today, our Soviet worker, wishes to live so that all his material and cultural needs are taken care of, in the sense of food supply, living quarters, and other needs. That is his right, and it is our duty to guarantee these conditions to him. It is true he does not suffer in our country from unemployment, he is free from the yoke of capitalism, he is no longer a slave but the master of his work. But this is not enough. He demands the fulfillment of his material and cultural needs and we are obligated to fulfill this demand of his. Do not forget that we ourselves are making demands

of the workers—we are demanding labor discipline, intensive effort, competition, shock work. Do not forget that the great majority of the workers have accepted these requirements of the Soviet Government with great enthusiasm and are carrying them out heroically. Do not be surprised then, that while carrying out the requirements of the Soviet Government, the workers should in their turn demand that the government fulfill its obligations to improve further the material and cultural situation of the workers.

And so the problem is to stop the labor turnover and to do away with equalization of wages, to organize wage scales correctly, to improve the living conditions of the worker. Such is the situation with regard to the second new condition in the development of our industry. And so now I shall take up the third condition.

3. Organization of Labor

I have just spoken of the necessity for liquidating the labor turnover and attaching the worker to the enterprise. But to attach the worker to the enterprise does not settle the whole problem. It is not enough to do away with the labor turnover. It is further necessary to provide such working conditions as will make it possible for him to perform his work to the best advantage, to increase his productivity, to improve the quality of production. It is therefore necessary to organize work in our industrial enterprises in such a manner that productivity should rise from month to month, from quarter to quarter.

Can it be said that the existing organization of work in our industrial establishments meets the present demands of production? Unfortunately, this cannot be said. At any rate, we still have a number of enterprises where the organization of work is very poor; where instead of order and correlation of work we have disorder and confusion; where instead of individual responsibility for work and equipment there is a complete reign of irresponsibility.

How is this irresponsibility manifested? In the lack of responsibility for fulfilling a task assigned, the lack of responsibility in caring for machines, lathes, and instruments. It is understandable that under such conditions there can be no talk of any considerable increase in the productivity of labor, of improvement in the quality of production, of a careful attitude towards machinery and tools. You know what this irresponsibility did on the railroads. It has led to similar results in industry. We did away with this lack of responsibility in transport and have improved the work of the railroads. We must do the same in industry in order to lift it to a higher level.

Formerly it was still somehow possible to tolerate this poor organization of work accompanied by this lack of responsibility of each person for a given, concrete task. Now it is different. The situation has changed completely. Under the present grandiose scale of production, with the new gigantic industrial enterprises, irresponsibility has become a foe of industry, endangering all our production and organizational achievements in industrial enterprises.

How was it possible for this irresponsibility to establish itself in a number of enterprises? It crept into our enterprises as an illegitimate companion of the continuous work week. It would, however, be incorrect to say that the continuous working week inevitably leads to irresponsibility in production. Given a proper system of labor organization, individual responsibility for certain work, given a system of making definite groups of workers responsible for the care of their machinery and tools, and given a correct organization of the different shifts, matching them carefully as to quality of work and skill—and under such conditions the continuous working week would result in a great increase in the productivity of labor, an improvement in the quality of work and the eradication of irresponsibility. This is the situation now on the railroads where the continuous working week is in force, but irresponsibility has been done away with. Can we say that such a favorable picture of the continuous working week exists in our industrial enterprises? Unfortunately, this cannot be said. The point is that many of our enterprises went over to continuous production too hastily, without preparing the necessary conditions, without properly organizing the shifts, so that they should compare more or less favorably in skill, without establishing the responsibility of each worker for a given task. As a result of this the continuous work week, left to take its natural course, has led to irresponsibility. As a result we have in a number of enterprises a continuous work week existing only in words or on paper, and irresponsibility existing not on paper, but in reality.

As a result we have the lack of any sense of responsibility for work, careless handling of machines, mass breakage, and the absence of an incentive to increase the productivity of labor. It is no wonder that the workers say "We would increase the productivity of labor and would improve the situation but who would give us credit if no one is responsible for anything?"

It follows from this that some of our comrades have been in too great a hurry in some places in introducing the continuous work week, and in their haste have perverted the continuous work week by transforming it into a reign of irresponsibility.

There are two ways of correcting this situation. Either we must change the method of applying the continuous work week so that it will not be distorted, just as was done with regard to transport; or, where conditions are not conducive to such an experiment, to throw out entirely the

"paper" continuous work week, and adopt temporarily a six day week with one rest day, as was done recently in the Stalingrad tractor plant, and then prepare the ground for returning later to a real continuous work week, to a continuous work week without irresponsibility. There are no other solutions.

There can be no doubt that our industrial directors understand all this very well. Yet they keep quiet. Why? Apparently because they are afraid of the truth. But since when have bolsheviks begun to fear the truth? Is it not true that in a number of shops the continuous work week has brought with it irresponsibility, that the continuous work week has been perverted to the highest degree? The question is who needs such a continuous work week? Who would be prepared to place the interests of maintaining this continuous work week, perverted or on paper, above the interests of a proper organization of labor, above the interests of increased productivity of labor, of a real continuous work week, of our socialized industry? Is it not clear that the quicker we bury this continuous work week on paper, the sooner we will attain the organization of a real continuous work week.

Some comrades think that they can get rid of this irresponsibility by exorcising it, by high-sounding speeches. I know, for instance, a number of industrial directors who, in their struggles against irresponsibility, confine themselves to making speeches at meetings in which they curse this irresponsibility, assuming apparently that after such speeches irresponsibility will disappear of its own accord, so to say. They are gravely mistaken when they think that irresponsibility can be driven out of existence by speeches and curses. No, comrades, irresponsibility will never disappear by itself. It can and must be destroyed only by our own efforts, because we all are at the wheel of power and are responsible for everything, including irresponsibility. I think that it would be far better if our industrial managers, instead of devoting their time to speeches and curses, would settle down for a month or two, let us say in a mine or factory, study all the details and "trifles" in the organization of work, do away with irresponsibility right there on the spot and then spread the experience of their enterprise to other factories. That would be much better. That would be a real struggle against irresponsibility, a struggle for correct bolshevist organization of labor, a struggle for a correct distribution of forces in industrial enterprises.

Thus, our problem is to liquidate irresponsibility, improve organization of work and properly distribute forces in our enterprises. Such is the problem of the third new condition in our industrial development.

Let us now take up the fourth.

4. Problem of a Working-Class Industrial and Technical Intelligentsia

The situation has also changed with reference to the managerial staff of industry in general and with relation to the engineering and technical personnel in particular.

Formerly the situation was such that the Ukrainian coal and metallurgical region served as the major base for all our industry. The Ukraine supplied metal to all our industrial regions, in the south as well as in Moscow and Leningrad. It also supplied coal to all the important industrial plants throughout the U.S.S.R. I do not include here the Ural region because in comparison with the Donbas the Ural industrial region was only an insignificant factor. Corresponding to this we had three major centers which produced the managerial personnel for industry—the south, the Moscow region, and the Leningrad region. Naturally in this situation we could manage somehow to get along with the minimum of technical and engineering personnel which our country had at that time. Such was the situation not so long ago.

But today we have an altogether different situation. It is clear today, I think, that while maintaining the present rate of development and gigantic scale of production we are no longer able to manage with the Ukrainian metallurgical and coal base alone. You know that the Ukrainian coal and metals are not sufficient for our needs in spite of the increase in their production. You know that in view of this we are forced to create a new coal and metallurgical base in the east, namely the Ural-Kuzbas base. You know that we are creating this base not without success. But this is not sufficient. We must create more metallurgical bases in Siberia itself in order to satisfy its own growing demands and we are already creating such new bases. We must also build up a new base of non-ferrous metals in Kazakstan and Turkestan. Finally, we must develop an extensive system of railroad construction. All of this is dictated by the interests of the U.S.S.R. as a whole—by the interests of the outlying republics as well as by the interests of the central regions.

But this means that we can no longer get along with that minimum of engineering, technical and managerial personnel in industry which sufficed hitherto. This means that the old centers which gave us the engineering and technical personnel are no longer sufficient and that it is necessary to create a network of new centers—in the Urals, in Siberia, in Central Asia. We must provide our industry with a technical, engineering and managerial personnel that is three times, five times, greater than before, if we really intend to fulfill the program of socialist industrialization of the U.S.S.R. But we do not need just any kind of engineers and technicians. We need

industrial leaders, engineers and technicians capable of understanding the policy of the working class of our country, capable of making this policy their own and ready to carry it into reality.

What does this mean? This means that our country has entered that phase of its development when the working class must create for itself its own industrial and technical intelligentsia, able to defend its interests in industry as the interests of the ruling class.

No ruling class has managed to get along without its own intelligentsia. There are no reasons for doubting that neither can the working class of the U.S.S.R. get along without its own industrial and technical intelligentsia. The Soviet Government has taken this point into consideration and has opened the doors of its institutions of higher learning along all lines of national economy for members of the working class. You know that tens of thousands of workers and peasant youth are studying at the present time in our institutions of higher learning. Formerly, under capitalism, the institutions of higher learning were monopolized by the aristocracy, but today under the Soviet régime the worker and peasant youth comprise the leading element in these institutions. There is no doubt that we will soon get from our higher institutions of learning thousands of new technicians and engineers, new directors for our industry.

But that is only one side of it. The other side is that the engineering and technical intelligentsia of the working class will be formed not only from people who have gone through the higher schools —they will also be recruited from the practical workers of our enterprises, from the skilled workers, from the cultural forces of the working class at the factory, the shop, and the mine. The initiators of socialist competition, the leaders of the "shock brigades," the practical men who have inspired the mass of workers to do their best, the men who organized the work in various construction fields, this is the new section of the working class which, together with those who have gone through the higher schools, must comprise the kernel of the working class intelligentsia, the kernel of the managerial personnel for our industry. The problem should be not to discourage these comrades who have shown initiative, but to be quick in advancing them to managerial positions, to give them the opportunity to demonstrate their organizational ability, to make it possible for them to increase their knowledge and create for them the necessary conditions, and not to stint funds for these purposes.

Among these comrades there are quite a few non-party members. But this should not serve as a barrier to their quick promotion to leading positions. On the contrary, these very non-party comrades should be surrounded with particular attention. They should be promoted to managerial positions so that they may become convinced that the party knows how to value capable and talented workers. Some comrades think that only party comrades should be advanced to the leading positions in factories and mills. On the basis of this they very often shove aside capable non-party comrades with initiative and promote party members to the leading posts although the latter are less capable and show less initiative. Needless to say, nothing could be more foolish and reactionary than such a 'policy.' It is hardly necessary to prove that such a 'policy' only discredits the party and turns non-party workers from the party. Our policy is not to transform the party into a closed caste. Our policy is to see to it that an atmosphere of mutual trust, an atmosphere of mutual "checking up" (Lenin), should exist between party and non-party members. It is due precisely to this policy that the party is so strong among the working class.

To attain a situation wherein the working class of the U.S.S.R. will have its own industrial and technical intelligentsia, that is our task.

5. Signs of Change among the Old Engineers and Technical Intelligentsia

There is also a new situation with regard to our attitude toward the old bourgeois engineers and technical intelligentsia.

Two years ago the situation with us was such that the most skilled section of the old technical intelligentsia was infected with the disease of damaging. Furthermore damaging became at the time a sort of fashion. One took part in damaging activities, another protected the damagers, still another washed his hands of the matter and remained neutral, a fourth wavered between the Soviet government and the damagers. To be sure the majority of the old technical intelligentsia continued to work more or less loyally. But we are speaking here not of the majority, but of the more skilled section of the technical intelligentsia.

How was this damaging movement created? What did it feed on? The sharpening of the class struggle within the U.S.S.R., the aggressive policy of the Soviet government with regard to capitalist elements in the city and village, the opposition of the latter to the policy of the Soviet government, the complexity of the international situation, the difficulties of collective and sovhoz (State farm) construction. If the activity of the fighting section of the damagers was strengthened by the interventionist designs of the imperialist capitalist countries and the grain difficulties within the country, then the wavering of the other section of the old technical intelligentsia toward the side of the active damagers was strengthened by the talk which became the fashion among the Trotskyist-Menshevist babblers to the effect that "all the same nothing will come of the collectives and State farms," "all the same the

Soviet government has degenerated and will soon fall," "the bolsheviks by their own policy have themselves encouraged intervention," etc., etc. In addition to this, if even some of the old bolsheviks from among those of the right deviation could not resist "the contagion" and swung away from the party during that period, then there is certainly no reason to be surprised, if a certain part of the old technical intelligentsia who never smelled of bolshevism, also wavered.

It is easy to understand that under such a condition of affairs there was only one policy possible for the Soviet government with regard to the old technical intelligentsia, a policy of eliminating the active damagers, isolating the neutral and attracting the loyal.

So it was two years ago. Can it be said that we have such a situation now? No, that can not be said. * * *

It is understandable that the new circumstances could not remain without effect on our old technical intelligentsia. The new conditions could not but create and actually have created a new mood among our old intelligentsia. This also is the explanation of the fact that we have definite signs of change in a certain section of the intelligentsia formerly sympathizing with the damaging activities against the Soviet Government. The fact that not only this section of the old intelligentsia, but even a definite, a considerable section of the actual damagers of yesterday have started to work in a number of shops and factories side by side with the working class—this attests incontrovertibly the fact that the change has already commenced among the old technical intelligentsia. This does not mean, of course, that there are no more damagers. No, it does not mean that. There are and will be damagers as long as we still have classes, as long as capitalism still exists. But it means that insofar as considerable sections of the old technical intelligentsia who in one way or another smypathized formerly with the damagers, have now turned toward the Soviet Government—the remaining active damagers are few in number and isolated, and will soon have to disappear.

It follows from this that we must change our policy with regard to the old technical intelligentsia accordingly.

During the height of the damaging activities our attitude toward the old technical intelligentsia was expressed mainly in a policy of suppression. But now, when this intelligentsia is turning toward the Soviet Government, our attitude toward them must be expressed mainly in a policy of attracting them to us and concern for them. It would be incorrect to continue our old policy under the new and changing conditions. It would be stupid and senseless if we were now to look upon practically every socialist and engineer of the old school as if he were a potential criminal or damager. "Specialist baiting" has always been considered a harmful and shameful manifestation, and so continues.

And so—to change our attitude toward the engineers and technicians of the old school—to give them more attention and concern, to attract them more vigorously to work—such is our task.

This is the situation as regards the five new conditions of the development of our industry.

Let us pass now to the question of the last condition.

6. Hozraschet—Economic Accounting

The picture would be incomplete if I did not touch upon still another new condition. I will speak now of the sources of accumulation for industry, for our national economy, and of increasing the rate of this accumulation.

In what does the new and special condition in the development of our industry with regard to the accumulation of funds, consist? In that the old sources of accumulation have begun to be insufficient for the further expansion of industry. In that it is necessary to search out new sources of accumulation and to strengthen the old ones if we really wish to preserve and develop a bolshevist tempo of industrialization. * * *

We have not only restored industry, we have not only restored agriculture and transport, but we have already succeeded in getting under way a gigantic new construction of heavy industry, agriculture and transport. It is understandable that in doing this we have had to spend tens of billions of rubles. Where did these billions come from? From light industry, from agriculture, from budgetary receipts. That is how this matter was managed until recently.

The situation is quite different now. Formerly the old sources of accumulation sufficed for the reconstruction of industry and transport but now they are beginning to be clearly insufficient. It is now a question not just of rebuilding old industry. It is a question of building a new technically equipped industry in the Urals, in Siberia, in Kazakstan. It is a question of building up new large-scale agricultural production in the grain, livestock and raw material regions of the U.S.S.R. It is clear that the old sources of accumulation can not suffice for such a colossal task.

But this is not all. To this must be added the circumstance that due to the disorganized manner of conducting business, the principle of economic accounting has been entirely distorted in many of our enterprises and economic organizations. It is a fact that in a number of enterprises and economic organizations they have long since stopped estimating, calculating, drawing up balance sheets of income and expenditure. It is a fact that in a number of enterprises and economic organizations the concepts: "régime of economy," "reduction of unproductive expenditures," "rationalization of production," have long since passed out of fashion. Obviously they counted on

the fact that Gosbank "will give us the necessary sums in any case." It is a fact that recently costs have increased in a large number of enterprises. They have been given the task of lowering costs by ten per cent or more and instead they raise costs. And what does lowering of costs mean? You are aware that each per cent of decrease in costs means accumulating within the industry from 150 to 200 million rubles. It is clear that to increase costs under these conditions means loss of hundreds of millions of rubles for industry and the whole economic structure.

From all this it follows that we can no longer depend on light industry, budgetary receipts and the income from agriculture alone. Light industry represents the richest source of funds and has now every chance for further development, but this source is not inexhaustible. Agriculture represents no less rich a source of accumulation, but is itself in need of financial help from the government at this time, during its period of reconstruction. As regards budgetary receipts you are well aware that they cannot and must not be limitless. What then remains? Only heavy industry. Therefore we must see to it that while strengthening and developing the old sources, heavy industry and, first of all, its machine-building section, also furnish funds.

That is the course we must take.

And what is required for this? The elimination of mismanagement, the mobilization of the internal resources of industry, the introduction and strengthening of economic accounting in all our enterprises, the systematic reduction of costs, the strengthening of internal accumulation in all branches of industry, without any exception.

And so, to apply and strengthen economic accounting and to increase accumulation within our industry—that is the problem.

7. New Methods of Work and Management

Such, comrades, are the new conditions for the development of our industry.

The significance of these conditions consists in the fact that they are creating a new situation for industry, requiring new methods of work and of management. Therefore:

a. We can no longer count in the old way on a surplus of labor. In order to guarantee a sufficient labor supply for industry we must accumulate labor power in an organized way; we must mechanize labor processes. To think that mechanization can be avoided under our tempo of work or scale of production is to believe that the ocean might be emptied with a spoon.

b. The present turnover of labor in industry can no longer be tolerated. In order to avoid this evil we must reorganize our system of wages and create a more or less permanent staff of workers for each enterprise.

c. Lack of responsibility in production must come to an end. A new organization of labor is needed to achieve this, a realignment of our forces so that each group of workers shall answer for their own work, for the condition of their own machine or workbench, for the quality of their work.

d. We can no longer depend entirely on that modicum of old engineering and technical strength which we inherited from bourgeois Russia. In order to increase the present tempo and speed of production, the working class must have its own engineering and technical intelligentsia.

e. No longer can all the specialists, engineers and technicians of the old school be piled up together in a single heap. In consideration of changing conditions we must change our policy and show the greatest possible concern for those engineers and technicians who have definitely turned to the side of the working class.

f. We can no longer depend on the old sources of accumulation. To guarantee the further development of industry and agriculture we must make available new sources of funds, get rid of mismanagement, apply the system of economic accounting, lower costs and increase internal accumulation.

Such are the new conditions for the development of industry, demanding new methods of work, new methods of managing economic construction.

What is required in order to reorganize our system of management?

For this it is essential, first of all, that our economic leaders should understand the new situation, should study concretely the new conditions for the development of industry and reconstruct their work accordingly.

For this it is essential further that our directors should manage their enterprises not 'in general,' not 'in the air,' but concretely, practically, that they should approach each question not from the point of view of generalities, but in a strictly businesslike manner, that they should not limit themselves to paper pronouncements or general phrases and slogans, but enter into the technical aspects of the matter, go into details—because only out of small things can great things be built.

For this it is essential that our present unwieldy industrial combinations, sometimes including from 100 to 200 enterprises, should be broken up at once into several smaller combinations. Obviously, the head of such a combination, having to do with a hundred or more factories, cannot really know these factories, their possibilities and their work. Obviously, not knowing the factories, he is in no position to manage them. Therefore,

in order to make it possible for the heads of the industrial combinations to really study and direct the factories, they must be relieved of excess factories, the combinations must be broken up and the center brought nearer to the factories.

For this it is further essential that our industrial concerns should pass from collegium to individual management. As matters stand now, ten or fifteen people sit on the collegiums writing papers and carrying on discussions. To continue to manage industry in this way is not possible, comrades. It is time to put a stop to paper 'leadership' and get down to real businesslike bolshevist work. Let the chairman and a few assistants remain at the head of the combinations. This will be quite enough to manage the work. The best thing for the other members of the collegium would be to go down into the shops and factories. This would be more useful both for themselves and for the industry.

It is also essential for this that the chairman and his assistants should visit the factories more frequently and stay longer and become better acquainted with the factory workers, not only to teach the local people but to learn from them. To think that it is possible to manage industry by sitting in an office far from the factory is quite wrong. To direct a factory, more frequent and vital contact with the workers is necessary.

In conclusion, a few words on our economic plan for 1931. There are certain persons who declare our production program unfeasible, unrealizable. Can our production program be carried out? Unquestionably, yes! It can be realized because we have at hand all the necessary conditions for carrying it out. It is realizable because its fulfillment now depends entirely on ourselves, on our ability, and on our desire to make use of all our extraordinarily rich potentialities. How otherwise could the fact be explained that a considerable number of enterprises and branches of industry have already *surpassed* the plan? It would be silly to think that the production plan led merely to an enumeration of figures and tasks. In reality the production plan is made up of the living and practical activities of millions of people. In reality our production plan is—millions of workers creating a new life. The reality of our program is living people—it is you and I and all of us, our will to work, our readiness to adopt new methods, our determination to carry out the plan. Is there that determination among us? There is. Then our production program can and must be realizable.

Soviet Progress and Plans

The Central Committee of the Communist Party of the U.S.S.R. held a plenary session from June 11 to 15 in Moscow to hear reports and take action on the three matters considered by the party to be of utmost importance at the present time. These are, preparations for the harvest through proper labor organization and distributing the harvest to collective members not on an equal basis but according to work actually done, a complete overhauling of the railroads and vigorous measures to improve housing and living conditions throughout the country by extensive repairs and construction in all urban centers.

Mr. V. V. Kuibyshev, Chairman of Gosplan, reported on the discussion and resolutions on these matters at a meeting in Moscow on June 19th.

In opening his speech, Mr. Kuibyshev dealt briefly with the economic relations between the capitalist countries and the U.S.S.R.:

"The growth in production in the U.S.S.R. and the expansion of the Soviet market, providing increased opportunities for buying and selling, have resulted in new trade treaties with Germany and Italy and the granting of credits by these countries. The Italian delegation now visiting us will carry on negotiations regarding orders for equipment for our heavy industry and, on the other hand, the purchase from us of raw and semi-manufactured materials required by Italian industry. Negotiations are now going forward with France on the conclusion of a trade treaty and a non-aggression pact. These facts are very indicative, and although the danger of war and intervention against the U.S.S.R. is not dispelled, there is, nevertheless, a tendency on the part of the wiser sections of capitalist society toward strengthening economic relations with us with the aim of ameliorating the overproduction crisis."

Turning to the situation within the Soviet Union, Mr. Kuibyshev said that it was important first to note the successes in agriculture, and the fact that in attracting over half of all the poor and middle peasants into collectives the task set for the end of the year had already been achieved.

With regard to industry, Kuibyshev stated that in many branches the Five-Year Plan was being completed ahead of time.

"Some of the most important enterprises" he said "in the different branches of industry have fulfilled their five-year program in two and a half years. In many of the most important branches of industry an intense struggle is going on to complete the plan during the present year, and we have no reason to doubt that with sufficient will and persistence and proper organization they will succeed.

"The growth and strengthening of the material and technical basis of our national economy, the increase in the basic capital of industry and the mechanization of productive processes, the increase in engines and rolling stock on our railroads, the improvement in the commodity supply for the workers and collective farmers, the growth in the socialist form of labor (socialist competition and shock brigades)—all these are evidence that it is entirely possible to carry out the plan for the third and decisive year.

Program Exceeded in Some Branches

"In a number of branches of industry we have considerably exceeded the figures for the corresponding months of last year. Oil production exceeds the output of the same period a year ago by 28.4 per cent, machine construction by 25.1 per cent, automobile and tractor construction by 129 per cent, the clothing industry by more than 50 per cent, and so on."

But along with these successes Kuibyshev said there was in some branches a lag in industrial program. This was not, he said, due to any decrease in basic capital, which increased by 16 per cent from January 1, 1930, to January 1, 1931, but was mainly due to poor organization of labor and production and the inability of many Soviet economic organizations to adapt themselves to new conditions created by the rapid tempo of socialist construction. Another difficulty has been the shortage of labor due partly to the rapid expansion of industry and partly to the fact that the influx of peasants to industrial centers has ceased with the growth of collectivization. The tendency to equalize wages in certain sections has removed the incentive to acquiring higher skill and there has been a great increase in the number of young unskilled workers coming into industry. Another difficulty has arisen from the continuous working week which, while it has many advantages, has meant too many shifts of workers using the same tools and machinery, thus lowering the sense of individual responsibility.

Some of these difficulties, Kuibyshev said, were already being rectified, particularly through the introduction of *hozraschet* (economic accounting—see May issue of *Soviet Union Review*), or "control by the ruble," whereby credits are now issued to separate enterprises only on the basis of orders actually fulfilled. The resolution of the party session on this question calls for strict measures to overcome all these difficulties, and especially to insure a greater degree of individual responsibility.

Transport

Taking up problems of transport, Kuibyshev said that this was their most important economic "knot," since the whole industrial development, the opening up of important new districts and the proper distribution of the productive powers of the whole country are dependent on transport. He stated that more damaging elements had been operating on the railroads than in any other branch and that the spirit of the old bureaucratic apparatus was stronger there than anywhere else, which made necessary a special selection of railroad workers and a relatively greater degree of labor discipline than elsewhere. For this reason special measures have been taken attaching crews to special engines, and introducing a bonus system in the payment of wages which has already greatly improved the situation.

"In spite of the shortcomings," Kuibyshev continued "transport is still way ahead of pre-war. Freight carriage was over 80 per cent greater in 1930 than pre-war, and ton mileage 100 per cent greater, which makes us second only to America in this respect. In 1913 our freight carriage was four per cent of world freight carriage, and by 1931 its share in world freight had more than doubled. But our equipment, engines and rolling stock are far from adequate."

The decision of the party, he reported, called for most vigorous measures for the improvement of railroad equipment. It adopted a plan for the construction of more powerful engines, for the electrification of over two thousand miles of railways by 1932-33, the installation of a new system of signalling and of automatic brakes and couplings.

Spring Sowing and Harvest Campaign

Reporting the discussion and decisions on the agricultural situation, Kuibyshev said that according to the latest information from the Commissariat of Agriculture 53.7 per cent of all poor and middle peasants were collectivized. Collectivization has been completed in the chief grain growing regions, and almost completed in the other grain-growing regions and those specializing in technical crops. In the Ukrainian steppe land, the North Caucasus, the Lower and Middle Volga over 80 per cent of the peasants are in collectives, and over 90 per cent of the seeding has been done by collectives.

"The collectives," he continued, "which sowed 74,100,000 acres last year, sowed 1,482,000,000 acres this year, or twice as many, and the sovhozes have also doubled last year's area. Our country now has the most concentrated agricul-

ture in the world. The resolution of the Central Committee stated that in the spring of 1931 200,000 collectives, uniting thirteen million peasant households, sowed, together with 4,000 sovhozes, two-thirds of the entire spring sown area.

"The productivity of labor is as important in agriculture as in industry, and the proper organization of labor is of decisive importance to large-scale agriculture, and is particularly vital to the forthcoming harvest campaign. Detailed instructions are given in the committee's resolution on this question. The central problem here is that of providing material incentives for work. It is therefore necessary to wage the most drastic campaign for the distribution of the products of the collective not on an equal basis, but on the basis of actual labor. Last year's harvest campaign was conducted very poorly because of the attempt at equal distribution. The individual collective members were not interested in the amount of work they contributed, hoping to receive sufficient products from the general crop in the distribution per person. . . Payment on the basis of labor is an essential condition for the development of socialist agriculture. The resolution therefore emphasized the necessity for organizing all work without exception on the piece-work basis, and establishing the simplest form of reckoning, entirely understandable to each member, so that the number of working days credited to each member will be written in his labor book, taking into consideration not only the amount of work but the quality. The sovhozes must be models in the application of the piece-work system, serving as examples to the collectives. The necessity of making the workers definitely responsible for the care of the tractors, horses or machinery used by them was also stressed. A very extensive program of work for the machine and tractor stations was outlined.

Municipal Reconstruction

Kuibyshev then outlined plans to make of Moscow an up-to-date and modern city, and plans for municipal development all over the Soviet Union. He brought out the fact that heretofore municipal problems had been considered of more or less secondary importance as compared with the tremendous tasks of reconstructing industry and agriculture, but that it is now planned to give them increased attention. The plenary session in its resolution stressed the fact that in spite of all that had been done in community development, the growing requirements of the masses were far from being satisfied, and that it was therefore necessary to undertake a huge program of construction.

One of the most striking aspects of the program is its emphasis on the necessity of avoiding over-concentration in the new municipal developments. The city of the future as envisaged by Soviet officials is to combine the elements of town and country. This idea is set forth in the resolution on this subject as follows:

"Considering that the further development of industrial construction of the country must follow the line of creating new industrial centers in peasant regions, and thereby approach our final goal of eliminating the differences between city and country, the plenary session of the central committee considers it inexpedient to pile up a great number of industrial enterprises in the big urban centers, and proposes that in the future new industrial enterprises should not be built in these cities, and that in particular none should be built in Moscow and Leningrad beginning with 1932."

New Housing

The resolution then outlined the achievements in the field of municipal economy. During the past few years about $1,800,000,000 has been spent on new housing, over half of this during 1931. Over a million workers' families have been housed in new quarters, and over 600,000 more will be housed this year. Such cities as Baku, Grozny, Stalingrad, Novosibirsk, Nijni-Novgorod and others have been entirely reconstructed and many new towns and cities have been built.

In Moscow alone 5,000 new houses have been put up in the past five years, housing 450,000 persons in new quarters. Tramway lines, water systems, sewage and light have been extended, the sanitary and material conditions of the workers have been greatly improved.

Most significant of all is the decrease in general mortality from 25 per thousand for the years 1910-14 to 13 per thousand in 1930, and that of children up to one year from 27 per 100 in the years 1910-14 to 12 per 100 in 1930.

Kuibyshev stated that whereas in industry the restoration period had come to an end and the reconstruction period commenced two years ago, the restoration period had barely been completed in municipal matters and that the resolution of the central committee was the turning point, marking the beginning of municipal reconstruction on a nationwide scale. Kuibyshev then described the low level of living conditions in Moscow, the poor housing, insufficient transport, inadequate sanitation, and so on.

These conditions would be remedied, he said, by a thoroughgoing plan of repair and construction of new houses and buildings worked out by the Moscow Soviet. Electrification, heating and water systems will also be improved and extended along modern lines. Tramways and autobuses are to be increased and bridges improved. Construction of a subway is to be commenced in 1932. Of the greatest importance, too, declared Kuibyshev, are the definite plans undertaken for building central laundries, bakeries, hotels and new cultural institutions. Several new "Parks of Culture and Rest" are to be opened.

In endorsing the program of the Moscow Soviet the plenary session stressed the necessity of a scientific plan for the future development of Moscow, and in particular a special three-year plan to take care of 500,000 of the Moscow inhabitants. For this purpose a large appropriation is to be made, and the necessary materials supplied by the Supreme Economic Council. The plan is to be executed under the direction of a special committee of engineers and architects and a bureau of technical supervision under the Moscow Soviet. Construction plans for all new enterprises are to include housing plans for the workers as an integral part of the plan. The plans for Moscow include strict rules for the preservation of green spaces, boulevards and parks, and a program of tree-planting for the districts where they are scarce. New buildings are to be put up so that the streets may be widened.

"It may be asked," said Kuibyshev in conclusion, "why we have entered upon such a large program of municipal reconstruction at this time. The reason is that communal and municipal economy are bound up in the closest possible way with the daily life of the workers. At this stage of industrialization we not only may, but are obliged to take up problems of living conditions. More and more workers are needed to man our new factories. Therefore the growth of cities will increase with undiminished rapidity. Industry continues to grow, new factories to go up, new cities are being created, whole new communities are growing up in a single season. Such cities as Magnitogorsk, Dzerzhinsk, Kuznetsk, will arise with us from year to year. Therefore our communities and cities must have much more attention than it has been possible to give them until now."

Soviet Karelia

THE country between the Baltic and White Seas where Karelia is situated is one of great potential wealth in forests, game, fur, fish and minerals. It is a country filled with rushing rivers and many lakes. Karelia alone has over fifteen hundred of these lakes. In spite of its location in the far north and its long winters it has a climate no more severe than that of some of the steppes of the interior of Russia.

Cut off from the rest of the world by her unnavigable rivers, her roadless forests, the yearly freezing of the White Sea and by administrative indifference, the Karelians in the old days lived with little change from century to century. They carried on a primitive agriculture to provide food to supplement the abundant game and fish and lived in large patriarchal households in stout buildings made of logs. One of the outstanding characteristics of the Karelians is a tendency to poetic expression and the history and beliefs, because of illiteracy, have been carried from generation to generation by word of mouth, by the ballad-singers who still hold honored positions in the patriarchal groups. Every ceremonial occasion had its set rhymed accompaniment.

In 1835 a Finn, Lonroot, spent his summer in Karelia and there heard and recorded a large number of the ancient runes, which he published in part in 1837. This was called the *Kalevala*, and related the deeds of the hero Wainamoinen. It caused a sensation in Finland, and was translated abroad. Incidentally, the *Kalevala* gave the American Longfellow his meter and plan for *Hiawatha*.

Until the revolution, modern institutions were almost unknown in the forests of Karelia. Oxen were still occasionally sacrificed on holidays, the sorcerer was still called in in times of illness and distress to exercise his magical powers, a killed bear still had to be placated before his fur could be used. Game was less plentiful and the men of the families often acted as peddlers in the summer, or went to work in winter in the logging camps of the contractors.

Little other work was available, for the economic development of Karelia was as backward as the cultural development. Along the lakes and east coast were some sawmills and in Petrozavodsk was a small iron foundry. This had been established by Peter the Great on the land that later was included in the capital of the district, which was named Peter's Factory. For many years there had been projects for building a railway through Karelia to the Arctic Ocean to give Russia a port in the north that would be ice-free the whole year. This railway was pushed through only in 1916 when, half-equipped and half-completed, it was opened as a war necessity. The railway was built at great cost in money and human life. Many of the workers were prisoners of war. This Murmansk Railroad is invaluable to Karelia, as well as to the rest of the Soviet Union. During the winter part of the imports from America for the northern part of the Soviet Union enter by way of Murmansk that the costly transcontinental freight hauls may be avoided.

After the revolution of 1917, Karelia suffered heavily in her position as a border state. White armies and interventionists passed back and forth across her territory, living on the people when it was possible. Large numbers of the in-

Above—Typical Karelian Scene

Below—Sanitarium at Medvezhia Gora

habitants were killed. In June of 1920, the Karelian Labor Commune was formed, although the Finnish offensives of 1921-22 held back any kind of stabilization. On July 25th, 1923, the Karelian Commune became the Autonomous Soviet Republic of Karelia.

The republic has an area of 56,476 square miles, about that of the State of Illinois, and, according to the census of 1926, a population of 269,734 people, of which 58.5 per cent are Russians, the remainder—Karelians, Finns, and Vepps—54.5 per cent. The official documents of the Karelian Republic are written in both Russian and Karelian. Following the policy of the Soviet Union in encouraging native cultures, schools are conducted in Russian or Karelian, according to the locality in which they exist, and the alternate language is a secondary study.

During the years of civil war and intervention no orderly economic development was possible and Karelia was still so poverty-stricken in 1923 that loans had to be made to the government by the Central Government in Moscow. Since that time Karelia has not only completely paid back these loans, but has contributed a share to the budget of the Central Government, has financed her autonomous government, and has financed all her own economic development with the exception of one or two of the major projects such as the power-station at Kondopoga.

In 1929-30, the budget of Karelia amounted to about $22.000.000—an eight-fold increase over that of 1922-23.

The development of Karelia presented peculiar problems. Due in part to the lack of roads and navigable waterways, the population increased very slowly and is quite inadequate for the development of the great natural wealth of the district. After making a study of colonization methods used elsewhere, including those used in the development of the American northwest by the railroads, the State planners delegated to the Murmansk Railroad the colonization of its district. About eight million acres of land were set aside and the financing was to be carried on by funds derived from the exploitation of the territory. This colonization progresses slowly, of necessity, because accommodations must be provided for the settlers before their arrival.

Another difficulty in connection with the population was its illiterary. In 1926, only 58 per cent of the Russian population was literate and 30.3 per cent of the Karelian.

One of the first projects had to be the building of roads to reach the interior. In 1926 there was not even a road connecting the main town of the interior, Ukhta, with the railroad. The journey was a matter of days and difficult going at that—a series of water journeys with connecting links over primitive corduroy roads. Government officials wanting to make quick visits to the interior had to use a hydroplane. So far as Ukhta is concerned, that day is over. The highway has been completed and a regular bus service established. Other roads are being completed as rapidly as the labor shortage will permit.

Education was of course as necessary as roads. The whole of the Soviet Union has had a shortage of teaching personnel and this has been most marked in the national groups where the number of those with even a slight education was lowest. Hence the number of schools conducted in the national language of the Karelians has been proportionately lower than those conducted in Russian. Ten years ago, however, there was not a single national language school in Karelia,

nor a library containing Karelian books. The educational advance has been steady. The educational budget for the school year of 1923-4 amounted to $500,000. In 1929-30 it had seven times as much. In 1930, 21,506 pupils were in school, or 80 per cent of the population of school age. By the end of 1931 it is expected to have facilities to enable the application of the compulsory education law. In 1930 there were 19 high schools in the Karelian Republic and five technical schools, which are preparing technicians to care for the local needs, including forestry and agriculture.

One Russian and one Karelian newspaper are published in Petrozavodsk, and there are various factory newspapers and a literary magazine. While these various organs are working to bring the population in touch with the present-day world, great effort is being exerted to preserve for the future the heretofore unwritten songs and tales and folk-lore, and to keep alive in the children the aptitude for artistic expression.

The building of telegraph and telephone lines has been going on steadily and by the end of 1931 every village soviet will have telephonic communication with the center. Even before this was possible a number of the larger settlements had been provided with radio receiving sets.

On this necessary foundation of ways of communication and education and colonization was laid the plan for the utilization of the natural resources.

It was apparent that the thousands of streams with their many falls and swift current would provide almost limitless hydro-electric power. The first waterpower project of Soviet Karelia was the Kondopoga station which was finally opened in 1929 after endless difficulties caused by the need of importing everything from concrete mixers to turbines and of handling these imports with workmen totally unacquainted with technical processes. Close to this station was built a paper factory and a saw-mill. Both the power-station and factory are already being enlarged, and a cellulose factory is being added to the group.

Meanwhile the water-power survey continued and the country divided into districts to be supplied by the future power stations, the first of these to be at Kandalaksia, a hundred miles north of the Arctic Circle, a station that has been planned to care for a group of industries, including the fish-canning factory already established and a large chemical combine.

Another power-plant is being built on the Niva to take advantage of a drop of more than sixteen meters between Imandra and Lake Pino. This will be opened by the autumn of 1931 and will be used, first of all, in the apatite mining operations in the Khibinsk Hills and in the building of a fertilizer factory. A thirty-meter drop between Lake Kovdo and Kniazha Gulf on the White Sea gives a power site which will be used in the electrification of the Murmansk railroad.

A factory has been erected at Onega for road-making machinery. A metal works is being erected at Tulm. Another large paper-cellulose combine is being erected on the shores of Lake Onega.

In planning these factories the mineral wealth has been surveyed. It is thought that the deposits of iron will not only suffice for the Karelian Republic but will help to supply Leningrad. Karelia has copper deposits, and near the station Polyarni Krug (Arctic Circle), are large deposits of white and colored quartz, mica and feldspar. A new mining industry is being developed and the output of the metallurgical industry has increased from about $500,000 in 1924-25 to almost $6,000,000 in 1929-30. Quantities of fireproof clay have been found. Karelia has long been famous for her marble, of which she has twenty-three kinds. Karelian red marble went into the tomb of Napoleon I in Paris.

Above all else, of course, the forests of the Karelian Republic are a source of wealth. Until the time of the revolution lumbering was in private hands. The cutting was as a whole unscientific, although some reforesting was being done in the years just previous to the outbreak of the war. During the period of war, civil war and intervention the forests suffered severely from indiscriminate cutting and from forest fires. Before the war the pine of the Olenets district was graded even above that of Sweden on the English market and with the reorganization of the forest administration it was regarded as a matter of course that Karelia would regain her market abroad.

The whole question of scientific forestry and logging was complicated, as all other development in the Republic, by the lack of trained personnel and equipment. The saw-mills were underequipped, in disrepair and lacking in all modern machinery. Rivers had to be cleared, roads

Cabbage Field at Khibinsk Agricultural Experiment Station, 100 miles North of Arctic Circle

opened, lumbermen taught more modern technique, fire patrols established, the forests scientifically examined and cleared of dead wood, trees marked for market, re-seeding planned, better living conditions for workers organized. That progress has been made the production figures show, the output of 1928-29 being almost doubled in 1929-30.

The yearly output of pre-war times was, roughly, 70,000 standards a year. In the year 1929-30 it was 250,000 and the figure set for 1930-31 is 400,000. Seventy per cent of the wood is pine, the rest spruce and birch.

Until after the stabilization of the Karelian Republic the only lumber work done in Karelia was the sawing up of the logs for the market abroad and in Russia. Now Petrozavodsk has a skii factory, a furniture factory, Kondopoga her paper mills and cellulose factories, Medvejni Gora a barrel factory.

The gross output of all Karelian industry has increased from almost $12,000,000 in 1927-28 to $48,000,000 in 1929-30.

Karelia is not essentially an agricultural country but the agricultural development follows the lines taken in the rest of the Soviet Union. Collectives are being organized to provide milk, barley, oats, hay and vegetables. Experiments have shown that vegetables mature very rapidly in the brief summers and attain surprisingly large sizes. On the experimental station a hundred or more miles above the Arctic Circle have been grown fine cabbages, turnips, and other plants. Agriculture is being mechanized, and the seeded area in 1929 was 35 per cent over that of 1917, while agricultural production increased by 67 per cent.

Another extensive industry is fishing with its allied canning and preserving factories. Herring tops the list of popular fish and dried herring from the White Sea go all over the Soviet Union into cooperative stores. The year 1928-9 was a poor fishing year, but the herring catch weighed 3,700 tons. Other fish are sprotts, salmon of several varieties, eels, carp, white fish, trout, anchovies, beside an endless variety of fresh-water fish. Exploitation of the sturgeon and cod in the White Sea is in its infancy. The whole fishing industry had to be reorganized and equipped and put upon a scientific basis. The possibilities of development are limited only by the problematical market. Incidentally, fish are a staple in the Karelian diet, providing the main source of protein.

Back of the development of the wealth of the Karelian Republic is the problem of trained workers and assistants. Insofar as is possible, every branch of industry is being mechanized with all speed and high inducements are offered to workers to go to Karelia. One of the inducements is a higher standard of living. Cultural programs are being developed to make the isolated districts more attractive. Medical care has been stressed and special inducements of regular opportunities for study abroad have been held out to attract doctors from the more stimulating centers where they linger. One tuberculosis sanitorium has been established, two rest rooms and enough hospitals to provide a bed for every three hundred and fifty members of the population. Sixteen new hospital buildings were built in 1930.

