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IN THE UNION REPUBLICS



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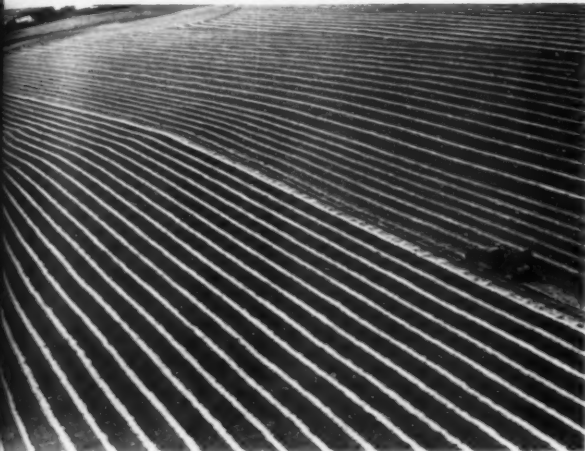
SOVIET DIARY

A GOOD YEAR FOR THE SOVIET ECONOMY



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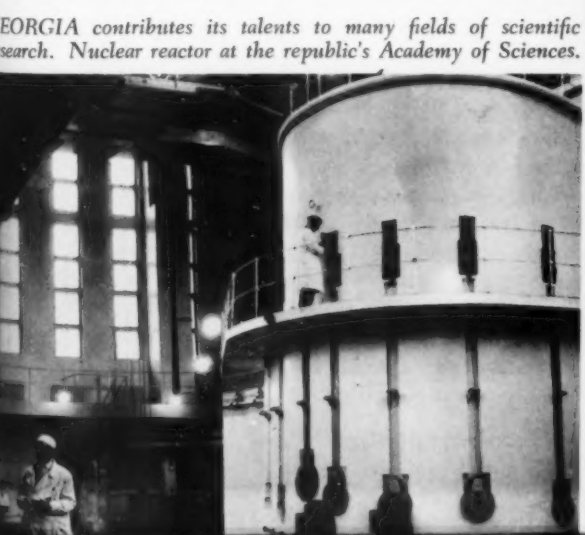
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GEORGIA contributes its talents to many fields of scientific research. Nuclear reactor at the republic's Academy of Sciences.



TURKMENIA is tapping its rich natural resources. Work in progress at the new oil fields recently discovered at Katur Tep.



NEW MACHINERY Equals Highest Labor Productivity

Even a small amount of grain can be used for a variety of purposes. The grain is used for food, for animal feed, and for industrial purposes. The grain is also used for the production of alcohol and other products.

The grain is also used for the production of paper and other products. The grain is also used for the production of textiles and other products.

The grain is also used for the production of chemicals and other products. The grain is also used for the production of medicines and other products.

The grain is also used for the production of energy and other products. The grain is also used for the production of plastics and other products.

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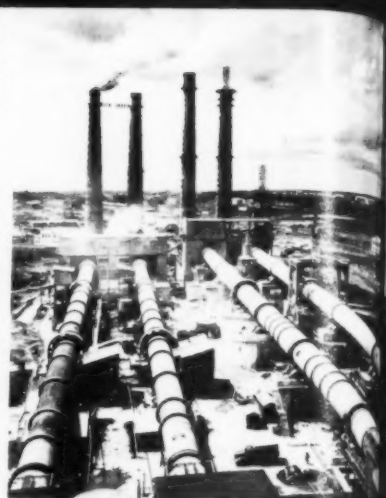
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SOVIET DIARY

A GOOD YEAR FOR THE SOVIET ECONOMY

EVEN A CURSORY glance at Soviet industrial statistics reveals that 1960 has been a banner year. Production goals have not only been met, but in practically all industrial areas they have been surpassed. That is particularly significant by reason of the fact that 1960 was the second year of the seven-year plan, and it was vital that the high rate of industrial growth set at the plan's start be maintained.

This was written before the year's end so that all the figures were not yet available. But it was already evident that 1960 steel output, would average 65 million tons, 5 million more than was produced last year; and that oil output would be more than 145 million tons, 15 million more than for 1959.

These figures point up an interesting fact. When Soviet planners back in 1946 were forecasting postwar economic development, they ventured the prediction that in 15 years, or a year or two more than that, the country would be producing an annual 60 million tons of steel and 60 million tons of oil. (At the time Soviet steel output was slightly more than 13 million tons and oil output about 22 million tons). These predicted figures have both been topped and, as far as oil is concerned, by a considerable margin.