Probably no other section of the Soviet Union is experiencing a more thorough-going economic and cultural development.

Academy of Sciences Meets in Moscow

ON June 21st a special session of the All-Union Academy of Sciences for the purpose of discussing the practical contributions to be made by Soviet science in helping to carry out the industrialization program of the Soviet Government opened in Moscow. This session, invited to Moscow by Moscow workers' organizations, so that the Academy might be brought nearer to the problems of every day life on the one hand, and so that the workers' organizations might have the opportunity to hear the foremost Soviet scientists, is the first to be held outside of Leningrad. Over seventy-five academicians and other scientific workers from Leningrad, Kiev, Kharkov and other cities took part in the sessions, and twenty papers were read on scientific subjects.

Professor Archangelsky, in an article in *Izvestia* written in connection with the opening session, wrote in part as follows:

"The session of the Academy of Sciences which opens today will take place not in the usual surroundings of the quiet old hall of the academic building on Vasilievsky Island in Leningrad, isolated from the whole world, but before the great proletarian audience of Moscow, before radio microphones which will bring the proceedings of the sessions to the people of the whole Soviet Union.

Academy to be Decentralized

"The reorganized Academy is coming before the workers with a report of what science is doing to decentralize its scientific activities and open

a system of branches of the academy in different parts of the country.

"This question must be considered as one of the most vital and pressing problems of the present moment. In pre-revolutionary, Tsarist Russia all scientific organizations were concentrated in a very few centers, and especially in Petersburg. Outside of these centers it was very unusual to find scientific workers. It was largely as a result of such concentration of scientific powers, such isolation from the country, from its needs and interests, that Russian science developed its traditional isolation from practical matters, founding the cult of a 'pure science' which was to go its own independent way, quite irrespective of the economic and political development of the State.

"We have done with such a state of affairs, and there are probably few scientific workers to be found nowadays who have not recognized that the chief tasks of science during the present period are bound up in the closest possible way with the practical problems of the socialist reconstruction of our country.

"A second and perhaps even more disastrous consequence of the concentration of scientific institutions in the center is the absence of local scientific groups out of which new scientific forces might be developed. We have been very slow in overcoming this heritage of the past. No one who has been in the districts where our gigantic new construction projects are going on could fail to perceive the terrific need for local scientific workers which the country is experiencing.

"A certain amount of decentralization of scientific work has been accomplished. Many of the scientific research institutes of the Supreme Economic Council now have local branches and the People's Commissariat for Education of the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper) is developing provincial scientific institutions insofar as its means permit. It must, however, be noted that one of the most important of our scientific organizations—the Chief Geological Survey—has only this year undertaken the decentralization of its work, and the Academy of Sciences has as yet done little in this direction."

"The future branches of the Academy must establish the closest possible connections with educational institutions, organize scientific work in them, and develop out of them their future staffs of workers."

Many Workers Hear Scientists

The great "Hall of Columns" of the Dom Soyuzov was filled to overflowing with workers from the Moscow factories for every session of the conference, which lasted over a week. One of the sessions was held directly at the big factories and plants of Moscow, the scientists dividing up to give their reports before the different workers' groups.

The vice president of the Academy, G. M. Krjijanovsky, in opening the meeting, pointed out the great significance of the session as showing that the most scholarly body in the Soviet Union was prepared to devote itself to the practical problems of Soviet construction as well as to theoretical research.

Scores of workers' organizations sent greetings to the session. Vasiliev, welcoming the scientists on behalf of the Moscow Soviet, spoke of the need for scientific help in carrying out the plan of municipal reconstruction and the great housing program adopted for Moscow. Bogdanov, on behalf of the Moscow Electrical Works, asked the help of the scientists in the electrification program. Professor A. R. Marr answering on behalf of the Academy said that the most practical reply the Academy could make would be its future efforts in this direction.

Natural Wealth of U.S.S.R.

At the second session of the Academy, Professor M. M. Gubkin spoke on the natural resources of the Soviet Union and their uses. He said the mighty natural wealth of the Soviet Union awaited the invasion of science, but must be studied. Forests, he said, occupied a fourth of the wooded areas of the globe. Iron is to be found in greater quantities than in any other country and the oil wealth of the U.S.S.R. is probably first in the world. In 1913 the coal reserve of Russia was estimated at 235,000,000 tons, but seventeen years of study have doubled that figure and vast new coal regions have been opened up. He said that the Geological Survey had a budget of about $45,000,000, but even this was insufficient for the adequate study of Soviet natural resources.

Reports on Variety of Subjects

At another session Anatole Lunacharsky, former Commissar for Education, spoke on the social sciences and technical reconstruction.

"When we speak of technical reconstruction of our country, of the construction of socialism," said Lunacharsky, "we cannot ignore the science of the human being, the social sciences in the widest meaning of the word."

A number of reports of a highly technical nature were given at the later sessions. Among these was a report by Academician G. A. Nadson on "The Problem of the Variability of Microbes: Its Theoretical and Practical Meaning," a report on "The Vegetable Kingdom of the Soviet Union and Contiguous Countries," by Academician V. L. Komarov, and a paper on problems of pathological physiology by Academician A. A. Bogomoletz. Academician A. E. Fersman lectured on "The Geo-Chemical Problems of Siberia," and Academician Keller on "Plants and Soil."

The extra sessions closed on June 27 with an address by Maxim Gorky, who is an honorary member of the Academy of Sciences.

The Problem of Ionization

By PROFESSOR A. L. CHIZHEVSKY

The following article by Professor Chizhevsky, who was recently awarded a bonus of $5,000 by the Council of People's Commissaars for his research on the benefits of the negative electric current in the atmosphere upon human beings and animals, is translated from the Moscow "Isvestia" of May 31. Professor Chizhevsky's method has been endorsed by the People's Commissariat of Agriculture and is being introduced on State livestock and poultry farms.

THE problem of ionization, which has become one of the most important and significant problems with which Soviet science is faced, lies in the border-land between physical-chemistry and biology. In essence it means the artificial creation within doors of atmospheric electricity, that is, ionization of the atmosphere, as one of the most important climatic factors and at the same time a powerful biological agency. This is one side of it. On the other hand, the problem of ionization involves the action of artificially procured atmospheric or gas ions on the organisms of human beings or animals for the treatment of disease, and also in their special effect on the animal organism for industrial purposes.

The idea of the physiological effect of atmospheric electricity is not new. But laboratory research on the question of the influence of atmospheric electricity on human beings and animals was held back for a long time due to lack of knowledge of the physical nature of atmospheric electricity. At the end of the last century the ions, a group of gas molecules in the atmosphere, charged with positive or negative electricity, were found to be the bearers of electricity in the atmosphere.

The idea that ionized atmosphere might be a biological factor appeared soon thereafter in scientific literature. However, special experimental research into the influence of ionized air on the organism was not completed until the end of 1921 when, under modest laboratory conditions, we undertook the first experiment in studying the action of positively and negatively ionized air on the organism in order to determine as thoroughly as possible its biological effect.

These first experiments were directed toward ascertaining the results of artificial ionization of the air in stimulating the nerve centers of animals, expressed in motor acts. The study of this question showed that different degrees of positive and negative ionization of the air had different effects on the nervous activities of animals, increasing or decreasing the number of muscular and also of sexual activities. Similar conclusions were deduced as a result of a number of experiments with swarms of bees. It was noted that positive ionization in certain doses produced unfavorable physiological effects. During these investigations (1922-1924), it was established that the animals systematically subjected to the influence of negative ionization grew more rapidly and increased in weight, developed larger appetites and produced healthier and sturdier offspring than the controls. The external appearance of the animals undergoing experimentation, their general virility and spirits, were incomparably better than usual. The difference between the animals under experiment and the controls was so remarkable that I concluded the negative ionization had a favorable effect on the organism.

In order to test these conclusions I made some experiments in 1925 with guinea pigs artifically infected with tuberculosis, and guinea pigs subjected to negative ionization. In the case of those systematically subjected to ionization, the disease did not develop, while all of the others died of tuberculosis. At the end of three months from the time the ionization had commenced, I discontinued the treatments in order to establish their therapeutic effects. The cessation of the treatments manifested itself within two weeks, and tuberculosis developed. From observations of the course of the disease in the two groups of guinea pigs I concluded that there was no doubt of the therapeutic effect of negative ionization. This effect is seemingly produced, not by any bacteria-destroying action of the ionized air, but by persistent mobilization of all the protective powers of the organism.

Subsequent experiments with animals proved beyond doubt that ionization increases agility, appetite and weight, improves the health and strength of the offspring, improves the fur in the case of fur-bearing animals, and restores and strengthens disease resistance.

In the spring of 1926 negative ionization was applied for the first time to human beings suffering from lung diseases, with favorable results. At the present time my co-workers and I have come to the conclusion that the treatment of persons suffering from lung diseases with negative ionization increases the general resistance of the organism to infectious diseases and colds, produces a better psychological condition, increases the weight and ability to work, and brings about a rapid improvement in the general condition. In addition, coughing is less frequent and finally ceases entirely, the number of Koch bacteria diminishes and several other favorable manifestations are to be noted.

During the same period I have carried on ex-

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Professor Chizhevsky in His Labortory

periments to establish the influence of ionization on bronchial asthma, bronchitis, high blood pressure, faulty metabolism, gout, rheumatism, nervous diseases, and so on. These experiments have shown that the negative ionization of the air stimulates the organism to heightened activity, simultaneously increasing the different products of the organism, has a prophylactic effect, and acts as a therapeutic agent, inasmuch as it increases the defensive powers and helps the organism to defeat disease.

After these experiments we are justified in considering the extensive application of gas and atmospheric ionization to animals and human beings, for industrial and therapeutic purposes. This idea seems the more feasible to me in view of the fact that the air may be ionized in as large quarters as desired with a minimum expenditure for equipment.

Last summer some of the results obtained in the laboratories were applied to farming. In the late winter and early spring of 1931, my assistant V. A. Kimriakov and myself, carried on an experiment with a thousand chickens as hatched from day to day at the State poultry farm, "Arzhenka." Within two months we obtained extremely interesting and substantial results. Notwithstanding the early hatching of the chickens (from the January incubation), the chickens under experiment showed all the characteristics of normal chickens in the sense of general vitality, which was not true of the controls. The average weight of the experimental chickens was 25 per cent higher than the average weight of the controls. The mortality was two and a half times as great among the controls. Illness from lack of vitamines was 84 per cent lower, and non-infectious illness 90 per cent lower in the experimental group. There were no infectious diseases among the group subjected to the treatment. The general agility and vitality was very much greater. The effects of ionization were noticeable from the first day in the case of the weaker group of chickens and after ten or fifteen days in the case of the others.

These results justify the hope that the use of artificial ionization in the livestock industry will help us both in the solution of the meat problem and in acclimatization, prophylactic treatment and cure of disease. Nowhere in the world are there such opportunities for this work as in the U.S.S.R., with its rapidly developing large-scale socialized livestock industry and large, electrified State cattle farms and collectives.

The Commissariat for Agriculture of the U.S.S.R. has already decided to undertake extensive research work in this field in connection with large horned cattled, hogs, sheep and poultry. It has also been proposed that I organize similar investigations in connection with fur-bearing animals, silk worms, bees, and so on. All these investigations, carried on under my direction and with the help of some of the foremost scientists in the Soviet Union, will solve many questions connected with the application of ionization to industry. A special laboratory is being established for the detailed study of the influence of ionization, and to work out methods of applying scientific findings to the livestock industry.

Still another vital problem arises—that of the wide application of ionization in preventing and curing disease and increasing the general health of the working masses of the U.S.S.R. Of course the artificial ionization of the air in factories and shops, in clinics, maternity homes, sanatoriums, rest homes, schools, barracks, clubs and other social institutions could be undertaken only after extensive preliminary laboratory work. It has been found that the animal and human organism react differently to ions of different quantities and different physical-chemical composition.

Due to the fact that atmospheric and gas ions in general enter the organism and penetrate into different organs of the body mainly through the lungs and then into the blood stream, we are able to introduce directly into the organism in the form of ions, first, electrical energy which is transformed within the organism into other forms of energy (chemical, heat, mechanical) and in the second place certain medical substances in the form of fine dust or gases. Thus ions may be used not only to introduce into the organism electrical charges which in themselves have a beneficial effect, but also to introduce chemical substances which could be introduced in no other way directly into the lungs or blood stream without injury. Thus the action on the organism of gas or atmospheric ions may be developed into a new and promising branch of therapy. In this field our physicists, chemists, biologists and doctors are faced with an important and far-reaching collective task. The People's Commissariat

of Health of the R.S.F.S.R. is now organizing under my direction a central laboratory of ionotherapy to carry on both laboratory and clinical research on this question. In addition, studies of the effects of ionization on various illnesses will be made in a number of institutes and clinics in Moscow. All the extensive scientific research being developed in the Soviet Union on the medical, veterinarial and industrial uses of ionization will probably be united in the near future under the central direction of an All-Union Institute of Ionization. The centralization of all the material and intellectual forces of the Soviet Union will make rapid progress possible in this field.

The Deaf and Dumb in the U.S.S.R.

Photo Press Cliche

In a Moscow Kindergarten for the Deaf and Dumb

ACCORDING to the 1929 census there are about 80,000 deaf and dumb persons of all ages in the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper). There are 65 schools for mutes with about 5,000 pupils and 12 kindergartens with 400 deaf and dumb children. This represents a great advance over pre-revolutionary days when there were only 900 deaf and dumb children in school and about 60 in kindergartens. The program of the People's Commissariat for Education provides for the establishment of schools and kindergartens for all deaf and dumb children by 1938.

In all Soviet schools and kindergartens for the deaf and dumb the oral method of instruction is used. In the kindergartens the children are prepared for entering school where in the course of seven or eight years they are given a program of studies equivalent to that of the regular four-year schools for ordinary children. The principles of social education applied in the regular schools are followed here as well: the children are given all the necessary training and knowledge for an industrial life and everything is done to awaken within them an interest in their environment, to educate them in the materialist conception, and to prepare them for participation in socialist construction. But in the school for the deaf and dumb special attention is given to the cultivation of oral speech and reading by lips as the principal means of social intercourse. In the matter of speech the Soviet schools for the deaf and dumb have taken over the German practice of teaching complete words. In some schools the method is practiced of exercising the ear of those children who still retain some elements of hearing. In recent years the study of rhythmics has been introduced in some schools and it has been found to have a very beneficial effect.

As to the educational methods, everything is done to stimulate the children's own initiative and to develop within them an interest in public life, through participation in all social movements and campaigns. There is great emphasis on self-service, club work, polytechnical education and vocational training, for which purpose there are a number of workshops attached to the schools. In some cases the children are sent for training to industrial enterprises.

In most cases the deaf and dumb children study in boarding schools where there are special dormitories, each school accommodating about 300 children. More recently the system of establishing special groups of deaf and dumb children in

Photo Press Cliche

Learning to Speak at the Moscow Institute for Deaf and Dumb

the ordinary schools has been introduced. This system has a number of advantages in that it enables the children more frequently to practice oral speech and keeps them in closer contact with social life.

For the more gifted deaf and dumb there have recently been organized higher schools or classes in the regular higher educational institutions. Lately there has been organized in the U.S.S.R. a "Home for Deaf and Dumb Infants" for babies up to the age of one where a study is made of deaf and dumb infants as compared with normal children.

The adult deaf and dumb are organized in a national society known as "The All-Russian Association of Deaf and Dumb." The main object of this organization is to find employment for its members, provide them with medical aid, arrange for the publication of literature for them, and look after their interests generally. The Association publishes a semi-monthly entitled "Life of the Deaf and Dumb," which is edited by the deaf and dumb themselves.

Teachers for the deaf and dumb are being trained in the Moscow and Leningrad Pedagogical Institutes. Since 1928 a special magazine, "Problems of Defectology," has been published, which devotes considerable attention to surdo-pedagogy. Research work connected with the problems of surdo-pedagogy is conducted by the surdo-section of the Pedagogical Research Institute.

Special attention is being given also to the treatment of children who, while not totally deaf, are hard of hearing. They are taught lip-reading and a special school for this purpose has been established in Moscow.

Care of Homeless Waifs

ACCORDING to a recent Government statement there are now only about 4,500 *bezprizorni*, or homeless waifs, in the entire Soviet Union, and it is expected that these will be entirely cared for by the end of the year.

The problem of the homeless children, whose total reached 750,000 in the period after the civil war and famine, has been handled by a special Children's Commission attached to the All-Russian Central Executive Committee, and similar commissions formed in the other Union Republics. Through these commissions hundreds of children have been picked up in the streets and placed in special homes. These children were examined by doctors and psychiatrists and divided into three groups. Those who were simply destitute and helpless, those who had taken to thieving and even more desperate crimes, and those who were ill or defective. In the second group, that of the children, who, usually organized in gangs, had become a public menace, it was found that in most cases, once a decent environment and an opportunity for work and study were provided, these children developed into perfectly normal youth. There is also a volunteer "Friends of Children Society," which raises funds and looks after children's interests generally.

It was found that the ordinary children's home, where everything was organized and provided, could not, as a rule, in the case of the boys, compete with the exciting life of the road they had been living, and when placed in such institutions, the *bezprizornie* usually ran away, taking their bedding with them. The experiment was then tried of placing these children in homes almost bare of equipment, and permitting the boys themselves to share in the building up and organization of the institution. In almost every case they responded to responsibility, and some very fine institutions have been developed through these methods.

In addition to placing the *bezprizorni* in special homes many of them were adopted by individual families, by workers' groups, peasants' collectives and State farms.

Numerous reform schools were established to take care of the more extreme cases, the most famous of which is one established by the OGPU near Moscow, operated by the young inmates themselves under the honor system, where there are neither guards nor prison cells. This is an agricultural training school, and when the youths reach 21 they are assisted in obtaining jobs elsewhere.

The problem is not merely to take care of the homeless children already existing, but to make sure that they do not return to their former state, and to prevent new additions to their ranks from children having no place to play outside of school hours.

Dr. Semashko, formerly People's Commissar for Health of the R.S.F.S.R., recently wrote an article in the Moscow *Izvestia* stressing the need of providing supervision and activities for all children during their free time. He said that a very interesting experiment had been made by the school attached to the Moscow factory "Kauchuk" in prolonging the school day. This school has arranged that the children may remain in school or on the school grounds for several hours after the regular school day is over, with a teacher on hand.

Photo Press Cliche

Carpentry Class in One of the New Polytechnical Schools

Dr. Semashko suggested that the "Friends of the Children" society take up the matter of arranging and equipping special play rooms and playgrounds in connection with all larger apartment houses and workers' settlements where children may play under the supervision of some older person out of school hours.

Thousands of children will be taken care of in children's camps this summer.

At a recent conference of representatives of the Children's Commissions from all the different republics it was decided that all the schools organized for normal *bezprizornie* should be attached to regular schools, and that as many as possible of their activities be merged, so that the former *bezprizornie* would not feel themselves to be a group cut off in any way from the life of the rest of the children of the U.S.S.R.

Liquidation of Illiteracy

IN Tsarist Russia there were 77.7 iliterates for every 100 inhabitants. After the revolution literacy schools were established throughout the country, and between 1920 and 1928, 8,-161,000 persons between the ages of 16 and 35 learned how to read and write, reducing the percentage of illiteracy to 48.6 per cent. Illiteracy is about a third greater among the women than the men.

In order to do away completely with illiteracy by the completion of the Five-Year Plan, the section of the Five-Year Plan dealing with liquidation of illiteracy was revised by the People's Commissariat of Education in September, 1929. The revised plan set a one-year limit to attain literacy among the industrial workers and collective members and a two-year limit among agricultural workers.

This program has needed volunteer efforts on the part of the population as well as organized government effort. At the initiative of the Komsomols in 1927 and 1928 a movement called the "campaign of culture," was started through which some million volunteers—university students, grade school pupils, teachers, and factory workers, were drawn into the work of wiping out illiteracy. Various organizations such as the trade unions and coperatives also assisted in carrying out the program.

The results of the campaign were well illustrated in the Lower Volga district. In the year 1925-26 52,000 persons were taught and in 1928 and 1929, the number jumped to 232,000. Since the literacy schools had to prepare their pupils for active participation in the work of social reconstruction, as well as the three R's, they included in their curriculum extensive instruction designed to make their pupils politically literate. In May, 1929, in Saratov, for example, 192,000 persons went to the moving pictures and theater, and 12,750 on educational excursions. 1,259 travelling libraries were organized, which served over 17,000 pupils. Thirty new reading rooms and "red corners" were organized, as well as four

"red tea rooms" with newspapers, and checker games. A special newspaper devoted to the campaign of culture was published.

In the year 1929-30 this cultural campaign developed into a widespread social movement, providing for the education of 10,000,000 illiterates. Twice as much was accomplished in that one year as in the ten years following the revolution. The program this year calls for the teaching of 15,000,000 illiterate persons.

Completely new educational methods were introduced, such as the sending of culture brigades to the villages in a "race for culture." There was wide socialist competition between organizations and districts. One district would challenge another to wipe out illiteracy before a certain date. The "race for culture" was initiated by the Moscow Komsomols in August, 1920. A goal was set and definite tasks were to be accomplished within a limited time. The Komsomol and Pioneer organizations made house to house canvasses to make sure that all illiterate persons were receiving instruction. These methods aroused thousands of previously uninterested persons to participate in cultural work. Thus in the Krasno-Presnensk district of Moscow, which received the banner awarded for the highest score, there was hardly a shop, factory or organization that did not have its cultural workers.

In the two months of the "race for culture" in this district a huge force of 21,000 persons was collected, 75 per cent of whom were factory workers. More than 29,000 illiterates and semi-illiterates were taught to read and write.

While this campaign will probably result in wiping out adult illiteracy completely by 1933, a still more important step toward preventing illiteracy in the future has been taken in the introduction this year of compulsory education in all primary schools throughout the U.S.S.R. In industrial centers, factory and shop districts and workers' communities compulsory education has been extended to seven years.

Children's Book Exhibit

AN exhibit of children's books was opened the end of May at the Polytechnical Museum in Moscow. The exhibit had been shown in many cultural and industrial centers in the Soviet Union, and also in Esthonia, Latvia, Germany, Czecho-Slovakia and Austria.

Over 2,000 children's books were shown, not only in Russian, but in the languages of all the peoples of the U.S.S.R. Books of the pre-revolutionary period, beginning with the 18th century, were exhibited, and contemporary children's books from other countries.

Children's book exhibitions are simply one of many methods used to popularize children's books in the Soviet Union. Children's book conferences are held and children's book week is an annual event. There are special children's book sections in the publishing companies.

The first All-Russian Conference on children's

Photo Press Cliche

Formerly Illiterate Collective Members Reading Newspaper

literature was held in Moscow this winter, and attended by delegates from all over the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper). Old gray-beards from the publishing houses, village librarians up from the provinces, young people and school children crowded the conference. Young pioneers instructed the conference in the type of books they wanted. The point stressed by old and young alike was that children's literature must not only reflect real life, but must arouse enthusiasm, challenge the children to an active part in the building of the new life. Many of the speakers at the conference cited Ilin's book on the Five-Year Plan (New Russia's Primer), which is as much of a best seller in the U.S.S.R. as in the American translation, as a model type of children's book.

Constant efforts are being made to improve the quality of children's books as well as increase their quantity. Some of the children's books carry a questionnaire on the back page for the child readers to fill out. This is one of them:

"This little book which you have just read, is written for you. Was everything in it that you wanted to know written so you could understand it? Has everything necessary been included, or do you think something is lacking? When you read the book did you feel that you could have written it better, more fully and more clearly, yourself?

"If you will write us about these things we shall consider all your instructions and suggestions."

A list of questions follows—what the reader liked and disliked about the book, whether there was anything that could not be understood, suggested subjects for other books. On the other side the address of the publishing company is printed so the page can be torn out and mailed.

Natural Resources of Kirghizia

THE Kirghiz Autonomous Republic, which covers an area of over 772,000 square miles and has a population of a million (about three times the size of Texas, with less than a quarter of its population) has been little studied, but is known to be one of the richest republics in Central Asia.

According to a report made recently to Gosplan by Abdarakhmanov, Chairman of the Kirghiz Council of People's Commissars, the latest expeditions to Central Asia have, however, found large quantities of anthracite, and it is estimated that the coal reserves of Central Asia amount to about 2,500,000,000 tons, 80 per cent of which is in the Kirghiz Republic. Mining operations have been undertaken, and it is expected that by next year 2,000,000 tons will be mined. Prospecting for oil is also being carried on.

Among the natural resources of the Kirghiz Republic are also to be found copper, gold, silver, antimony, lead, radium and mercury. Sufficient antimony ore has been discovered in the Khaitakinsk vein to serve as a base for the non-ferrous metal industry in Central Asia. Lead and mercury have been found in the same vein, and also iron ore with a very high iron content.

In the past few years the area sown to cotton in the Kirghiz Republic has greatly increased, and reached about 250,000 acres in Southern Kirghizia last year. In the Chuisk valley in the North, extensive technical crops have been developed. The construction of a large agro-industrial combine for the production of the new bast bearing plants (kendyr, kenafa and Italian hemp) has also been commenced in this valley. The sugar beet acreage is growing, and is to be increased to 250,000 acres by next year, and a fodder base, greatly needed by the Kirghiz livestock industry, is also projected.

Natural conditions in the Kirghiz Republic are exceptionally favorable for the raising of livestock. Its grazing lands could accommodate four times the present number of cattle pastured there, but in spite of this, many cattle are lost each year because of the lack of a fodder base due to the old extensive method of cattle raising. There are still over 50,000 nomad families in Kirghizia following their old primitive way of life. Plans for next year involve a complete reconstruction of the Kirghiz livestock industry, including the establishment of nine new State cattle farms. This will make it possible to increase the cattle herds of the Kirghiz Republic to 42,000,000 head.

Collectivization of farms among the Kirghiz population amounts to about 40 per cent this year, and it is expected that it will be increased to 70 per cent by next year. On this basis it is estimated that the seeded area will amount to from 2,500,000 to 3,770,000 acres by next year.

Transport, both by rail and road, is one of the most difficult problems. While the amount of freight transported to the Kirghiz Republic has already exceeded the amount set by the Five-Year Plan, the road construction program has only been fulfilled by about 47 per cent. Skilled workers to man the new Kirghiz industrial and agricultural undertakings are few, but a number of training schools will soon be opened. Over 150,000 children will be in the primary schools by next year, according to the plan, 34,000 in preschool institutions, and 8,800 in the schools for peasant youth. Over 200,000 adults will be accommodated in the schools for the "liquidation of illiteracy." Very extensive geological prospecting is planned during the coming year.

Patent Tax Decree

ON the basis of Article 67 of the * decree on inventions and technical improvements of April 9, 1931 (Collected Laws of the U.S.S.R., 1931, No. 21, Art. 18), the Council of Labor and Defense decrees as follows:

1. With each application for a patent on an invention a registration tax of sixty rubles must be paid.

2. In case the preliminary application is divided into several separate applications, a separate registration tax must be paid for each, this amount to be included in the total sum due.

3. The registration tax will not be returned in cases where the patent is refused nor in other cases, with the exception of cases where the invention is recognized as secret (see Article 10).

4. Appeals against the decisions of the bureau which passes on whether or not the invention is new, made to the complaint bureau, must be accompanied by a tax of thirty rubles.

Complaints of persons protesting against the granting of patents are not taxed.

5. From the day of the publication of the decision of the Bureau of Newness to grant a patent on an invention, the patent holder is charged with an annual patent tax as follows: 50 rubles a year for the first, second and third year; from the fourth to the sixth year, inclusive, the tax shall be increased by 25 rubles each year; and for each subsequent year, beginning with the seventh, the tax shall be increased by 50 rubles a year.

NOTE: Subsidiary patents are taxed as well as independent patents.

6. Patent taxes must be paid in advance during the first two months of each tax year.

7. Delay in the payment of the invention tax is penalized at the same rate as arrears in other taxes. In cases of delay of more than six months the patent is annulled.

8. For every change in the patent list in connection with the transfer of patent rights and the issuance of licenses, the following taxes are charged: (a) for registration of transfer of patent rights—60 rubles; (b) for registration of licenses issued—30 rubles.

9. Organizations and enterprises of the socialist sector are not taxed for inventions. In the case of patents transferred to enterprises and organizations of the socialist sector, the tax is discontinued after the year in which the transfer takes place; the tax already paid is not returned.

10. No taxes are levied in the case of inventions recognized as secret, and taxes previously paid are returned.

When the secrecy of an invention is revoked, an application fee is charged, and also the patent tax, beginning with the year in which the secrecy was removed. That year is considered the first year of action for the patent in determining the amount of the tax.

11. The Committee on Inventions of STO may in separate cases by special decree free the worker-inventors and their heirs from payment of application and patent taxes, and also grant postponements of tax payments.

12. Persons residing abroad must pay the taxes indicated in the present decree in foreign valuta.

13. In the case of patents received on the basis of former legislation and not exchanged for author's certificates, taxes are to be paid in the future in accordance with the present decree.

*See Soviet Union Review for May, 1931.

New Electrification Plan

MR. G. I. LOMOV, Assistant Chairman of Gosplan, made a report recently in Moscow summing up the results of the May electrification conference which considered the new plan for electrification of the U.S.S.R. Mr. Lomov spoke in part as follows:

"The prospects for developing production in the most important branches of industry will be determined largely by the extent to which their requirements for electrical power can be met.

"It is estimated that by the end of the second five-year plan these requirements will amount to forty or fifty million kilowatts, and by the end of the third five-year plan to sixty or seventy million kilowatts (the capacity of Soviet power plants in 1930 amounted to 2,885,000 kilowatts). The capacity of all the electric stations in the U.S.S.R. will amount to five or six million kilowatts when the present five-year plan is completed.

"This electrical development, which means a sixteen-fold increase over the present amount of electrical power, must be built up largely on the basis of our own machine construction industry.

"The new general plan of electrification, just as the original GOELRO plan, covers a period of ten years and provides for the solution of many vital problems. In the first place it envisages the 100 per cent electrification of the entire 'productive sector' of industry (this year large-scale industry is about 65 per cent electrified), through utilizing to the maximum all our internal power resources. Electrification of agriculture is to be extended as far as possible, chiefly in the livestock industry, in irrigation projects and in dairy and truck farming.

"It is planned to electrify no less than thirty or forty per cent of the railroad system by 1937. About 2,604 miles will be electrified by 1934. Extensive electrification of public utilities is also planned.

"Electrification will be built up on a system of high voltage transmitters, with a capacity of 400,000 volts (the maximum capacity at present is 110,000 volts).

"The basic principle on which the new general plan of electrification is constructed was dictated by the tremendous social and economic considerations arising out of the development of our work of socialist construction with its accompanying problems of distributing industry more or less evenly over the whole Soviet Union, creating new industrial centers and wiping out the distinctions between town and country."

Scientists' Aid Commission Meets

THE newly organized scientists' aid commission held its first plenary session on May 23rd, under the chairmanship of V. V. Kuibyshev, president of Gosplan.

The commission decided that while its first efforts would be to help those scientific workers who were distinguished by their serious scientific efforts and practical achievements in aiding socialist construction in the U.S.S.R., it would also extend its aid to scientific and technical workers carrying on independent scientific research and scientific pedagogical work.

The commission organized three sub-committees: an administrative and finance committee, a committee on material and living conditions (to deal particularly with the question of providing accommodations in rest rooms and sanitariums) and a committee to aid scientific research work. The last-named committee is to devote itself to such problems as rewards for scientific labor, assistance in the publication of scientific works, obtaining scientific literature and equipment from abroad, and so on.

The commission decided to enlarge the capacity of the sanitariums and resorts under its direction in the Caucasus, the Crimea, and near Moscow and Leningrad, and to organize new rest homes for this season. Special measures were also decided upon to increase the housing facilities for scientific workers residing temporarily in Moscow on scientific assignments. It was also decided that the "Dom Ucheni" (House of the Scholars) in Moscow should henceforth be used exclusively as a club house for scientific and technical workers.

The sub-committees have already entered upon their work and outlined their plan of activities. Each will meet once or twice a month. Connections will be made with the scientists' aid commissions of the various republics with the aim of coordinating the aid to scientists throughout the country.

Michurin's Work Honored

IVAN VLADIMIROVICH MICHURIN, the famous Russian horticulturist, whose work was described in the May issue of the *Soviet Union Review*, has recently been awarded the Order of Lenin for his achievements in developing new fruits and berries. Michurin now bears the two highest honors the Soviet Government can bestow, as he received the Order of the Red Banner of Labor in 1925.

Michurin, now seventy-five years old, has spent his life in the development of new fruits and berries, and he has been particularly successful in making southern products grow in the north. He has created a hundred new kinds of fruits and berries. His apples grow from the Ukraine to the Northern Dvina which flows into the White Sea. His cherry trees survive the Siberian winter, and he has developed a special grape, known as the "Northern grape," which fears neither cold nor phylloxera, the terrible vine-pest. He grows apricots and almonds in the north. He also grows tobacco in the north and even rice, and during the past few years he has given his attention to the improvement of garden vegetables. Throughout the Soviet Union he has some 4,000 correspondents who receive and test his seeds and shoots.

It was Lenin who first took note of Michurin's activities back in 1922, and saw to it that he was given sufficient land and facilities to carry on his work at his nursery near Kozlov.

Following the recent award to Michurin special instructions were issued by the government providing that all possible facilities be given to extend Michurin's work. The decree instructs the Lenin Agricultural Academy to establish a Central Institute of Fruits and Berries at Koslov, on the basis of Michurin's work, and provides that the Michurin nursery shall be an independent institution under his direction, with an independent budget, the Commissariat for Agriculture to provide all necessary equipment from laboratory equipment to automobiles and tractors. Special courses are to be established in which future directors of fruit farms and collectives may study Michurin's methods.

An agricultural university and high school, and a State farm are also to be established at Koslov in connection with Michurin's work.

The writings of Michurin are to be published in full and a series of popular brochures are to be issued with instructions on the growing of Michurin varieties in the different districts. Varieties already tested are to be distributed to State farms and collectives, which are also to help in experimental work.

Foreign Relations of the Soviet Union

Soviet-Finnish Relations

THE Moscow *Izvestia* of June 24 printed the following report from the Tass Agency on the latest exchange of notes between Finland and the Soviet Union:

On June 4 the Finnish Chargé d'Affaires in Moscow transmitted to the people's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs a note in answer to the notes sent to Finland by the Soviet Government on May 17 and 24.

The note states that the Soviet communication of May 24 has not changed the opinion expressed by the Finnish Government in its note of May 16. As regards the May 17 note, the Finnish Government does not, in its reply, touch upon the essential facts which were the basis for the protest of the Soviet Government.

The Finnish Government fails to state its attitude regarding the anti-Soviet campaign taken up in the Soviet note, including the propaganda going on in Finland for the annexation of certain parts of the Soviet Union. The Finnish Government confines itself to the statement that the accusation contained in the note of the Union Government is "in part entirely without foundation and in part clearly based on mistake or exaggeration." The note denies that the Finnish Government has "assisted in any way the unfavorable development of the relations between the two countries," and points out that the further exchange of notes on questions touched upon in the note of the Union Government cannot, in the opinion of Finland, lead to any favorable results.

In answer to this note the Assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs, N. N. Krestinsky, sent the following note to M. Westerlund, Finnish Chargé d'Affaires in Moscow:

"Mr. Chargé d'Affaires:

"Confirming the receipt of your note of the 4th of this month addressed to People's Commissar M. M. Litvinov, may I ask you to bring the following to the attention of your government:

"1. The Union Government construes your note to mean that the Finnish Government, notwithstanding the protests of the Union Government set forth in the notes of the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs, retains its former attitude on the questions which served as the subject of the recent correspondence between the two governments, and consequently will as before permit the continuance of the campaign of enmity and hatred which has been carried on for a long time in Finland against the Soviet Union, and which is a threat to the existing relations between the two governments.

"The Union Government is compelled, in view of this, to draw the conclusion that responsibility for any consequences growing out of the resultant situation, rests entirely on the Finnish Government.

"Accept, Mr. Chargé d'Affaires, assurances of my high respect.

"N. KRESTINSKY."

German-Soviet Treaty Renewed

On June 24 a protocol extending the treaty concluded in Berlin on April 24, 1926, between the U.S.S.R. and Germany was signed in Moscow by Mr. N. N. Krestinsky, Assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, and Herr von Dirksen, German ambassador in Moscow. At the same time the period of action of the convention concluded between the two governments on arbitration procedure was lengthened in accordance with that of the above-mentioned treaty.

In signing the protocol, both governments expressed their intention of making the treaty a basis for the continuance of the friendly relations existing between the U.S.S.R. and Germany, and the further development of mutual cooperation in the interests of both countries, and at the same time a means of furthering universal peace. The treaty may be abrogated with a year's warning, but not earlier than June 30, 1933, until which date the treaty automatically remains in force. The protocol is subject to ratification.

Editorial Comment of Izvestia

Commenting editorially on the Soviet-German protocol Moscow *Izvestia* of June 26 says in part as follows:

"The Soviet-German treaty of April 24, 1926, which is to be continued by decision of the two governments, not only binds both countries to neutrality in the event of attack by a third country, but precludes participation by either in any measures of economic or financial boycott against the other. It binds both countries to keep together on matters affecting their mutual interests. . . .

"The Soviet Union, which stands for self-determination of nations, and which strives to maintain friendly relations with even the smallest of nations, could build its relations with Germany on no other basis than that of equality, of consideration of the interests and requirements for the development of the German people. Peaceful relations between Germany and the Soviet Union constitute one of the most important guarantees

of the peace of Europe. Economic cooperation between Germany and the Soviet Union is of enormous importance to the development of both countries. This does not preclude the participation of any other government which desires to aid in the development of the Soviet Union on a mutually advantageous basis. Building up German-Soviet relations in this way, both governments may say openly that they intend to give joint consideration to all questions touching their mutual interests.

"The extension of the German-Soviet treaty is a factor of major importance in world politics which are now undergoing a period of such ferment. In this treaty both countries declare that, notwithstanding their different social systems, they wish to continue to decide peacefully all questions arising between them, neither taking part in any actions directed against the other.

"This treaty strengthens the position of the Soviet Union in its efforts to carry out the Five-Year Plan, in its struggle for peace, and strengthens the position of Germany in its struggle against those burdensome consequences of the war which prevent the German people from developing their technical, economic and cultural possibilities."

Italian Industrial Delegation Visits U.S.S.R.

ON June 18 the Italian industrial delegation visiting the Soviet Union for the purpose of studying its economic situation, was received by Mr. A. P. Rozenholtz, People's Commissar for Foreign Trade of the Soviet Union. In welcoming the delegation, which was composed of representatives of the leading industries and banks of Italy, Mr. Rozenholtz said:

"I may point out with satisfaction that notwithstanding the different political systems of the two countries, there has been from year to year a strengthening and deepening of our mutual relations based on the soberly estimated and properly understood interests of Italy and of the Soviet Union.

"The Soviet Union, which is carrying on the reconstruction of its economic structure at an extraordinarily rapid rate, is in need of the products of the foremost countries of the world. As we grow, the opportunities for applying foreign technique in the Soviet Union increase. This opens up to Italian industry a wide field of activity for many years. The high technical achievements of Italian industry in the sphere of electrotechnique, shipbuilding, the production of high-grade steel, automobile construction, aviation, chemistry, and so on—these insure our further purchases in Italy.

"On the other hand the Soviet Union is a reservoir for supplying Italy with agricultural products, raw material, and semi-manufactured goods which are lacking in Italy or of which there is not a sufficient supply. The geographical position of the two countries and the ease of communication still further assist in the further development of economic relations, which can be only advantageous for both sides.

"We may note with satisfaction that in the year since the conclusion of the trade treaty our exports to Italy have almost doubled and our imports from Italy have increased more than sevenfold. Especially deserving of mention is the role of agreements concluded with the Soviet Union by the Italian Government guaranteeing credits on Soviet orders. The first agreement, concluded in August, 1930, as you are aware, was fulfilled before the expiration of the period. I have no reason to doubt the complete fulfillment of the second agreement, concluded in April of this year.

"Insufficient knowledge of each other has been a serious obstacle in extending economic relations between the U.S.S.R. and Italy. It must be admitted frankly that Soviet industrialists are poorly acquainted with the capacity of Italian industry to satisfy the needs created by our economic plan. And Italian industry in turn knows little of the needs of the Soviet Union.

"I therefore welcome the visit of this delegation as a beginning of mutual acquaintance and an earnest of the further development of our economic relations."

U.S.S.R. at Geneva Drug Conference

Mr. Bogomolov, representative of the U.S.S.R. at the Geneva Drug Restriction Conference which was held on June 1st, criticized the measures which had been adopted prior to the conference, in an address made before the assembly.

Analyzing the statistical data of the League of Nations, Mr. Bogomolov pointed out that from the time of signing the Geneva convention five years ago, the condition of the drug trade had grown worse. Contraband trade in drugs is ten times in excess of the legal trade. Bogomolov said that the participants in the conference were apparently interested mainly in the distribution of export quotas and were not dealing with the question of opium as raw material nor with unfinished drug products. On behalf of the Soviet delegation, he proposed the following measures to restrict the production of drugs:

1. The production of the raw material required for opium shall be restricted as well as the production of opium itself.

2. State control shall be established over the production and distribution of drugs as is done in the U.S.S.R.

3. All forms of restriction of production and trade in drugs shall be extended to all drugs.

In conclusion, Mr. Bogomolov said that in case international control was set up over the production and distribution of drugs, the Soviet delegation was of the opinion that such control must be organized outside of the League of Nations.

The Soviet proposals were not adopted.

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Franco-Soviet Negotiations

In a recent article in "Actualité," French financial supplement, on problems of Franco-Soviet trade, Senator Francois Marcel, formerly French Minister of Finance, said:

"The decision of the French Government to enter into contact with the Soviet Government for the purpose of restoring a commercial *modus vivendi* is only to be welcomed. There is no reason for us to refuse to buy the Soviet goods we need, nor is there any reason for the U.S.S.R. to continue to purchase in America and Germany goods which we are able to supply. . . .

"The situation which has existed in the past few months cannot continue. France established a system of import licenses for Soviet goods, and yet Soviet imports have not thereby decreased, while French exports to the Soviet Union have considerably fallen off. Thus the system of licenses has proved disadvantageous. The French Government has therefore found it necessary to commission its experts to work out a basis for future trade relations between France and the U.S.S.R."

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U. S. Flyers and the U.S.S.R.

When Wiley Post and Harold Gatty, American aviators, completed their record-breaking round-the-world flight July 1, they had flown over 6,500 miles of Soviet territory in their trip of 15,500 miles. In the Soviet Union they made stops at Moscow, Novo-Sibirsk, Irkutsk, Blagovestchensk and Khabarovsk. Various Soviet Government departments, and officers and members of Osoaviachim, the Soviet Aviation Society, gave cooperation to the flyers on Soviet territory. Osoaviachim gave a dinner in their honor in Moscow.

Various other American aviators will cross Soviet territory on long flights planned for this summer. Colonel and Mrs. Charles A. Lindbergh will cruise down the Siberian coast-line from north to south after crossing Behring Strait on their trip to Japan and China. Clyde E. Pangborn and Hugh Herndon plan to cross the Soviet Union from west to east on their proposed round-the-world flight.

Some Recent Magazine Articles on the Soviet Union

A chronological list of the more important articles on the Soviet Union which have appeared since the list published in the May issue of the SOVIET UNION REVIEW.

"The Five-Year Plan in Action," by Walter Arnold Rukeyser. The Nation, May 20, 1931.
One of the "I Work for Russia" series based on Mr. Rukeyser's experiences as consulting engineer for the Asbestos Trust in the Urals.

"A Business Man Looks at Russia," by Mark H. Dix. Unity, May 25, 1931.
A discussion of the effects of Soviet policies on the people of the country.

"A Senator and an Engineer," by Edmund Wilson. The New Republic, May 27, 1931.
A report of the speech made by Hugh J. Freyn, who has been helping for four years in steel mill construction in the U.S.S.R., before the Taylor society.

"Russia Marches up a Mountain," by Bruce Bliven. The New Republic, May 27, 1931.
What Mr. Blivan saw as he looked at A. A. Johnson's collection of charts on the past, present and future of the Soviet Union.

"The Worker at Work," by Walter Arnold Rukeyser. "I Work for Russia" series. The Nation, May 27, 1931.

"Russia's Struggle for Industrial Independence." Current History, June, 1931.
I. "The Economic Conflict with the United States," by Eli B. Jacobson, Professor of American Literature at the 2nd Moscow University, 1929-30.
A discussion of the nature of Soviet imports and the forces hampering Soviet-American trade relations.
II. "Russian Workers Under the Iron Heel," by Vincent Vacovich.
An extremely biased and misleading account of labor conditions in the Soviet Union.

"How the Worker Lives," by Walter Arnold Rukeyser. "I Work for Russia" series. The Nation, June 3, 1931.

"An American Policy Toward Russia," by George Soule. The New Republic, June 3, 1931.
Abbreviated version of paper read before American Academy of Political and Social Science, urging an intelligent and realistic policy toward the Soviet Union.

"Litvinov," by John Haynes Holmes. Unity, June 8, 1931.
A eulogy of the Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs and his attitude at the disarmament conference at Geneva and the recent European Union Commission meeting.

"The American Engineer at Work," by Walter Arnold Rukeyser. "I Work for Russia" series. The Nation, June 10, 1931.

"Lies About Russia," by Louis Fischer. The New Republic, June 10, 1931.
The first of two articles on instances of newspaper methods of misleading public opinion about Russia.

"The Life of the Engineer," by Walter Arnold Rukeyser. Last of the "I Work for Russia" series. The Nation, June 17, 1931.

"Soviets' Social Philosophy," Current History, July, 1931.
I. "Socialism in Practice," by Prof. Calvin B. Hoover.
II. "The Life of the Soviet Peasant," by Lement Harris.
III. "Soviet International Economic Policy," by Maxim Litvinov.
Complete text of speech proposing economic non-aggression pact at Geneva, May 18.

"Russia's Challenge to America," by Prof. A. F. Hinrichs. Atlatic Monthly, July, 1931.
An inquiry into sources of strength and weakness in the Soviet state with a view to determining what America might learn from the U.S.S.R. with particular reference to economic planning.

"Russia's Five-Year Plan in Action," by Prof. Maxwell S. Stewart. Survey Graphic, July, 1931.
Exposition and appraisal of purpose and progress of the year.

"Eisenstein," by Beatrice Heiman. Theater Magazine, July, 1931.
Some facts about one of the foremost Soviet cinema directors.

"Story and Proverb Reveal the Russian," by Walter Duranty. New York Times magazine, July 5, 1931.
Sidelights thrown on the Russian scene by sayings of peasants and anecdotes about leaders.

"Lies About Russia—II," by Louis Fischer. The New Republic, July 8, 1931.

"Russia Struggles On," by Louis Fischer. The Nation, July 22, 1931.
Impressions of a Moscow resident on his return after six months absence.

Miscellaneous News

Commissariat of Justice to be Reorganized

NIKOLAY KRYLENKO, recently appointed People's Commissar for Justice of the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper), has presented to the Sovnarkom of the R.S.F.S.R. a plan for the reorganization of the People's Commissariat for Justice and of its local branches which will greatly simplify the Soviet judicial apparatus.

According to the draft of the new decree presented by Krylenko, the courts, procurators, and places of detention will be considered constituent parts of a single judicial system and thus do away with the tendency to build up the courts and the procurators as two independent systems.

The decree provides for a greater degree of simplification in the organization and activities of the judicial system by the elimination of certain superfluous courts which have proved impracticable, such as plenary sessions of the regional courts and of the criminal and civil collegium of the Supreme Court, and so on.

Krylenko proposes that the work of the collegium of defenders be put on a collective basis through the elimination of all private law practice which frequently introduces elements contrary to the principles of Soviet law, and that definite examinations be required for admittance to the collegium of defenders.

The draft decree provides that the organs of justice of the autonomous republics and oblasts shall be closely connected with the organs of justice of the region where the given autonomous republic or oblast is located. The Supreme Court of the R.S.F.S.R. remains the court of appeals for courts of the autonomous republics and oblasts and also for all regional and oblast courts.

The Sovnarkom of the R.S.F.S.R. has appointed a special government commission to consider the draft decree and prepare it to present for ratification to the Presidium of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee.

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Work of Soviet Standards Bureau

ACCORDING to a report made by Mr. Lengnik, chairman of the U.S.S.R. Bureau of Standards, at a recent meeting of the Presidium of Gosplan, 2,626 standards had been accepted up to June 1st of this year, which makes the Soviet Union second only to Germany in the number of standards accepted.

Mr. Lengnik outlined the work of the Bureau of Standards since its organization in 1925. Its development was slow at first because of the novelty and complexity of its work, but it is now making rapid progress in many fields. One of the first jobs undertaken by the bureau was to fix standards for rolled steel. Before the revolution there were 4,700 rolling mills, but after standards were fixed this number was reduced to 715. He then outlined a number of economies that could have been achieved if standards had been set in certain fields, and declared that they expected a saving of at least $400,000,000 from the standards already accepted.

Mr. Lengnik pointed out that while in 1926 only 42 standards had been accepted, the number for 1930 was 1,137. The highest number of standards accepted are in the metal industry, for which upwards of a thousand standards have been adopted. Next comes agriculture, with 255, the food industry with 241, transport and communications with 149, and the building industry with 115.

■

Soviet Workers' Holidays

All over the U.S.S.R. there are numerous health resorts, sanitoria and rest homes in which the workers and office employees spend their periods of rest and regain their health.

During 1931 the sanatoria will have 49,000 beds against 44,000 last year. In most of the health resorts the season has been extended to cover practically the whole of the year, which will make it possible to give treatment in 1931 to more than 500,000 people.

The workers not in need of special treatment spend their annual holidays in rest homes. Here they receive full board and various recreational facilities for a nominal charge and in many cases free of charge. The rest homes are scattered all over the country and function the entire year. Judging by the number of applications for rest homes received thus far, not less than 800,000 persons will spend their holidays in these homes during the current year. More rest homes are being built, about $11,000,000 having been assigned this year for their construction.

In recent years a new type of rest home has appeared in the big cities, particularly in Moscow, Leningrad and the other industrial centers, where the workers spend between twelve and thirty-six hours each week. Here the worker spends his day of rest and since every day is

rest day for one-fifth of the working population, these homes are never idle. Like the other rest homes, these also provide board and recreational facilities. This year over $3,000,000 was spent in the extension of the number of rest homes of this type.

■

Vegetable Supply Increased

Vegetables have never been grown to any great extent in Russia. But in the past few years there has been a movement to increase the vegetable supply. The environs of Moscow and other cities, which trail out into farm lands, afford excellent opportunities for the development of truck farming.

Last December the Consumers' Cooperatives were instructed to engage the interests of the farmers living on the outskirts of cities and workers' organizations in establishing truck farming on a large scale in the outskirts of Moscow and other cities throughout the Soviet Union.

The goal set at that time was to plant about 740,000 acres in vegetables. On June 25 the Cooperative organization reported that actually about 775,000 acres of vegetables had been planted, and over 2,000 hot beds set up. At the same time thousands of acres of land were cleared for future vegetable growing, and thousands of acres of fodder planted.

As a result of the vegetable growing campaign it is estimated that at least 3,200,000 vegetables will be provided for the Consumers' Cooperatives to sell this year.

The directors of the most successful truck farms have received prizes in the shape of trips abroad to study the best methods of organizing and conducting large scale gardening enterprises. Some of the truck farms received automobiles or motor trucks as prizes.

■

"Pravda" Published Simultaneously in Various Cities

In the early hours of June 4 an airplane brought to Kharkov the mats of the Moscow *Pravda* of the same date. By one o'clock that afternoon a local printing shop issued the *Pravda* of the same date and the public of Kharkov was able to read the Moscow paper on the same day as the inhabitants of the capital.

On the following days even better time was made and the *Pravda* was sold on the streets of Kharkov at 12 noon. Since that date the Kharkov edition of the *Pravda* has been established as a regular publication.

Similar editions are being organized in Leningrad, Tiflis, and other cities. The *Pravda* mats are delivered to Leningrad by an express train and the paper is issued here towards the evening of the same day. Tiflis gets the mats by airplane, saving two days as against the mail.

Requests for local editions of the *Pravda* have come in from the Donetz Basin, Sverdlovsk, Novosibirsk and the other industrial centers.

■

Music for Children

Music is given an important place both in the regular Soviet school program and in the extra-curricular activities for children. Each spring a general musical "examination" is held during which concerts are held presenting children's orchestras and choruses, ending up with a mass musical festival for children.

This spring over seventy children's concerts were held in Moscow. On May 27 a children's musical festival was held at the Park of Culture and Rest in which Moscow's leading theaters and orchestras took part. The most striking number on the program was a chorus of 20,000 children. Children's orchestras and choruses from the different schools and districts took part in the performance and prizes were distributed at the end of the festival.

■

Population Growth in Soviet Cities

The census of the urban population in the U.S.S.R., taken this year provides interesting figures, showing the rate of growth of the population since the last census of 1926. The population of Moscow since 1926 has increased by 35.5 per cent, reaching in April a total of 2,745,000. Leningrad shows a far larger percentage of growth. Its population is now 2,228,300, an increase of 38 per cent.

Equally rapid has been the growth in industrial centers. The population of Sverdlovsk, for instance, has grown since 1926 from 134,000 to 234,000 and that of Ivanovo-Voznesensk has grown from 108,700 to 162,300.

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Registration of Soviet Trade Marks

The government of the U.S.S.R. has given the stock company for patenting and realizing inventions known as "PRIZ," the sole right of registering abroad the trade marks of goods exported by the U.S.S.R.

In the past this function was controlled by the All-Union Western Chamber of Commerce. Now this body has been instructed to complete all of its operations in this field and turn the business over to "PRIZ."

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New Status of Soviet Technicians

A NEW era has been inaugurated in the policy of the Soviet Government toward technicians and engineers and the professional classes generally. Soviet leaders are recognizing as never before the need for a greater mastery of technique and for a real science of management, and hence for trained executives. Heretofore this need has been met largely by the importation of foreign technical aid to fill the gaps in Soviet equipment. But the emphasis is now on giving greater scope to the old engineers and specialists and on building up a working class technical intelligentsia through greatly increased facilities for technical education.

Stalin pointed the way in his speech on new economic tasks before the conference of industrial managers held in Moscow last June in which he stated the necessity for entirely new methods of work and management, advocated the payment of higher rewards for greater skill, and proclaimed that henceforward the Soviet Government would show greater concern for members of the old intelligentsia and provide new opportunities for promotion and training of the workers themselves.

This new policy found immediate practical application. Soon after Stalin's speech decrees were issued granting special rewards for valuable services rendered by certain engineers convicted of damaging activities who, instead of prison sentences, had been given an opportunity to reinstate themselves by working at their specialties.

Next came government legislation putting engineers and technicians on the same privileged basis as proletarian workers with respect to living and material conditions. In a joint resolution of the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars passed on August 1st, measures were outlined for improving the living and working conditions of engineers and technical workers. The resolution extends to engineers and technicians all the privileges hitherto enjoyed only by the industrial workers. Their children are to be accepted by high schools and universities on the same terms as those of industrial workers. They are henceforth to receive the same privileges for obtaining articles of food and clothing at the lowest possible rates, for going to rest homes, and receiving social insurance in cases of temporary disability. The income tax for those whose wages exceed 500 rubles a month is not to be on a progressive basis as hitherto, but at a fixed rate of 3.5 per cent of the salary received. The housing cooperatives of engineers

and technicians are put on the same basis as those of the workers. In addition, extra housing space is to be given them, in recognition of the necessity for favorable conditions for work at home. This was later supplemented by an additional decree providing that these privileges be extended to engineers and technicians in industries and institutions in every field whether engaged in practical or theoretical activity, both those with special training, and those who have received their technical knowledge in the course of practical work.

The immediate effects of this decree were mirrored in resolutions published in the daily press from factories and districts in all parts of the Soviet Union endorsing this step, in some cases reporting on practical measures already taken to carry it into effect and additional local measures of aid to technicians, in some cases reporting delay in providing the necessary living and working facilities for members of the technical intelligentsia.

There have been numerous evidences of the seriousness with which Soviet leaders are applying themselves to working out the preliminary steps in the direction of more efficient management of industry.

Rudzutak Addresses Engineers

In an address before the Technical Engineering Society which met in Moscow in August, Y. E. Rudzutak, vice-chairman of the Council of People's Commissars, emphasized the need for highly trained executives at the top, competent personnel below them and skilled labor at the bottom, and discussed the whole problem of the relationship between the working class and the technical intelligentsia.

Rudzutak described the extraordinary difficulties with which the Soviet Government had been beset on all sides in launching its present industrialization program, and the skepticism with which the program had been regarded at first by many of the professional class, many of whom, believing that these difficulties would bring about the downfall of the Soviet regime, turned to damaging activities to hasten the downfall.

"But this stage is now passed," Rudzutak continued. "It would be boasting to say that all difficulties had been surmounted. There are still many difficulties before us, but however difficult the tasks laid upon the working class in the industrialization of our country, the basic difficulties have been or are now being overcome. The current year has proven itself one of the hardest because until this year we have not begun many new enterprises. The largest ones, which required many resources and materials are still under construction and will start to operate at the end of this year. Such giants as Magnitogorsk, Kuznetsk and a whole series of others are beginning to work this year. The Ural machine construction factory which will produce equipment for our factories will begin operating at the end of this or the beginning of next year.

"The economic plan of industrial construction for this year provides for the construction of 518 new plants with a basic capital of about 4 billion rubles (over $2,000,000,000). You, engineers and technicians, can imagine the gigantic forces, the changes in the material basis of industry which are already in action for next year, when these new factories will be ready to operate. We are triumphing over the most serious difficulties. These new giants of heavy industry which were blocked up a few years ago will begin to produce in this and the following year. Under these conditions we can press the development of light industry and decisively increase the material goods for wide consumption.

Need for Trained Executives

"All this huge economic construction greatly needs live executives to carry it out. No good plan can be realized without executives.

"In this year we have exceeded the pre-revolutionary industry of old Russia by from two and a half to three times. We have left far behind the technical conditions and technical guidance used in pre-revolutionary Russia. The swift growth of industry and the mechanization of agriculture require immediately far greater technical forces than previously existed, and improved equipment and more complicated technique require a completer technical knowledge than before.

"In considering Stalin's statement that we must create a proletarian technical force the question may be asked—does this mean that we must turn only to the young engineers and specialists? That would be utterly stupid and criminal. The Soviet Government and the party have never taken such a stand. Beginning from the early days of its existence you may see instances of this by the dozen, by the hundred, in speeches of Comrade Lenin about using the technical forces, the necessity of learning from them in order to give them the opportunity of guiding the technique and organization of production. This idea runs through all the economic questions of the first days of the revolution.

"A group of inexperienced workers," said Rudzutak in conclusion, "should be ranged around every technician, to study with his assistance. We do not need high priests of technical science, but useful members of society who will spread their knowledge and thus heighten the technical level of the working man."

Kuibyshev on New Tasks

At the final joint session of the All-Union Congress of Technical Engineering Societies, held on August 29th in the Hall of Columns, V. V. Kuibyshev, chairman of the State Planning Commis-

sion, addressed the 3,000 engineering delegates on the problems of this new period of greater cooperation between workers by hand and by brain, and stated that the improvement in the status of engineers had a political as well as a material importance, since henceforward they were to be regarded as the companions-in-arms of the working class.

In discussing the new tasks facing engineers and workers, Kuibyshev stated that during the past three years efforts had been concentrated on heavy industry—coal, steel, iron, machine construction and transportation—but that now a sufficiently solid foundation had been laid to permit much greater attention to the development of light industry to improve living standards, since the ultimate purpose of the whole program is systematic improvement of living conditions of the working classes. He then outlined the program for greatly increased production of meat, vegetables, canned goods, textiles, building materials and housing equipment during the coming year. Through the State and collective farms, he said, a better meat, butter and milk supply would be insured as well as farinaceous foods.

Kuibyshev recommended four principle ways in which he felt engineers could render service—in the training of young engineers, foremen and skilled workers, in helping to direct the work of the shock brigades and socialist competition along the most productive lines, in promoting rationalization and by insistence on rigid economy and strict accounting. He concluded with the words:

"Thus engineers will really become part of the working class and there will be no divisions or class distinctions but one united whole."

Technical Education

Meanwhile a solid foundation is being laid for the future through technical education and through a general popularization of technical matters. The whole school system was reorganized last year on a polytechnical basis with the aim of acquainting children with the fundamental processes common to all fields of mechanized production. Schools are being connected with factories and farms so that the children may learn their mathematics and physics through seeing their practical application, and by actually taking part in the simpler industrial processes.

There has been a great increase in the number of technical schools in the past few years. Technical high schools increased from 146 in 1927 to 584 in 1931, and higher technical institutions from 22 in 1927 to 170 this year. Many of them have been transferred to the industrial centers so that theoretical work may be linked up with the actual operation of industry. There are 282 rabfacs, in which workers from the bench are prepared to enter higher technical schools, and sixteen new special three-year course institutes. In addition, every industrial enterprise has special technical courses where the workers may increase their technical knowledge while they are actually on the job.

A Theater for Technical Education was opened in June, founded jointly by the Society for Advancement of Automobile and Road Construction and the Central Council of the Trade Unions. The new theater will explain different technical questions such as that of internal combustion engines, automobile construction, etc., by means of amusing revues. Two pieces were specially written for the premier performances: "Power through Technique," for adults, and "We Conquer Motors and Roads," for children.

Bukharin's Recommendations

The question of spreading general technical information is receiving special attention. Bukharin submitted a memorandum on this subject on his return from the International Technological Congress in London, and his recommendations were embodied in a resolution on the organization of technical instruction among the masses adopted by the Central Committee of the Communist Party in August.

The resolution provides for the organization of a new State technical publishing trust. One-fourth of the paper and printing resources of OGIZ (the State Publishing House) is to be put at the disposal of the new publishing concern which will publish technical material under the direction of the Supreme Economic Council.

Both the radio and the cinema are to be used extensively in a nation-wide campaign to spread technical knowledge. A Central Technical Museum is to be built by 1932, and a permanent technical exhibition is to be prepared in Moscow showing the progress of socialist construction up to the 14th anniversary of the revolution. A special technical newspaper is to be published by the Supreme Economic Council to popularize the technical reconstruction of the Soviet Union, disseminate knowledge on technical achievements throughout the world and mobilize public opinion on questions of technical progress.

In his memorandum to the Central Committee and in an extensive report made at a meeting of representatives of scientific institutions, higher technical schools and so on, Bukharin stressed the fact that the revolution had entered upon a new phase—that of technical revolution—and outlined in great detail the concrete steps necessary to do away with "technical illiteracy." He urged that a "minimum of technical knowledge" should be established for every worker and recommended measures for increasing the technical knowledge of every group from unskilled workers up to the engineering staffs. At the same time he warned of the dangers of glorifying technical knowledge for its own sake, saying that it was only useful insofar as it met the growing material and cultural needs of the masses.

Bukharin emphasized the necessity of strengthening the technical requirements of the Five-Year Plan, and stated that henceforth more stress would be laid on the quality of goods produced. Greater care must be exercised, he said, in the use of machinery, and simple and clear instructions published for the use of workers operating the new machines.

He declared that every possible public agency would be set in motion to extend technical knowledge—radio, press, films, exhibits, and lectures, and said that the new scientific publishing department would issue technical literature of all kinds from placards and popular pamphlets to special technical encyclopedias. He criticized the standards of much of the technical literature that has been published until now and said that a special effort would be made to issue only first-class material.

Bukharin also outlined plans for organizing scientific and technical associations among engineers, technicians and scientists to consider in the most practical way problems of factory management and general problems of technical reconstruction of the entire country, for the systematic exchange of experience, and study of foreign achievements.

Universal Education Gains

IN August, a year ago, a resolution was adopted calling for the introduction of universal compulsory education in the primary schools throughout the Soviet Union. On the anniversary of that decision reports were published in the Soviet press from all sections of the country showing striking increases in the proportion of children attending school.

The number of children in the primary and intermediate schools of the entire U.S.S.R. has increased from 7,800,000 in 1914 to 20,000,000 in the school year of 1930-31. In the last year alone, in connection with the introduction of universal compulsory education, the increase has amounted to 6,500,000. In addition there are 1,400,000 pupils in the factory and shop schools and technicums (technical high schools.)

In accordance with the Soviet policy of cultural independence for all nationalities within the borders of the U.S.S.R., there is no Federal Commissariat for Education, but each Constituent Republic has its own People's Commissariat for Education. Education is carried on in more than seventy languages in the Soviet Union. The two largest units in the U.S.S.R., the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper) and the Ukrainian Soviet Republic, reported the greatest progress in the introduction of universal compulsory education with 97.1 per cent and 98.2 per cent, respectively, of the children of school age attending the primary schools.

Skrypnik, Commissar for Education in the Ukraine, reported 98.2 per cent of the children in primary schools this year as against 76.2 per cent in 1930. In the cities of the Ukraine the attendance is practically 100 per cent, and among the national minorities, 95.2 per cent. Of the children from 11 to 15, 85 per cent are in school. Over 75 per cent of the seven-year schools are attached to factories or farms. Much repairing and new construction was done, and 16,500 new teachers sent out. This year it is planned to accommodate at least 90 per cent of the children from 11 to 15 in the seven-year schools, and 17,000 new teachers will be provided.

Press Cliche

CHILDREN OF A TARTAR SCHOOL IN SIMFEROPOL

Andrey Bubnov, Commissar for Education of the R.S.F.S.R., reported as follows on the status of education in the section of the school system under his jurisdiction:

"The plan for the introduction of universal

Press Cliche

A Student Learns from a Worker

compulsory education adopted in 1930, has been more than completed. The total number of pupils in the primary schools of the R.S.F.S.R. (excluding the autonomous republics) has reached 8,709,937—5.7 per cent over the plan worked out by the People's Commissariat for Education. The increase in the number of pupils in the primary schools alone of the R.S.F.S.R. was 28.4 per cent over the year before. In the autonomous republics the total number of students in the primary schools has reached 1,506,013—101.3 per cent of the plan.

"In the 1929-30 school year the average proportion of children of school age attending primary schools was 71 per cent. In the past year the proportion in the R.S.F.S.R. (without the autonomous republics) increased to 97.1 per cent, and in the autonomous republics to 87.9 per cent.

"The number of children from 11 to 15 years of age attending schools increased from 900,000 to 1,392,146. New schools were opened in the R.S.F.S.R., for the accommodation of 45,335 pupils, 31.1 per cent over the plan, and in the autonomous republics the plans for opening new schools was exceeded by 21 per cent.

"On the basis of the decision of the central committee of the party at the eleventh party conference on education, the mass schools have undertaken to connect the general education of their pupils directly with productive labor and along with the introduction of universal education, the foundation was also laid during the past year for the complete reconstruction of the schools along *polytechnical lines. Through attaching the schools to socialized industrial enterprises, State farms, collectives and machine and tractor stations, the children have been given access to productive labor, and education has been linked up directly to the labor of the workers and peasants.

Schools Linked with Production

"The overwhelming majority of the schools have already been attached to industrial and agricultural enterprises. Of the factory and shop seven-year schools, 97.5 per cent are attached directly to factories; of the Schools for Peasant Youth, 93.6 per cent are attached to some collective or State agricultural enterprise. Of the primary schools, 65.6 per cent are attached to some enterprise.

"Workshops and work rooms have been organized in the majority of the schools for the purpose of strengthening their polytechnical foundation. Many workers and collective members have been drawn into active participation in carrying out the polytechnical program for the schools. During the past half year a large number of polytechnical conferences have been held for teachers, workers and pupils.

*The term polytechnical as used in the Soviet Union does not denote training for special trades, but the teaching, along with theoretical education, of the fundamental processes at the basis of all productive labor.

"Sixty thousand new teachers were trained and sent out to the schools, mainly in the country districts, to realize the program for universal education.

"During the past year the schools have played an increasing part in socialist construction. The city schools have helped the enterprises to which they are attached in carrying out their part of the Five-Year Plan. The Schools for Peasant Youth in the villages have helped to further agricultural collectivization. From the ranks of the school children have gone forth hundreds of thousands of volunteers for the 'cultural army,' who help in the campaign of liquidating illiteracy among the workers."

All Sections Report Progress

On August 10, the first anniversary of the actual introduction of universal compulsory primary education in the R.S.F.S.R., results were published showing great progress in all the republics and oblasts (districts) of the R.S.F.S.R. Adigeh, Kabardino-Balkarsk and other autonomous regions where there was hardly a literate person before the revolution, reported all their children of primary age in school in 1931. Great advances were reported in technical education, too. There were 363,900 students in the higher educational institutions of the R.S.F.S.R. in 1931, as against 292,300 the year before; in the technicums (trade high schools) there were 716,600 as against 579,500 the preceding year, in the rabfacs (workers' faculties) 333,300 against 247,500 in 1930 and in the factory and shop schools 1,197,800 against 586,900 a year back. Hundreds of thousands of workers are studying in special courses.

Leningrad, according to the report of Ivanov, educational head of the Leningrad oblast, is the first city in the Soviet Union to completely "liquidate illiteracy." In the cities of the Leningrad Oblast all children up to 15 years of age are in school. In the country districts the proportion is 98.5 per cent for the children from 8 to 11, 92 per cent from 12 to 15. All schools in the cities and 60 per cent of the rural schools are attached to some production unit. The next step planned is to extend compulsory education throughout the region up to the seventeenth year, and in addition to provide compulsory education for all defective and mentally backward children, as well as complete literacy for the whole adult population.

Lebedeva, head of the educational system of the Moscow oblast, reported that universal compulsory education had been completed for all the children of the oblast, increasing the number of children in primary schools from 878,000 to 1,065,040 in the past year. During last season alone 433 new schools went up in the Moscow region, 400 of them in the villages, and 5,225 new teachers were sent out. In many parts of the oblast compulsory education has been established up to fifteen years. Practically all of the schools have concluded agreements arranging for the pupils to take part in the production and social life of industrial enterprises and collectives.

From the Ural region came the report that 97.6 per cent of the children were in primary schools in 1930-31 as against 59.3 per cent three years ago, and 87 per cent of the children from 11 to 15, while universal compulsory education is completely in effect in all industrial centers. This year it will be extended to all parts of the region barring a few remote and icebound districts in the far north such as Yamalsk and Ostyak.

Grishkin, Educational Commissar for Karelia, reported that in its eleven years of autonomous existence, Karelia had increased the general literacy of the population from 30 to 71 per cent. In spite of the great difficulties faced by the schools because of the scattered population, the number of children in the primary schools had increased from 21,506 to 31,014 in the past year, or 99.4 per cent of all children of primary age. Over half of the schools are attached to productive enterprises. This autumn it is planned to accommodate 80 per cent of the children completing the primary grades in the seven-year schools.

In the Tartar Republic, 99 per cent of the children of school age are in the primary grades. Over 70 per cent of the schools are attached to industrial or farming enterprises. This September attendance in the seven-year schools is to be required for all children of workers and collective members. Over half a million adults are taking courses and illiteracy will soon be completely

Press Cliche

SCHOOL CHILDREN IN KARELIA LEARNING TO HARROW

wiped out among the Tartars, who are now using the Latin alphabet.

Ababukirov, Educational Commissar of the Bashkir Republic, reported that whereas before the October revolution there was not a single educational institution teaching in the Bashkir language, Bashkiria now boasts three colleges and forty technicums. Scarcity of teachers made it necessary to postpone the complete introduction of universal compulsory education in the primary grades until this year, but 88 per cent of the children attended school last year.

Educational Commissar Asanov of the Crimea reported not only all children from 8 to 11 in school in the Crimea, but also all children up to fifteen who had missed out on their earlier education. All city schools in the Crimea are attached to some enterprise, and 80 per cent of all village schools. Aliyev, Educational Commissar of Daghestan, where the illiteracy was 95 per cent among the men and 99 per cent among the women before the revolution, reported 90,000 children in the primary schools, and 160,000 adults learning to read and write in the new Latinized alphabet of Daghestan.

The Chuvash Commissar for Education, Chernov, reported 97 per cent of the children of the Chuvash Republic attending primary schools, and 85 per cent of the children from 12 to 15. The German Republic reported 100 per cent of its children in primary schools, and most of them attached to some enterprise. Educational Commissar Dashidonobey of the Buryat-Mongolian Republic, which did not become a Soviet Republic until after 1920, reported that while conditions were too difficult to complete the introduction of compulsory universal primary education last year, the pupils in the primary schools had increased from 48,000 to 50,400, and it is expected to complete it during the coming year. Educational expenditures for the Buryat-Mongolian Republic have increased from 774,700 rubles in 1923-24 to 11,675,000 rubles in 1930-31.

Plans for Improving Schools

On September 5 a resolution of the Central Committee of the Communist Party containing detailed instructions for improving the schools was published. The decree points out that while important advances have been made in the past year, particularly with regard to increased school attendance, the schools still fall short in many respects. The Central Committee considers that the children do not receive a sufficiently thorough grounding in such subjects as physics, chemistry, mathematics, language, geography and so on.

The decree emphasizes that the polytechnical schools must have a carefully worked out and strictly defined program carried out according to a strict schedule, and instructs the commissariats of the various republics to work out, on the basis of programs already issued, scientific, systematic programs adapted to local needs, to be introduced by January, 1932. Such programs are to be carefully tested in practice, teachers are to be prepared, and instructions published.

The decree states that the aim of polytechnical education is "To give students the foundations of science, to acquaint them in theory and practice with all the main branches of production and to establish a close inter-relation between theoretical study and productive labor, and instructs the Commissariats of Education, in furtherance of this aim, to provide for the establishment of workshops in all schools, in addition to carrying out the program for attaching all schools directly to some industrial and agricultural enterprise. On the other hand factories, shops, State farms, collectives, and machine and tractor stations are asked to do their part in providing equipment and tools and appointing skilled workers and specialists to help in the school work.

Model Schools for Each District

Model polytechnical schools are to be established in each county and provided with the best possible material equipment and teaching staff so that other schools may learn from them, and a certain number of the most experienced teachers are to be selected in each county to help the schools of the district in establishing the new program. Each Union Republic is instructed to organize during the school year 1931-32 a system of small polytechnical museums, or polytechnical departments in existing regional museums, for which they will receive financial and organizational aid from the Supreme Economic Council. Special polytechnical libraries are to be worked out by the Educational Commissariats in collaboration with Gosizdat, and printed in the languages of the various republics. Polytechnical and other educational films for the schools are to receive greater attention.

The decree criticizes the status of pedagogical research work, and outlines measures for its improvement. Pedagogical research institutes are to concentrate on the study and coordination of the actual experience of Soviet schools, especially in the field of polytechnical education. The need for improvement in the periodical literature on education is also noted.

Gosplan and the Educational Commissariats are to work out a new plan for teacher training, with special attention to increasing their knowledge of industrial and agricultural processes. A plan is to be formulated by Gosplan and the Commissariats for Finance and for Eduaction to increase the pay of the teaching staffs of the primary and intermediate schools. Arrangements are to be made for the teachers to receive the same privileges in getting food and other necessary articles as industrial workers.

The shortage of school buildings, as a result of the rapid growth of the number of pupils and the inadequacy of equipment is discussed, and Gosplan is instructed to work out a five-year plan of new school construction. The manufacture of all kinds of school equipment and supplies is to be concentrated in one organization under the Supreme Economic Council, and polytechnical equipment is to be standardized. Administrative work of the educational organs is to be reorganized.

With the introduction of universal compulsory education for the primary grades virtually completed, the committee considers the time ripe for the extension upward of universal education to the intermediate schools, and downward to the pre-school institutions. Plans to this effect are being worked out, and within the next few years universal education will be established for all children up to fifteen years in the Soviet Union.

The Labor Colonies of the OGPU

By MAXIM GORKY

Much attention has been attracted recently by the self-governing prison colonies of the OGPU (United State Political Administration). These colonies have neither guards nor bars, the inmates, some of them former marauding waifs, some of them chosen from other prison colonies, are paid at trade union rates, have regular holidays, and after they have demonstrated a genuine desire to change their way of life, become eligible for "graduation" and the restoration of full citizenship rights. Maxim Gorky recently visited one of these colonies which he describes in the following article translated from the Moscow "Izvestia" of July 14th.

ON June 26 a new shoe factory with a capacity of four thousand pairs of shoes a day was opened in the "First OGPU Labor Commune." At the general meeting in celebration of this event 1,598 members of the commune were present. Who were they, these people? Let the figures tell the story.

Of them 92.6 per cent were former "socially dangerous" persons—lawbreakers. Of these 529 had been taken from prisons before the expiration of their sentences, 300 came of their own accord, 283 were taken from other communes, 181 from the Butirka isolator, 149 from Solovki, 81 from children's homes, and the remainder from similar institutions. Over 82 per cent of the members had lived by thievery for five years or more. Almost 11 per cent were women.

These people had to be moulded into a single laboring family. Not all of them had had experience in labor processes. Only 45.5 per cent of them had had any kind of a trade or profession before entering the commune. The remainder were without any trade whatever.

The record of those who completely broke with the past and exculpated themselves by their productive and social work in the commune is as follows:

In 1927	37	persons
" 1929	2	"
" 1930	34	"
" 1931	90	"
Total	163	"

The proper authorities granted the petition of the general meeting of the commune to restore the rights of these persons as trade union members, and they were taken back into the family of workers. In addition, the sentences of seventeen persons were annulled. From among those set at liberty six were admitted into the Red Army for the first time since the colony was established. One hundred and five are members of the Communist Youth League, and eleven are members of the Communist Party.

During its six years of successful activities, Commune No. 1 had built up by January 1, 1931, a capital investment of 6,500,000 rubles ($3,347,500), which it is expected will be increased to 12,520,000 rubles during 1931.

From 1924 to January 1, 1931, the commune earned 16,885,000 rubles for its products. It is estimated that at least 23,286,000 will be earned by the end of 1931, making a total sum earned of 40,171,000 rubles.

That is what is to be learned from the figures of the "First OGPU Labor Commune." And here is the story of how the second was organized.

The foundation of the organization of the "Second Labor Commune of the OGPU" was laid in the city of Zvenigorod, in the former Savinsk Monastery. Beginning on October 21, 1927, during three days upwards of 1,300 homeless waifs and young lawbreakers were gathered up in groups from the streets of Moscow and sent out to Zvenigorod.

In the first days of the life of this labor commune the young people had no faith in the building up of an organization which aimed to transform them, people of the streets and cellars, into people useful to society. They could not at first accustom themselves to the new surroundings, where beds with clean sheets and new clean blankets were prepared for them, and as often as not someone would be found at night sleeping not on the neatly made bed, but under it.

These people had not the slightest conception

or understanding of order and discipline, and at first they spent all their free time getting and making all kinds of sling-shots, daggers, knives, and other weapons.

They resisted attempts to train them to a definite régime and discipline, and there were cases of attempted escape, some of them organized, and even going so far as attacks on the guards.

In spite of the suspicious attitude of the inmates toward the building of a commune, the organizational period was in the main completed by February, and the older members, with their criminal past behind them, to the number of 750 persons, were transferred to permanent quarters in the former monastery at Liubertsi.

Here, within the walls of the monastery, was laid the foundation for re-educating the young lawbreakers, on a basis of labor processes. Semi-handicraft workshops were organized with funds provided by the OGPU. In the beginning the shops did not undertake any commercial activities whatever, but served merely to provide occupation for the free time of the members, accustoming them gradually to habits of work.

During 1928 boat construction was organized. The manufacture of shoes was started, and beds, tables, benches and so on were made in the carpentry shops. The total production for 1928 amounted to 221,108 rubles.

In 1928-29 boat building amounted to 72,463 rubles, beds to 145,441 rubles, shoes to 663,784 rubles, incubators to 232,758 rubles, and other articles to 140,945 rubles, making a total of 1,255,392 rubles. By this time the membership of the commune had grown to about 900.

In 1929-30 production of these same articles was continued, and the manufacture of brooders was added, with an output amounting to 3,302,854 rubles a year. The number of members reached 940.

Beginning with April of the fiscal year of 1929-30, planning was introduced into the work of the labor commune for the first time, by strict instructions of the OGPU, and at the same time manufacture was undertaken of complete incubators, with a capacity of from 25,000 to 50,000 eggs.

The commune was able in the second half-year to make up for a break in production which occurred in the first half-year, fulfilling its program completely by the end of the economic year.

The special quarter at the end of 1930 (when the beginning of the economic year was changed from October 1st to January 1st) was for the commune a period of partial reconstruction and reorganization of production. The shoe factory was transferred in its entirety to Labor Commune No. 1, and along with it 252 members of the second commune who had become skilled in the manufacture of shoes.

The efforts of the commune were concentrated on the manufacture of incubators and brooders. During the special quarter the labor commune opened a newly constructed incubator factory, well equipped with the necessary machines.

Press Cliche

"Shock Troop" Workers in a Soviet Prison Colony

All the other enterprises were closed down. Thus the incubator plant of the labor commune, manned exclusively by members of the commune, formerly street waifs and lawbreakers, became a giant plant of the mechanized-industrial type. The program of the incubator factory for 1931 provides for an output of incubators and brooders amounting to a sum of 10,312,000 rubles.

On June 27th there were 1,200 members of the commune, divided according to the following age groups:

Under 16	30
From 16 to 25	900
Over 25	270

Of the members of the commune, 950 had been tried and convicted of some offense.

During its existence, the commune has "graduated" two sets of its members, 87 the first time, 50 the second, 137 in all. These have all been accepted into trade union membership, and five of them are members or candidates of the Communist Party. Fourteen of them have had their convictions annulled by the All-Russian Central Executive Committee at the request of the collegium of the OGPU. A hundred and sixty-one commune members have joined the Communist Party organization.

Not satisfied with the extent to which members of the commune took part in social organizations, the commune established a club, which is run by the members of the commune themselves.

The club has a drama circle, with 55 members; a choral circle of 55 members; two wind orchestras, a first and second group, with 43 members; stringed orchestras—three groups—with 80 members; art circles, with a membership of 32; a photo circle, with 15 members; sport circles, for all kinds of sports, with 450 members; a literary circle with 21 members, a radio amateurs group of 14 members, and 27 workers' correspondents in the editorial departments alone of the factory and commune newspapers.

To serve the cultural needs of the commune there is a summer theater, especially constructed; a building is being adapted for use as a winter club, and the construction of a huge club house along the lines of the Moscow workers' clubs, which will contain many rooms for the activities of the various circles, is being completed.

At the present time many important positions in the directing, administrative, economic, and technical work of the commune are held by "vydvizhentsi"—members of the commune who have been promoted.

Of the active members of the commune whose convictions have been annulled, two are on the directing educational staff, and two on the assistant staff.

The economic strength and the membership of the commune have so increased that the commune with its industrial and cultural institutions has outgrown the monastery walls and greatly extended its territory. The commune has this year organized a large State farm, and has its own railroad branch with passenger and freight accommodations.

Not baffled by any difficulties, the labor commune, under the direction of the OGPU, is following the line of increasing the industrial output of the commune, and attracting more and more lawbreakers from places of confinement to membership in the commune in order to re-educate them, train them in labor processes, and turn them into people useful to society.

Press Cliche

GERMAN CLASS IN A MOSCOW PRISON

* * *

And so 1,598 members of the First Labor Commune celebrated the opening in their commune of a new factory. At the holiday proclaimed for the occasion twenty-five members of the commune received gold and silver watches as a reward for exemplary work. It was not noticeable that these material rewards greatly touched them. But when thirty-six members of the commune were informed that their convictions were annulled, that their civil rights were restored, and seventy-four received trade union membership cards, that is, were recognized as skilled workers who henceforth had the right to work where they wished—in those minutes the hands of many of the "former criminals" shook with excitement, rough faces paled, eyes sparkled proudly. These people were proud because they had lived through so much that was terrible and degrading, and now all that had been left behind, like a nightmare. I sat on the platform and saw that among the 1,500 persons there were many moved to the point of tears—good tears of happiness for other human beings. A new life had begun for men who would have had no chance in the old days, before the October revolution. And at the same time was reborn the conviction that there exist no obstacles which human beings cannot overcome. It was all very simple. In the simple words which I have written down above and which were told me there, is hidden the astounding history of the moral resurrection of tens and hundreds of young persons who, in six years of persistent and severe labor have been reborn from "socially dangerous" into socially useful citizens of the Soviet Union, into citizens of a country where a liberated people perform miracles of heroism in the sphere of labor, and where in all spheres strength of will and of wisdom are displayed.

And the ceremony acknowledging the right of these "former" people to a bright future was also very simple. They were called to the table where sat the presidium and given their "ticket to life." At the table among the leaders sat their own comrades of the past and present. They also warmly applauded those newly entering upon an honest working life, as all the other fifteen hundred members of the commune gathered in the club for the celebration. And especially enthusiastic was the applause, when the decision of the general meeting to grant the Order of Lenin to Henrich Yagod, Matvey Pogrebinsky and A. Shanin, organizers of the Labor Commune, was announced. The simplicity and the deep significance of this act profoundly moved the visitors.

Sketches of the Minor Nationalities

I. The Udmurts (Votyaks)

Translated from an article by M. Kosven in the "Moskauer Randschau," a German language newspaper published in Moscow which has been running a series of articles describing the various minor nationalities of the Soviet Union.

THE autonomous Votyak region lies north of the Kama River, where it flows into the Volga, and between the cities of Vyatka and Perm. Its southern part, a plain, extends in a northeastern direction into the spurs of the Ural mountain range. It is forest country cut through by small rivers. Almost half the entire surface, some 11,720 square miles, is covered with woods, chiefly pine forest. The railroad touches only the boundaries. The rivers are unnavigable. The scanty population is spread out in numerous settlements so that with 756,264 inhabitants, a settlement counts on the average 186 persons. In the entire region there are only four settlements of an urban character and these are in the capital, Ishevsk, which has an old steel works.

Economically speaking the country is still very backward. The population lives chiefly from agriculture with a little domestic handiwork. Cattle-breeding is poor and little developed.

The 500,000 Votyaks form the preponderant percentage of the population. The name Votyak was given them by the Russians, but they call themselves the "Udmurts." Linguistically and ethnically the Udmurts belong to the eastern group of Finnish peoples. At one time they were hunters and fishers. Their early history is lost in the mists of the past, and until the 17th century their existence was never mentioned. The Tsarist Government had no interest in this poorest colony of its great empire, other than as a possible destination for political exiles.

Only on one occasion did the Udmurts attract the attention not only of Russia but also of the outside world for a few years. That was in the nineties of the last century when the Tsarist Government in its policy of inciting one nationality against the other, instituted legal action on grounds of cannibalism. Ten Udmurts from the village of Multany in the south of the region were seized and accused of murdering a Russian beggar in order to offer him as a sacrifice. This famous Multany trial lasted from 1892 to 1896. The accused Udmurts were twice found guilty and twice the verdict was lifted. Only on the third trial were they freed.

Entirely new perspectives were opened to these neglected and forgotten people after the October revolution. Following its customary policy toward minor nationalities the Soviet Government gave complete autonomy to the Udmurts with the possibility of building up their own national culture based on the natural resources of the land as well as the capabilities of the people. They have large tasks awaiting them in the cultural field. They must overcome the survivals and prejudices of a backward system and create their own economy, alphabet, and literary speech.

Many phases of Udmurt culture relating to customs, speech and religion have until recently been little examined. Realizing this, the Moscow Institute of Peoples of the Soviet East organized an expedition to explore the Votyak region in the summer of 1930. The expedition was to carry through a series of scientific research projects and to assist the scientific organizations newly established there. It was headed by the well known philologist and ethnographer, Professor Marr, of the Academy of Sciences. The history of the Udmurts was studied by the young professors Shikhov and Podorov, the language by Professors Litkin, Grande, Korepanov and Shukov. The ethnographic section was headed by Kosven assisted by several women students from Moscow University. Simultaneously the archaeologist A. P. Smirnov undertook the excavation of villages and graves of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. A report on this work will be published soon by the Institute of Peoples of the Soviet East.

The first thing to strike one's attention on entering an Udmurt village is the oddly constructed type of dwellings. It is known as the "kenos," and is a long, three-cornered building with a ridged roof, two-storied and quite high above the ground, with a balcony and an outside staircase. It has neither windows nor chimney. It is without a stove and is unheated, serving as a home during the warm season. The lower part is used for household goods and tools. Study of this building in all its variations has shown its origin as a lake-dwelling, which was very common among peoples who lived by fishing.

Various other remains of the past may be found still. There are not a few survivals of the old communal clan composition. The old tribal and clan names still exist. Young Udmurts often do not know them but every adult knows exactly to which tribe he belongs. The names, whose meaning is no longer known, originate from the old language. Names such as Moshga, Tshola, Tshudna, Tshabya, Yakashur and Kelda all sound

very ancient. Philologists believe that they are women's names which themselves are of totem origin.

There are many traces of matriarchal society. Women have always occupied a special position among the Udmurts in striking contrast to their Mohammedan neighbors, among whom women were little better than slaves. The economic independence and property rights of the Udmurt woman are particularly striking. Her wardrobe of clothes and jewels passes from generation to generation, from mother to daughter, so it often includes almost 200 articles of clothing, some of them dating as far back as the 18th century.

The young people have a great deal of freedom. Very interesting features are preserved in the marriage ceremony, which is a long and complicated cycle composed of a series of ceremonies and lasting for several years. The young girl marries, moves to her husband's home and after some time returns to her parents, takes off her wifely garments and again puts on the clothes of a young girl.

Still more archaic survivals have remained in the religious life of the people. The backward classes are still animistic. Their pantheon is peopled with numerous gods representative of the different natural powers. Ancestor worship of female forebears is particularly widespread. The idols are named Mudor, Inmar, and Vorshud or Invu. In the Udmurt fields one often passes holy bushes, forbidden places, and sacred trees with characteristic sacrificial remains. A whole series of holidays closely connected with agriculture is characterized by sacrificial offerings and religious rites and often lasts several weeks. Almost every settlement possesses a medium-sized four-cornered building called the *kuala*—the sanctuary and place of worship of the family.

Traces of magic can still be found. One of the members of the expedition tells of an experience he had. "As I left my room early one morning—I lived in an Udmurt hut in a God-forsaken village in the north—I found on the ground near the threshold two sharply ground hatchets, with the edge turned toward my door. This was the native way of asking 'Who knows these strange people, what are their thoughts and their plans, why have they come to these remote villages?' "

The Tsarist Government forcibly planted Russian orthodox religion here. The Udmurts let themselves be baptized but contented themselves with placing the ikons in the *kuala*.

But that is all in the past. Today is bright and new and this peaceable, work-loving people is enormously eager for new ways of life and new knowledge and culture. The land has great possibilities: the development of agriculture and of cattle breeding on a new technical basis and in socialist forms, and the creation of various branches of industry based on the inexhaustible forest resources. The most important prerequisite for development is the construction of a railroad to cross the region from north to south. The marks of a socialist system can already be noticed everywhere. Immense difficulties still obstruct the way in the form of religious and tribal prejudices, and exploitation by the kulak elements, but the general economic and cultural upswing is perceptible at every step.

Press Cliche

NATIVE ADJAR WOMEN LEARNING TO READ

THE "GRAF ZEPPELIN" OVER LENINGRAD EN ROUTE TO THE ARCTIC

Press Cliche

"Malygin" and "Graf Zeppelin" Meet in Arctic

The wide interest in the Soviet Union in polar exploration was greatly enhanced by the thirty-three day trip of the Soviet ice-breaker "Malygin" to the Arctic in July and August of this summer.

The "Malygin," a modern steel-prowed ice-breaker with powerful engines and an enforced hull, was in command of Professor U. V. Vize, Soviet explorer, and carried a crew of fifty and forty passengers. Among the passengers were several Americans, a large group of Soviet scientists and journalists and a number of German newspaper men. General Umberto Nobile accompanied the expedition in the hope of finding some trace of his disastrous "Italia" expedition of 1928.

The trip was arranged jointly by Intourist which handled the arrangements for tourists and by various scientific organizations, among which were the Arctic Institute in Leningrad, the Hydrological Institute and the Meteorological Institute. Until this time Arctic tourist trips have been developed only by German steamship companies which send ships annually to Spitzbergen, but have not penetrated into the deep recesses of the polar regions since an ice-breaker is essential for this.

The "Malygin" trip differed from the usual tourist travels in that it had a distinctly scientific character. The scientists in charge made valuable observations on the condition of the ice, the movement of winds, the temperature and air currents. One of the aims of the trip was research in the use of meteorology for agriculture, hunting and fishing, as well as aviation and navigation. The meeting of the Malygin with the "Graf Zeppelin" in Franz Joseph Land showed the very great possibilities for future Arctic exploration with the joint use of an ice-breaker and a dirigible.

On the trip from Archangel, the point of departure for the "Malygin," the passengers assiduously studied polar history and geography and discussed them with the Soviet scientists on board. Professor Vize, of the Arctic Institute, specialized in a study of meteorological conditions. Professor Chudzishvili of the Magnetological Institute made surveys in his field. The aviator, Ivanov, was landed at Franz Joseph Land to organize an airline with regular service to begin in 1932 between Archangel and Franz Joseph Land. During next summer he will make six trips to the latter place to bring back the Soviet scientists wintering there and replace them with others. This work will be closely connected with careful observation of ice and weather conditions.

Leaving Archangel July 18, under the captaincy of D. T. Chertkov, the "Malygin" steered through the White Sea heading for Franz Joseph Land. It stopped at Cape Flora, where in 1929 the Soviet Union laid claim to Franz Joseph Land. The passengers went on shore to visit the huts left by the Jackson expedition in 1894, the memorial to the disastrous expedition of the Duke of Abruzzi in 1899 and other historic memorials. At the place where the signatures of all visitors to Cape Flora are kept a letter was left giving a list of the passengers and crew of the "Malygin."

When the "Malygin" entered Teplitz Bay in Rudolf Land, which is the northernmost island

of the Franz Joseph archipelago, it was the third ship in the polar history to do so. It was in Rudolf Land that the American expedition headed by Fiala made its headquarters from 1903 to 1905. The goods left by them were found and numerous articles were taken back to the Arctic Museum in Leningrad. The Soviet Government will erect a meteorological and a wireless station and establish a settlement on the island.

Very careful preparations were made for the meeting between the "Malygin" and the "Graf Zeppelin." This was the high spot of the trip not only to the newspapers and the passengers but as a scientific achievement. The "Graf Zeppelin," in command of Dr. Hugo Eckener, and including Professor Rudolf Samoilovich, head of the famous "Krassin" Expedition, which rescued part of the "Italia" crew, left Germany on July 25, and after a stop at Leningrad, proceeded to the Arctic.

The meeting between the ice-breaker and the dirigible took place July 27, near Hooker Island in the region of Franz Josef Land. Mail and greetings were exchanged and very shortly the Zeppelin was forced to rise due to the pressure of the ice which, in turn, was caused by the current. Professor Rudolph Samoilovich, scientific director of the expedition, announced the discovery of many new islands and expressed himself enthusiastically in favor of the use of a dirigible for polar exploration. In a statement issued at the end of the trip, which made it his eighteenth visit to the Arctic, he said: "I may say without exaggeration that we accomplished more in a few hours than could have been accomplished otherwise with a whole year's work. Despite the difficult Arctic conditions we made a landing in drifting ice which constitutes the acid test in an airship's Arctic utility." An air photo survey was made of all the islands composing the Franz Josef Land archipelago. It lasted six hours and ended at one o'clock of a bright Arctic morning. The survey showed that the islands composing Franz Josef Land are incorrectly charted. Professor Samoilovich and other scientists drew new charts in two hours. The elaboration of all materials of a general geographical nature has been entrusted to Professor Samoilovich. German and American scientists are cooperating in this work and the results will be published simultaneously in the Soviet Union and Germany.

On the return trip of the "Malygin" through the Markham Straits eastward four islands were discovered, necessitating a change in the map of Franz Josef Land. The Arctic Institute will name them and lay formal claim to them in the name of the Soviet Union. Armitage Island had to be crossed out since it is part of George Island, a map of which was made by the scientists on board the Zeppelin, verifying an earlier discovery by the Soviet scientist Ivanov. It was also discovered by the "Malygin" that Arthur Island lay farther north than is shown by the map and that Alfred Harmsworth Island, which Nansen thought he saw, does not exist at all. Aldjer Island was the last of the Franz Josef Land archipelago to be visited. Due to the pressure of the ice which caused the use of more coal than usual, the plan to stop at the little explored Loneliness Island to the north of Siberia had to be abandoned and the ship turned southwest toward the north end of Novaya Zemlya. A meteorological station is under construction at this point.

Press Cliche

THE "MALYGIN" AT MATOCHKIN SHAR IN THE ARCTIC

The northernmost meteorological station in the world has been built on Hooker Island.

Basing his opinion on many years of polar research and on the results of the "Malygin-Zeppelin" trip, Professor Vize concludes that insurmountable hindrances exist for the ice-breaker if used alone and that in order that its work be successful it is necessary to join to it the adaptability of the air apparatus.

The "Malygin" returned to Archangel on the twentieth of August after a thirty-three day trip. The Zeppelin made the entire trip from Leningrad and return in 100 hours and the flight from Leningrad to Franz Josef Land and North Land in 27 hours. The organization of a second Arctic expedition by the Zeppelin will be discussed at the forthcoming Congress of the International Aeronautic Society, which will take place in September. A delegation of Soviet polar explorers will participate in the Congress.

New Publishing Program

RECOGNIZING the ever-growing need for more and still more books in every field, the Central Committee of the Communist Party passed a resolution on August 15th calling for the reorganization of the publishing industry.

Some of the achievements of the publishing industry in the past few years are enumerated. The output of the United State Publishing House (including all the publishing organizations now combined into the OGIZ) has grown from 300,000,000 copies of books published in 1929 to 575,000,000 in 1930, with 800,000,000 estimated as the figure by the end of this year. The works of Lenin have reached 5,000,000 copies this year, twice as many as last year. Technical books have increased from 11,000,000 copies last year to 40,000,000 this year. Literature for all kinds of school and extra-curricular work has reached 150,000,000 copies in the past two years.

Press Cliche

CHILDREN'S SECTION OF A MOSCOW WORKERS' CLUB LIBRARY

But still the demand is not met. The decree enumerates serious weaknesses, such as the inadequate supply of certain types of books, the poor quality of many of the books, and delays in publishing, and outlines definite steps to bring the publishing business closer to the actual needs of the people.

The first of these is the transfer of "Gostechizdat" (State Technical Publishing House) to the control of the Supreme Economic Council. This means that technical literature, particularly that dealing with achievements in other countries, text books for higher technical schools and popular technical literature for the masses will all be concentrated under the expert supervision of the State body directly concerned with the application of technical knowledge to industry.

The publication of all literature on Communist Party matters is to be turned over to "Partizdat," a special publishing section connected with the party.

Literature for the national minorities, much of which has heretofore been handled by the OGIZ (the Central State Publishing House), greatly overloading its capacities, is to be transferred to local publishing houses wherever such exist.

All other publishing departments now included in the system of the OGIZ are to remain under its control as independent units specializing in different types of publications. The administration of OGIZ will be the directing center, planning the work of its different sections, looking after questions of technical and editorial staffs, and organizing scientific research work. Special emphasis is to be laid on improving the quality of books published, particularly in the field of agricultural literature, text books and *belles lettres*. Literature for children and young people is also to receive increased attention.

Criticizing periodical literature with regard to contents, overlapping, illustrations and technical make-up, the resolution calls for a careful study of all existing periodicals with the purpose of cutting down the number and improving the editorial staffs.

The resolution calls attention to the growing number of talented writers and recommends that publishing bodies extend greater aid to young writers. The most talented are to be selected and given special material help, as well as additional educational opportunities. The system of payment of authors is to be reorganized, offering greater rewards for better work. Consultation bureaus are to be established within a month after the publication of the decree in connection with all publishing houses. These bureaus will give advice and criticism to all young writers submitting manuscripts, whether or not their work is accepted. Special courses for writers and editors are to be established.

Finally, OGIZ is charged with the reorganization of its bibliographical institute so that it will become a real center of bibliographical work for the whole country and a special bibliograhpical journal is to be established.

Foreign Relations of the Soviet Union

THE Soviet proposal for an economic non-aggression pact presented by Maxim Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, at the meeting of the League of Nations Commission for the Study of a European Union last May, was considered by the coordinating committee of the commission meeting at Geneva on August 31. The plan obtained "in principle" a favorable reception and was finally referred to a special subcommittee which will prepare a modified form of it for further consideration.

In introducing the proposal, Mr. Litvinov spoke briefly.

"The Soviet proposal," he said, "is so clear, its aims so simple and obvious, that no verbose explanations are necessary. Considering, however, the doubts expressed at the last session based, I am convinced, on a misunderstanding of the essence of the Soviet proposal, I consider it necessary to make a few explanatory remarks."

Economic Non-Aggression Pact Explained

Mr. Litvinov then explained that the economic non-aggression pact was built on the principle of non-discrimination, proposing that it should be forbidden for any country to establish unfavorable measures not extended to all countries against any other country. He explained that the principle of non-discrimination not only did not contradict the most favored nation principle, but was an inverted application of it. The repudiation of economic aggression would not to any degree limit the right of governments to conclude trade treaties based on mutual concessions. Similarly the pact would not limit the right of States to take measures directed to the defense of national industry and agriculture, so long as such measures were extended to all countries, and so long as no actual discrimination against any one country was concealed under such measures.

Mr. Litvinov emphasized that the repudiation of economic aggression was in the interests of all countries, irrespective of their system of foreign trade, because both under a trade monopoly and under a system of private enterprise discrimination takes the form of special regulations established for some other country. Such regulations in any case might be established only on the basis of legislative or administrative measures. According to Mr. Litvinov, economic aggression, which the proposed pact is designed to lessen, is one of the elements contributing most to the atmosphere of political mistrust and enmity in Europe.

In conclusion Mr. Litvinov pointed out that when he had introduced the economic non-aggression pact at the May conference, the representatives of the various countries, without committing themselves on its substance, had said that it would be impossible to accept it immediately since they did not know what the attitude of their respective governments would be. He said that in the past four months the representatives present must certainly have had an opportunity to find out the viewpoint of their governments, and expressed the hope that at this session it would be possible to adopt a final decision on the substance of the draft.

Discussion of Pact

In the discussion that followed the Italian delegate, M. Grandi, said that his government approved the idea formulated by Mr. Litvinov. The French delegate, M. Francois Poncet, while endorsing the principle of non-discrimination, suggested that the scheme was not so simple as it might appear and moved to refer the Soviet draft of the protocol to the League of Nations economic committee to be considered with a Soviet representative participating. Dr. Curtius, German Foreign Minister, supported the Soviet project warmly, and asked for immediate favorable action by the coordinating committee.

Answering some of the arguments presented, Mr. Litvinov opposed the French proposal to refer the pact to the League of Nations economic committee and said that while France had in recent months done useful work for peace he felt the procedure which the French Government proposed was dangerously slow, while the economic crisis in Europe was developing so rapidly. In conclusion, Mr. Litvinov stated that he had no objection to the further working over of the draft nor to amendments and additions and that he therefore would agree to the creation of a special subcommission which would report directly to the plenary session of the European Commission. The coordinating committee then voted to appoint a sub-committee to report back within a few days.

Report of Coordinating Commission

In subsequent meetings devoted to a discussion of the general report of the coordinating commission, Mr. Litvinov reiterated the opposition of the Soviet Government to preferential tariffs in the case of certain countries, as recommended in the report, and expressed disappointment at the delay in taking definite steps in the direction outlined in his economic non-aggression pact.

Describing the vicissitudes of the pact, Mr. Litvinov said:

"In May this project was turned over by the

European Commission to a sub-committee to determine the procedure for action upon it. Then it was returned to the European Commission. Next it fell into the hands of the coordinating sub-commission which, in turn, passed it on to a revising commission which tossed it back to the European Commission. Why has it been necessary to treat the project like a tennis ball? Either the proposed pact has no meaning from the point of view of pacifying Europe and mitigating the crisis, in which case it should be immediately rejected—or it is a potential factor for peace in economics and hence in politics as well, in which case several meetings of the European Commission should be devoted to its consideration."

In conclusion, Mr. Litvinov said:

"A member of the commission at the last session assured me that no hostile plans and intentions against the U.S.S.R. existed. I should have liked to have been able to report to the people of my country not merely such statements, but facts and deeds supporting these declarations. I have asked the commission to remember that I speak here not only as the delegate of one of thirty European countries, as the delegate of a country with a population of over 150,000,000 persons, but also as the representative of one of the two existing social systems. I had hoped that the commission would come to the conclusion that the problem of the relations between the U.S.S.R. and the rest of the world—particularly the countries of Europe—deserved the most serious attention, in the interests of mitigating the world crisis and furthering peace, and I had hoped for a very different outcome of these sessions.

"The existence of two systems complicates politics, economics and diplomacy just as the existence of many nations in one country is a complicating factor. It would be simpler if there were only one nation, one government in the whole world. It would also be much simpler if there were only one social system.

"However, we must recognize historical facts, whether they please us or not. We must find a solution to our problems however difficult they may be. On its part, the Soviet Government in all its proposals is guided and will continue to be guided exclusively by its desire for peace."

At its final session on September 5th the commission, after a long debate, adopted the proposal of Foreign Minister Curtius of Germany to establish a special committee to study the Soviet economic non-aggression pact as soon as possible after the approval of such a committee by the League of Nations Assembly meeting in September, that is, at a meeting which the Commission of Inquiry plans to hold as soon as the assembly ends.

While Litvinov advocated the formation of a committee without reference to other League organs, he conceded that since the commission was in itself a League organ, he could not oppose the decision that the appointment of the committee be subject to the Assembly's consent.

Franco-Soviet Trade Restrictions Lifted

ON July 11 the French Government passed a decree setting aside its previous decree of October 3, 1930 in which special restrictions were established with regard to the importation of certain goods from the U.S.S.R. into France.

In response to this measure Mr. A. P. Rozenholtz, People's Commissar for Foreign Trade of the Soviet Union, issued an ordinance on July 15, rescinding all orders and instructions designed to restrict the importation of goods from France into the Soviet Union, and other special restrictive measures with regard to France.

Commenting editorially on the action of the French Government the Moscow *Pravda* of July 17 said:

"We are printing today the announcement that the decree issued by the French Government on October 3, 1930 has been revoked. This decree established special restrictive regulations regarding the importation into France of various categories of Soviet articles. According to the decree it was necessary to receive special permission in each separate case to import into France lumber, grain, flax and other goods from the U.S.S.R., which resulted in practice, in systematic refusal by the authorities to grant such permission.

"As is well known, the French example was followed by Belgium and certain other countries connected with France, which also passed measures directed against Soviet imports.

"The Soviet Government answered these measures by the publication of a decree on October 20, 1930, signed by the People's Commissariat for Foreign Trade, ordering the curtailment, even to the point of complete discontinuance, of imports from countries establishing special regulations with regard to trade with the U.S.S.R., forbidding transit through the U.S.S.R. of goods originating in those countries, and so on.

"The decree of the Council of People's Commissars was of a general character, and applied to all countries discriminating against Soviet goods. It was carried out by means of special instructions issued by the People's Commissariat for Foreign Trade.

"With the rescinding by the French Government of its decree of October 3, there is no longer any reason for applying to France the provisions of our decree of October 20. Hence the ordinance of the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs setting aside all restrictive measures applied to France on the basis of this decree."

Polish-Soviet Relations

IN connection with the publication by the Polish Telegraph Agency of a report to the effect that on August 23 the Polish Ambassador in Moscow, M. Patek, had presented a Polish draft of a non-aggression pact to the Soviet Commissariat for Foreign Affairs, the following statement was issued by Tass (Soviet Telegraph Agency), and printed in the Moscow *Izvestia* of August 27:

"On August 23 the Polish Ambassador to Moscow, M. Patek, presented to the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs a document containing a copy of the Soviet draft project for a non-aggression pact presented in 1926 to the Polish Government by the Soviet diplomatic representative, the late Mr. Voikov. The document also contained an exposition of the conditions on which in 1926-27, the Polish Government made the conclusion of a non-aggression pact with the U.S.S.R. dependent, and which the Soviet Government considered unacceptable and irrelevant to the pact. It is well known that as a result of these conditions negotiations were actually discontinued in 1927, and have never been reopened since that time. Since the Polish Government has not withdrawn its conditions and the Soviet Government has not accepted them, there has been no ground for a renewal of negotiations. The new document now presented by M. Patek, as already stated, repeats the same conditions, and adds still another which has not heretofore figured in the negotiations. Thus the above-mentioned document is not a step forward in Polish-Soviet negotiations, but a step backward. Incidentally M. Patek, in delivering the document, made no proposal for the resumption of negotiations and himself described the document merely as a summary of the negotiations of 1926-27. The document was delivered by M. Patek on the day of his departure from Moscow for an extended vacation."

Lithuanian-Soviet Protocol

ON August 29th Mr. Karsky, Soviet Ambassador to Lithuania, and Mr. Zaunius, the Lithuanian Foreign Minister, signed in Kaunas a protocol regulating the juridical status of the Soviet Trade Mission in Lithaunia.

The protocol, among other things, fixes the diplomatic rights and privileges of the Trade Representative of the U.S.S.R. in Lithuania and his assistant, establishes extraterritoriality of the offices of the Trade Mission and exempts those of the staff of the latter who are subjects of the U.S.S.R. from payment of income taxes in Lithuania. The protocol further establishes that the Trade Mission of the U.S.S.R. is responsible for all transactions concluded on behalf of the Trade Mission by persons authorized by it, and does not hold itself responsible for the actions of economic organizations of the U.S.S.R. which, in accordance with Soviet Union laws, are alone responsible for their actions.

The protocol becomes valid from the date on which it was signed and will remain in force until such time as one of the signatory countries shall declare the desire to annul it.

Upon signing the protocol notes were exchanged (1) regarding the granting to branches of Soviet economic organizations acting on the Lithuanian territory of conditions no less favorable than those in force or which may be established in relation to juridical persons of other States enjoying the most favored nation régime in Lithuania; (2) regarding the favorable attitude of organs of the U.S.S.R. toward the development of the transit of goods via Lithuania, and (3) regarding the consent of the Soviet Government to grant to Lithuania during the period of validity of this protocol the same rights with regard to the transit of goods via the territory of the U.S.S.R. which Soviet laws grant to countries having trade agreements with the U.S.S.R.

It was announced by the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs that the text of the protocol and the notes would be published later.

On the same date as the signing of the above protocol, documents were exchanged ratifying the protocol extending for five years the action of the treaty on neutrality and non-aggression concluded between Lithuania and the U.S.S.R. in 1926 and renewed on May 6, 1931.

Afghan-Soviet Neutrality Treaty

ON June 24 a treaty of neutrality and mutual non-aggression was signed in Kabul between Leonid Stark, diplomatic representative of the U.S.S.R. in Afghanistan, and Faiz Muhammed-Khan, Foreign Minister of Afghanistan.

The introductory paragraph of the treaty reads as follows:

"The Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. and His Majesty the King of Afghanistan, with the aim of strengthening the friendly and neighborly relations that have happily existed between the two countries on the basis of the treaty signed in Moscow on February 28, 1921, and convinced that these relations will continue unchangeably to develop in the service of the high aim of universal peace, have decided to conclude the present treaty on the same basis as the treaty concluded in Pagmen, August 31, 1926."

The term of the treaty is five years, after which it will be automatically continued from year to year unless one of the signatory countries

desires to discontinue it, in which case, six months notice must be given.

The treaty was ratified by the King of Afghanistan and the Afghan National Council on August 22, and by the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. on August 23. The treaty will become valid after the exchange of ratification credentials in Kabul, scheduled to take place in September.

Six Months of Soviet Foreign Trade

DURING the first six months of 1931 the outstanding fact in the foreign trade situation of the U.S.S.R. has been the entry into the Soviet Union of a large amount of goods purchased on long term credits as a result of the credit agreements with Germany, Italy and other countries. According to information given out by the Customs Administration, first place in Soviet imports is held by industrial equipment and metals which reached a total of 372,120,000 rubles ($191,641,800) as against 316,817,000 for the first half of 1930, an increase of 55,303,000 rubles. Long term credits have been extended not only in the case of these goods, but to other articles of Soviet import. This has naturally had its effect on the balance of Soviet trade for the first half of 1931. The negative trade balance for the period is 59,652,000 rubles larger than the negative balance for the corresponding period last year. The increase, however, is almost entirely due to the long term credit orders, final payments for which will not be made for a year and a half or two years.

The entire foreign trade turnover of the U.S.S.R. for Soviet imports has consisted mainly of equipment, metals, metal goods and so on, divided into the following main groups:

Ferrous metals	55,687,000	rubles
Non-ferrous metals	24,385,000	"
Tractors and tractor parts	78,124,000	"
Automobiles and bicycles	12,901,000	"

Among other articles imported are the following:

Electro-technical equipment and exact instruments	23,025,000	rubles
Yarn and textiles	36,326,000	"
Chemical products	14,338,000	"
Foodstuffs (including tea, dried fruits, etc.)	29,874,000	"
Animal products	22,921,000	"

Germany holds first place in the foreign trade of the Soviet Union for the first half of 1931, the United States second, and England third. Following are the figures for trade with these three countries:

	Imports to the U.S.S.R.	*Exports from the U.S.S.R.*	*Total in rubles*
Germany	162,718,000	73,420,000	236,138,000
United States	142,652,000	10,214,000	152,866,000
England	33,051,000	92,277,000	125,328,000

Corresponding figures for the first half of 1930 are as follows:

	Imports to the U.S.S.R.	*Exports from the U.S.S.R.*	*Total in rubles*
Germany	105,503,000	105,541,000	211,044,000
United States	167,056,000	19,248,000	186,304,000
England	35,390,000	96,667,000	132,057,000

By these figures it is seen that while in the first half of 1930 Soviet imports from the United States fell off by about 14 per cent from the previous year, Soviet imports from Germany increased by 54 per cent in the same period.

The period January-June, 1931, amounted to 883,534,000 rubles as against 1,019,992,000 rubles for the same period last year. Exports for the first half year amounted to 366,256,000 rubles, as against 464,311,000 rubles last year, and imports for the first half year amounted to 517,278,000 rubles as against 555,681,000 last year. Thus the six months negative trade balance for this year amounted to 151,022,000 rubles as against 91,370,000 rubles for the same period a year ago.

Agricultural exports of the Soviet Union for the half-year period amounted to 147,481,000 rubles, divided as follows:

Agricultural products	75,238,000	rubles
Livestock and poultry products	33,024,000	"
Hunting and Fishing products	39,219,000	"

Total industrial exports for the first half of the year amounted to 218,775,000 rubles, distributed as follows:

Lumber and lumber products	35,069,000	rubles
Products of Food industries	47,418,000	"
Oil products, mineral ores and coal	79,059,000	"
Miscellaneous	57,229,000	"

Turco-Soviet Trade Treaty

On August 3 the treaty on trade and navigation between the U.S.S.R. and Turkey, which was signed in Moscow on March 15 of this year, was ratified by the presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. The pact was ratified by Turkey on July 22nd.

Sanitary Protection of Soviet Borders

In connection with the ratification by the Soviet Government of the International Sanitary Convention, signed in Paris on June 21, 1926, the Central Executive Committee and the Supreme Economic Council have adopted a decision defining the regulations regarding the sanitary protection of the borders of the U.S.S.R. with a view to preventing contagious diseases penetrating from abroad and vice versa.

Miscellaneous News

Grain Trust Reorganized

OWING to the fact that since 1929 the number of State Grain Farms has increased to 207, with a twenty fold increase in production, it has been found necessary to decentralize their administration. The administration of 190 State grain farms and 17 large rice farms, including a large group of industrial enterprises, research institutes, experimental stations, higher technical schools and numerous agricultural courses, concentrated under the Zernotrest in Moscow, has created a somewhat unwieldy organization. Problems of increased yields, crop-rotation, developing permanent staffs and the varying geographic, climatic and soil conditions of the different regions, have now made it necessary to bring the direction closer to the State farms.

According to a decree issued by the Commissariat of Agriculture on August 25th, to go into effect by September 10th, the country has been divided up into nine sections, each containing a group of grain farms subject to more or less similar conditions. The best of the State farm directors, men who have had the actual practical experience of organizing and directing the large industrial farms, have been picked as heads of the different regional trusts. Bogomolkin, head of the famous Gigant farm of the North Caucesus is to take over the management of the Eastern Grain Trust, and Margolin, manager of the successful Training and Experimental Farm near Rostov, is to be in charge of the Grain Farms of Western Siberia, where he is to organize a second Training and Experimental Farm to specialize on technical problems and to fight against drouth.

Beginning with January 1, 1932, the Grain Trusts are to be put on a system of "hozraschet" (economic accounting), and will thus be on the same financial basis as industrial enterprises. In place of the Zernotrest, a "Grain-Sovhoz-Concern" will be organized under the Commissariat for Agriculture, headed by Gerchikov, which, as in the case of the industrial concerns, will look after the problems of general administration, planning, financing, supplies and sales.

Experience has shown that in some cases the new agricultural giants have been so large as to be somewhat unwieldy and the average size is established for the present at about 100,000 acres, and not more than 125,000 acres of seeded land. This is to be divided up into "Uchastki," or sections of from 15,000 to 17,300 acres each, which are to be organized as permanent units with regard to area, machinery and so on.

International Psychotechnical Conference

THE Seventh International Conference on Psychotechnology (industrial psychology) was held in Moscow from September 8th to 13th. Over a hundred foreign delegates from Belgium, France, Germany, England, Italy, Spain, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, the United States and other countries attended the conference, as well as 150 delegates from the Soviet Union.

Professor I. N. Spielrin of Moscow, who was elected a member of the presiding body of the International Association of Psycho-technicians organized in 1927, opened the conference. He outlined the importance of psychotechnology to the Soviet Union. The address of welcome was delivered by Yefimov of the Moscow Soviet, offering the delegates facilities to inspect whatever industrial, scientific and social establishments they felt it of value to see.

Of special interest among the papers delivered at the early part of the conference was that of Professor Lehy, of the Sorbonne University, an exponent of the dialectical materialist method of psychological investigation of occupational aptitudes. Professor Stern, of Hamburg, took the opposite standpoint in a paper advocating the idealistic approach to psychological problems. An interesting discussion followed in which the Soviet delegates and a majority of the others present supported materialist methods.

In addition to the regular sessions special committees were held on problems of unifying psychotechnical terminology and testing methods, the study of the effect of environment on labor, industrial traumatism, and so on.

According to an article by Professor Spielrin recently published on psychotechnology in the Soviet Union, psychotechnical methods are being applied very widely in determining choice of profession. In 1931, 1,300,000 persons were assisted in their choice of profession by these methods. He stated that very interesting studies had been made in comparing effects of exactly the same work on persons impelled by different motives. Thus it had been found that tasks which proved excessive and even injurious to workers not interested in their job, were easily attained and not at all injurious in the case of "shock brigaders," who voluntarily accepted increased tasks, refuting the opinion of those who consider it sufficient to establish the physiological reaction on the organism, in order to fix the boundary between maximum productivity and over-exertion.

Soviet Delegations at World Congresses

A SOVIET delegation attended the World Social and Economics Congress held at Amsterdam the latter part of August. At the sessions on planning held August 25, Mr. V. V. Ossinsky, head of the Soviet delegation, made a two-hour speech in which he outlined the principles of the Soviet economic system and the methods of planning socialist construction, and discussed the main achievements and problems of the U.S.S.R. Following Mr. Ossinsky other members of the Soviet delegation spoke. Mr. Gaister reported on the socialist reconstruction of agriculture, Mr. Kraval on labor in the Soviet Union, and Mr. Ronin spoke on the five-year world prosperity plan proposed to the Congress by Dr. Lewis L. Lorwin of the Brookings Institute of Washington. The reports of the Soviet delegates were received by the Congress with great interest and fololwed by a long discussion.

The International Congress on the History of Science and Technology, held in London early in July, was attended by a Soviet delegation consisting of the following: N. I. Bukharin, prominent Soviet economist, head of the delegation; Prof. N. I. Vavilov, president of the Lenin Academy of Agricultural Science; Prof. Zavodovsky, director of the Neuro-Humeral Institute in Moscow; Prof. Rubenstein of the State Planning Commission; Prof. A. Joffe, director of the Leningrad Physico-Technical Institute; Prof. Hessen, director of the Institute of Physics in Moscow; Prof. Colman, and Prof. Mitkevich.

Scientific addresses were made by each of the Soviet delegation, and later published in full by Kniga (England), Ltd., under the title, "Science at the Cross Roads."

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Illiteracy Disappearing

IN the last part of August the "Anti-Illiteracy Society" held a conference in Moscow at which gains were reported in teaching the adult population of the Soviet Union to read and write, and plans made to vanquish illiteracy completely throughout the R.S.F.S.R. by the end of 1932.

It was reported at the Congress that on January 1, 1931, the adult population of the R.S.F.S.R. was 75 per cent literate. In the past few months the Lower Volga region, the Adigeh and Kabardian-Balkar autonomous areas have announced that their entire population between the ages of 16 and 40 was literate. The cities of Leningrad, Moscow, Saratov, Ivanovo-Voznesensk, Rostov-on-Don, Samara, Sverdlovsk, Krasnodar, Simferopol and Kazan have almost completely wiped out illiteracy.

Among the national minority groups in the R.S.F.S.R. 3,100,000 adults have been attending literacy classes during the past year.

Some idea of what has been accomplished may be gathered from the fact that in the Adigeh autonomous area there were only two or three schools before the revolution. Of the general population of some 200,000 persons, only seven per cent were literate, and among the women only 1.5 per cent. Between the years 1924 and 1929 over 10,000 persons were taught reading and writing, and 10,700 during 1929-30. During the past year the district has become completely collectivized, and a mass campaign was carried on to achieve complete literacy. By January, 1931, 23,700 persons were studying. They are now planning to teach adults up to 45, and to give polytechnical education to the semi-literate population.

The "Down with Illiteracy" Society, which now has a membership of over 4,500,000 members has undertaken to teach 4,000,000 illiterate and 2,000,000 semi-literate persons during the coming year and to completely wipe out illiteracy in the Chechen, Karachai, North Ossetian, Ingush autonomous regions and in the German, Tartar and Karelyan autonomous republics during the coming year.

On August 15th the Sovnarkom of the R.S.F.S.R. passed a decree providing that illiteracy should be completely wiped out throughout its territory by the end of 1932.

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History of the Civil War

A COMPREHENSIVE history of the Civil War covering the period 1917-1921 is soon to be published in the Soviet Union. It will include all the more important material that has already been published on the Civil War, and certain material which is now in preparation. The history, which will be a fifteen-volume affair, according to present plans, will be a compilation of the writings of many of the workers and peasants who actually took part in the Civil War as well as of a staff of military specialists, historians, writers and artists.

Among the sections in preparation are the following: "October," "Efforts to Obtain a Respite," "German Intervention," "Cossack Vandalism," "The Kolchak Movement," "The Fight for Petrograd," "Intervention in the North," "The Denikin Campaign," "The Fight Against Wrangel," "Civil War in the Far East," "Transcaucasia and Turkestan."

It will thus contain both purely scientific and historical material and literary accounts. The scheme, roughly, is to have each section commence with a scientific historical analysis of events containing statistics and maps and authenticated

by official documents, followed by a literary chronicle containing narratives of separate events and episodes and descriptions of the participants.

The editorial staff of the history includes representatives of the Society of Marxist Historians, the Institute of Red Professors and a number of literary organizations. Each of these institutions is contributing extensively to the volumes. The help of people all over the Soviet Union has been enlisted in gathering data and much valuable material has been sent in. Special "Historical Aid" commissions have been organized in many places, and also arrangements made for stenographic reports of the memoirs of persons who have interesting and important reminiscences of the Civil War period, but not the literary skill to set them down themselves.

The following editors have been appointed to take charge of different sections of the work:

1. Chief Editorial Board: Gorky, Molotov, Voroshilov, Kirov, Bubnov, Gamarkin and Stalin.
2. Historical Editorial Board: Pokrovsky, Bubnov, Gorky, Yaroslavsky, Skrypnik, Gamarnik, Y. A. Yakovlev, Akhundov, Stetskov, N. N. Popov and Eideman.
3. Literary Editorial Board: Gorky, Demyan Bedny, Fadeyev, Vsevolod Ivanov, Leonov, Mikitenko, Charot, Kirshon, Eideman, Fedin, Panferov and M. Koltsov.

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World War Documents

An extensive historical work about the World War with the title "International Relations in the Period of Imperialism" is now being prepared by the "Commission for Publication of Documents from the Epoch of Imperialism" attached to the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., under the chairmanship of the historian Professor M. N. Pokrovsky. The publication will contain secret documents of the Tsarist and provisional governments and will appear in three series: the first includes the period 1878-1903, the second the years 1904-1913, the third deals with the war period, 1914-1917. The third series will be published first. The first volume, which deals with two months of 1914, appeared recently. The second and third volumes will appear in the near future; both treat of the events which preceded the Sarajevo assassination. Volumes four and five of the third series will give information on the pre-war crisis. The publication contains also various secret documents of the Foreign Office, the War Ministry, the general staff of the navy, the Finance Ministry, etc.

The translation of single volumes into German will be made under the direction of Professor Otto Hoetzsch of the University of Berlin. The first volume was published simultaneously in the U.S.S.R. and Germany.

Commissariat for Municipal Affairs Established

ON July 4 the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. passed a decree providing that commissariats for municipal affairs be organized in all constitutent and autonomous republics of the Soviet Union to handle matters of housing, public utilities and so on, formerly under the jurisdiction of the "Chief Administration of Municipal Economy" in each republic. In addition an "All-Union Municipal and Housing Council" is to be established in connection with the Union Central Executive Committee.

Pursuant to this decision the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the R.S.F.S.R. announced on July 20th the formation of a People's Commissariat for Municipal Economy of the R.S.F.S.R.

The purpose of the new commissariat, according to the decree announcing its formation, is to reconstruct municipal economy, to transform the old cities and factory towns into socialist cities which will guarantee the cultural advance and preserve the health of the working masses, and to provide improved technical and economic direction in all municipal matters.

Nikolay Komarov has been appointed People's Commissar for Municipal Affairs of the R.S.F.S.R. Mr. Komarov is a member of the Central Executive Committees of the R.S.F.S.R. and U.S.S.R. and until his new appointment held the post of Chairman of the Leningrad Province Central Executive Committee.

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Citizenship Rights for Kulaks

On July 4 a decree was passed by the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. defining the conditions under which citizenship rights may be restored to kulaks exiled for criminal acts. The text of the decree is as follows:

"Kulaks, found guilty of anti-Soviet and anti-collective activities (such as arson, banditry and so on) and exiled from the village or town in which they resided by decree of a general meeting of the citizens of the village and local government organs, and hence deprived of citizenship rights according to the Constitution of the U.S.S.R., may be restored to full citizenship rights within five years after the date on which they were exiled, on the following conditions:

"(a) If in the course of this period they have proved by their deeds that they have ceased their hostile actions against the peasantry organized into collectives and against the measures of the Soviet Government designed to raise the level of agriculture;

"(b) If they have proved themselves by their actions to be honest and conscientious workers,"

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

The following list is given in chronological order.

"Ten Days that Shook the World," by John Reed. International Publishers, New York.
"Russia in 1919," by Arthur Ransome. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1919.
"The Bullitt Mission to Russia." Testimony before the Committee on Foreign Relations, United States Senate, of Wm. C. Bullitt. B. W. Heubsch, N. Y., 1919.
"Fighting Without a War." An Account of Military Intervention in North Russia, by Ralph Albertson. Harcourt, Brace and Howe, New York, 1920.
"The Russian Workers' Republic," by H. N. Brailsford. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1921.
"Through the Russian Revolution," by Albert Rhys Williams. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1921.
"The Russian Soviet Republic," by Edward A. Ross. The Century Co., New York, 1923.
"The First Time in History," by Anna Louise Strong. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1924.
"New Constitution of the Soviet Union." Soviet Union Information Bureau, Washington, 1924.
Leon Trotsky: "Literature and Revolution," International Publishers, New York, 1925: "Lenin." Minton Balch & Co., New York, 1925; "Whither Russia?" International Publishers, New York, 1926.
"The New Theatre and Cinema in Russia," by Huntley Carter. International Publishers, New York, 1925.
"Broken Earth," by Maurice Hindus. International Publishers, New York, 1926.
"Oil Imperialism—The International Struggle for Petroleum," by Louis Fischer, International Publishers, New York, 1926.
"Modern Russian Composers," by Leonid Sabaneyef. International Publishers, New York, 1927.
"On the Steppes, A Russian Diary," by James N. Rosenberg. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1927.
"The Russian Land," by Albert Rhys Williams. New Republic, Inc., New York, 1927.
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The Fifteenth Year Begins

THE Soviet Union begins its fifteenth year on November 7, with its Five-Year Plan moving towards fulfillment well ahead of schedule, its new agricultural set-up firmly established, many new industrial enterprises of gigantic stature being completed or already under operation and a general expansion of productivity. The fourteenth year marked a distinct step in the progress toward laying the foundations for a highly integrated modernized economy.

In industry the advance during the fourteenth year showed an increased tempo over the previous year. During the first half of 1931 the industrial output advanced substantially as compared with the first half of 1930. During the first half of 1931 new industrial enterprises placed in operation numbered 183, with an aggregate cost of $364,000,000. An additional $200,000,000 was expended for reorganization, enlargement and repairs of existing plants. This was below the schedule for the period, a number of construction projects having been delayed because of slow shipments of equipment and shortage of building materials.

New Industrial "Giants"

In the latter half of the year a number of the Soviet "giants," as the big new mass-production plants are called, were opened for operation. Each of these new "giants" is ushered in with gayety and rejoicing in which the whole population shares. Great mass meetings are held, congratulatory telegrams pour in on the workers and managers, the papers are full of stories of the work, some of them epic tales of fighting against incredible difficulties, of mistakes and wastage and muddling, and of bitter lessons learned before the job was completed.

The Kharkov tractor plant, named for Ordjonikidze, which, when it reaches full operation, will have a capacity of from 50,000 to 60,000 "International type" tractors a year, was formally opened October 1. The plant was virtually completed in July and the intervening period was spent in testing, organizing and turning out trial tractors. The plant was built in 15 months, and the world's record for laying concrete was broken in its construction. Both engineers and workers profited by mistakes made in the construction of the big tractor plant at Stalingrad, opened last year. In the construction army 1,500 skilled workers were "graduates" from Stalingrad. The plant will employ some 12,000 workers. It is on the outskirts of Kharkov. The workers' city to accomodate 14,000 persons, located 1½ kilometers from

the plant, will be completed before winter. It has its own giant bakery, schools, hospitals, clubs and theatres.

Leon A. Swajian of Detroit, who was chief engineer in the construction of the Ford plant at River Rouge, was also chief engineer at Kharkov. In a recent interview he stated that the rapid completion of the work was due to the enthusiasm of the workers and particularly to the fact that in the course of the construction virtually every man and woman in Kharkov took a hand in helping out as a volunteer. He said:

"Professors, women, girls, young bands of pioneers—they came every day volunteering their free day to do unpaid work on their tractor plant. The city police force came several times; so did whole office staffs of large institutions. There were 400 to 500 volunteers every day, sometimes as many as 2000. They came as if it was a good picnic. And why wasn't it? They wanted to see the big show and be in on it. We used them for digging, loading dirt, taking away debris—all sorts of unskilled labor for which we never could have gotten a sufficient labor force."

Twelve kilometers from Nizhni-Novgorod the great new automobile plant was nearing completion in October. At capacity it will turn out 94,000 one-and-a-half ton motor trucks and 50,000 passenger cars a year. It will employ 14,700 workers. Its cost, with equipment, was $120,000,000. The plant is built on the Ford model and Ford engineers participated in the work which was supervised by the Austin Company of Cleveland. The assembly shop is the largest in Europe.

Another "giant" nearing completion in October was the tractor plant near Cheliabinsk, which is eventually scheduled to turn out annually 40,000 tractors of the caterpillar type, of 50-60 horse-power. The trial factory began turning out experimental tractors early in the year. Mr. Swajian moved from Kharkov to become chief construction engineer at Cheliabinsk early in the fall.

In Moscow the Amo plant, an automotive works projected during the early days of the World War, but with its equipment allowed to decay by the Tsarist authorities, has been greatly expanded and wholly reequipped to start turning out trucks next year on the basis of mass production. Before the close of the civil wars the salvaging of this plant, which was largely in ruins, was undertaken. The complete reequipment with German and American machinery has progressed rapidly during the past three years. The plan calls for the production of 10,000 two-and-a-half ton trucks next year.

This year $560,000,000 is being invested in the Soviet iron and steel industry, as compared with $210,000,000 in 1930. The largest of the new steel giants now in construction is the Magnitogorsk plant in the southern Urals, which will compare in size with the plant of the Indiana Steel Company at Gary. This great enterprise is being erected under the supervision of the Arthur G. McKee Company of Cleveland. When in full operation its blast furnaces will have a capacity of 2,600,000 tons of iron a year. The first furnaces were scheduled to go into operation November 1. The works will employ from 12,000 to 15,000 men and a complete workers' city is being built for them.

Of almost equal importance is the new steel giant at Kuznetsk in Siberia, where the Freyn Engineering Company of Chicago is supervising construction. This plant will have a capacity of 1,100,000 tons of pig-iron yearly. The first two blast furnaces started production in October.

Press Cliche

NEW WORKERS' SETTLEMENTS IN THE DONBAS

THE DAM AT DNIEPERSTROY

Press Cliche

Early that month it was announced that all construction work "of first order" had been completed. It is interesting to note that when they reach full capacity the output of Magnitogorsk and Kuznetsk alone will be nearly equal to the output of iron for the entire country at the opening of the World War.

Another new giant, the combine plant at Saratov, turned out its first experimental combine in early October.

The Stalingrad tractor plant, the first of the Soviet giants, which opened last year, had a checkered early career in productivity. For many months the output progressed with painful slowness and there were many mistakes of omission and commission, most of them perhaps inevitable to a new and complicated enterprise in a country without tradition or experience in mass production. The plant was like a first baby whose parents are novices in feeding and management; and indeed the Soviet press hummed with critisicms and discussions of what were styled the "infantile diseases" of Stalingrad. About a year ago, when the huge plant looked pretty well jammed, Mikhailov-Ivanov, head of the automotive industry of the U.S.S.R., took personal charge of the plant, with instructions to bring the output up from 30 tractors a day to 100 tractors. He brought order and progress. Near the end of September the plant was turning out its hundred tractors daily, and three days after this goal was reached Mikhailov-Ivanov died of typhoid fever. He was buried as a national hero.

During the present year there has been a greater emphasis on the production of consumers' goods, the effect of which is to be particularly felt during the coming months. The ambitious expansion of the food industry is described in some detail elsewhere in this issue. During 1930 the cotton textile industry was the only Soviet industry to show a marked falling off in production. The area under cotton cultivation has been virtually doubled in the past two years and output of the mills is showing a rapid advance. During the July-September quarter the production in the cotton mills was more than 80 per cent above the same period last year.

Electric Power

The electric power output this year has been running about 40 per cent above that of 1930. The power capacity of the country is being increased with growing rapidity. New power capacity of some 1,500,000 kilowatts is being added to the country's plants this year.

For the present, attention is focussed on the construction of the great Dnieper River plant, planned for an eventual capacity of 750,000 horse-power. It is expected that the first two of the nine turbines will be in operation by next summer, well ahead of schedule, furnishing 168,000 horse-power for the new industrial enter-

prises being constructed in the Southern industrial region. During the past spring the new dam across the Dnieper successfully withstood the greatest flood in the history of the Dnieper river. Hugh L. Cooper and Company of New York have been acting as supervisory engineers in the construction. Though the Dnieper plant is a power giant indeed, it will in turn be overtopped by the Kemerovo plant in Siberia, construction work on which was begun a year ago. Initial power production here will also begin in 1932.

Agriculture

The progress of agriculture is bound up with the progress of the collective movement. By the beginning of autumn 60 per cent of all peasant farms were organized in collectives, as compared with 30 per cent a year before. The little individual strips on these holdings had been blotted out and the old hand-to-mouth methods and the medieval wooden plows were discarded forever. The sown area during 1931 increased 9 per cent over 1930, 138,000,000 hectares as compared with 127,770,000 hectares, the percentage of increase being especially marked in the storage crops and the technical crops. With the experience of three years it can be assumed that the collective farm movement, supplemented by the State farms, has solved the main agricultural problems of the Soviet Union. Problems of transportation and local problems of distribution remain, but at any rate production of food crops is now ample to meet consumption demands and the technical crops are supplying the industries much more adequately. Grain exports were resumed in quantity during the past year. They were still less than a third in volume of the average pre-war exports, because of the spread of consumption as compared with the older days, but they afforded a healthy expansion of the export list, as compared with the virtual cessation of such exports during the three previous years.

NEW PITHEAD AND HOIST OF MINE NO. 8 AT STALIN COMBINE
Press Cliche

Collective farms sowed 60 per cent of the total area this year as compared with 30 per cent in 1930. The area of the State farms was tripled.

Transport

Since the revolution 12,800 kilometers of new track have been laid and the Soviet Union is now second to the United States in railway freight operations. Though there was a marked gain during the present year in freight car loadings—they averaged about 52,000 cars a day during the summer—the transport program for the year remained under-fulfilled and the percentage of delays was still high and becoming worse. The rapid increase in industrialization was placing such great demands on railway capacity that the roads were finding difficulty in meeting them. In October, A. A. Andreyev, one of the most conspicuous of the younger Soviet executives, was transferred from his post of Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection to become Commissar for Railways and solve the railway problem.

A number of new lines, including the new Kazakstan railway, 315 miles long, have been opened during 1931, and considerable progress has been made in electrification on several roads, including a coal road 70 miles long in the Urals.

The total length of air transport lines was close to 50,000 kilometers in the summer of 1931.

Foreign Trade

During 1931 Soviet foreign trade has shown a substantial increase in volume but a falling off in value, especially in the export list, due to the world-wide fall in commodity prices. Exports for the first six months of 1931 were $188,644,000, a drop of 21 per cent as compared with the same period of 1930, and imports were $266,410,000, a drop of 7 per cent. The unfavorable trade balance was $77,766,000. There was, however, no unfavorable balance of international payments, as imports were expanded largely on the basis of long-term credits granted

SHOCK TROOP MINERS OF THE "SVOBODA MINE" AT MAKAYEVKA

in Germany, Italy and England. The principal Soviet exports were oil products, furs, grain and lumber products. Principal imports were industrial and agricultural machinery. Under the improved German credit terms there was a pronounced shift of the import business from the United States to Germany. Soviet orders placed in that country showed a sharp rise, while orders placed in the United States during the first nine months of the year showed a falling off of 51 per cent as compared with the same figure of 1930.

Labor

The rapid industrial expansion in the Soviet Union has eliminated unemployment, which reached a peak of 1,741,000 in the spring of 1929. A real labor shortage exists, especially in the more skilled lines, and to meet this thousands of men have been engaged from more advanced industrial countries. Some 6000 skilled workers were drawn from the United States this fall, and several thousand from central Europe. A serious problem in the Soviet Union has been the huge labor turnover, due to the migratory tendency of great numbers of workers. The process of industrialization has attracted into industry great numbers of workers who have traditionally lived on the soil, many of them with inherited nomadic traits. Such workers have a tendency to shift from job to job, not only individually, but *en masse*, sometimes trekking for hundreds of miles to join some new enterprise of which they have heard. This tendency has created much concern among labor organizations, the industrial executives and the Government.

With the cooperation of the labor organizations a series of new labor decrees has been drawn up designed to ameliorate this situation and render this flitting from job to job more difficult. The large labor turnover is none the less still a problem. Another problem which particularly aroused the concern of the labor organizations was the case of registered workers who chronically refused to take jobs, continuing to draw their unemployment insurance money. In the face of a labor shortage this caused much resentment among the working population. New decrees provided that after such persons had a reasonable opportunity to work, and refused, they were no longer entitled to support at the expense of the community. That problem, a minor one, is regarded as well along towards solution.

The new enterprises being built, with their neighborhood workers' cities of apartments with modern improvements unknown to old Russia, the new housing construction in the cities, and the gradual easing of the food situation, have improved the conditions of labor. The greater productivity under the new mechanization made possible a marked upward revision of the wage-scale beginning October 1, in the metal industry and the coal industry. Salaries of technicians and engineers were raised substantially and a bonus system inaugurated.

Education

During the past year for the first time in Russian history universal compulsory primary education has been in operation. As a result the number of children in school increased 6,500,000 over the previous year. In European Russia about 98 per cent of all children of primary school age were in school. The number of pupils in primary and secondary schools in the entire country reached 20,000,000. They numbered 7,800,000 in 1914. In R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper) alone 60,000 new teachers were sent out during the

past year, mostly to the rural districts. In the Ukraine there were 16,500 new teachers.

Most of the schools are now linked to the large socialized industrial enterprises, such as State farms, collectives and the tractor stations, as well as to urban enterprises, so that the children may study at first hand the processes of labor and become familiar with the practical tasks and problems of life.

A great expansion of technical education has been placed in operation during the past year, to prepare adult workers for skilled jobs, and to augment the supply of technicians and engineers for the new industries.

Second Five-Year Plan

During the year a number of individual industrial enterprises, mainly in the machine-building and the electro-technical industries, completed their quotas of production for the entire Five-Year Plan. Others reached the rate of production scheduled for the final year of the Five-Year Plan. The oil industry reached this rate of production in the spring, or in two and a half years.

The Commission for the Second Five-Year Plan is already at work on schedules for the five-year period beginning January 1, 1933, it being assumed that the current Plan will be substantially completed by the end of 1932, or in four and a quarter years. The new Plan is still in its tentative stages. As an indication of the progress indicated, it is estimated that by 1938 the country will have 50,000,000 kilowatts of electric power and have an annual production of 450 million metric tons of coal and 60,000,000 metric tons of pig iron. In agriculture it is planned to expand grain production 60 per cent, animal husbandry 150 per cent and industrial crops 200 per cent.

Press Cliche

JOSEPH STALIN

All-Union Congress of Soviets

The Sixth All-Union Congress of Soviets met in March, 1931. There were 1,570 voting delegates and 883 advisory delegates. The voting delegates included 321 women. Among the total number of delegates 72.8 per cent were members of the Communist Party and 2.4 per cent of the Communist Youth League, with 24.8 per cent non-party members. Of the delegates, 54.7 per cent were industrial workers, 25.9 per cent peasants and 19.4 per cent intellectual workers, including members of the professions. Sixty-six different nationalities within the Soviet Union were represented in the Congress. The Congress meets biennially.

Foreign Relations

The foreign relations of the Soviet Union for the past year were markedly easier than during the previous twelve-month, and progress was made in establishing a basis for better relations with a number of countries.

At Geneva, in May, Mr. Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, proposed an international economic non-aggression pact as an aid to peace and economic stability. The idea met with a more cordial acceptance than his previous disarmament proposals, but no action was taken. The idea is still being studied, though it can hardly be said that the committee to which it was referred has made progress toward any definite suggestion.

A few weeks after the conversations at Geneva the French Government lifted the special restrictions which it had placed on Soviet imports the previous year, and the Soviet Government cancelled the reciprocal restrictions it had placed on imports from France. Conversations were entered into between representatives of the two countries to establish a basis for building up normal trade relations between them.

Soviet representatives took part in the international grain conference in Rome in March and the international wheat export conference in London in May. In view of the sharp decline in wheat prices the Soviet delegates at London expressed their acquiescence in some plan for a quota basis for the exporting countries, as a plan for stabilization. No direct result came, however, from either of these conferences.

New trade and credit agreements were signed with Germany and Poland in April. Both provided for a larger trade base and both provided for credit facilities for Soviet purchases in the respective countries on the basis of long-term credits guaranteed up to 60 to 75 per cent by the Italian and German Governments. During the year important business delegations visited the U.S.S.R. from Germany, Italy and Poland, making both contacts and contracts.

Non-aggression pacts were signed during the year with Turkey and Lithuania.

Planning a Nation's Food Supply

THE Soviet belt is being loosened.

After three years of pretty severe strain made necessary in order to set in motion the big plants to serve as a basis for an industrialization program that will eventually provide for all the needs of the U.S.S.R., the Soviet population is entering the fourth year of the Five-Year Plan provided with a better food supply—including more fish, vegetables, fruits and meat, and more commodities than have been available for some time past.

With the huge Stalingrad and Kharkov tractor plants, the rebuilt Amo automobile factory, and many other industrial giants not only in construction, but actually producing, and heavy industry in general on a solid basis, the turn has definitely been made toward greater emphasis on goods for the direct consumption of the population. This year the Soviet Union will export fewer products that can be used within the country, and will manufacture many more food products, clothing, shoes and other commodities for its own population than ever before.

Light Industries Gaining

There are evidences of this on all sides. In August production in general rose 11.1 per cent over July, and 33 per cent over August of last year. In light industry the gain was 16.5 per cent over July, and in the first ten days of September 20 per cent over that of the first ten days of August. Over $326,000,000 has been invested in the food industries during 1931, and more than double that amount is to be invested during 1932. The share of the food industry in light industry as a whole has grown from 27.2 per cent in 1929 to 45.1 per cent in 1931.

Leading editorials in all the papers call for increased attention to the production of meat, for the planting of orchards and vegetable gardens on a larger scale than ever before. During the spring a campaign was conducted to promote the planting of new suburban vegetable gardens covering an area of about 750,000 acres. This fall the Commissariat of Agriculture issued a decree providing for the planting of fruit and vegetables in all suburban districts by the consumers' cooperatives and other organizations, and providing that agricultural collectives in suburban areas should concentrate on fruit and vegetables. To further this twelve machine and tractor stations are being established to provide the latest machinery and scientific service for the new horticultural farms. Another recent decision of the government calls for an increase during the second Five-Year Plan of the area under fruit to a total of about 15,000,000 acres. Many State farms have been started especially for growing fruit and vegetables.

Increase in Meat Supply

Great progress has been made in increasing the meat supply. Over 600 State farms are producing meat and poultry and dairy products. The cattle breeding trust has 1,730,000 head of large-horned cattle on its farms, the sheep trust 3,870,000 head of sheep, the hog trust 635,000 hogs, and the poultry trust over a million head of poultry. The collective farms producing marketable cattle are also being rapidly developed. There are at present 8,000 dairies in collective farms with about 800,000 milch cows, 10,000 hog breeding collective farms with about 700,000 hogs, 70 incubator farms with about 2,000,000 chickens. During the summer the government decreed that stock raising was to be made the central problem of agriculture during 1931 and 1932, as grain raising was in 1929 and 1930, and financial allotments were provided for State and collective farms to increase their livestock by twenty to sixty per cent over their previous program this year, with further large increases envisaged for next year.

An Important Decree

A remarkable decree taking up five whole columns in the Moscow *Izvestia* of September 29, gives detailed instructions for the development of the meat and canning industries in the Soviet Union. The decree, signed by Viacheslav Molotov, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the Soviet Union, and by Joseph Stalin, General Secretary of the Communist Party, is a striking example of centralized planning. It is a carefully worked out document resulting from a study of all aspects of the situation, and a co-

ordination of plans by all the government and economic organizations concerned. It outlines measures not merely to be undertaken, but already under way, for provisioning the whole population, and sets in motion many different State organizations to contribute their part. The decree provides for the building of factories for canning food, and for the still unborn cattle to provide the food to be canned and for their food and transport; it provides for the manufacture of cans to hold the finished product, for the tin to make the cans, the machinery to do the canning, the skilled workers and engineers to carry on the work, for sufficient wages that their work may be good, for housing and water supply and all the materials needed down to the last detail, even to insuring proper working clothing and soap for the workers.

Press Cliche

CHILDREN OF A VEGETABLE GROWING COLLECTIVE

"The new conditions of socialist construction, new conditions of labor, which guarantee a more rapid growth of the material well-being and cultural level of the population," reads the introduction to the decree, "make it necessary for us to advance the problem of complete reconstruction of our entire food industry, particularly meat and canning industries, into a position of prime importance. In order to guarantee a sufficient supply to the workers of food products, and a decided improvement in the quality of these products, it becomes a most urgent necessity that we reconstruct the existing enterprises in the meat and canning industries, and build new ones as well. New meat combinations and canning factories, built according to the latest technical improvements, must be coordinated with the socialized agricultural raw material bases organized around them.

Expansion of Food Industries

"The Central Committee and the Council of People's Commissars note a number of achievements in the past years in the development of enterprises in the food industry, in the preparation of meat, fish, fruit and vegetables. Ten new meat packing plants of medium size have already been constructed in Omsk, Viatka, Krasnodar, Armavir, Poltava, Orsh, Frunze, and so on. Seventeen bacon factories have been constructed, forty-one new canning plants with a total capacity, together with that of the reconstructed meat canning plants, of 1,200,000,000 400-gram cans, as against an output of 80,000,000 cans of the pre-war canning industry."

The resolution then sets forth the defects in the present factories, their low sanitary level, the old-fashioned stockyards, lack of proper refrigerating facilities, and states that existing enterprises in the food industry must be entirely reconstructed as well as a great chain of new ones built. The plan of the Narkomsnab (People's Commissariat of Supples) to construct during 1931, 1932 and 1933, fifty-seven new meat packing plants with an annual output of 1,500,000 tons of meat products is ratified. Eight of these are to be very large, one each to be started immediately in Moscow, Leningrad and Sverdlovsk and five in the main cattle raising sections, fourteen of average size, and thirty-five smaller ones, of which ten are to be started immediately. Following this are detailed instructions to the Cattle Trust as to how many head of cattle, pigs and sheep are to be furnished by the State cattle farms for each of these plants and in what period. At the same time a plan is to be worked out by the Narkomzem and the Kolhozcenter for the development of cattle breeding by collective farms, giving specifications as to size, quality, and so on. Facilities for pasture, provisions for feed and other details are included in the instructions, and their financing is included in the control figures for 1932.

The resolution ratifies the plan of the Narkomsnab for the construction of new canning factories during the next two years as follows (the figures refer to production in millions of cans):

	Meat	*Fish*	*Vegetables*	*Fruit*	*Tomatoes*	*Total*
1932	230	400	350	85	185	1,250
1933	450	600	730	200	420	2,400

The fish canning factories are to be situated in sections from which it is most difficult to transport fish to other parts of the Union, either fresh or frozen, and the vegetables and fruit in regions far from industrial centers. The establishment of five regional can manufacturing factories is arranged, and the Supreme Economic Council is instructed to provide the necessary raw material, to supervise the manufacture of the necessary machinery according to the best foreign standards. Arrangements are also outlined in the decree for the provision of fuel, for housing for the workers, for water supply, sewage, and so on.

Refrigerating plants are to be developed on a large scale, refrigerator cars and cars for the transport of cattle are to be ready when needed. The Narkomtrud is instructed to make the necessary arrangements for the training of a corps of skilled workers through special courses, and educational institutions are to be constructed as an integral part of the new plants in order to provide the skilled workers and engineers for the future. Special attention is to be paid to uses for waste materials and the strictest sanitary regulations are to be applied in all new plants. In addition, all existing plants are to be reorganized along modern sanitary lines.

In conclusion, the resolution stresses the special economic and political significance of the development of the food industries and calls upon all Soviet and party organizations to cooperate in the rapid building up of powerful meat and canning industries.

Socialized Restaurants Growing

The communal kitchens and restaurants so widely developed in the Soviet Union during the past few years are gradually displacing the primus so loved by the Russian housewife. Great improvements have been made in the past year in the direction of providing cleaner and more comely surroundings in the communal restaurants, and more varied and tasty menus. Several different types of meals are usually served at a cost ranging from 15 to 40 cents. As a result the number of persons taking their meals in the community dining rooms grows from month to month. On September 1st it was reported that the total number of persons getting their meals daily through communal restaurants and kitchens was 12,000,000. By October 1st the number had increased to 13,500,000. Of this number about a third take all their meals, the remaining two-thirds the chief meal of the day only. This number includes, in addition to workers, over three million children who receive hot lunches at school. While the majority of workers taking their meals in this way are single workers, or workers on temporary jobs whose families are not with them, the number of whole families eating outside the home is increasing. Most of the new workers' apartment houses have facilities for general dining rooms which are being increasingly used by the housewives instead of their individual kitchens.

During the past three years over $100,000,000 has been spent on the construction of factory kitchens and mechanized restaurants. The factory kitchens not only serve regular meals in their own dining rooms but send out prepared meals in thermoses to factories and branch dining rooms, and semi-prepared meals for the families of workers who prefer to eat in their own homes. However, this method has not been entirely satisfactory, as the factory kitchens have had to prepare food in too large quantities to be tasty. The factory kitchens are to be used from now on simply to put the food through the first stages of preparation rather than to cook the entire meal, and the final preparations will be made at the restaurants where the food is served.

At the present time a great number of public restaurants are in construction in the most important industrial centers of the country, and it is expected that during the next two years the number of persons eating in communal dining rooms will be increased to 25,000,000.

In spite of the progress, the whole business of socialized food distribution is still far from satisfactory, and campaigns for its improvement are being waged on all sides. The newspapers have organized special brigades to investigate and report on conditions. The Communist Youth Pravda recently criticized the organization of meals for the workers as messy and inefficient, and urged all young communists to campaign for better conditions. A special campaign was carried on in Leningrad, as a result of which a number of model restaurants were organized. In the "Elektrozavod" in Moscow the Communist group took matters into its own hands. The secretary made a report describing the waiting in line, crowded conditions and greasy food, and ended up by saying, "Only workers with the strongest nerves entered the factory restaurant." As a result of the group's agitation everything has been changed. New doors were made to ease the

New Workers' Apartment House in Moscow

crowding, there are no longer any waiting queues, the food is good and well served, and as a result all of the 1,500 workers in the factory now eat in the restaurant instead of the three or four hundred who braved its rigors formerly.

The month of September was set aside by Centrosoyus as a special "Month for the Improvement of Socialized Restaurants," and intensive work has been carried on to better conditions.

The decree issued last summer to improve food service has already had widespread effect. In the main industrial centers the food service has been transferred from the Consumers' Cooperatives and is now handled by separate State trusts directly under the Commissariat of Supplies. Sanitary supervision has been greatly improved. It is now under direction of the Health Commissariat, with special assistance from the Workers' and Peasants' Inspection and the GPU, and those guilty of unsanitary conditions are prosecuted.

Measures have been taken for improving the quality of the food and the variety of the menus, and efforts are made to adapt the diet to the needs of the workers in various industries, and especially those working at injurious trades. Night service has been introduced in many places, and has had a very favorable effect on increasing production. When work on the Cheliabinsk plant was almost at a standstill the introduction of a hot meal for the workers at night did wonders in speeding up operations.

The workers in factory kitchens and dining rooms have been put on the same basis as workers in industrial enterprises with regard to wage increases and goods supplies, and bonuses have been introduced for good work. Old restaurants are being re-equipped, and provisions made to increase the utensils, of which there has been a shortage, both through State industry and through handicraft cooperatives.

Special stress is laid on the necessity for a greater degree of cleanliness, a greater supply of proper clothing for restaurant workers, pleasant surroundings and courteous service.

Expeditions and Discoveries

SIBERIA has been the field of investigation for various Soviet exploring parties and scientific expeditions during the last year. The Proletarian Tourist Society sent two expeditions, one to the Altai Mountains in northwestern Siberia and the other to the Tien-Shan Mountains in western Siberia. The Altai group plans to climb the main peak of the range, the Byelukha. In addition to exploration of the surrounding rivers, it will undertake a topographical survey for the construction of a hydroelectric station. The extent of radio-activity of the waters will be recorded, as well as meteorological observations, and a collection of mastodon fossils assembled.

The Tien-Shan group, which left the city of Kara-Kol in Kirghizia July 27, expected to reach the summit of the Khan-Tengri Peak, over 23,600 feet high—the second highest in the Soviet Union. Previous attempts by German and Soviet explorers proved unsuccessful. The party was to be divided into two parts, four of its members making the climb and three others, including a cartographer, working on the Inylchik glacier which lies at the foot of the peak. The purpose of the expedition is two-fold. It will survey the northern arm of the glacier, study its movement, simultaneously correcting the present maps and prospecting for gold; secondly it will explore the approaches to the summit of the Khan-Tengri, and in the event of favorable circumstances complete the ascent.

Ancient Greek City of Kherson Explored

An archeological expedition was formed by the State Art Academy to examine the Greek city of Kherson which lies on the southwestern coast of the Crimea and which was sunk in the sea by an earthquake in 4 B. C.

Members of the expedition included the archeologist Professor K. E. Grinevich, who discovered the city in 1930, the geologist Professor D. Sokolov and a representative of the Crimean Government. During two months' work the remains of public buildings, private houses, and fortress wall and towers have been discovered in the southern section of the city. In the middle of the city stands the well-preserved forum, on one end of which a temple is placed.

Representatives of the "Vostok-Kino" (Eastern Film Company) accompanied the expedition to film the city directly on the floor of the sea. The photographer, who had previously received instruction in deep sea diving, took with him under the water a small apparatus wrapped in a waterproof sack and succeeded in making some excellent pictures. This sack was later superseded by a specially constructed iron holder which contained an ordinary moving picture camera and a dynamo motor. During two months the operator went down more than forty times to a depth of twenty meters. He photographed the divers at work as well as deep sea fish and plants.

The material will all be used in the moving pic-

ture, "The City on the Seabottom," soon to appear. Professor Grinevich is writing a book on the investigations which will be published in Russian, German and English. In addition an exhibition devoted to Kherson will be organized by the State Art Academy in Moscow.

Geological Discoveries

1931 has marked the discovery of extensive mineral deposits in various parts of the Soviet Union. Geological prospecting in the Khalilovo district of the Middle Volga brought to light deposits of ore estimated at 400 million tons, half of which lie on the surface. The ore is said to contain at least 40 per cent of iron. Over 30 million tons of hematite has also been discovered in the same district, as well as rich deposits of nickel, magnesite, manganese, chromite and talc. In the spring of 1932 the construction of a metallurgical plant estimated to produce two and a half million tons of cast iron annually will be started in the Khalilovo district. There are also supplies of marble and jasper so rich that in the village of Velikhovskoye houses and sheds are built of a marble-like stone, in the town of Orsk there is a church built of jasper, and the dam across the river is made of jasper.

The discovery of new iron ore deposits of startling size in the Kuznetsk district in southwestern Siberia is reported by Professor Fersman of the Academy of Sciences, who recently returned to Leningrad after inspecting the district in which a geological party of the Academy is working. The extent of the deposits is attested by the experience of the aero-mapping party of fliers and geologists which, in flying over the district at a height of 1,000 meters, was prevented from using a compass due to the effect of the magnet range on the needles.

Investigation of the region surrounding the Angara River in southern Siberia shows the presence of enormous coal beds, iron ore and rock salt deposits, with 75 to 80 per cent of the region covered with timber. The second Five-Year Plan will provide for the construction of two hydroelectric stations, one on the Irkutsk River and the other on the Angara, to utilize the rich supply of water power.

Large deposits of potassium of industrial importance have recently been discovered in Uzbekistan, on the western slope of the Kupptang mountain range.

A New Pamir Expedition

Scientists have been storming the high Pamirs for many years, but large sections are still unexplored, especially to the northwest of the plateau where the giant peaks, Mus-Djilga, Shilba and Garmo, lie hidden in the clouds. An expedition organized by the Russian Geographic Society in 1910 under the astronomer, Velayev, approached the Garmo peak from the south, but the photographs taken then by primitive methods did not give a correct picture of the main peaks. The Soviet-German expedition of 1928 tried to reach the summit from the east, but failed, and the expedition of 1929, headed by Krylenko, Commissar for Justice of the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper) was also not entirely successful.

The Academy of Sciences and the Proletarian Tourist Society are sending another expedition headed by Krylenko to the Pamirs to continue the work of the former expeditions. The advance on the unexplored northwestern stretch will be made

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THE RIVER ANGARA WHERE A GIANT HYDROELECTRIC PLANT WILL BE BUILT

simultaneously from different directions. A group of experienced geologists under Prof. D. I. Sherbakov will work with the expedition. Professor Dorofeyev will head the topographical group, which will employ the latest methods for cartographic work. A group of Soviet alpinists will blaze the way through the mountain passes.

Intensive exploration of the gold fields and mineral beds in the region of the river Muksu will be carried on. Gold has already been found on the southern slope of the Lenin peak. Professor Sherbakov believes that molybdenum, bismuth and other rare minerals will also be found.

On the road to the Pamir the expedition will

follow one of the least well known sections of the Alai Mountains, the valleys of Kichik-Alaya and Kirghiz-Ata. The first maps of this region will be made, and a search made for mineral ores.

The expedition will spend two or three months in the mountains and will take with it equipment for a small radio station, which will attempt contact with the short wave lengths of the U.S.S.R.

Russian Settlers on the Indigirka

The expedition of the Academy of Science, which recently returned from spending three years in the region of the Indigirka River in the Yakutskaya Autonomous Republic in northeastern Russia, has published the following statement about one of the Russian colonies settled there.

The population of "Russkoe Uste" lives preponderantly in and to the south of the delta of the Indigirka River for 150 square miles. This settlement on the shore of the polar sea was until recently entirely isolated from the world. The region was not visited for eighteen years. The population is composed of descendants of the Cossacks, who settled here after the conquest of Siberia. They speak a broken Russian mixed with special expressions from the old Russian. There are about five hundred people. They are partly orthodox, partly Shamans. They live in families, observe their traditional patriarchal customs and avoid marrying the surrounding peoples—Kariri, Chukchi, Yakuts, Tungusi and Lamuts. They engage in fishing and hunting of fur-bearing animals. They live in quadrilateral raftered houses with flat roofs. Their rooms are box-like. In winter the windows are blocked with transparent icefloes instead of glass, during the short summer months they are hung with a light transparent material which they get from the Yakuts. The population eats boiled, baked and dried fish; they use white flour in limited quantity. They do not drink any alcoholic liquids. Their houses are heated with driftwood, which they gather from the shores of the Indigirka.

On holidays and family festivals the inhabitants put on bright-colored clothes of silk trimmed with fur. The men's costumes are cut in old Russian style, with trousers and shoes of fur.

The population began for the first time in 1930 to turn to a new form of existence. Reindeer and fishing artels were organized. The chairman of the village Soviet is a woman, Shikhatsheva.

The expedition covered over 5,000 miles by dog and reindeer during its exploration of the Indigirka. It took them five months to make the return trip of over 6,000 miles from "Russkoe Uste" to Leningrad.

Polar Expedition of the Steamer "Lenin"

The Commissariat of Navigation equipped a polar expedition to lead the ship "Lenin" from the mouth of the Lena River to that of the Kolyma River, in order to explore the coast between the three great Siberian rivers, the Kolyma, Indigirka and Lena. The ship "Kolyma" of the Soviet merchant marine, navigated this strip in 1927 for the first time. This year's voyage is being made in order to fix definitely whether smaller ships also are suited for coastal navigation in these waters.

The ship "Lenin" was built in Japan; the individual parts were sent by railroad to Irkutsk, and from there on raft to the mouth of the Lena, where they were assembled. The ship is not large, but is provided with ice-breaker appliances to meet any emergency in passing through eight hundred marine miles of unknown waters. The departure was set for August 15; supplies for fourteen months were to be taken, since navigation conditions may make it impossible for the ship to reach the Kolyma River until winter; in this case the ship would have to winter in the Polar Sea.

The expedition will make various geophysical observations and try to establish the navigable water of the Kolyma River; if navigation between the Lena and Kolyma proves possible, a regular steamer service will be initiated next year.

Radio and Television

THE radio facilities of the Soviet Union are to be greatly extended, according to a recent decree of the Council of People's Commissars, which states that the present technical equipment is far from adequate, and provides that immediate steps be taken to improve the situation.

All Union Republics, regions and oblasts, as well as the more important autonomous republics and oblasts, are to have radio broadcasting stations before the end of 1932. The Supreme Council of National Economy is to build three 100-kilowatt stations during the coming year at Kiev, Minsk and Sverdlovsk, and ten-kilowatt stations are to be constructed at Yakutsk, Khabarovsk, Petro-Zavodsk, Smolensk, Simferopol, Verkhne-udinsk, Ufa, Voronezh, Vladivostok, Ashkhabad, Murmansk, Karaganda, Magnitogorsk and Ordjonikidze (formerly Vladikavkaz).

In order to guarantee the best possible quality of radio-broadcasting through utilizing all the latest achievements of foreign technique, the construction of a large Radio Center in Moscow is to be completed by 1933, which will carry on scientific and experimental work on a large scale.

Short wave two-way communication between Moscow and the most important centers of the U.S.S.R. is to be established on a large scale, and mass production of short wave receiving apparatus is to be commenced in 1932. Facilities for rebroadcasting and for the exchange of programs

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TRANSMITTING "IZVESTIA" BY TELEVISION

between different parts of the Soviet Union are to be greatly extended. The Electrotechnical Institute is now concentrating on the study of ultra-short waves for the use of organizations with a limited sphere of activity.

A new tube factory is to be constructed in 1932, and the manufacture of powerful 100-250 kilowatt tubes is to be pushed in the existing factories.

The manufacture of radio receiving sets is also to be pushed vigorously. A new factory for the manufacture of radio receiving sets, with a capacity of a million sets a year, is to be constructed in 1932, as well as an accumulator factory, to be situated in the Urals, and several other new factories for the manufacture of radio equipment. Existing factories are to be extended. The receiving sets are to be especially adapted for use in shops and factories, collectives, State farms, lumber camps, workers' apartment houses, and so on.

The decree gives detailed instructions as to the materials that must be provided by the Supreme Economic Council to carry out this program, and instructs the Commissariats of the various republics to provide the necessary funds.

Television broadcasting was inaugurated in Moscow on October 1st. A television program is broadcast daily by the Moscow District Trade Union Council radio station.

The television apparatus employed is entirely of Soviet materials, and is manufactured by the Electrotechnical Institute of Moscow. Certain German standards—the disc and the number of revolutions—are being used, which makes it possible for the television broadcasts to be received in Germany, and German television broadcasting can be received on Soviet receiving sets as well as Soviet programs.

The Moscow *Izvestia*, which is published in several parts of the Soviet Union simultaneously, is transmitted by television.

Weather Forecasting in the Soviet Union

INCREASING attention is being paid to meteorological and hydrological work in the Soviet Union, with special emphasis on the problem of long range weather forecasts as an aid to both agriculture and industry.

Meteorological service was very ill-developed in Tsarist Russia, and only recently has it been coordinated and centralized under the Soviet Government. Up until 1927, meteorological service was carried on independently by several different government departments, but towards the end of 1927, in order to eliminate duplication and to improve the service, a single hydrometeorological committee was organized under the People's Commissariat of Agriculture. The new centralized organization received a scattered and badly-equipped system of weather bureaus, but since its organization much progress has been made.

There are now twenty regional weather bureau stations in the U.S.S.R. as against one before the revolution. In 1918, there were only 300 synoptic stations. There are now about 1,000. A network of weather information bureaus, which were unknown in old Russia, has been set up throughout the country.

Methods of Meteorological Work

A complete revolution has taken place in the methods of meteorological work. Formerly the entire work was built up on the very unreliable facts of barometric pressure, but now the Norwegian method, dealing with actual atmospheric masses has been introduced, and weather predicting has been greatly improved.

A system of synoptic road maps, following the condition of the roads throughout the Soviet Union, has been organized.

Much has been done in the fight against crop losses by timely weather predictions, but the importance of long range predictions in this connection is being increasingly recognized. Special

studies are being made along these lines, but it is pioneer work, as no country in the world carries on systematic long range predictions. Only in Germany, as a first experiment, was a very general long range prediction published this year. Meteorological stations in the Arctic, and aerological stations which will study the upper strata of the atmosphere are expected to aid especially in the development of long range predictions.

Opportunities for the training of scientific workers in this field have greatly increased, and whereas in 1921 only ten geo-physicists were graduated from the higher schools of the Soviet Union, a hydro-meteorological college has been established which provides for the enrollment of over 500 students annually.

Plans for Improved Weather Service

On September 4th the Commissariat of Agriculture issued an important decree designed to improve hydro-meteorological service throughout the Soviet Union. According to the decree the Hydro-meteorological Committee is instructed to establish, between now and the end of 1932, a complete network of stations covering every section of the country, to provide systematic service for agriculture, industry and aviation. The network is to include 2,500 rayon stations which shall serve as base stations in each administrative rayon, giving out instructions to substations, and acting as clearing houses for all the weather reports in the given rayon; 200 aerological stations to study and report on the upper strata of the atmosphere; 65 information bureaus and 4,000 local observatory stations in the State farms, collectives and machine and tractor stations.

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SCIENTISTS AT FRANZ JOSEF LAND METEOROLOGICAL STATION

The decree provides that greater emphasis shall be laid on the development of Polar, Siberian and high mountain meteorological stations, and that special attention shall be given to preparations for the Second International Polar Year to be held, by decision of the International Meteorological Commission, from August, 1932, to August, 1933. Methods of meteorological and hydrological observations are to be improved, and careful study made of methods used in other countries. The influence of solar activities will be studied. The cause and prevention of drouth will also be a subject of special attention. Several interesting discussions have been held with regard to the possibility of the artificial production of rain where a cloudy condition exists. Various experiments by Soviet scientists, including electric discharges from the ground or methods applicable by airplanes, indicate that something may be done along this line.

A large fund has been appropriated to push this work, and the Supreme Economic Council has been instructed to prepare the necessary equipment for the new system of stations and information bureaus.

Aero-Meteorological Research on Graf Zeppelin Arctic Flight

One of the most important activities carried on aboard the Graf Zeppelin during its polar flight in July of this year was aero-meteorological research. This work was directed by Professor Molchanov, a Soviet scientist, inventor of a special apparatus which he calls a "radio-probe," which records temperature and other meteorological elements by radio during the rise of the apparatus into the stratosphere. In a statement issued by Professor Molchanov on the results of his experiments, which was published in the Moscow *Izvestia* of September 19, he stressed the importance of aero-meteorological work in the Arctic because of the close connection between weather conditions in the Polar regions and those in more southerly latitudes. He described the five experiments with his apparatus during the trip and expressed himself as well satisfied with the results, which gave data on the height of the stratosphere and temperatures in various parts of the Polar basin. The discoveries made disproved the theory usually advanced by most prominent experts on Polar meteorology that the fogs of June and July are dangerous for aerial flights. Professor Molchanov's experiments showed that the temperature condition of the air masses in the

Polar region does not differ comparatively from the condition of the atmosphere in temperate latitudes. Pointing out that the rise of temperature with the increase of height is acknowledged as an extremely favorable condition for dirigibles, he stated that the conditions for the flight were favorable even in the summer months. He further stated that meteorological stations located on the islands of the Polar basin are insufficient for a correct judgment of atmospherical conditions and emphasized the need of correlating aerological observations with this work for direct investigation of the upper strata of the atmosphere. For investigation of the temperature of the stratum nearest the water surface he advised the construction of a network of meteorological stations situated directly on the ice, these stations to be arranged either on ships drifting together with the ice, or as automatic stations recording by radio without an observer.

The Arctic Institute has started preparations for an expedition to the Polar regions embodying this idea of a "manless" meteorological station. A small boat is being built to carry Professor Molchanov's apparatus, which will automatically register the movement and force of the wind, air pressure and other data required for the study of ice conditions. The "manless" boat is scheduled to sail next spring from Behring Straits and to be away for approximately one year.

Sketches of the Minor Nationalities

II. The South Ossetians

Translated from an article by M. Kosven in the "M oskauer Rundschau," a German language newspaper published in Moscow, which has been running a series of articles describing the minor nationalities of the Soviet Union.

ON the southern slope of the Caucasus range, west of the historic Georgian military road which joins the cities of Vladikavkaz (now called Ordjonikidze) and Tiflis, the small country of South Ossetia lies hidden in a mountain ravine. It has an area of only 1,486 square miles, and a population of about 98,000 of whom some 70,000 are Ossetians, the other elements being Georgians, Armenians, and mountain Jews. South Ossetia belongs to the Georgian Republic which in turn forms a part of the Transcaucasian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic. Only a comparatively small part of the country is compact, the rest is cut through by lofty mountains. This region is called South Ossetia to distinguish it from another administrative unit of the Soviet Union, the North Ossetian Autonomous Region which lies to the north on the other side of the Caucasus.

The administrative center of the region is situated in the only settlement in any way resembling a city—Stalinir, formerly Zchinvali. It is a little town with an interesting old quarter, reminiscent of the ghetto in a European city, inhabited by mountain Jews. There is also a new section which already exhibits modern public buildings. Our attention was drawn particularly to the "House of Culture" where the Scientific Institute of Ossetia with its museum and archives is located.

The Ossetians, in contrast to the other Caucasian races, belong to the Iranian race. Numerous scholars have worked on the ancient history of the Ossetians and their country. The Ossetians, who once lived considerably farther north, migrated some time in the dim past into the melting pot of peoples which seethed for hundreds of years in the central Caucasus, now absorbing new races, now disgorging them. The history of the present Ossetians is directly bound up with the well known ethnic names of the Massagetai, Sarmatians and Alani. Archaeologists, historians, ethnologists and anthropologists all find Ossetia a fertile field for research.

The past of this nation holds tragic chapters, particularly in the later history of its southern branch, the South Ossetians of today. A few centuries ago the entire Ossetian people occupied only the northern slope of the Caucasus. A part was forced by various circumstances to move to the other slope and since that time has been separated from the largest part of its tribal brothers, the North Ossetians, of whom there are at present about 160,000.

After the South Ossetians had occupied the still uninhabitated mountain ravines covered with virgin forests, they came up against the expansion of the Georgian feudal lords and waged a long and bloody but victorious struggle with them. The conquest of the Caucasus by the Russians delivered up the Ossetians, after desperate resistance, to the rule of Russian Tsarism and of the Georgian princes. The battle towers still standing in many parts of Ossetia are a lively reminder of this past.

Welcoming the October revolution as a means of liberation from the double economic and national yoke, the Ossetians went over early to the side of the Soviet Government. The Georgian Menshevik rulers thereupon fitted out a penal

expedition in 1920 and raged through entire South Ossetia with fire and sword. The Ossetians fled *en masse* northward over the mountain ridge to their old home. About 6,000 persons were killed or died, and 75,000 head of cattle were destroyed. The country was completely ruined and only after the Soviet Government was definitely established in the Caucasus were the Ossetians able to return to the south and start restoration of their land. At present it is in the midst of rapid construction of its economy and national culture.

In one of the mountain *auls* (villages) an old teacher in an elementary school told me of the great eagerness among the people for education. The introduction of universal education was greeted with pronounced joy by parents and children alike. An experience in one village which demanded a separate school will serve as an illustration. The authorities in this village acceded to the opening but there was a difficulty: there were no nails for repair of the school building. All Ossetia, in fact, was suffering from a severe shortage of nails. The entire population of the village immediately set to work to procure nails. They pulled out old ones wherever they were to be found, even from their own houses, and the school was opened.

Before the revolution the South Ossetians had no conception of institutions for children of preschool age such as crèches and kindergartens; there are now 24 of these institutions. If one climbs up to a secluded *aul* on a mountain top one can see not infrequently in the mountain meadows large groups of pre-school age children singing, playing or drawing under the direction of a teacher. "Reading Rooms" were also unknown phenomena in the Ossetian Mountains. There are now twenty of them. Before the October revolution there were all together twenty-eight elementary schools, now there are 220. There were no secondary schools at all; now there are nine. Higher educational institutions such as technicums and workers' universities were entirely unknown, now there are eleven. Only a very few South Ossetians studied in the higher schools of Georgia or Russia prior to the revolution, now the number has jumped to about three hundred. The most interesting fact about this region is its increase in literacy. In 1925 only fifteen per cent of the population could read and write, and now the percentage of literacy is seventy-five. All pupils who finish elementary schools have the opportunity to continue their education in higher institutions. When the children are asked as to their future vocations they usually reply that they intend to be engineers, agronomists, doctors or teachers. "Only one boy in my *aul* did not come to school," an old teacher told me apologetically, "but this year he also will come—his parents have already decided that."

The South Ossetian people are deeply interested in music. I attended the public presentation in the "House of Culture" of two scenes from the first national opera, which was composed by the well known Georgian Dolidze, commissioned by the Ossetians to do this work. Dolidze told me that Ossetian folk music is characterized by a great wealth of melodies.

The country possesses rich mineral resources in the shape of lead, copper, zinc, marble, nephrite, and talc, a wealth of timber, particularly of beech trees, and varied mineral waters. A special expedition of the Academy of Sciences has just completed a three-years' investigation and discovered some two hundred springs abounding in different minerals.

Agriculture has good prospects, the flat land as well as the mountainous part having its own particular advantages. The Five-Year Plan for Ossetia provides for the extensive organization and development of fruit-growing and cattle-breeding. In spite of the many difficulties facing the organization of socialist agriculture in the mountainous districts, collectivization has already spread widely, and includes forty per cent of all the households. A particular phase of the collectivization deserves special attention. The tribal system which held sway for many centuries over the South Ossetians is at present decaying. But the idea of solidarity and of collectivism which is peculiar to tribal organization is still alive among the poor and middle peasants, though not at all among the kulaks, who are thoroughly permeated with the psychology of the individual owner. I think that the ideas inherited from the past play a very definite and positive role in collectivization.

In one collective lying 5,904 feet above the sea level, I had a conversation with an old man. He complained about the difficulties of the transition period but joyfully accepted the idea of collectivization of work, and of daily existence. I have also noted still another interesting feature which binds the present to the far past: such forms of organization of work as shock brigades and socialist competition are very successful here. The old competition between tribes has been transformed to socialist competition with the best of results.

The future of South Ossetia depends entirely on the construction of a railroad. At present there is not a single foot of track running through the region. Automobiles and wagons are the only means of transportation and some mountain paths can only be crossed on foot or on horseback. Goods are transported by horse, buffalo and oxen. A new highway is in process of construction to pass through all South Ossetia and will form the foundation for the railroad. There already exists a finished project for the building of a tunnel to cut through the Caucasus Moun-

tains under Roki Pass, thus connecting the railroads to the north with South Ossetia.

I have studied the past and the social history of South Ossetia but I am speaking chiefly of its present and future. I do this because the past in this country seems somehow to have been swallowed up. The entire country and all its inhabitants live only in the present and the future and this mood infects us historians as well. But there are still a few words to be said about the past.

I am sitting in a charming mountain *aul* with an interesting companion. She is 120 years old, well-preserved, clever, and continually spices her conversation with jokes, some of them fairly vigorous. She tells of the past and the position of women in the days of her youth.

"Young girls were married very early and were not asked for their consent. More correctly—they were not married but sold. An acquaintance of mine was a grandmother at thirty-two, which was not at all unusual. Births took place in the pigsty. The life of a married woman was uninterrupted suffering and the hardest of labor. On her shoulders rested a large part of the agricultural work, the entire housework, wood chopping and labor in the mill. After the custom adopted from the Mohammedans the married woman went veiled with only a slit for the eyes. She had to stand in the presence of elders and did not dare to approach the fire-place in the middle of the room without permission. It frequently happened that a young woman, when not asked by her hard mother-in-law to come close and warm herself, stood by the hour in a corner or even on the threshold in cold winter weather and froze her feet.

"She had particularly to show her respect for the male relatives of her husband by standing up when they approached, making way for them and daring to speak in their presence only in whispers. But if a woman really wished to attest her worship for an older man, she had so to comport herself that he not only never saw her face but never heard her voice. 'I have really lived forty years side by side with a woman and have never heard her voice,' an old man said to me."

My companion was one of four wives of her husband. That was an exception, but two wives were not rare. On the death of her husband the widow went to his brother. But now all this is changed. Polygamy is against the law, and the women are throwing off their veils, and enjoying the advantages of the new order on an equal basis.

As I took my departure I wished her another 120 years of life. "No, no, no" she protested. "Only two or three years to see how everything is arranged in the new way."

Press Cliche

A KALMUCK OPEN-AIR KITCHEN

The Kalmuck Steppe Awakens

THE Kalmuck Autonomous Area celebrated its tenth anniversary September 1, with the introduction of a written language, the construction of a museum and library in the capital, Ellista, and the inclusion of 89 per cent of the children in school.

The Kalmuck steppe, covering 30,888 square miles, extends northward from the Caspian Sea into the territory of the R.S.F.S.R. (Soviet Russia proper). On the east it is touched in a few places by the Volga River and on the west is bordered by the North Caucasus. The population of 141,600 nomads is spread across the steppes in small settlements, the red clay huts baked to the consistency of bricks by the blazing sun. Only the capital of the area, Ellista, boasts of dazzling white houses built according to the latest architectural styles. These are set in broad alleys enclosed by hedges of dry reed as a protection against the fine, penetrating sand of the steppe.

Between Ellista and the Kalmuck Bazaar, situated near Astrakhan at the mouth of the Volga, is the small village of Yashkul, until recently quite unknown to anyone outside the Kalmuck area. The chauffeurs maintaining the daily automobile connection on the 186-mile stretch from Ellista to the bazaar, if asked the news from Yashkul merely shrugged their shoulders. What could be new in this hole in the steppe? But with the appearance on its clay walls of strange glaring white inscriptions people began to talk of Yashkul. Like a mirage in the distance, on closer approach they assumed definite shapes and thundered out such messages as "Greetings to the cultural army headed by Comrade Broyde!" "Greetings to the fighters for universal literacy in the steppes!"

Prior to the revolution not more than one Kalmuck in a hundred could read, and that only in Russian. There was no Kalmuck written language. The Buddhist monks used an alphabet unintelligible to the simple nomad. The latter was ruled over by these same monks, or "helungi," as they were called, and by the native princes. Roaming in droves over the steppes, starving, freezing in the furious snow storms, victims of trachoma, tuberculosis and syphilis, these Kalmuck nomads were one of the most backward and mistreated peoples of imperial Russia. Only the wildness and expertness of their horsemanship were valued. Cavalry regiments of Kalmucks were formed during the war of 1814 and were the first to enter Paris.

A very different kind of detachment entered the Kalmuck area during this year. On oxen, camel and horse and by automobile an army of cultural volunteers came riding into the steppe equipped with grammars and *umivalniki* (wash-basins). Wherever there were two or three *kibitkas* (tents with a rounded top), a stop was made and the wondering nomads introduced to the mysteries of washing and enrolled in the campaign for literacy.

The main division of the cultural army was formed in Saratov by the director of the district educational propaganda committee, Broyde. Young Kalmucks studying in Moscow, Saratov, Stalingrad and other cities, entered the division. A special train carrying these cultural volunteers was sent from Saratov to Astrakhan, a distance of 411 miles. In the wake of the army came the first conference on a Kalmuck written language and the first national Kalmuck theatre. A written language in the Latin alphabet was introduced only after the October revolution. At the end of May of this year a conference on a written language was held in Ellista. The cultural campaign had begun, an alphabet had been created, but a grammar was lacking. The conference worked out fundamental principles for a grammar and orthography and finally announced an alphabet based on exact sounds for signs until then pronounced differently in different parts of the Kalmuck area.

The new Kalmuck literature is scarcely known even in Moscow. Some books have already been published in Ellista by native Kalmuck poets and prose writers, and a literary journal, "Mane Ken" (Our Language) appears regularly. The poet Dendyan Aiis was the first to bring Pushkin to the *kibitkas*. The autobiography of Amur Sanan, one of the foremost Kalmuck authors, has gone through four editions. A branch of the Association of Revolutionary Writers is established in Ellista. Until recently Kalmuck writers used the dialects of two tribes—the Torgut and the Derbet. The Ellista Conference decided that the Kalmuck language should have a social and not a tribal basis, and the language of the *batrak* (agricultural worker, or farmhand) was chosen to form the basis.

The spoken word occupies an equally important position with the written. More than three hundred persons participated in the work of the first national Kalmuck theatre attached to the cultural army. It produced a play written collectively by many young Kalmucks. Stopping off in Astrakhan on the way to the Kalmuck Area it gave some brilliant performances. On reaching the steppes the theatre was immediately transformed to meet nomadic requirements. Separate

companies were formed to play directly in the steppe.

Most of this cultural work as well as the upbuilding of the country is in the hands of the young people. They hold all the responsible positions from chairman of the regional executive committee to village school teacher. The youth organized a Kalmuck museum and library in Ellista. The museum has already received exhibits from Leningrad, Saratov and Astrakhan. A brigade under the leadership of Professor Rykov is travelling through the steppes collecting contemporary exhibits and making drawings of them.

With their heritage of primitive living and high illiteracy to overcome, the Kalmucks are building a new life and new country from the ground up. Modern methods of cattle-breeding are being introduced to combat the ancient barbarous treatment given the livestock. Where the nomads formerly ate some six and one-half pounds of meat daily they are now being educated to the use of vegetables and bread. Dispensaries for tuberculosis, trachoma and venereal diseases are being opened and although there is a shortage of doctors, new staffs are being prepared among the Kalmuck youth.

Crèches and children's homes are scattered through the steppes. A boarding school in the steppe introduced a new note into nomadic life. Instead of moving with the *kibitkas* it is stationary. There are more than two hundred schools of this type.

Camel caravans plod into Ellista from a hundred miles away laden with large beams for the new buildings in process of erection. A Palace of Culture and a House of the Trade Unions head the list. The inscriptions blazoned on the clay walls of Yashkul are being very concretely realized.

A School in the Arctic

The following account is taken from a story by T. Semuskin which appeared in the May-June, 1931 issue of Krasnaya Nov, telling of his experiences on starting a school in connection with the new cultural base on the Chukotsky Peninsula.

IN 1928 the Committee to Aid the Peoples of the North of the Central Executive Committee of the R.S.F.S.R. opened a cultural base where the old and new worlds join—on the Chukotsky Peninsula, not far from the Alaskan Coast.

The peninsula is the most north-easterly part of the Asiatic continent, and is separated from Alaska by the narrow Behring Strait. The land has been little explored or exploited, but is rich in mineral wealth. It is occupied by about 1,600 Esquimaux and 12,000 Chukchis.

At the present time the cultural base has a hospital with specialists in charge, a veterinary point with a laboratory, a regional exploration base, a factory, and a boarding school for forty native children. In connection with the school there is a workshop for carving ivory objects from the tusks of pre-historic animals frozen in the eternal ice—one of the chief accomplishments of the natives of that section.

The technical personnel who accomplished all this was selected in Moscow with much care—teachers, a veterinary, doctors, nurses. Their journey was a long one—ten days by train to Vladivostok, forty-five days by boat to the northern shore of the Behring Sea. Because of the lateness of the season the boat had to land them a hundred miles short of their destination and the last part of the trip was made in small boats, on foot and behind dog-teams. A sheltered spot on the Bay of St. Lorenzo had been selected for the Chukotsky cultural base and they found eleven buildings completed, even to gaily painted walls and oiled floors. The Europeans already there greeted them with excitement as they were bringing the first news from the outside world that had arrived for some time.

The first days were spent by members of the group in settling themselves in their new homes before the director of the base called them together to consider the winter's plans. Semushkin had arrived with a well considered program for the school and the workers were united in the belief that the success of the base would depend on the establishment of friendly relations with the natives through their children. It was felt that the boarding-school, though most difficult to establish, provided the best means of raising the standard of living among the Chukchis. Much effort had been expended to make the school program suitable to the needs of these children of the Arctic.

The major problem at the outset was to obtain pupils for the school. The Chukchis are most devoted to their children, whom they treat as comrades and equals. The children share their parents' lives from their earliest years, the boys accompanying the fathers on hunting trips and the girls sharing the cooking and tanning and sewing with their mothers, to the best of their abilities.

Semushkin and his teachers began a round of the settlements, in part to make the acquaintance of the natives and in part to acquaint the teachers with the lives and customs of their future pupils. Semushkin had made a trip to the Arctic coast in the previous year on an icebreaker and had learned a certain amount of the native speech, which gave him an advantage.

Reaching the largest settlement they were met by the headman, a beaming soul, who looked like a clumsy bear in his furs. He was enthusiastic. They must come in at once to see his fine igloo and drink tea. The Muscovites would have preferred to stay out among the crowd that was tumbling about them but felt it tactful to accept his invitation. Stooping, they entered the large igloo and on invitation tucked their feet under them and sat down on the floor.

"Tea! Tea!" shouted the host to his plump wife who appeared, as is the home custom among these people, dressed in a single brief garment. He went on to show his treasures. A ship on its way to Wrangel Island had put in to the coast there to buy deer meat and the ship's people had given him an alarm clock—which could still be made to sound noisily, a cup and saucer and a picture of Lenin. The teachers nodded respectfully and then were much puzzled by a piece of wrapping paper that had been fastened under the Lenin picture. It was covered by a tangled maze of lines. What was it? Oh, the headman had been aboard the boat and he had noticed that in the Lenin corner under the picture was a paper like that and he had supplied himself with one as a proper part of Russian house-decoration—his innocent version of a chart showing production expected under the Five-Year Plan.

The neighbors had crowded in and after the polite formalities had been attended to, Semushkin broached the subject of the school and the advantages it would bring to their children. They listened attentively, but at last one of the elders leaned forward and said, "This is well enough, but we have to go hunting, we have to catch seals—we can't take the time to go with our children to stay at your school."

Semushkin realized that they could not imagine a child being separated from its parents. But, he explained, he had people whose work it was to care for children and they were trained to do it well. He said, moreover, that the school would always be open for the parents to visit their children and to inspect their living conditions.

The parents looked mystified. Why send the children away? What was the need for a school? They had homes for their children.

Semushkin tried to explain about reading, about writing, about healthy habits of living. But what, they asked, was the use of this "paper talk," as they called writing.

"You have been telling me how hard your lives are, how you must work to keep from starving. You want better things for your children. Lenin there said that men had to better their own lives. For your children to better their lives it is necessary to learn much wisdom, to get the knowledge of other men. But men can remember little. Yet if all men set down their knowledge on paper, then even a man with poor memory can have it all. Paper talk is a help to remembering."

Some of the men began to nod. Some of them had been at a trading-post and they had seen the head of the cooperative, an important man, making "paper talk."

Suddenly a plump woman leaned over. "And what would you give the children to eat? Where would they sleep?"

"Frozen meat they'll have—the best. Deer, seal; tea with every meal." (Sugar is much prized by the inhabitants of the North, where it is hard to get and very expensive.) "Bread, soup. They will be busy in one building and they will sleep in another."

"Hmmm! But you will need a lot of meat. Where will you get it when you don't know how to go on the ice and harpoon seals?"

"We will buy it, buy it from you people around here."

"Do you ever beat children? We hear that whites sometimes do that."

"Never."

The teachers stayed in the settlements for two days, working with care, and they returned to the base with thirty-five pupils promised for the school.

Thus, early one morning there rose round the school the murmur of Chukchi voices and the "Pot-pot" and "Kgrrr" of commands to the dog teams. Into the building they tumbled—fathers, mothers, children and even the grandparents—like so many hairy marmots in their furs. Their faces were filled with wonder, for few of the elders had even seen any building but an igloo, and they walked about touching the walls curiously with their hands, feeling the benches and chairs whose use they did not know. Samovars were bubbling and tea—with sugar—was served continually during the day.

The medical staff was on hand to assist in receiving the children and an interpreter tried to explain the nature of the medical inspection. The understanding of the natives was so limited that fear was written all over them as the doctors came in with their white gowns and stethoscopes and tongue depressors. The Chukchi children had all been marked on their faces and hands and bodies by the local shamans (sorcerers) before their departure from home, but the parents seemed to fear that these were white shamans with perhaps greater power. The thumping of the chests, the throat and eyelid inspections, were

no more terrifying than the pen and ink marks made by the doctor at the end of each examination for her report.

As family parties moved slowly through the buildings, anxious parents gathered around Semushkin.

"When my Mevetkurgin lies down at night to sleep someone will have to tell him to put his shoes by the stove to dry that he won't freeze his feet in the morning."

"My Tatkema fears the dark. If she wants to get up in the night, what then?"

Semushkin reassured them all and at last the elders began to prepare to depart. But each had to tumble out of his sled at least once to go to his child to whisper some last bit of advice or encouragement. The children hung round the sleds in the tangle of teams, or clung to the neck of favorite dogs, patting them and whispering to them. No one wanted to be the first to go, but at last they flew off, leaving the scholars with their new teachers.

The sad little group accepted the hands of the teachers shyly and Semushkin started them on a tour of the buildings to divert them. Every article was exhibited and its use explained through an interpreter. They were shown the uses of knives and forks, how to sit down on a chair, how to turn back the covers of the beds. They listened attentively but without a single comment or question until a bed was made up for their benefit and the clean white sheet was drawn up over the mattress. That seemed the last touch in a mad world! Why put a white cover over the beautiful red and white striped mattress?

In the afternoon they were bathed and their fur outfits put aside—for their bodies were covered with marks of much scratching. Each child received a complete outfit of clothing, underwear and outer garments. That, too, was a puzzle. Why wear two pairs of pants?

After supper pencils and paper were brought out and the teachers explained about the "paper talk" the children were to learn. After showing them how to hold the pencils they were told to draw pictures of articles in their homes. Semushkin was surprised by the vigor and freedom of the drawings made by these children who had never before held pencils and who had never seen pictures. The sex of the artists could be guessed from the pictures, for the girls drew household utensils, the boys, seals and deer and hunters.

The long day was over at last and the children were led to their beds. Semushkin thought that they had understood the directions for the use of the new beds, but when he tiptoed through the dormitories later for a last inspection he saw strange sights. One child lay with his head in the center of the bed and his feet high on the pillow, another lay crosswise with his head hanging over the side, a third knelt on the floor with his head against the pillow. All were asleep.

So passed the first two days in making the children at home in their new environment. At all hours appeared anxious parents who had thrust aside work to rush back and assure themselves that all was well. Semushkin learned that for three days the shamans had not ceased their beating of drums in the settlements to drive off any evil spirits that had come to the region with the whites. The days passed smoothly enough, but by the morning of the third day an unrest was apparent among the children, and their attention lessened. When a dog team drove up the whole group surrounded it in a homesick way.

Toward late afternoon, Semushkin, returning to the school building, saw two small girls far off on the tundra and went into the school to demand, "Why are they going for a walk so far from the school?"

"Not going for a walk. Going home."

The teacher was horrified. He ordered a dog team, collected warm clothing, and hurried after the runaways. They were already out of view and he reached the village seven miles away without finding a trace. His distress grew, for it was near nightfall in December and the temperature was fifteen below zero. Strangely enough, the villagers were less perturbed and took it as a matter of course that two eight-year-olds should walk home across the hilly tundra if they so desired. Someone suggested that the children had probably cut across the hillocks to avoid pursuers and had gone to another settlement two miles to the left where one of them lived. That was the case, and when the frantic teacher arrived he found the children already there and being warmed with tea.

Semushkin felt that the situation was critical. Returning to the school he took with him the headman of the village, who lectured the children gravely and obtained their promise that no other child would leave without permission. Semushkin then, with tact, announced a holiday. The children and the teachers would return to the villages for a visit to enable the children to show off their new clothes and to see their relatives. The cheering effect of the announcement cleared the air. To provide a last favorable impression of the school the teachers set up a motion picture machine that had been kept in reserve for some psychological moment and started the little program with pictures taken the previous summer on the icebreaker. When on the darkened wall before them there suddenly appeared seals sliding into rippling water the children became greatly excited. Some ran in terror toward the doors, while others threw themselves against the screen itself. When order had been restored the program went on.

Between excitement over their first movie and expectation over the journey home the children scarcely slept. The teams started off early and

shyness disappeared as the familiar igloos came to view.

"Visit me, teacher. Visit me!"

Semushkin went to the home of small Rultenka, whose scantily-clad mother flew out in the snow to snatch him to her with tears. The father put away the team and joined the admiring family group. Rultenka stood in the center of the igloo, his brothers and sisters feeling his blouse and trousers with wonder.

"Tea! Tea!" shouted the father, shocked that his wife had forgotten her duty to guests. As the warmth of the igloo increased Rultenka removed his trousers and blouse and appeared in his underwear. After his "second suit" had been duly admired tea was served and attention was turned from him. After a time Semushkin noticed that the underwear, too, had been removed and Rultenka was lying on the furs at one side of the igloo, stretching himself in familiar home comfort. His mother had given him a great delicacy, a seal's eye, which he was sucking in noisy enjoyment. Suddenly he remembered one last bit of glory he had forgotten to exhibit. Advancing to the center of the hut, he exhibited his new pocket handkerchief and to the delight of his admiring family stood there proudly blowing his nose, quite naked.

The visit to the settlements lasted three days, and when the teachers prepared to return to the school there was no lingering, no hesitation among the children.

The school had won.

Collectives Provide Workers for Industry

ONE of the methods being employed to provide labor power for Soviet industries is that of special agreements between economic organizations and agricultural collectives whereby the latter agree to assist in providing workers for State industries and enterprises out of their surplus labor in return for certain help from the industries.

This method was first suggested by Stalin when he discussed the labor shortage in his speech before the conference of industrial managers last June. The system, which operated at first in a somewhat disorganized manner, has now been regulated and operates according to a definite plan which has been very effective in providing extra workers.

Each collective draws up a balance sheet of its available labor power on the basis of its own production plan. The number of workers needed to carry on the work of the collective and any of its subsidiary enterprises are given, and a list of the workers that could be spared, with their trades. These lists are presented to the local organs of the Commissariat of Labor, to which local industries have also presented lists of their needs. On the basis of the available labor supply, the Narkomtrud then allots to each economic organization applying for workers a special zone within which that particular industry may select labor, with a list of the labor power available. Preference is given to the more important enterprises, to new factories, and any industry engaged in some special "shock work." The lumber and peat industries, State fisheries and farms, transport and cooperative and State construction projects are also included in the system.

An agreement is then made between the economic organization and the collectives in which the latter promise active help in selecting workers. No agreement is permissable making it obligatory for any collective member to accept employment, or for the collective to receive any part of the wages. Nor is the agreement for any specific number of workers. The contract simply provides that a certain amount of financial help will be given to the collective in proportion to the number of workers provided. The members of the collective themselves participate in drawing up the contract. In addition, individual contracts are made with the workers who wish to accept employment defining the terms of work and providing for transport, housing and supplies.

Collectives supplying a considerable number of workers receive preference in procuring agricultural machinery, and in the organization of schools and cultural facilities. A special member of the administration of each collective is selected to be responsible for the organization of the selection of workers for outside employment, and the Kolhozcenter has organized a special group to look after this work, with local branches.

Collective members agreeing to accept work have been granted certain privileges by government decree. They are exempt from all payments to collective funds, they are freed from taxes on the non-socialized part of their property, including the tax on income derived from non-agricultural sources, they must be given work in the collective on their return, the family must be provided for—if able to work, enough work must be provided to support them, if there are no members able to work they must receive a share. In addition to a certain portion of the harvest must be set aside for such workers, health service and goods must be provided on the same basis as other members. The organization for which they accept work must provide proper housing and maintenance as well as transport both ways.

In case of individual peasants accepting contracts for work in State enterprises, the tax for the non-agricultural sources of income is reduced by half, and transport, housing and maintenance must be provided.

Press Cliche

BERNARD SHAW IN MOSCOW
LOWER ROW, LEFT TO RIGHT: RADEK, LUNACHARSKY, LADY ASTOR, SHAW, KHALATOV

Tourists to the Soviet Union

"INTOURIST" reports that twice as many tourists visited the U.S.S.R. this year as in 1929. In 1930 about 60 per cent of all the tourists to the Soviet Union were from America. This year about half of the tourists were from America, and there was a great increase in tourists from England, who made up about 30 per cent of the total. There was also a considerable number from Germany and other European countries.

The Open Road Inc. arranged trips to the Soviet Union during the spring and summer months for over two hundred Americans—social workers, teachers, students, business men, lawyers, physicians and journalists. The majority of those sent by the Open Road spent three weeks or more in the Soviet Union including not only Leningrad and Moscow but also the Volga, the Caucasus and the Ukraine. They visited the new industrial centers, summer rest homes for the workers, peasant villages and collective farms, the "Verblud" State Grain Farm, as well as places of historical interest.

Early in October the Coolidge Music Festival, sponsored by Elizabeth Sprague Coolidge, visited Moscow and with the assistance of Russian musicians gave several concerts of modern chamber music. The concerts were given under the auspices of the American-Russian Institute of New York and the U.S.S.R. Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries. Travel arrangements for the Coolidge party were made by The Open Road and Intourist.

About a thousand American visitors to the U. S.S.R. went over during the spring and summer under the auspices of the "World Tourists."

While the U.S.S.R. is far from offering the tourist the comforts and conveniences of most other European countries, improvements in accommodations are being made each year under the direction of Intourist which makes all arrangements for railroad tickets, hotel accommodations, food, automobiles, guides and so on. The Open Road reports that local transportation facilities for tourists in Moscow and Leningrad were greatly improved this year. Each season Intourist has increased its staff in the provincial cities visited by foreign tourists. Returning travelers this year have complimented particularly the work of the Russian interpreters.

Twenty-two new hotels are in construction for the services of tourists in the towns of the U.S. S.R., chiefly in Moscow and Leningrad, and several rest homes and sanitaria in the health resorts have accommodations for foreign tourists.

Soviet Foreign Relations

IN answer to a telegram sent by the League of Nations on September 19 inviting the Soviet Union to send a representative with consultative powers to participate in the work of the third commission on questions of disarmament, Mr. M. M. Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, sent the following reply:

U.S.S.R. and Preparatory Disarmament Commission

"Thank you for your courteous telegram announcing the decision of the third commission to invite the U.S.S.R. to participate with a consultative vote in considering the question of the temporary cessation of armaments. Without going into the other conditions of the invitation, I shall limit myself to pointing out that lack of time would not in any event permit the Soviet Government to delegate a representative to go to Geneva.

"I consider it necessary, however, to state that the Soviet Government, always ready to support any proposition in the sphere of reducing armaments, would be ready to support the proposition of the Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs on condition that it should be accepted in obligatory form by all countries, extended to all types of armaments, and that the signers affirm that the obligation will not in any case replace or remove from the agenda the main question of disarmament or reduction of already existing armaments which must be settled in the very near future."

Litvinov Declines European Commission Invitation

A Tass dispatch printed in the Moscow *Izvestia* for September 26, stated that Mr. Litvinov, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs had received a telegraphic communication from the League of Nations to the effect that the European commission would convene on September 26, provided that the plenary session of the League of Nations should come to an end on the date expected, and that the commission would take up the formation of special committees to consider the economic non-aggression pact and other questions.

In response to the invitation of the League of Nations, referring to the statement already made by him in the European commission to the effect that it would hardly be possible for the Soviet delegation to go to Geneva a second time in September, Litvinov pointed out the uncertainty of the date on which the European commission would convene, and the exclusively technical nature of the questions to be discussed, and stated that the Soviet Government would not be represented at the meeting.

Soviet-German Adjustment Commission

The sessions of the Soviet-German adjustment commission which has been meeting in Berlin came to an end on October 7.

The Commission issued the following communiqué on the results of its work:

"The Soviet-German adjustment commission has discussed at this session, the second in the present year, various controversial questions connected with Soviet-German treaties, as well as several special matters of dispute. The negotiations, which lasted from September 17 to October 6, resulted in the settlement of a number of practical questions and the elucidation of disputable points and once more proved the expediency of a friendly exchange of opinions. The results of the negotiations are given in a report, which has been signed today and submitted to the governments of both countries for ratification."

Notes on the Theater

THE Soviet theater shows two new trends in its recent development, an increase in the actual construction of theaters and in the proportion of plays by proletarian dramatists. All reports on the productions of the coming season point to them as reflecting the strenuous building activities and socialization throughout the U.S.S.R.

A theatrical Five-Year Plan is in process of formulation to build a theater in every fair-sized town, to form travelling companies for the smaller towns, to establish permanent theaters in the collectives, and to have all theaters play the entire year round instead of seasonally. With 330 theaters in 1928-29 and a monthly budget of almost two and a half million rubles, the Plan foresees the establishment of 800 theaters at its conclusion.

The Moscow theatrical season, including as usual many classics, will bring to the fore productions of new proletarian dramatists based on the industrial and related problems facing the country. The Second Moscow Art Theater will produce a play dealing with the Donbas coal region, "An Affair of Honor," by Mikitenko, and the Vakhtangov Theater will likewise stage a play based on the same subject, "The Fifth Horizon," by Pertza Markish. While the Bolshoy Theater continues its old favorites with but few innovations, the Moscow Art Ballet Theater will give a ballet of the Spanish revolution. According to the latest reports the Meyerhold Theater will play this season in Leningrad while its Moscow theater is being repaired. Its repertoire will including "The Last Combat," a stirring drama which evoked much enthusiasm from Moscow,

Kiev and other audiences which saw the play. The Moscow Art Theater will offer plays by Gorky, Tolstoy and Chekhov as well as Kirshon's drama, "Bread," dealing with the struggle for collectivization, which played all last season to overflow houses. Stanislavsky's Operatic Theater, in addition to productions of "Carmen," "Rigoletto" and the "Barber of Seville," will give two one-act operas dealing with current themes and Davidenko's opera, "1905," written around the revolution which occurred in that year. One of the high spots of the theatrical season is expected to be the production of Gorky's new play, "Yegor Beluchev and Others," by the Vakhtangov Theater. The Kamerny Theater will give "Sonata Pathetique," by the Ukrainian dramatist, Nikolay Kulish, which centers on the civil war period in the Ukraine and in the second half of the season is scheduled to produce one of Eugene O'Neill's plays. The Puppet Theater of the Red Army will concern itself with the important question of transport, and the Red Army Ensemble will add to its repertoire a new cycle of songs devoted to the Dnieprostroy power plant.

Press Cliche

GORKY DISCUSSES HIS NEW PLAY WITH A GROUP OF ACTORS

The Commissariat of Education which has charge of theaters is planning the construction of new theaters in Novosibirsk, Kharkov, Smolensk, Rostov-on-Don and other cities. The Novosibirsk Theater is expected to be the largest in the Soviet Union.

In addition to their regular performances, numerous theaters will this year, as last, send companies to play in workers' clubs and houses of culture. The Moscow Art Ballet Theater will give a maximum of fifteen guest performances monthly in Moscow workers' clubs. At the end of the last season they played in the Ivanovo-Vosnesensk district and gave thirty-two performances in Leningrad.

Palace of Soviets Planned

The preparatory work on the construction of the Palace of the Soviets to be built in Moscow for large congresses and meetings is proceeding rapidly. The site of the Palace, on the embankment of the Moscow River, is to be cleared of old buildings by January 15, 1932, when the foundations of the Palace will be started. It is planned to open the Palace at the end of 1933.

Some 1,300 architects, foreign as well as Soviet, are participating in the competition for designs of the Palace. German, Italian, American, Swedish and French architects are preparing plans and an exhibition will be opened in January. The final date for the submission of designs has been postponed from October 20 to December 1.

A recent meeting in Moscow, called by the governing commission of Soviet architectural societies, discussed the preliminary projects for the Palace and emphasized the need of developing an architecture consonant with the needs of a socialist state, and understandable to the workers. Much attention was also paid to the construction of the square outside the Palace where parades and demonstrations will march in greeting to the assembled delegates.

The main auditorium is to seat 15,000 persons, including accommodations for delegates, visitors, the press and the diplomatic corps.

■

A New Russian Dictionary

A new English-Russian and Russian-English dictionary has been issued by the J. B. Lippincott Co. The dictionary is the work of M. A. O'Brien, and fills a long-felt need for a dictionary of handy size using the new orthography. It is in two small volumes, Vol. I the English-Russian and Vol. II the Russian-English. It gives many of the new words that have gained currency in the present-day language, gives full grammatical details, indicates the accentuation of every Russian word, and includes a valuable table of irregular verbs.

Books on the Soviet Union

"THE SOVIET PLANNED ECONOMIC ORDER," by William Henry Chamberlin. World Peace Foundation, Boston. $2.50. (Student edition, 75 cents.)

"THE RED FOG LIFTS; A WALL STREET MAN VISITS SOVIET RUSSIA," by Albert Muldavin. D. Appleton and Company, New York. $2.00.

"THE SOVIET CONQUERS WHEAT," by Anna Louise Strong. Henry Holt and Company, New York. $2.50.

"RED VILLAGES: THE FIVE-YEAR PLAN IN AGRICULTURE," by Y. A. Yakovlev, Commissar for Agriculture, U.S.S.R. International Publishers, New York. $1.50.

"THE SUCCESS OF THE FIVE-YEAR PLAN," by V. M. Molotov, Chairman Council of Peoples' Commissars, U.S.S.R. International Publishers, New York. $1.25.

"I WENT TO RUSSIA," by Liam O'Flaherty. Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York. $2.50.

"AMERICA'S SIBERIAN ADVENTURE," by Major-General William S. Graves, with forword by Hon. Newton D. Baker. Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, New York. $3.50.

"RUSSIA AND THE SOVIET UNION IN THE FAR EAST," by Victor A. Yakhontoff. Coward McCann, New York. $5.00.

Mr. Chamberlin's new book, "The Soviet Planned Economic Order," is a study of the origins and development of planned economy in the Soviet Union. The appendices give laws and regulations relating to the carrying out of the Five-Year Plan. There is an adequate index. The volume is a condensation of basic material on the present transition stage in the Soviet Union.

"A Wall Street Man Visits Soviet Russia" is the sub-title to "The Red Fog Lifts," and Albert Muldavin is said to be the pen name of an American business man who went to the Soviet Union on a business mission in 1929-30 and rambled about a bit, talking to executives and also to people he met in restaurants, theaters, railroad trains and other places. Mr. Muldavin was familiar with the Russia of the old régime and he rubbed the rust off his language. His narrative is simple and episodical and he proved an excellent reporter, not easily taken in, shrewd and with a touch of humor. His book is an entertaining picture of the Soviet scene as observed through the eyes of an intelligent American business visitor with the rather unusual qualification of understanding the common speech.

"The Soviet Conquers Wheat," by Anna Louise Strong, is, as a subtitle indicates, a story of the drama of collective farming, of the transformation of age-old habits and methods of agriculture in a country where upwards of 125,000,000 people live on the land. Miss Strong knows the country and the people and her description of the dramatic struggles of the transition period is vivid and authentic. The photographic illustrations are excellent.

"Red Villages," by Y. A. Yakovlev, Soviet Commissar for Agriculture, is a description of the reorientation of agriculture in the Soviet Union and the rise of the collectives and the State farms, with a discussion of the new tasks confronting the development of Soviet agriculture along socialist lines. The book is illustrated and adequately indexed. The translation is by Anna Louise Strong.

"The Success of the Five-Year Plan," by V. M. Molotov, Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R., is the full text of Mr. Molotov's report on the activity of the Government of the Soviet Union, made before the Sixth All-Union Soviet Congress in Moscow, in March, 1931.

There is more of Mr. Liam O'Flaherty in "I Went to Russia" than of the Soviet Union. The book is irresponsible and frequently amusing. Mr. O'Flaherty's ridicule is sometimes crazy, sometimes shrewd. In the end his intelligence gives a hint of serious appraisal.

In "America's Siberian Adventure," General William S. Graves, who commanded the American forces in Siberia, August, 1918, to April, 1920, throws much light upon a strange by-product of a tense historical period. Doubtless historical students will find his volume of great value for its candor and its perspectives. The book is illustrated with interesting photographs and is indexed.

In "Russia and the Soviet Union in the Far East," Mr. Victor A. Yakhontoff has presented much material not hitherto available in English about problems in the Far East as they particularly affect the Soviet Union. His historical summaries are comprehensive and his discussions and interpretations of present-day developments are informing and interesting. Mr. Yakhontoff bore the title of general in the Tsarist army and had wide experience in the Far East at that time. His book contains maps, a chronology and an exhaustive bibliography, and is well indexed.

Miscellaneous News

Andreyev Appointed Transport Commissar

ON October 2 the Presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. issued a decree appointing Andrey Andreyevich Andreyev People's Commissar for Transport of the Soviet Union, in place of M. L. Rukhimovich, who was relieved of the post on the same date.

Press Cliche

ANDREY ANDREYEV

I. E. Rudzutak, Vice Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars, was appointed People's Commissar of Workers' and Peasants' Inspection to fill the vacancy caused by Andreyev's transference.

Andrey Andreyev is of peasant origin, was born in 1895, and has been a member of the Communist Party since 1914. For several years after the revolution he was an official in the metal workers' union. In 1920 he became secretary of the All-Russian Central Council of Trade Unions, and subsequently chairman of the Central Committee of the railroad workers' union. Since 1920 Andreyev has been a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, serving as its secretary in 1924-25, and later as secretary of the North Caucasus Regional Committee. In 1930 Andreyev was elected chairman of the Central Control Committee of the Communist Party, and at the Sixth Congress of Soviets he was elected People's Commissar of Workers' and Peasants' Inspection and Assistant Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. He was also elected a member of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. this year.

■

Eight Hundred Prisoners Amnestied

In line with the Soviet policy of making useful citizens rather than social outcasts out of lawbreakers, every inmate of a Soviet prison or labor colony is given the opportunity to reduce the sentence imposed by the court or to obtain complete freedom. Thus every two days of work done in a prison factory or farm are counted as three days of the actual sentence imposed. Special committees of prisoners are organized to review the sentences, and make recommendations for reductions or complete amnesty, and a special amnesty commission connected with the Central Executive Committee of each Republic reviews and passes upon these requests.

At a recent meeting of the presidium of the Central Executive Committee of the R.S.F.S.R., A. A. Soltz, chairman of the amnesty committee, presented a list of workers and peasants in the Novinsk, Lefortovo and Sokolniki divisions of the First Moscow Labor Colony, and also in the Tagansk Detention Home in Moscow who, by their conduct and shock brigade work in the shops of the colony had won the right for a reduction of their sentences or complete freedom. The Presidium, meeting under the chairmanship of Mikhail Kalinin, accepted the recommendations, and as a result over 700 of the inmates of these institutions received complete freedom and over a hundred a reduction of their sentences.

■

World Spartakiad to Mark Plan's Completion

Plans are being made for an international "Spartakiad" to be held in Moscow in 1933 in celebration of the completion of the Five-Year Plan. The proposal was made by the All-Union Physical Culture Council at a recent meeting in Moscow, and ratified by the Central Executive Committee.

A large central stadium, with a seating capacity of 120,000 is to be constructed in Moscow for the event. The stadium will be equipped with tracks, fields, and apparatus for all kinds of exercise and sports. It will be a vast play and sport ground for the masses to be used daily, and not merely for games and celebrations. The plan for the stadium provides for the construction later on of a "Palace of Physical Culture," with educational and scientific departments for the study of the effect of all types of exercise on brain and body.

The Central Executive Committee has instructed the Physical Culture Council to present plans for the construction of the stadium and the principal equipment by January 1, 1932, so that preliminary construction work may be started immediately. The necessary sum for the construction of the stadium is to be included in the control figures for construction work for 1932, and 100,000,000 rubles have already been assigned so that the preliminary work may start without delay. A large tract of land near the Izmailovsky Zoological Gardens has been set aside for the stadium grounds.

Soviet Reports at Population Congress

In a report made at the International Congress on population questions which concluded its sessions at Rome on September 10th, Mr. Shmulevich, the Soviet delegate, brought out the fact that the Soviet Union was the only country in the world in which the annual growth of population has increased in comparison with the pre-war figures. Taking the pre-war rate of growth as 100, the population growth in the U.S.S.R. for the years 1927-29 amounted to 130, as against 78 in Italy, 50 in Germany and 41 in England.

Mr. Shmulevich reported that since 1923 the population of the U.S.S.R. had increased by 28,500,000. He also presented figures showing the disappearance of unemployment in the U.S.S.R., the growth of the working population, the decrease in the number of people in need of government support, and the rate of growth of the urban population. The increase of the population of Soviet cities amounted to 2,500,000 in 1930. The increase in the number of school children was particularly striking, some of the cities showing that the number of school children had increased nine times.

■

Faraday Centennial Celebrated

In connection with the 100th anniversary of the discovery by Faraday of the law of electromagnetic induction, a special All-Union Committee for the celebration of the jubilee was established in Moscow under the chairmanship of Krjijanovsky, assistant chairman of Gosplan.

September 23, the day of the anniversary, was marked by special articles by Soviet scientists devoted to Faraday's work, and by meetings held in the main industrial centers of the country.

A large meeting was held in the Hall of Columns in Moscow. The main speech was given by Krjijanovsky, who described the inexhaustible possibilities for utilizing the scientific heritage left by Faraday. Professor Tamm read a paper on Faraday's scientific work, and Professor Shenfer read a paper on the application of Faraday's laws in modern electro-technical work.

■

Effect of X-Ray on Seeds

Professor A. P. Shuisky, a Soviet scientist, has carried on extensive experiments in the appplication of X-ray to fruits and vegetables. Last year he treated dry cucumber seeds with X-ray, and established that X-ray energy is preserved by the seeds for at least a year. In some cases the seeds subjected to such treatment gave twice as high a yield as ordinary seeds, and ripened from five to ten days earlier.

With a single X-ray apparatus upwards of 35,000 acres of garden land may be treated in a single year, at the cost of a few dollars per acre. Professor Shuisky and other Soviet scientists are of the opinion that enormous practical results might be obtained from the use of this method.

■

U.S.S.R. Chamber of Commerce

At the annual meetings of the U.S.S.R. Chambers of Commerce for Western and for Eastern trade, held in Moscow on September 16, and attended by officials of the chief Soviet economic organizations and of the Commissariats for Foreign Trade and Foreign Affairs, resolutions were passed providing for the merging of the two bodies into a single Chamber of Commerce for Foreign Trade of the U.S.S.R. A joint meeting of both bodies was held on September 21, which served as the constituent assembly for the new body. An All-Union museum of export goods is being established in connection with the new Chamber of Commerce.

■

Latinized Chinese Alphabet in the Far East

Very interesting results have been obtained from an experiment of Latinizing the Chinese written language in the Far East region of the Soviet Union, where there is quite a large Chinese speaking section of the population. A group of illiterate Chinese workers, given the twenty-eight letters of the new Latinized Chinese alphabet to learn instead of the 50,000 signs of the old system, were able to read and write in less than two months.

At a meeting of Chinese public organizations in the Far East it was decided to introduce the Latinized Chinese alphabet into all the Chinese schools of the Far East, in the Eastern Faculty of the State Far Eastern University, and in several Russian schools of the Far East.

■

Administrative Changes

According to a recent government decree the city of Vladikavkaz in the North Caucasus has been renamed Ordjonikidze. The station Pavlovo on the Moscow-Kazan railroad has been renamed Metallist, and the station Gorky-Belorusskie on the Western railroad has been renamed Pogodino.

Calendar of Events, 1930-1931

1930

October

13—Sino-Soviet Conference on Chinese-Estern Railway opens in Moscow.

18—Gregory Fedorovich Grinko appointed People's Commissar for Finance of U.S.S.R. in place of Nikolay P. Briukhanov.

20—Sovnarkom restricts trade with countries discriminating against Soviet imports.

November

6—Litvinov attends Preparatory Disarmament Commission meeting at Geneva.

10—Gregory K. Ordjonikidze appointed Chairman of the Supreme Council of National Economy to succeed Valerian V. Kuibyshev, the latter becoming chairman of Gosplan to succeed Gleb M. Krjijanovsky.

22—Commissariat for Domestic and Foreign Trade reorganized into two separate commissariats, the People's Commissariat for Supplies, headed by A. I. Mikoyan, and the People's Commissariat for Foreign Trade, headed by A. P. Rosenholtz.

December

4—Second session of Sino-Soviet Conference.

4—Lunacharsky presents Soviet armament reduction principles and objections to draft convention to Preparatory Disarmament Commission at Geneva.

7—Conviction of eight engineers of "Industrial Party" for participation in plot to set up military dictatorship.

8—Commutation of above sentences to prison terms.

19—Viacheslav Molotov appointed chairman of Council of People's Commissars and of the Council of Labor and Defense of the U.S.S.R. in place of Alexey Rykov.

22—Andrey Andreyev appointed People's Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection.

24—"Commission of Fulfillment" established.

24—New members of Council of Labor and Defense announced.

1931

January

4—Meeting of TSIK—Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R.—opens.

30—People's Commissariat for Waterways of the U.S.S.R. established, with Nikolay Yanson as Commissar.

February

3—Litvinov, on behalf of U.S.S.R., accepts invitation of League of Nations to participate in Commission for the Study of a European Union.

17—All-Russian Congress on Universal Compulsory Education opens in Moscow.

March

8—Sixth All-Union Congress of Soviets opens in Moscow.

16—Turco-Soviet Treaty of commerce and navigation signed.

30—Alexey Rykov appointed People's Commissar for Posts and Telegraphs.

20—"Hozraschet"—economic accounting—decreed for all socialized enterprises.

April

1—Oil industry completes Five-Year Plan in two and a half years.

6—First All-Union Conference on Planning Scientific Research opens in Moscow.

11—Sino-Soviet Conference resumed.

14—German-Soviet credit agreement signed in Berlin.

22—New citizenship decree issued.

28—Italo-Soviet credit agreement signed in Rome.

May

5—Nikolay Krylenko appointed People's Commissar for Justice of R.S.F.S.R.

6—Soviet-Lithuanian Treaty of 1926 prolonged five years.

12—Decree increasing commodity supply and opening new stores.

18—Litvinov proposes economic non-aggression pact to League of Nations Commission for the study of a European Union meeting at Geneva.

June

11—Plenary session of Central Committee of Communist Party on harvest preparations, railroads and improvements in housing and living conditions.

21—Academy of Sciences meets in Moscow.

23—Stalin speaks on new economic tasks before conference of industrial managers held in Moscow.

24—German-Soviet neutrality and economic non-aggression Treaty of 1026 renewed in Moscow.

24—Afghan-Soviet neutrality Treaty signed in Kabul.

July

2—First Anglo-American Club for workers opened.

11—French Government sets aside decree of October 3, 1930, restricting Soviet imports, and U.S.S.R. removes obstacles to French imports.

23—First Soviet printing press completed.

27—Soviet ice-breaker "Malygin" and German dirigible "Graf Zeppelin" meet in the Arctic.

31—Decree making livestock chief agricultural problem of 1931.

August

1—Decree on improvement of living and material conditions of engineers and technicians, putting them on same privileged basis as proletarian workers.

10—First anniversary of introduction of universal compulsory primary education.

31—Coordinating committee of Pan-European Commission favors Litvinov's economic pact "in principle" and refers it to sub-committee.

September

8—Seventh International Conference on Psychotechnology opens in Moscow.

27—Stalingrad tractor production reaches 100 a day.

29—Decree on development of Soviet packing and canning industries.

October

1—New Amo factory opens.

1—Kharkov tractor plant starts production.

1—Wage increases in mining and metallurgical industries announced.

2—Andrey Andreyev appointed Railroad Commissar in place of M. L. Rukhimovich.

7—German-Soviet Adjustment Commission ends sessions.

9—Ian E. Rudzutak appointed People's Commissar for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection in place of Andreyev.

Some Recent Magazine Articles on the Soviet Union

A list of the more important articles which have appeared since the July-August issue of the SOVIET UNION REVIEW.

Agriculture

"Thomas Campbell: Master Farmer," by Edward Angly. Forum, July, 1931.
A picture of Soviet agriculture and arguments for trade between the U. S. and the Soviet Union.

"Collectives Pass the Half-Way Mark," by William H. Chamberlin. Review of Reviews, September, 1931.
An illustrated account of the latest developments in collectivized agriculture.

"A Business Man's View of Russia," by A. M. Creighton (as related to Dudley Hovey). Barron's Financial Weekly, October 12, 1931.
An account of the application of mass production methods to farming.

American-Soviet Relations

"An American Policy Toward Russia," by George Soule. The Annals of the American Academy of Political Science, July, 1931.
Mr. Soule advocates cooperation and enlargement of trade.

"Capitalism and Communism," by Jerome Davis, Ph. D. The Annals, July, 1931.
A discussion of unreliable information about Russia versus actual conditions and a plea for recognition.

"Making Peace with Russia," by Reinhold Niebuhr. The World Tomorrow, November, 1931.
A plea for better relations with the U.S.S.R.

"Facing Facts About Russia," by Robert C. McManus. Outlook and Independent, August 12, 1931.
A plea for factual information and closer relations with the Soviet Union.

Americans in Soviet Russia

"Gold Rush to Moscow," by Albert Parry. Outlook and Independent, July 15, 1931.
An account of American migration to the Soviet Union and the types of applicants accepted for employment there.

"Experiences of an American Engineer in Russia," by Col. Gorge A. Burrell. National Petroleum News, beginning August 5, 1931, appearing weekly and continuing.

Cultural

"Russian Stage Under the Soviets," by May L. Becker. Saturday Review of Literature, August 15, 1931.
A list of books dealing with the Soviet theater.

"The Russian Scene—Three New Plays in Moscow," by John Becker. Theatre Arts Monthly, August, 1931.
Description of outstanding productions in the present Moscow theatrical season.

"Tartar Proletarian Writers," by Jeyhoun Bey Hajibeyli. The Asiatic Review, October, 1931.

"Russian Children and Their Books," by Ernestine Evans. Asia, November, 1931.
An appreciative survey with many illustrations from Russian books for children.

"An English Architect Visits Russia," by Clough Williams Ellis. Baltimore Sun, October 4, 1931.
An appreciation and criticism.

Economic Planning

"The Planned Economy of Soviet Russia," by A. Ford Hinrichs and Adams Brown, Jr. Political Science Quarterly, September, 1931.
A comprehensive outline of the Soviet economic system.

"The challenge of the Five-Year Plan," by Michael Farbman. New Republic, September 16, 1931.
A discussion of the effect of the Five-Year Plan on the world trade situation.

Health and Hygiene

"The Bathtub Comes to Russia," by Louis Fischer. The Nation, September 16, 1931.
The new campaign for personal hygiene and cleanliness sweeping the Soviet Union.

"Ten Years of Legalized Abortions in Soviet Union," by Louis I. Dublin. American Journal of Public Health, September, 1931.
Review of a Soviet survey.

"Russian Food," by Anna J. Haines. Journal of Home Economics, September, 1931.

Incentives

"What Will Russia Do to Religion?", by Karl Borders. The Christian Century, August 26, 1931.

"Why Do Russians Work So Hard?", by Maxwell S. Stewart. The Christian Century, September 16, 1931.

Industry

"Industrial Conditions in Russia," by Walter N. Polakov. American Machinist, July 30, 1931.
An evaluation of the Five-Year Plan by an American consulting engineer to the Supreme Economic Council.

"Gantt Chart in Russia," by Walter N. Polakov. American Machinist, August 13, 1931.
A discussion of the problems faced in industrial management.

"Chemical and Oil Plants Constructed by the Soviet." Oil, Paint and Drug Representative, August 31, 1931.

"A Business Man's View of Russia," by A. M. Creighton (as related to Dudley Hovey). Barron's Financial Weekly.
1. September 28, 1931—A description of the present state of some of the big new industrial plants.
2. October 12, 1931—An account of Soviet oil plans.

Soviet Policy

"Soviet Policy—The 1931 Revision," by Alzada Comstock. Barron's Financial Weekly, August 24, 1931.
An interpretation of Stalin's address to the industrial managers in June.

"The 'Right'—And 'Left'—of It in Russia," by Walter Duranty. New York Times Magazine, October 11, 1931.
An analysis of the significance of the new economic tasks outlined by Stalin.

"Russian Socialism in Operation," by Edgar S. Furniss. Current History, October, 1931.
An interpretation of recent domestic policy and a note on Soviet foreign policy.

Standardization

"U.S.S.R. 1931 Standardization Program," by V. Kisselev. Commercial Standards Monthly, September, 1931.
Translated from an article by the chief assistant of the U.S.S.R. Standards Committee Planning Secton.

"Russia Pins Much Faith on Profit from Waste Elimination by Standardization." Steel, July 16, 1931.

"Standardization Aids Russia's Program of Industrialism," by D. G. Budnevich. Steel, September 3, 1931.

Trade

"Barred Here, Russia Takes Cotton Orders to Egypt." Business Week, July 22, 1931.
A short discussion of Soviet cotton.

"France Welcomes Soviet Trade, Moscow Bargains for Markets." Business Week, July 29, 1931.
A discussion of Soviet foreign trade and European credits and of Stalin's speech to the industrial managers.

"Why Fear Russia," by W. J. Austin. Scribner's Magazine, September, 1931.
A plea for closer business relations between the U. S. and the Soviet Union, by the President of the Austin Co.

"The Challenge of the Five-Year Plan," by Michael Farbman. New Republic, September 16, 1931.
A discussion of the effect of the Five-Year Plan on the world trade situation.

Various

"Djhugashvilli: Russia's Man of Steel," by Eugene Lyons. World's Work, June, 1931.
An article about Stalin.

"Position of Science in Soviet Russia," by H. M. Dadourian. Science, July 3, 1931.
A discussion of Soviet encouragement of science.

"Russia Bids for Tourist Trade." Review of Reviews, August 1931.

"How Russia Spends Its Holidays," by Ruth M. Dadourian. Travel, September, 1931.
An illustrated account of vacations in the Caucasus and on the Black Sea coast.

"What's What in Russia," by Maurice Hindus. Ladies' Home Journal, October, 1931.

"Red Love," by Maurice Hindus. Vanity Fair, October, 1931.
"A consideration of the emotional and physical status of young women under a Soviet regime."

"Scenes from the New Russia," by Boris Pilniak. The Nation, October 7, 1931.
Some comparisons made from the thirtieth floor of a New York hotel.

"One Hundred Per Cent Adygea," by Joshua Kunitz. New Masses, October, 1931.
An account of a visit to an autonomous territory in the North Caucasus inhabited by the Circassians.

"Items from a Traveler's Notebook," by John Haynes Holmes. Unity.
October 5, 1931—Leningrad.
October 12, 1931—Moscow.
October 19, 1931—In the Russian Villages.

"And Now Siberia Is Building a Metropolis," by Lucien Zacharoff. Baltimore Sun Magazine Section, October 11, 1931.
A description of the rise of Novosibirsk.

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SOVIET MOTOR TRUCKS ON DISPLAY IN THE RED SQUARE

Soviet Foreign Relations

The U.S.S.R. and Manchuria

THE Moscow *Izvestia* of October 30 published a statement by Tass, the Soviet News Agency, to the effect that on October 28 the Japanese Ambassador in Moscow, M. Hirota, called upon L. M. Karakhan, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U.S.S.R., and, on instructions from his government, made an oral statement in which he referred to rumors spread in Manchuria in regard to relations between the Soviet Union and China.

M. Hirota prefaced his statement with the remark that since the beginning of the Japanese-Chinese incident there had fortunately been no events reflecting on the relations between the U.S.S.R. and Japan. The rumors he reported included the statement that there were Soviet instructors in the army of the Chinese General Ma, an alleged statement from General Ma that he had received military airplanes, artillery and aviators from the Soviet Union, and reports that Soviet troops and trains with military supplies were being concentrated in the Far East. He said that further rumors of close collaboration between the U.S.S.R. and China in connection with events in Manchuria had been heard in Shanghai, Harbin and other places.

In conclusion M. Hirota stated that if Soviet troops were sent to the Chinese Eastern railway zone this would aggravate the situation and the Japanese Government would be forced to take the necessary measures for the protection of its nationals and of the Taonan-Tsitsihar railroad which was built with Japanese money, and that therefore grave danger existed that the sphere of conflict might be enlarged.

On October 29 Karakhan made the following statement to M. Hirota on behalf of the Soviet Government:

"The Government of the U.S.S.R. cannot but express its amazement at the statement presented by M. Hirota on behalf of the Japanese Government on October 28, referring to absolutely baseless inventions and rumors which emanate from irresponsible persons in Japanese and Chinese circles who for some reason are interested in spreading provocative rumors in connection with the present situation in Manchuria.

"The Japanese Government cannot but know that there are no Soviet instructors with the Tsitsihar troops, nor with troops in any other Manchurian province, that these troops have not received and are not receiving any arms or military supplies from the U.S.S.R., and that the U.S.S.R. is not supporting any of the conflicting parties in Manchuria.

"The Government of the U.S.S.R. in pursuing a policy of strict non-interference, is not doing so because such a policy may be pleasing or displeasing to anyone. The Soviet Government pursues a policy of non-interference because it respects the international treaties which have been concluded with China, because it respects the sovereign rights and independence of other nations and believes that a policy of military occupation, applied under whatever form of so-called assistance, is inconsistent with the peaceful policy of the U.S.S.R. and with the interests of universal peace.

"The Government of the U.S.S.R. expresses the hope that this reply disposes of all questions raised in the statement made by the Japanese ambassador, M. Hirota, on October 28 of this year."

Voroshilov Denies Rumor of Soviet Aid to China

On November 6 *Izvestia* published in full the interview given to a representative of the United Press, in which Climenti Voroshilov, People's Commissar for Army and Navy, set forth the attitude of the Soviet Government on the Manchurian situation. In answer to the interviewer's question as to whether the Soviet Government had rendered any assistance to China in the Manchurian conflict, and referring to statements regarding the mobilizing of forces near Manchuria, Voroshilov declared:

"There is nothing like a movement of troops in the vicinity of Manchuria. The Soviet Government has not helped nor is it helping in any way either the Chinese or the Japanese in Manchuria. All reports of the transfer of Soviet troops to the border or anywhere in Siberia are sheer nonsense. Not a soldier nor a gun has been shifted in that region since the conflict started.

"The Soviet Government believes that to render so-called assistance would be tantamount to direct intervention and consequently the partitioning of China and the suppression of Chinese independence. The Soviet Government would be committing a crime if it undertook the partition of China."

Asked to interpret the recent Japanese note to Moscow charging Soviet aid to anti-Japanese elements in China, Voroshilov suggested that the Japanese charges were inspired by the desire to raise the bogey of the "Red Menace" in the East in order to make an impression on European and American public opinion.

In answer to the question as to what he expected from the forthcoming session of the League of Nations on the Manchurian conflict, Voroshilov left no doubt that he viewed the possibility of effective action by the League of Nations with the deepest pessimism.

With regard to the future Voroshilov declared:

"The Soviet Government's future policy depends entirely upon the sincerity of Japan in her repeatedly expressed desire to maintain good neighborly relations with us. So far as the Soviets are concerned we favor and will continue to favor maintenance of amicable relations with Japan."

In concluding the interview, Voroshilov reaffirmed the Soviet attitude toward the 1932 world disarmament conference:

"We approach the conference in a spirit of seriousness and loyalty," he said. "If the least possibility arises to limit arms we are ready to do so. But if this conference—like many others—becomes a mere platform for empty phrases, our delegates as usual will expose them mercilessly. We stand by our previous declarations in favor of universal and complete disarmament."

Litvinov Protests Anti-Soviet Rumors

On November 14, M. M. Litvinov, Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, gave the following statement to M. Koki Hirota, Japanese Ambassador in Moscow, for transmission to the Japanese Government:

"In the statement made to you by the Assistant People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, Mr. Karakhan, on October 29, the Union Government has already noted the utter absurdity and falsity of the inventions and rumors emanating from irresponsible sources for some reason interested in the dissemination of provocative rumors in connection with the present situation in Manchuria.

"The Government of the U.S.S.R. declared with the utmost clarity that it was maintaining a policy of strict non-interference based on its traditional and unchanging policy of peace, respect for the international treaties concluded with China, and respect for the sovereign rights and independence of other governments.

"The Union Government had reason to expect that this statement, couched in such clear and unmistakable terms, and which, according to information given by you to Mr. Karakhan, Assistant Soviet Commissar for Foreign Affairs, was met with satisfaction on the part of the Japanese Government, would put an end to the provocative anti-Soviet campaign and inventions of alleged assistance rendered by the Government of the U.S.S.R. to any Chinese troops in Manchuria.

"The Union Government, with a sense of extreme regret, is forced to note that interested

Japanese military circles continue to invent and spread absolutely unfounded rumors about Soviet assistance to this or that Chinese general through the Japanese press and telegraph agencies.

"The official character and source of these rumors is evidenced, by the way, in the official statement made on November 12 by the Japanese representative in Mukden containing a direct statement of the transfer of reinforcements from Blagovestchensk in the form of 'Chinese and Korean Communists.'

"The Union Government cannot let pass unnoticed the fact that a similar surmise was expressed on the same date, November 12, by the

MAXIM LITVINOV

Japanese vice-consul in Harbin, Mr. Nakano, in conversation with the manager of the consulate general of the U.S.S.R. in Harbin.

"The Union Government calls the attention of the Japanese Government to the malicious anti-Soviet campaign being systematically carried on by certain military circles in Manchuria with the aim of complicating the relations between Japan and the U.S.S.R.

"In addition, the Government of the U.S.S.R. deems it necessary to make a timely reminder of the assurances given me by the Japanese Ambassador that the interests of the U.S.S.R. would not be injured by events in Manchuria. I have the more reason to remind you of this, as information is available to the effect that the Japanese command are preparing to cross the Chinese Eastern Railway in the region of Tsitsihar which would paralyze the railway and cause material loss to the U.S.S.R. The Union Government trusts that the assurances made by the Japanese Government will remain in force and will not be violated."

U.S.S.R. and the League of Nations

ON September 19 the Third Commission of the League of Nations Assembly decided to invite representatives of the Governments of the United States of America, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and Turkey to the Third Commission for the purpose of discussing the question of an armament truce. The Government of the U.S.S.R. received the invitation on September 20.

On September 21, Mr. Litvinov sent to the Chairman of the League of Nations Assembly, a telegram of acknowledgement in which he emphasized the readiness of the Soviet Government to support any proposal for the reduction of armaments, and expressed his readiness to agree to an armament truce provided it would be obligatory for all countries and would include all armaments and would not in any way take the place of, or remove from the order of the day, the main question of disarmament or of a reduction of existing armaments, subject to settlement in the near future.

On September 30 the League of Nations Assembly passed a resolution requesting the Council of the League to ask the different Governments to declare if they were ready to accept an armament truce until November 1, 1932.

The General Secretary of the League of Nations accordingly addressed a Note to the People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, the text of which is given below, together with Mr. Litvinov's reply.

"Mr. People's Commissar,

"Referring to the exchange of telegrams which took place on September 19 and 21 between yourself and the Chairman of the League of Nations Assembly, regarding the discussion by the Third Commission of the Assembly of an armament truce, I have the honor to forward to you herewith the report and resolution on this question, which were approved by the Assembly on September 29 together with a report on the same question approved by the Council of the League of Nations on the 30th of the same month.

"In conformity with these decisions please advise me, before November 1 next, whether the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is ready, in accordance with the

contents of the resolutions and reports mentioned above, to accept the armament truce proposed by the Assembly.

"ERIC DRUMMOND, *General Secretary.*"

In reply to this letter, the People's Commissar for Foreign Affffairs, Litvinov, sent the following telegram on October 21:

"I have received your letter of October 2 with the enclosed reports regarding an armament truce which have been approved by the League of Nations Assembly.

"In my telegram of September 21 I have already had the honor to notify you of my government's readiness to undertake, together with other governments, and on the same basis, the obligation to suspend armaments for the entire duration of the Disarmament Conference. It is also prepared to accept the proposed period of one year beginning on November 1, just as it is prepared for complete disarmament or the maximum reduction of armaments in accordance with the proposals and draft conventions submitted by me to the Disarmament Preparatory Commission. It must be clear, however, that similar declarations will be made by all the governments and that they will be regarded by them as having the same obligatory character and force as an international convention. It must further be quite clear whether this obligation applies to all types and forms of arms, both as regards numerical strength and as regards war materials. Nor is it clear from the resolution adopted by the Assembly whether the reservations about exemptions made by several States in the Third Commission are accepted or rejected. It appears absolutely indisputable that if these questions are not made perfectly clear, or if each country is allowed to interpret in its own manner the extent of the obligations assumed by it, it will be impossible to avoid mutual claims and charges which are far from conducive to the creation of that atmosphere of confidence for the Conference of which the reports speak.

"The lack of clarity and precision in the respective decisions of the League of Nations and in international obligations is one of the causes of the deplorable events which are now developing in Manchuria and which cannot, of course, strengthen the atmosphere of confidence.

"In any event, my government will be prepared, after the necessary clarity is introduced, to undertake the obligation to suspend armaments on an equal basis with all the other States.

"LITVINOV."

Correspondence on Armament Data

On February 17, 1931, the General Secretary of the League of Nations addressed to all the governments invited to the Disarmament Conference, including the Government of the U.S.S.R., a request to report on the extent of their armaments, explaining that the information was required for the preparation of the Conference. The Soviet Government was the first to report (April 25, 1931) the data on the armaments of the U.S.S.R., forwarding the information to the General Secretary of the League of Nations in a sealed envelope addressed to the future conference. In the correspondence that followed, the Foreign Commissariat reaffirmed its view that the exchange of information concerning armaments comes within the authority only of the conference itself or of the different governments.

On October 7 the General Secretary of the League of Nations forwarded a letter to the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs again requesting that armament data be sent to the League Secretariat. Mr. Litvinov replied on the 21st of the same month as follows:

"I received your letter of the 7th of October in which you notify me of the resolution of the Assembly of the League of Nations relating to information on disarmament.

"This letter reiterates the proposal put forward by you in your letter of February 17, to which I replied on April 25, enclosing tables of the armaments of the U.S.S.R., required for the Disarmament Conference. My government is prepared, insofar as is required, to cooperate in every way for the success of the Disarmament Conference. It, however, believes that this success in a large degree depends on the recognition of the principle of equality of all countries participating in the Conference. On the basis of this principle my government can recognize, as entitled to the political preparation of the Conference, only those institutions and persons in the creation and appointment of which it has taken part together with other States.

"However, I am able to advise you that my government has already exchanged armament tables with Italy, Poland and Finland, and is prepared to exchange them with other States who may so desire.

"LITVINOV."

Economic Non-Aggression Pact Considered

The meeting of the League of Nations Commission for the study of the Soviet draft economic non-aggression pact was opened on November 2 by Sir Eric Drummond, General Secretary of the League of Nations.

The Italian representative, Signor de Mikelis, was elected chairman. In a brief speech he reviewed the history of the Soviet proposal and recommended a detailed and careful study of the

pact, expressing the hope that the commission would reach a final decision on the question. After emphasizing the importance of the proposed pact to world peace he requested the Soviet delegate to open the discussion.

Sokolnikov Explains Soviet Proposal

Gregory Sokolnikov, diplomatic representative of the U.S.S.R. in Great Britain, and Soviet delegate to the commission, then spoke in part as follows:

"The question of concluding an economic non-aggression pact is not a new one. At the present stage the consideration of this question already has a long, perhaps too long, history. Permit me to review it briefly here. I would especially direct your attention to the speech made by Litvinov at the session of the coordinating sub-commission. His speech contains the formulas for the principles underlying the project which is before us.

"The U.S.S.R., as you know, was invited to the third session of the European Commission to participate in the study of questions connected with the world economic crisis insofar as economic conditions in European countries were concerned. The Soviet delegation offered at the third session a detailed analysis of the crisis, an analysis, incidentally, which was fully confirmed by subsequent developments. Declaring in particular that one of the chief elements in the growing crisis was the increasing economic struggle rapidly spreading through a number of countries and giving rise to plans and acts of economic aggression, the Soviet delegation introduced a draft pact of economic non-aggression, briefly formulating the principle of the inadmissibility of discrimination on the part of some countries against others in the economic sphere. In spite of the importance of the Soviet draft pact from the point of view of the international economic situation, in spite of the fact that its early consideration and acceptance would therefore have seemed to be entirely expedient, the real substance of the pact has not yet been considered."

Pursuing the subsequent history of the pact through commissions and sub-commissions, Mr. Sokolnikov continued:

"In urging upon the present committee the necessity for a careful and at the same time a speedy and active consideration of the economic non-aggression pact, the Soviet delegation is by no means assuming the role of a doctor wishing to cure the capitalist régime of its sickness. We, on our side, are convinced that the maladies and defects of this system are incurable, and that the replacement of capitalist anarchy by a system of socialist planned economy is the only method whereby the rapid and powerful development of the productive powers of humanity could be assured. But the economic policy of the Soviet Government is by no means directed toward bringing about the greatest possible disorders in world economy as certain anti-Soviet publicists, unusually gifted with imagination, have asserted.

"Soviet economic policy has never been directed toward sharpening the world economic crisis but has on the contrary taken great pains to protect the rapidly growing Soviet economy from the harmful influences of the crisis which is gripping capitalist economy. In introducing this draft economic non-aggression pact at the peak of the world economic crisis, the Soviet Government acted in accordance with its principles regarding the possibility of the peaceful co-existence of two different economic systems, proclaimed here at the international economic conference in 1927.

"If, in postponing consideration of the Soviet proposal, the Pan-European Commission counted on the end of the crisis within a few months, in accordance with the prophecies of certain optimistically inclined economists, and so felt that the consideration of the pact would no longer be necessary, it is now quite evident that such hopes were entirely unfounded. The crisis, grown deeper and more severe, has entered upon a new phase. World economy is now in the grip of a money and credit crisis leading to a catastrophic situation in currency circulation and credit in a number of the most important capitalist countries. The economic aggression of certain countries against others has recently taken on new forms, leading to withdrawal of credit, of a mass and simultaneous character and dealing a heavy blow to the money circulation of different countries."

Universal Importance of Pact

Pointing out the importance of the economic non-aggression pact not only for the interests of the U.S.S.R. but to the capitalist countries as well, Mr. Sokolnikov continued:

"It is quite indisputable that the Soviet Union suffers most actively from the effects of economic aggression, inasmuch as a number of countries have taken economic measures directly discriminating against the U.S.S.R. At the third session of the European Commission a number of foreign ministers of those countries, represented on that committee, denied the assertions by the Soviet delegation that certain countries had undertaken economic aggression against the U.S.S.R., and gave assurances that no such aggressive intentions and measures existed. Unfortunately, the practice of recent months has not borne out these statements. Measures directed especially against the U.S.S.R. by a number of European countries, and especially by Belgium, Jugoslavia, Rumania and Hungary, are still unrevoked. Neither have

the special measures directed against the U.S.S.R. in transoceanic countries been revoked.

"Quite recently in one of those countries an openly hostile attack was made on trade with the Soviet Union, leading to the suspension of trade relations between the U.S.S.R. and that country. Attacks against the U.S.S.R. have not ceased. At the present time we are compelled to state that there is a new campaign of lies against the U.S.S.R., consisting of fables about the solvency of the U.S.S.R. Inasmuch as a number of capitalist countries are insolvent this, it seems, is sufficient basis for the dissemination of rumors that the country with a socialist economy is also unable to meet its debts. They forget that a system of planned economy, including a strict planning of financial payments, is the best guarantee against the possibility of insolvency. I mention this stupid campaign here because similar campaigns would not take place if they were not bound up with the practical question of injuring the trade of the U.S.S.R., and preparing special measures against the U.S.S.R. The harmfulness of such campaigns, even from the point of view of the interests of capitalist countries having commercial relations with the U.S.S.R., should be obvious. Of general knowledge and not to be disputed, is the fact that while general trade turnover is decreasing, the orders of the U.S.S.R. alone are constantly increasing, in natural proportion to the general rapid growth of Soviet production."

In concluding his speech, Mr. Sokolnikov expressed his readiness to consider and so far as possible include in the pact suggestions from the various delegates on condition that they were not contradictory to the basic idea of the pact. A general discussion of the Soviet proposal followed.

Soviet Proposal Again Shelved

At subsequent meetings the delegates were unable to reach any agreement on the pact, and the sessions concluded with a resolution appointing a new sub-committee to work out definite proposals concerning the non-aggression pact to be submitted to the January meeting of the Pan-European Commission.

While the possibility of two different economic systems coexisting peaceably, as set forth in the pact, was generally conceded, many of the delegates raised objections to the economic non-aggression pact on the ground that it was indefinite with regard to what would be interpreted as the "discriminations" condemned by the pact, pointing out the danger that protective measures might be interpreted as economic aggression. A number of delegates also felt that the pact was irreconcilable with most-favored nation clauses existing in many commercial treaties.

Sokolnikov spoke at length, further clarifying the Soviet position, reiterating that the pact was not designed to interfere with any existing treaty obligations and answering in detail all questions raised by the delegates. His speech impressed the delegates sufficiently to prevent the rejection of the proposal. At its final session the committee adopted the following resolution:

"1. The Committee approves the general idea at the basis of the Soviet proposal for an economic non-aggression pact.

"2. The Committee recognizes the possibility of the peaceful coexistence of countries having different social and economic systems and emphasizes the necessity for governments to be guided in their economic relations exclusively by the requirements of their economic structure, rejecting considerations based merely on the fact of differences in political or social systems.

"3. Taking into consideration the different points of view on the question of the interpretation of certain expressions in the draft pact, the difficulties of giving an exact definition within the limits of the pact of the terms aggression, discrimination, etc., and taking into consideration that the draft we have examined cannot be accepted either unanimously or by the majority of the members of the committee; further considering the necessity of again taking up this question in connection with points brought out in the discussion which took place in the commission, the committee hereby resolves to meet again before the forthcoming January session of the European Commission in order to consider the question again with any amendments or supplementary suggestions, regarding which the committee requests the governments to inform the secretariat of the League of Nations."

Turco-Soviet Treaty Extended

On October 27 Maxim Litvinov, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Soviet Union, arrived at Angora for an official visit, on the invitation of the Turkish Government. Mr. Litvinov was accompanied by Hussein Rahib-bey, Turkish Ambassador to the U.S.S.R. Mr. Litvinov's visit was made the occasion for warm demonstrations of friendship for the Soviet Union on the part of Turkish officials, public and press.

During the course of his visit a number of conversations were held by Litvinov with Ismet Pasha, President of the Turkish Council of Ministers and Tewfik Rushdi-bey, Turkish Minister for Foreign Affairs, in which Suritz, diplomatic representative of the U.S.S.R. in Turkey and Hussein Rahib-bey also participated. International problems were discussed as well as questions touching the friendly relations of the two coun-

tries during the past ten years, the possibilities of further developing economic relations and the furtherance of general peace. Mr. Litvinov repeated the invitation already extended by Suritz to Ismet Pasha to visit Moscow. The invitation was accepted, the date to be decided upon later.

One of the most important results of Litvinov's visit was the signing of a protocol prolonging the period of the treaty of friendship and neutrality which was signed in Paris on December 17, 1925. The articles of the protocol follow:

"Article I. The period of action of the treaty on friendship and neutrality, concluded in Paris on December 17, 1925, with the three supplementary protocols attached thereto of the same date, and the period of action of the protocol on continuance of December 17, 1929, and the naval protocol of March 7, 1931, signed in Angora, are hereby extended for a five year period to be counted from the day of their expiration.

"However, if neither one of the contracting parties does not, six months before the expiration of the five year period, notify the other of its desire to suspend the treaties the treaty as well as the above mentioned protocols, will be considered automatically renewed for an additional period of one year.

" Article 2. The present protocol enters into force from the moment of its ratification, of which each of the contracting parties will notify the others."

Persian-Soviet Trade Treaty

On October 27 in Teheran a Soviet-Persian treaty on colonization, commerce and navigation was signed by A. M. Petrovsky, accredited representative of the U.S.S.R. and M. Foroughi, Persian Minister of Foreign Affairs. The new treaty, replacing the temporary trade agreement of October 1, 1927, which expired on October 1, 1929, is based on the principle of complete respect for the internal laws of each of the contracting parties, in particular with regard to the law passed by the Persian National Assembly, on February 25 of this year, on the Persian monopoly of foreign trade.

The new treaty, in addition to articles on trade regulations between the two countries, also contains a number of articles on the rights of citizens and juridical persons, on the status of the trade representative of the U.S.S.R. in Persia, on navigation, and so on.

The treaty has been concluded for three years. It will enter into effect after its ratification by the legislative bodies of both countries and the exchange of ratified copies, which will take place in Moscow.

Changes in Soviet Foreign Service

Mr. Alexander Ozersky, Assistant Commissar for Foreign Trade of the U.S.S.R., has been appointed Soviet Trade Representative in Great Britain to replace Mr. Saul G. Bron.

DISPENSARY OF THE "HAMMER AND SICKLE" FACTORY IN MOSCOW

Soviet Labor Conditions

THERE have been a number of important changes in labor conditions in the U.S.S.R. during the past few years.* The steady expansion of industry has ended unemployment and millions of new workers have been drawn into industry. The entire number of employed workers has increased by 20 per cent during 1931, bringing the total number of workers of all categories up to 17,000,000.

The number of new women workers alone attracted into industry during the past year has reached 1,000,000. Practically all adult members of workers' families are now employed, which has meant an increase of 24 per cent in the working family's income during the past year.

The total trade union membership of the U.S.S.R. has reached 14,000,000. Seventy per cent of trade union funds are spent on the social and cultural needs of the workers. This year has also been marked by widespread development of socialist competition and the growth of the "Udarnik" (shock brigade) movement. There are 200,000 shock brigades among trade union workers, and 3,500,000 shock "brigadiers" in industry and transport.

Wage Increases

During the last three years—from October 1, 1928, to October 1, 1931, the average monthly wage of Soviet industrial workers has increased by 23.9 per cent. The average monthly wages of the workers increased by 11.8 per cent in the first seven months of 1931 over the wages of 1930. In the fourth quarter of the present year special increases were made in the wages of workers in the key industries as follows: in ferrous metallurgy, 23.5 per cent; in anthracite, 12 per cent (making an increase of 35 per cent for the year); mining, 29 per cent; chemical industry, 20 per cent.

In other branches of industry wage increases during the past three years have been as follows: in machine construction, 17.1 per cent; in the wood-working industry, 27 per cent; in the glass industry, by 32.4 per cent; in cement by 20 per cent; in the basic chemical industries by 20.1 per cent; in paper by 22.5 per cent; in cotton by 13 per cent; in wool by 13.3 per cent; in linen cloth by 25 per cent; in the food industries by 13.5 per cent; in the printing industry by 11.9 per cent, and in the match industry by 20.6 per cent.

*The material in this article has been taken from statements printed in the Soviet press on November 7, 1931, and from a speech made by I. A. Kraval, one of the Soviet delegates to the International Industrial Relations Conference held at Amsterdam last summer.

A Sovhoz Harvest Worker

From 1924 to the first quarter of 1931 the average monthly wage in rubles* of the workers in socialized industry has increased as follows:

	1924	1925	1926	1927
All census industry	39.48	47.81	57.02	64.64
Coal mining	38.29	42.86	53.87	59.34
Iron and steel	34.27	46.13	58.42	68.79
Machine construction	44.92	57.79	69.78	82.37

	1928	1929	1930	1931 *1st quarter*
All census industry	70.94	77.65	83.30	90.70
Coal mining	63.27	68.81	76.47	83.97
Iron and steel	75.61	83.82	88.30	90.05
Machine construction	92.94	103.29	108.36	118.00

It should also be noted that the proportion of workers in the lowest wage category is constantly decreasing. In 1930 the proportion of workers with monthly wages of less than 40 rubles amounted to only about one-eighth of that in 1924, while the proportion of workers earning over 100 rubles was almost twenty times as great.

The improvement of the material and cultural conditions of the workers of the U.S.S.R. is by no means limited to wage increases. The share of the national income which goes to the Soviet worker in the form of wages is only a part of his actual income.

The social insurance budget in 1928 amounted to 980,000,000 rubles. In 1930 it grew to 1,400,000,000 rubles, and in 1931 it reached 2,175,000,000. Almost a million workers have been cared for in rest homes during 1931. The housing fund reached 1,156,000,000 rubles in 1931 as against 682,000,000 in 1930.

*A ruble equals 51.5 cents.

The following figures indicate the improvements made in the material position of wage-earners in the Soviet Union:

Wage Funds	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30 (in million rubles)	1931	*Per cent increase 1931 over 1927-28*
Individual wage fund	7,801.0	9,640.0	12,508.0	15,368.0	97.0
Ratio to 1927-28	100.0	123.0	160.3	197.0	.....
Socialized wage funds:					
1. Social insurance	980.1	1,176.0	1,514.0	2,173.0	118.1
2. Industrial workers' welfare*	60.0	88.0	125.0	285.0	375.0
3. Additional expenditures by the enterprise (free municipal services, promotion of cultural welfare, etc.)*	355.8	440.2	574.6	679.6	91.0
4. Housing construction	419.7	510.9	595.0	1,117.0	166.1
5. Educational fund	994.0	1,448.0	2,700.0	4,088.0	311.3
6. Health services	552.0	670.0	997.5	1,271.0	130.2
7. Socialized restaurants	10.0	25.0	65.0	120.0	1100.0
Total	3,371.6	4,358.1	6,571.1	9,733.6	.....
Ratio to 1927-28	100.0	129.3	194.7	287.6	.....
Ratio to individual wage fund	43.2	45.2	52.5	63.1	.....

*The amounts given under items 2 and 3 are smaller than the actual, since they include only expenditures for workers in industry and not those for workers in transportation, etc.

The widespread development of State farms and their specialization and re-equipment have been accompanied by increases in the wages paid to the workers they employ.

Thus, in 1931 the wage level on State farms is two and a half times that of 1928. It should be noted in this connection that on certain State farms, such as the "Gigant," in the Northern Caucasus, the wages of the workers in 1930 had already attained the level of the average wages earned by industrial workers in that region. This indicates that progress has been made in eliminating the gulf which has hitherto existed between the city and the village.

Length of Working Day

The steady increase in wages has been accompanied by a decrease in working hours. The length of the working day has undergone the following changes: In 1904 the average working day for Russian industry as a whole was 10.7 hours; in 1913—9.87 hours; in 1918—7.69 hours; and in 1931—7.02 hours. In the coal industry the length of the working day has been reduced from 10.06 hours in 1913 to 7 hours in 1931; in the metal industries from 10.07 to 7.10 hours; in the machine-building industry from 9.73 to 6.25 hours; in the chemical industries from 10.1 to 7 hours; and in the textile industry from 10.11 to 7.02 hours.

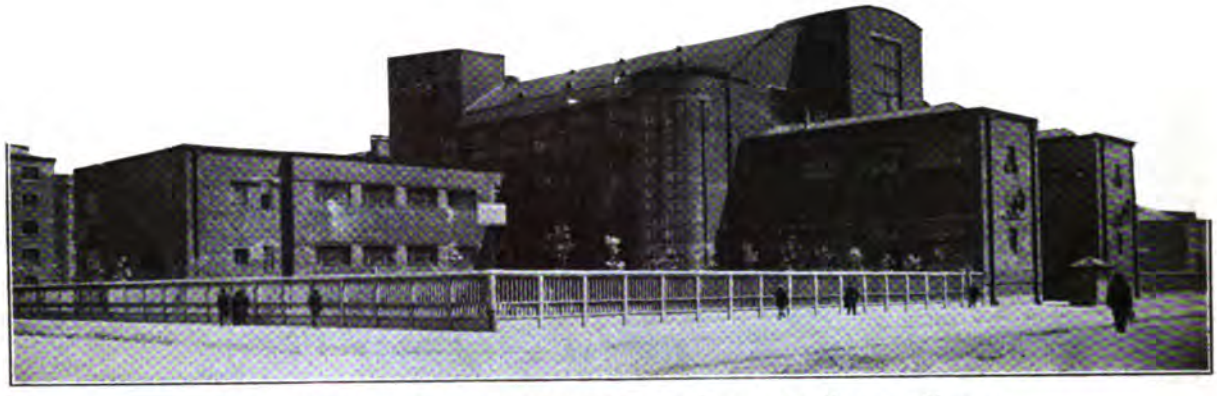
A Collective Member Leaves Her Child at the Creche

Soviet law prescribes a shorter working day for harmful and dangerous industries. Thus, in 1928, even before certain industries were put on the 7-hour day, 14.62 per cent of the workers had short working days.

In order to obtain the greatest possible use from the machinery and equipment in certain types of factories which work on the multiple-shift system, it has been found necessary in some instances to increase the working day to 7½ hours. The government, however, has passed a law requiring industrial and labor bodies not to allow the total number of hours which the worker puts in per month to exceed the former limit, namely, 168 hours. Under this system for each four days of work the worker gets two days, or forty-eight hours, of rest.

There are also other factors which enter into shortening the Soviet working day, such as the right of the worker to take time off for regular meals, the time allowed off for nursing mothers, and the practice now being adopted in Soviet industry of allowing free periods for rest and physical exercise.

This year 70 per cent of the Soviet workers are on the seven-hour day; in 1932 it is planned to have 92 per cent on the seven-hour day. A nor-



NEWLY CONSTRUCTED WORKERS' BATHS AND SWIMMING POOL IN MOSCOW

mal working day of six hours is one of the objectives of the second Five-Year Plan.

Labor Protection

In reconstructing factories and building new ones special attention is given to such problems as proper lighting, ventilation, working clothes, safety devices, and sanitation. In the Moscow Region, for example, where the textile industry is particularly developed, only 71 textile mills had ventilation systems prior to the Revolution. In the six years from 1925 to 1931 a total of 1,080 new ventilation systems were installed. Each enterprise allocates part of its budget for safety and sanitation devices; in addition, the national economic plan provides special funds each year for this purpose. Thus in 1928-29 the government spent 54,500,000 rubles for safety and sanitation in industry, while in 1931 a total of 124,000,000 rubles will be spent in industry and 30,000,000 rubles in transportation. As a result of these measures, the number of cases of industrial accidents and disease is declining.

A recent investigation of large plants in the Soviet Union shows a considerable reduction in accidents. Thus accidents at the big "Red Putilov" plant in Leningrad decreased by 8.6 per cent in one year; at the Electrosila works by 16.6 per cent; at the Electric plant by 25.1 per cent; at the Baltic shipyards by 34.4 per cent; at the Optical works by 36.6 per cent; and in some factories as much as 50 per cent.

Labor protection in the Soviet Union is based on the theoretical material furnished by a large number of scientific research institutions. There are at present 80 institutions and laboratories engaged in research on labor conditions. The joint budgets of these institutions total 7,500,000 rubles annually. They work in close cooperation with the factory laboratories and research departments as well as with an extensive network of special technical research institutes which are subsidized independently.

Social Insurance

The Soviet social insurance system embraces all persons employed in any branch of the national economy and covers all forms of social risk. It also includes the vast majority of students.

In the medical field alone the expenditures paid out of the social insurance fund rose per person insured from 22.10 rubles in 1927-28 to 32 rubles in 1931. Closely bound up with the medical facilities are the prophylactic facilities, such as convalescent homes, sanitaria, health resorts, etc., in which at least 80 per cent of the places are reserved for workers. The number of persons in convalescent homes rose from 437,200 in the year 1927-28 to 799,440 in the year 1931, while the number in the sanitaria rose from 74,200 in 1927-28 to 125,600 in 1931.

Soviet social insurance makes special provisions for taking care of invalids, orphans, and old people. For this purpose 306,100,000 rubles was allocated for 1929-30 and 371,400,000 rubles for 1931.

In the year 1931 a total of 1,234,200 persons received insurance benefits. Of these 680,000 were incapacitated through general illness and 54,900 suffered from industrial accidents or occupational diseases. This number also included 426,000 families whose breadwinners had died of natural causes and 19,200 families whose breadwinners had died from an occupational accident or disease.

Soviet social insurance provides still other forms of assistance, such as for the nursing of infants, feeding of school children, and burial. The Soviet insurance organizations also participate in such activities as housing construction, for which they appropriated 331,600,000 rubles in 1931; child nurseries and milk centers, for which they appropriated 22,000,000 rubles; kindergartens and feeding of children for which they appropriated 20,000,000 rubles; and the training of skilled workers, for which they appropriated 100,000,000 rubles.

Housing

The severe housing crisis of the past few years due to the expansion of industries in the old centers and the rapid development of new centers of population has been relieved by the building of many new workers' apartments and communities. In 1927-28 all Soviet industries jointly invested 419,700,000 rubles in housing, while in 1931 the amount to be invested for housing construction is 1,117,000,000 rubles.

In addition to the great increase in the number of workers' families living in houses belonging to industries, there has been a tendency in many regions to build workers' homes nearer the place of work.

The conditions of tenancy in the Soviet Union are completely different from those prevailing in other countries. Occupation of municipal-owned houses is not limited to any given period, nor can the worker be ejected from his home when he ceases to work for the enterprise which owns it. Rent is not established by contract. The amount of rent depends upon the income of the tenant and the number of his dependents. Preferential rates are widespread. Certain categories of workers enjoy rebates of as high as 80 per cent.

Labor Productivity

While labor productivity is still below the standard of other countries, it increases from year to year. It has been stimulated in the last few years by the growth of socialist competition and shock brigades, and by the extension of the piece work system of payment and bonuses. These factors, added to the increasing mechanization of industry, have led to the following increase in productivity per working day.

Labor Productivity Per Worker Per Working Day (in rubles, 1926-27 prices)

1921	1922-23	1925-26	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1931 (program)
7.3	10.27	15.32	20.94	23.61	25.64	32.79

Women Workers

Although the number of women workers in Soviet industry has increased from 673,000 in 1927-28 to 1,276,000 in 1931, the percentage of women as compared with the total number of workers remains unaltered. The participation of women varies largely from industry to industry, ranging from 63 per cent in the cotton textile industry to 8 per cent in the mining and ore industries. On the Soviet State farms women under 18 years of age constitute 0.5 per cent of the total; male minors—0.9 per cent; women over 18 years of age—12.5 per cent; and adult men 86.1 per cent. In the metallurgical industries women constitute only 8 per cent of the total number of workers.

Women workers are paid exactly the same wages as the men for equal work. Differences in wages are due to the fact that it has been necessary to employ women in jobs requiring less skill, because of lack of experience and training on the part of women workers. But the qualifications of women workers are increasing steadily.

In 1929-30 women workers in the engineering industries received 93.9 per cent of the wages received by men. In the textile industry women received from 85.2 per cent to 102.3 per cent of the wages received by men, depending upon the specific trade, with an average for the entire textile industry of from 97 to 98 per cent. In the printing industry the ratio of women's wages to men's wages ranged from 81.1 per cent to 94.5 per cent, in the rubber industry it was about 86.6 per cent, and so on. Since 1929-30 the situation has improved still further.

During pregnancy and childbirth, working women in the Soviet Union are allowed time off with full pay for a period of eight weeks before and eight weeks after child-birth; women office workers six weeks before and six weeks after child-birth.

It is also necessary to take into consideration the tremendous sums spent by the Soviet Union for socialized restaurants, children's nurseries, kindergartens, sanitaria, and institutes of hygiene which relieve women of a large part of their domestic burdens.

In the Soviet Union the employment of children under sixteen in industry and transportation is forbidden, while all employed youths over sixteen receive the same wage as adults performing the same work. Young workers are trained without any cost to themselves and receive pay while learning.

CHILDREN OF A COLLECTIVE OFF FOR HARVEST CELEBRATION

Mastering Technique on the Dnieper

By FEODOR GLADKOV

It has become a practice for leading Soviet writers to visit the new construction projects and State farms, studying them thoroughly in every detail, frequently taking jobs themselves, and then reporting them in the daily press. So the whole Soviet republic is kept informed step by step with what is being done. Feodor Gladkov, author of "Cement," has been for many months studying Dnieprostroy, the great power plant on the Dnieper River, and Dnieprocombinat, the combined industries developing around the plant to use its power. He has written a series of articles in "Izvestia," pointing out defects, criticizing other Soviet organizations when they have failed to do their part, and describing the stupendous achievements. We publish below a partial translation of one af his recent articles describing the methods of training skilled workers on the spot.

BEGINNING next year an "educational combinat" for several thousand workers will be opened at Dnieprocombinat. A special, very large building is being built for this purpose. But before organizing a regular educational system for training the workers, it was necessary to go through a difficult period of experimentation. The problem was to train from the local population the skilled labor power necessary for every phase of the work of Dnieprostroy, and even more for Dnieprocombinat. Some forty thousand members of workers' families not employed in the Dnieper industries were living near at hand, and there were 20,000 unskilled and semi-skilled workers on the job. From this reserve it should be possible within three months or half a year to give intensive training to several thousand skilled workers needed for the construction work. It was decided to organize immediately short term courses in all kinds of skilled work. This was not a new idea at Dnieprostroy. Such short term courses had already been held in the technical safety department and for training "brigadiers" (workers' shock brigade leaders). And, of course, a factory and shop school had been in existence since the beginning of construction work.

And so the labor supply department, with the direct help of the party organization and the workers' committee, established, in the course of one year, a powerful organization for the mass training and raising the skill of workers for the combined construction projects of the Dnieper. It was all new, there was no experience to build on, methods had to be worked out as they went along. So the temporary workers' school was knocked together. Its growth and vitality may be judged by the following figures: On January 1, 1930, there were 128 students in the courses, by July 1, 675, by January 1, 1931, 2,280, and by July 1, 3,389.

When the courses started, there was not a single woman in them. Now 720 of the students are women. It had been planned that 5,325 persons should take the courses this year, but as a matter of fact 10,145 persons passed through the courses in the first half of the year. The teachers and directors of the practical work are the engineers, technicians and foremen of the construction work (225 persons). Only fifteen persons confine themselves wholly to teaching.

The urge to increase their skill among the workers, especially the younger ones, is unbelievably strong. There is a constant influx of peasants from the collectives, impelled not so much by the desire to increase their wages as by thirst for knowledge and skill. The construction work has already become a cultural center, a unique technical school, where people are transformed through numerous and complex technological processes, organized labor, labor discipline, the strong impact of new cultural and political relations—a powerful melting pot of class solidarity.

Last year women were rarely seen on the dam, along the railroad tracks, in the machine shops—now the red kerchiefs of the girls may be seen everywhere. Dressed in the regulation workers' costume they not only are working no worse than the men, but sometimes better. With all their strength they are trying to show that in all kinds of construction work they can keep right up to the records of the men's brigades. Women's brigades have become a common sight. The women's concrete layers' brigade has received an award for its exemplary work. There are women switchmen on all sections of the railroads. A large number of the locksmiths, turners, woodworkers are now women. Women have won a solid place in the work at Dnieper, and, what is especially important, they have won it in the heat of construction.

There are now 121 groups of short term courses, training electricians, excavators, mechanics, draftsmen, locomotive engineers, geodisists, tractorists, chauffeurs — 47 different trades. The overwhelming majority of those taking the courses are industrial workers, with a fair smattering of peasants and clerical workers. Most

of the students are young—between 18 and 23. In addition to these temporary workers' schools there are also higher technical courses, training engineers and technicians in twelve different branches. Over 500 students attend these courses.

During the year of intensive work in the training of skilled workers, technicians and engineers, Dnieprostroy has been able not only to supply the needs of its own construction work for trained workers, but to send out a constant supply to other industrial giants—Dnieprocombinat, Magnitogorsk, Kuzbas, and others.

With Comrade Grando, head of the labor economics department, and Comrade Ermanov, head of the labor supply department, I spent four hours visiting only a part of these courses scattered over the territory of the Dnieper construction work. The courses are held in the evening, after work, from six to ten o'clock. The groups meet everywhere—in the schools, in the administration rooms, in the section offices, in the workshops—anywhere a suitable place can be arranged. Practical work goes on in the shops at the same time.

Everywhere the young people predominate. They sit at tables and benches, deep in their work, with intense, absorbed faces. Here, next to a curly haired Comsomol girl, an elderly worker with a weathered, perplexed face, struggles over some problem. He looks at us a little crossly as if to ask why we should come and interfere with their work. But the girl pays not the slightest attention to us and proceeds with her geometry. In the back of the room an engineer-teacher explains something in a whisper to a group of young fellows gathered around him closely. These are future locksmiths. Somewhere else a technician explains to the class the construction of a locomotive. Swiftly and deftly he sketches the boiler, explains certain points about the fire-door. The students, among them women and girls, carefully copy the drawing in their note-books and listen attentively. Questions are asked from time to time. The teacher explains carefully. These are future railroad mechanics. A real locomotive is at the disposal of the class for practical work. Another classroom is filled mostly with girls studying mathematics as part of the railroad switchmen's course.

In the wide corridors of the higher technical school, groups of workers are clustered. Here most of the students are somewhat more advanced in years. Many of them I know—skilled workers and technicians whom I have known since I first came to Dnieprostroy. These are real students. By the end of the year they will leave here full-fledged "self-made" engineers.

"The work is very hard," says an old friend of mine cheerfully. He is a technician, a member of the party. From the tone of his voice, from his energy and alertness one would certainly not conclude that he found the work difficult.

"You know," he went on, "sometimes it seems as if you couldn't bear it, as if your very guts would burst. But just the same, the work goes well. Here also we have socialist competition and shock brigades. We try not only to carry out the program, but to exceed it. In half a year we have to learn both theory and practice which it would take us three years to get at college."

"But isn't there danger," I ventured, "that this knowledge you get is just superficial—not real knowledge, but just smatterings?"

He protests, offended.

"No, no—that is nonsense. We do real work here. We have fine teachers, with a lot of experience and knowledge. We ourselves do not let

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them slack up on their pace. Those who have had more practical experience spend more time at the lectures. Those who haven't had much practical work can increase their skill under the direct supervision of the engineers. Although it's true we haven't enough time for all the specialized theoretical knowledge we need."

The bell resounds through the auditorium. I enter with the others. A young professor begins his lecture on mechanics, The class is immediately absorbed in his drawings and formulas.

In the machine shop a group of young people are busy installing electric lights, climbing up ladders, crawling around the ceiling. Some girls are busy with wires, insulators. This is the prac-

A View of the Dnieper Dam

tice work of the electricians' class. They go about their work with the gayety of youth, but swiftly and steadily. In another room sounds the shrill whine of the files and the humming of the electric motor. There the locksmiths and turners are at practice work.

I looked in on dozens of classes. Everywhere the class work was going ahead with the same vigor as was to be observed in all parts of the actual construction work. Here, just as in laying concrete, or in setting up turbines the work was proceeding without stoppage, with the same sense of responsibility for its results. It was evident that the tempo of the work here in no way differed from that of the shock brigade workers. It was impelled by the same spirit as that on the dam, or in setting up the blast furnaces. True, this work was harder in some ways. Here theory must be mastered, which means that the whole burden falls on the brain. Here the brain must be disciplined, it must learn to grapple with the complex problems found in books and learn to use them as working tools. And their striving for this mastery of knowledge is extraordinary. There are some who cannot make the grade and who drop out. But the huge majority of the workers, men and women, see it through. I had occasion to talk with some of the foremen and engineers on the job about the training and fitness of the workers who had passed through the temporary schools. Not one of them had a complaint as regards the training of these workers. On the contrary, all who had passed through the courses were exceptionally good workers and specialists. If they displayed some diffidence and confusion at first, this soon passed, and the new skilled workers were quickly absorbed into the processes of work.

At a very important railroad junction, where dozens of trains passed every hour and a thick network of rails branched out in every direction, a young woman was at work, green flag in hand, whistle between her teeth. She had been trained in the switchmen's course.

"How long have you worked on the railroads?" I asked her.

"About a month."

"And has your school work been useful to you?"

"What a question . . . without it I would be working like a fool, not understanding what I was doing. I am from the village. . . . My mother cries for fear I will be cut in two by a train—not woman's business, she says. When I go home, eyes stare at me from every window. Certainly, it is hard work. I shall work here until the New Year, and then I shall ask to go back and study some more."

"What then—do you want to work in the machine shop?"

"And why? Certainly not. I want to be a locomotive engineer. Even when I was a little girl, I wanted to be an engineer. I have always been excited at the sight of a train."

She looked sharply along the track, blew her

whistle shrilly and waved the green flag. She stood there erect and graceful, in her eyes a strong will, and confidence in her own strength. She will get what she wants.

So the creators of Dnieprostroy have laid the road to the mastery of technique. They have already stored up rich experience. But they are still seeking new methods of training the new workers. This is only a beginning, but they have a right to be proud of their achievements. This experience will be carried into the work of the future educational combinat at "Dnieprostal." The courses will continue in the future. They have already turned out hundreds of literate, skilled workers.

Incentives for Soviet Workers

FOR some time past the system has been followed in the Soviet Union of offering special rewards to the best "shock troop" workers, to inventors, to scientific, administrative and technical workers who have accomplished special tasks as well as to whole brigades, departments or factories which have distinguished themselves by fulfilling ahead of time or surpassing the requirements of the Five-Year Plan. Rewards are also given for economy in the use of fuel, for reduction of production costs, for improvements in the quality of production, and for proposals from workers making for greater efficiency in methods of production as well as for actual inventions. In addition to the introduction of piecework in all Soviet enterprises, there has also been instituted a system of "encouragement pay"—a progressive percentage for work done over a certain minimum. All this has been extremely effective in spurring the workers not only to produce more, but to work more efficiently, and in stimulating the masses of the workers to an interest in inventing new devices for the improvement of production while actually on the job.

Every worker knows that as a result of producing more and better goods he has a chance either to receive a direct personal benefit in the form of a sum of money, an extended vacation, a trip to some other part of the Soviet Union or even abroad, or a share in a reward received by the whole factory in the form of increased cultural facilities, additional funds for housing or other advantages of importance to the workers as a whole.

On August 13 a decree was issued by the government for the purpose of regulating the giving of premiums, and providing for the formation of special funds for this purpose. According to the decree there are to be two funds in all State enterprises and cooperative organizations. One fund is to be for rewarding achievements on the basis of socialist competition and shock brigade work, and the other for assisting invention and rationalization.

The decree provides for a definite sum to be established in production enterprises, amounting to a certain percentage of the wages paid in the given enterprise, the money to be taken from the amount saved through introducing more efficient methods in the course of the year, and a certain percentage of the receipts where necessary. In non-productive enterprises a special government appropriation is given for this purpose. The rewards may be given in the form of a money bonus, extended vacations, trips in the U.S.S.R. and abroad, or places in sanitariums or rest homes. The names of the workers to receive rewards are proposed by the administration and factory committees or production meetings, and passed upon at a general assembly of the workers. The amount and form of the rewards is decided upon by the administration and the trade union jointly.

The fund for assisting inventions is to be used in part in organizing contests for suggestions regarding new devices or methods and providing materials for workers to make the necessary models and tests, and in part as prizes for inventions and suggestions for improving methods of production. In non-producing institutions, special rewards are given for reducing overhead and improved methods and results of work. A certain portion of the invention fund is to be turned over to the factory "inventors' circles" to be used as the group desires.

These funds are to be established in connection with all enterprises in State industry, trade, transport, municipal service, construction work, State farms, machine and tractor stations, cooperatives and social, educational and health institutions, as well as government administrative bodies.

Individual workers and special departments receive their awards from the factory fund. The directors of industrial enterprises may receive rewards only through the funds of the industrial combination or trust under which they work. A central fund is provided to give awards for whole factories or enterprises which take the form of increased appropriations for housing, new cultural buildings or equipment or some other award affecting the workers as a whole.

In addition to the material rewards, the "Order of Lenin" and the "Order of the Red Banner of Labor" are greatly coveted by Soviet citizens. The former is the highest honor that can be given to an individual worker for distinguished service in any sphere of Soviet activity. The latter is given both to individuals and to whole institutions for special achievements in the field of labor.

Soviet Railroad Problems

RAILROAD transportation has held the center of attention in the Soviet Union during the past two months. Despite the building of new railroad lines and increased freight loadings, the railroads have for some time been the weakest link in the Five-Year Plan and have not kept up with the steady progress in industry, agriculture and construction. Chief among the difficulties have been worn out materials, old fashioned methods, bureaucracy, and lack of individual responsibility. Hence the dismissal on October 2nd of the entire directing staff of the railroads and the appointment of Andrey Andreyev, one of the foremost younger Soviet executives, as Commissar of Railroads, and four new vice-commissars and six new directors, all former railroad men.

During the first two years of the Five-Year Plan freight turnover of the railroads grew from 156,000,000 tons to 238,000,000 (in 1930) tons, as against 132,000,000 tons in 1913. But this advance was not sufficient to keep up with the constantly increasing demands. The worst difficulties were encountered in the second half of 1930 and the first two months of 1931 when the success of the industrial program was seriously threatened by the delays and inefficiency encountered in transportation. Last spring the situation was temporarily relived when measures were taken to eliminate irresponsibility, especially with regard to locomotives, by attaching definite workers to definite engines, speeding up repairs, introducing economic accounting, strengthening discipline, increasing wages by thirteen per cent and applying the piece work principle and bonus system in wage payments. Daily freight loadings increased to 52,900 wagons a day as against 32,000 the preceding February, but dropped again during the summer months when the improvement should have been greatest, and the railroads were considerably behind in their program during the second and third quarter of the year.

RAILROAD WORKERS STUDYING AUTOMATIC BLOCKING SYSTEM AT THEIR CLUB

Confronted with the necessity of meeting the heavy fall demands for traffic a special conference was called to consider the railroad situation, and it was then that the drastic measures were taken of putting in a new leadership.

Under the new régime vigorous measures have already been taken to eliminate irresponsibility, improve repairs, reorganize the wage system, further extend the piece work system, and clean out the bureaucratic elements. In a special decree issued soon after undertaking his new duties Andreyev instructed that all engines under repair be out by November 15, that organizations to which goods are consigned must unload them within a given period or forfeit the goods, that 66,000 cars must be loaded daily during the last quarter of the year. Improvements have already been noted as a result, and the plenary session of the Communist Party at its meeting on October 29 issued a resolution approving of the steps that had been taken and outlined in detail the steps for further improvement. Training of technical and engineering staffs is to be extended and improved, and special steps taken for necessary railroad materials to be produced during 1932.

Of the 11,482 locomotives ordered to be repaired last April, all but 483 had been overhauled by October 15.

The commission on inventions of the Transport Commissariat has announced that its experiment of organizing a workers' invention group for the special purpose of working on certain devices important in railroad transportation has been successful, and that a train employing new automatic couplings invented by members of this workers' group had successfully undergone prolonged and severe tests on a recent experimental run.

Sketches of the Minor Nationalities

III. The Kirghiz

Adapted from an article appearing in the "Moskauer Rundschau," a German language newspaper published in Moscow, which has been running a series of articles describing the minor nationalities of the Soviet Union.

THE KIRGHIZ REPUBLIC, is dark brown on the map and has azure blue spots in two places. The dark brown is the gigantic five-peaked Tian-Shan Mountain, whose single ranges start from the rough and unapproachable Khan-tengri and include the Kunghei, Terskei Ala-tau, Kokshal-tau, names which signify the silence of infinity and destruction for whoever dares to enter upon their forbidden paths.

". . . Here are some hundred steeply sloping, snow-covered summits. They dazzle the eyes of the beholder with their brilliance. Man feels small and confused as if in the presence of the creation of the world . . ." thus the Buddhist missionary Hsuan-Tsang, who crossed the Tian-Shan Mountains in the seventh century described this region.

The two azure blue spots on the map of Kirghiz are two wonderful mountain lakes, the Issyk-kul and the Son-kul. The first, which has a surface of two square miles and is five times the size of Lake Geneva, rests 5300 feet high in a huge mountain hollow between two snow-decked summits, the Kunghei and the Terskei Ala-tau. The second lake, considerably smaller in circumference, lies on the other side of the Kyzyl-art Pass in the district of Dzungaria.

The wild and almost inaccessible mountain slopes are today still peopled with a multiform and varied animal population. The Kirghiz mountain range is the one spot in the world where can be found the arkhari, an unusual variety of wild mountain sheep, whose head is decorated with yard-long spiral shaped horns. Hunters who have penetrated far into the mountains have related how the arkhari plunges from a height of 300 to 500 feet into an abyss, falls upon his spiral horns, as if tossed from a feather mattress and disappears safe and unwounded in the entanglement of gray rocks. Bears, wolves, panthers, lynxes and farther up the polar fox, inhabit the mountain tops.

The population includes Russians, Uzbeks and Ukrainians but the chief inhabitants are the Kirghiz, who form 66 per cent of the population of approximately a million. Their origin is uncertain, but in general ethnographers believe that they are descendants of various Turkish tribes which at different times passed through the region of the present Kirghiz Republic. According to their speech they probably belong to the group of northwestern Turks. Intercourse with their neighbors as well as adoption of Islamic faith led to the introduction of many Arabian, Mongolian, Turkish and Russian words into the language.

All of Kirghizia, with the exception of the few, small cities, may be called a single nomad country. This has obstructed the cultural development of the people and has caused many of the habits and customs of 300 years ago to survive to the present day. Like all other nomadic tribes without their own written language, they also have handed down their epics and rich treasury of folk songs by word of mouth. The first seed of a Kirghiz literature appeared only in the last decade of the last century, but particularly with the introduction of the Soviet power and of a simplified alphabet. The minstrels of folk-poetry and creators of new works sing their songs to the accompaniment of a stringed instrument somewhat like a domra. The minstrel is an important and respected figure in the life of the Kirghiz. He is always the most popular visitor in the yurt. The improvisors sing about popular themes and of everything that effects them at the moment. From time to time they stage competitive singing fests.

The mass movements of whole races from Asia to Europe, races which began their existence two hundred years before our chronology, have left their imprint on Kirghiz history. Through almost two thousand years various nomad peoples followed each other uninterruptedly across the territory of the present Kirghiz Republic. South of Lake Balkhash in the region of the Seven Rivers in the gray mists of antiquity a Chinese people once lived. In the second century A. D. nomadic blue-eyed, blond-haired tribes, from the western frontier of China entered this region, giving way before the Huns and driving back the Chinese people in that region, then settling themselves on the shores of Lake Issyk-kul. Two hundred and fifty years later the Huns driven from the east came here and swept Turkish, Mongolian, and Tungus tribes with them. Turkish nomad tribes appeared in the fourth century and established a powerful empire with a capital in the region of the Seven Rivers. A strong cultural influence penetrated here in the seventh century from China to the southeast and from the Arabians to the west.

The invasions of the Mongolians in the thirteenth century led by Ghengis Khan and Tamer-

lane were particularly violent and destructive. During the rule of Tamerlane's successor in the region of the Seven Rivers, the Turkish-Mongolian tribes of Kirghizia were formed. They were pushed northward in the sixteenth century and partly subjugated by the Kalmucks, who established a powerful empire here under a Khan, but who in the same year were exterminated to a man by the Chinese.

At the end of this century the Asiatic expansion came to an end and the reverse process started from the west and north. The Old Believers played a particularly important role here. Driven out of Russia on account of their religious faith they were the first colonizers to bring European influence to central Asia. The idea of a so-called "White Water Country" was extraordinarily popular among them at the time. It was a kind of "promised land" to them in which human existance should be pure, unclouded and peaceful. In their search for such a land they reached the Chinese boundary where they settled and began a new life.

The Kirghiz have kept their customs and social forms unchanged during the centuries. Their life in the high mountain regions is still ruled by two forces, the Shariat and the Adat, that is, the religious rules which apply to all Mohammedans and the unwritten moral laws of the tribes. The Kirghiz however are not particularly religious and religion plays an inconsiderable role in their life. The Adat, however, is still powerful today and the struggle against tribal prejudices is one of the most difficult and important tasks of the Soviet government. The division into tribes still operates more or less and only a few of the most courageous and advanced souls dared three or four years ago to raise their voices against these traditions.

So long as the tribal order stood in law the actual liberation of the people from the rule of the beys and "manaps" was impossible. The manap, representative of the leading wealthy feudal families, was lord of the life and property of the poor people. Bloody struggles raged for centuries, the triumphant group always becoming the oppressor.

As nomads the Kirghiz never remain long in one place. When a pasture land is denuded they seek a new one. Their homes are tents of bright wool stretched over a wooden scaffolding. These yurts are light and require merely an hour to take apart and load on a camel. The entire family, which usually consists of five to ten persons, lives in such a yurt. It is roomy and well furnished. The floor is covered with a mat and the entire space is free, with the exception of a narrow strip along the walls which is occupied by the household goods, and dishes. There is no furniture. The nomads sit cross legged on the ground like orientals. Their food is prepared in the fireplace of the yurt, the smoke being drawn off through an opening in the roof. The Kirghiz are not at all particular in their choice of menus and the food is neither delicate nor varied. Kumiss, bash-barmak and baurssak comprise the list. Kumiss is a beverage made from mare's milk. It is poured into a vessel of lambskins sewed together, and then stirred with a particular kind of stick. The older the vessel the more valuable, since the remains of the kumiss which cling to the sides and in the folds of the bag, act as a fermenting agent. Kumiss is extremely healthful and together with the mountain air is an excellent restorative. It is quickly intoxicating and imperceptibly dulls the senses. One or two cups suffice to bring on a merry mood, and the third cup is followed by dancing and singing. Since the Kirghiz drink kumiss the live-long day they are constantly gay and excitable. Bash-barmak is mutton cut into pieces and roasted in its own fat. During festivals and holidays the cups filled with kumiss make the round of the table and all those present drink in great earnest, the guests sitting near to or removed from the host, depending upon their rank.

Winter and summer the men wear hats of fur or felt; the women cover their heads with a pretty but very heavy and uncomfortable veil of forty-three yards of a white material wound turban-fashion. Their faces are unveiled. Young girls wear many braids, married women two.

The position of the women is very difficult. They carry the burden of the entire household. Setting up the yurt, preparation of the food, care of the cow, sewing the clothes—that is all the women's work. The privileged sex, the men, do only "dignified" work—they tend the cattle and the horses.

The Kirghiz sit in the saddle from their early youth, not only on the horse but on the donkey, the camel and even the ox. Their horses are of a particular kind to whom trotting is unknown. They gallop wildly along dizzy mountain paths. A Kirghiz practically never walks his horse and should he meet another rider a mad race is on immediately. When a group of Kirghiz sit together and kumiss is passed around, they begin eloquently to boast of the superiority of their horses. A certain kind of pacer is regarded as the most valuable horse. The fame of a celebrated pacer is widely broadcast and its appearance calls forth the necessity of demonstrating the abilities and advantages of all the horses.

Then the "baiga" begins! A few dozen Kirghiz spring into the saddle and dash like the wild hordes of old to the starting place. The jury takes its place at the finish, which is usually one or two miles away. The baiga starts. At a given sign the nomads swoop madly off, filling the air with

demoniac cries. Each tries to pass the next at any cost, and does not shrink from riding his horse to death, if only he can win.

Kirghizia is still indefinite in its social and economic form. The tribal relations till recently so strong are growing weaker from year to year. Tradition is cracking, the power of custom is steadily diminishing and the prejudices which have divided the tribes for centuries and made wild beasts of them are constantly on the decline. The farthest removed nomad regions in the valleys of the Tian-Shan mountain range are gradually being reached by the penetrating influence of Soviet culture. Agriculture and stock-breeding are being developed on scientific lines, with 29 per cent of the population organized in state farms and collectives. Irrigation reforms were introduced as early as 1921, hospitals and medical stations have been erected and illiteracy is being strongly combatted. During this year the sown area reached 830,500 hectares as against 561,300 in 1914. Of this number 79,000 hectares was sown to cotton in comparison with 27,000 in 1914. Cultivation of the sugar beet and the castor oil plant has been introduced. The number of cattle almost doubled in the year 1929-30 as compared with 1914.

Whereas in 1914 there were 6 hospitals and 15 doctors for a population of almost a million, there are now 32 hospitals and 307 doctors, together with medical stations at far-distant points for the benefit of nomad villages. In addition the numerous health resorts with mineral springs of high balneological value are being developed. Professor V. A. Alexandrov, the author of several works on the health resorts of Italy, France and Turkmenistan, published a book this year in Russian, with a German appendix, on "Kirghizia and Its Health Resorts." Besides a description of the country and its people the book contains a number of chapters devoted to the medical value of the resorts and the mineral content of their springs.

Education is reaching the people through the agency of 614 primary and 20 secondary schools. There are 7 middle technical institutes which include two agricultural technicums, a pedagogical institute for women and a mining institute. In 1914 there were 70 schools chiefly administered by the clergy. The new educational system has as its first task to wipe out the heritage of illiteracy from the old regime, which claimed 96.5 per cent of the population. The budget for 1929-30 assigned 7,355,000 rubles for education, an increase of more than two and a half million rubles over the year 1928-29. Publication of literature in the native language, using the Latin alphabet instead of the old Arabian, is being encouraged. Red "tea-rooms" and reading rooms have been built in which lectures and plays are given.

In harmony with the Soviet policy of encouraging national culture a Kirghiz theatre was started two years ago with a musical dramatic studio in Frunze, the capital of the republic. It had to build up its own repertoire, since there were no plays written in the Kirghiz language.

In two years' time twelve plays had been produced, including some classics translated from the Russian, as Gogol's "Revisor." The majority of the plays picture the life of the Kirghiz. The three-act "Kaigyly-Kokkey" shows the tragic existence of a Kirghiz maiden forcibly married to a bey. The five-act drama "Zarlik" presents the life of a batrak (farm-hand) killed by the basmachi. At present 29 men and 11 women compose the studio, which has two companies. One performs in Frunze and the other travels to the *kishlaks* (villages) and *auls* (mountain villages). It has been decided to send a number of the best actors to Moscow for training and to arrange a competition for the best historical play.

Kirghizia is learning. That is the most striking feature of the life of this country. It is one of the youngest republics of the R.S.F.S.R., having been formed in 1926, prior to which time it was an autonomous area. Overcoming century old inertia, the young men and women are studying and learning, but not only to read and write. They examine books and newspapers. Their eyes open wide and in amazement they see the size of the world, which until very recently was bounded by the dark and mighty Terskei Ala-tau. The young and old who study in European cities and see for the first time stone houses, which cannot be transported from one place to another, are at first bewildered. But they soon accustom themselves to the new surroundings and before long give up the wild nomad life forever and return to their mountain homes carrying with them the fundamentals of Soviet policy and culture.

Correction

Through an error in translation it was stated on page 215 of the November issue of the "Soviet Union Review" that "IZVESTIA" *is transmitted by television. The method used is not television, but facsimile transmission by wire.* "IZVESTIA" *is cut into twenty sections which, by means of a special apparatus, are transmitted by wire from Moscow to Leningrad, where the paper is printed from the photographs.*

Moscow's Park Of Culture and Rest

LAST summer Moscow's great recreation center, "The Park of Culture and Rest," celebrated its third anniversary. In the three years of its existence it has been expanded from the comparatively modest grounds of less than 100 acres occupied by the agricultural exposition with which the campaign for modern agriculture was launched in the Soviet Union, to about 800 acres, stretching from the heart of the city out to the Lenin Hills—once known as Sparrow Hills, from where Napoleon watched Moscow burn.

The average daily attendance at the park is 70,000, and in three years sixteen and a half million persons have visited the park. It would take a week of days and nights to visit all the amusement and cultural institutions which the park offers, with its crowded and exciting pleasure grounds, museums and lectures for those more soberly inclined, or quiet forest retreats for those who wish only to relax.

In the central section, gay in the summer with flower beds and grass plots, are theaters, cinema houses, concert halls, restaurants, all kinds of attractions and exhibits.

There is a large pavilion of science and technique, containing eleven different laboratories carrying on various experiments for visitors, where lectures and discussions are held and scientific motion pictures shown. There is an exhibit on "The Giants of the Piatiletka," and a dirigible pavilion. There are halls where exhibits of painting and sculpture are being held constantly. There are museums, libraries, club rooms where chess and other popular games are played, innumerable sport grounds for gymnastics and games and dancing.

A children's city provides accommodations under trained supervision for children of all ages—from nursing babies up to boys and girls of thirteen and fourteen, where workers' families on holidays may park their children. There is a model day nursery and kindergarten. There are workshops for the older children where they can make toys and paint and model. There is a children's theater where the children themselves make decorations and costumes as well as take part in the productions. A special lake set aside for the children provides all kinds of water sports.

Beyond are quiet woods with practically no buildings. There is a concert ground. Benches are placed around in comfortable, secluded spots, and in one section is a series of small cottages and gardens. This is the "Village of All-Day Rest," where workers may spend their rest day either in complete quiet, or making use of the entertainment or cultural facilities of the park. In connection with this village special studies are being made in the use of leisure, particularly with respect to providing opportunities for artistic expression.

Mass choruses and folk dancing are very popular at the park. Old melodies are revived to celebrate modern industrial prowess, new popular airs are tried out here, learned and passed on by huge crowds. Pageants and processions are held on special occasions. The park is really a glorified and permanent county fair, and helps to make all campaigns carried on by the government more festive and more educational at the same time.

"Vegetable Week" at the Park of Culture and Rest

Folk Dancing Hour in Children's City

A vegetable campaign was held this summer, with an exhibit of fruits and vegetables produced by model collectives and State farms, and demonstrations of methods of canning, drying and storing.

For the winter season many of the outdoor exhibits have been moved to heated pavilions, and winter sports of all kinds are provided. There is a special service for foreigners at the park with a reading room and information bureau.

The park is a huge economic enterprise with a basic capital of 16,000,000 rubles and an annual budget of 6,000,000 rubles. It has its own workshops, art department, boat building shops—much of the equipment used in the park is made in its own workshops. During 1930 the park required a subsidy of 1,700,000 rubles for operating expenses and 2,000,000 rubles for capital investment. During 1931 it has entirely paid for itself, and it is expected to be entirely self-supporting by 1932.

While the Park of Culture and Rest in Moscow is the largest of its kind there are similar ones throughout the country, and in all the new or reconstructed cities special provisions are made for larger parks and recreation grounds.

The Gypsy Theater in Moscow

GYPSIES, known to pre-revolution Moscow chiefly as entertainers at Yar's and other famous restaurants and night clubs, are now playing an integral part in the social and economic life of the country as Soviet citizens. There are 6,000 gypsies at present in Moscow factories and 20,000 in collectives run almost entirely by themselves. There is a gypsy club and for the past eight months a national gypsy theater has been in existence. From vagabonds, fortune tellers and strolling players they are gradually becoming conscious members of a society in whose upbuilding they are participating.

The theater, whose director is a gypsy and stage-manager an actor from the Jewish National Theater, was formed last spring on the initiative of the gypsies themselves and with financial support from the Commissariat for Education. Actors were engaged after a short examination of their musical and intellectual abilities. They were found to be completely untrained and largely illiterate but with strong artistic temperament and a fine rhythmic sense. A sketch which the group is now presenting in various clubs and theaters shows, primitively but gayly, the development of the gypsies in the past and the present. Not only this sketch but the composition of the programs indicates that the native talents of the players are being drawn out rather than external ideas being imposed upon them. While the first part of the program, in the sketch mentioned, is educational, the second and third parts are composed of ethnographic materials, songs and dances bound together by a slight plot.

The language, ostensibly of Indian origin, contains many words from the Slavic and Romance tongues and sounds very musical from the stage. It is striking that in the scenes portraying present-day life Russian words are to be heard much more frequently. As the gypsies broaden their circle of ideas and contacts with Soviet sources, the scope of their language is extended. Since, for example, there are no expressions in the gypsy language for "kolhoz," "piatiletka," etc., such words and phrases are taken over directly from the Russian.

The dances and songs are full of charm. Both women and men have a control of their bodies envied even by experienced actors. Women's voices are almost all of the deepest contralto, the sopranos unusually guttural. The stage picture is vivid and stirring, particularly as national costumes are used with little modification.

Oil and Mining Machinery Exported to U.S.S.R.

In an article on world markets for oil well and refinery machinery in "Commerce Reports" of November 2, statistical tables show that the Soviet Union was the best foreign customer for American equipment in this class in 1930, taking 35 per cent of the value of all exports. The five leading foreign purchasers in this line were:

Soviet Union	$8,400,441
Venezuela	2,447,086
Netherlands East Indies	1,706,669
Canada	1,451,864
Rumania	1,446,682

According to statistics of the Department of Commerce the Soviet Union was the second best foreign customer for American mining and quarrying machinery in 1930. Exports in this category to the Soviet Union increased 106 per cent in three years. Exports of such machinery to the Soviet Union in 1930 were valued at $2,257,875, or 14.3 per cent of the total exports.

New Technical Newspaper

A new newspaper, "Technika," devoted to engineering questions, was launched in Moscow October 10. This newspaper is the organ of the Supreme Economic Council of U.S.S.R. and appears once every three days.

The first issue contained an article by Professor Lebedinsky of Leningrad on "Faraday and Modern Electrical Engineering," and other articles on different engineering questions in connection with house construction.

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

The following list is given in chronological order.

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"Broken Earth," by Maurice Hindus. International Publishers, New York, 1926.
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"On the Steppes, A Russian Diary," by James N. Rosenberg. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1927.
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"Progress in the Soviet Union," charts and diagrams compiled by Albert A. Johnson. A. A. Johnson and Associates, Springfield, Mass., 1931.
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