Another interesting and overmodest prediction relates to industrial output increase in the 15 years after 1946. It was assumed that over-all output would triple; it multiplied six times!

These are somewhat more detailed figures for the first nine months of 1960. Compared with the equivalent period in 1959, the growth in industrial output was 10 per cent. That is almost two per cent more than the target figure set by the seven-year plan. And it was true for the country generally. As a matter of fact, some of the union republics, like Kazakhstan in the East and Byelorussia in the West, which play no small role in the country's economy, did even better. Their industrial output in the first nine months of 1960 grew by 13 per cent instead of the 10 per cent which was the national average.

Building materials led all other Soviet industries in rate of output increase for the nine months we are considering. That is understandable since the ever-growing scale of industrial transport and housing construction calls for constantly greater production of building materials, all the way from metal and reinforced concrete to glass and slate.

New Machinery Equals Higher Labor Productivity

The country's labor productivity increased by six per cent in the first nine months of 1960, again compared with the same period in

1959. This marked growth came from intensive all-round mechanization and automation of production, employment of new technological processes, and modernization of plants and factories.

Note that by October 1, 1960, more than 40 million factory and office workers in the Soviet Union had their workday cut by an hour as a result of the establishment of a 7- and 6-hour day for the country. But this was more than made up for by the increased output that came from technological improvements. The fact is that wages, instead of dropping, have gone up because production has gone up.

Responsible for a good deal of this technological progress were the two million workers in every sector of industry who turned in some three million suggestions during the nine-month period designed to make better use of machinery and increase labor output.

An Extra 100 Billion Rubles of Products

Translated into money, this 10 per cent growth in industrial output for the nine months represents an extra 100 billion rubles' worth of goods produced.

Consumer industry output grew right alongside the accelerated output of heavy industry. To cite examples, during the first three quarters of the year light industry produced 374 million more square yards of textiles, 24 million more pairs of footwear, and 273 million more cans of processed foods.

The greater attention paid to livestock breeding during the period gave people greater quantities of foodstuffs than during the first nine months of the previous year. The Soviet consumer bought almost 400,000 more tons of meat and meat products and 1,280,000 more tons of milk, butter and other dairy products than in the first nine months of 1959. About 1,232,000 television sets were manufactured, 33 per cent more than for the same period in 1959. Output of washing machines increased by 36 per cent, furniture by 19 per cent and motorcycles and motor scooters by 12 per cent.

Retail trade grows just as fast as production. Goods do not stay on the shelves very long in Soviet stores. Between January and September of this year retail trade grew by 9.6 per cent. In the rural areas, the turnover of the consumer cooperative stores and markets grew by 9.7 per cent. In July-September alone, state owned and cooperative stores sold more than 200 billion rubles' worth of goods of various kinds to the Soviet consumer.

"It was a good year," the Soviet people say, "and we know the new year is going to be even better."



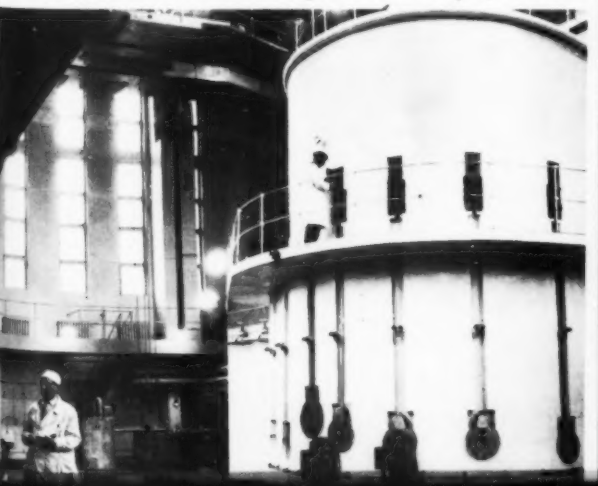
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Georgia contributes its talents to many fields of scientific research. Nuclear reactor at the republic's Academy of Sciences.



By Vladimir Boldyrev
Minister of Justice, Russian Federation

THE CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS OF THE SOVIET CITIZEN



THE CONSTITUTION of the USSR, the fundamental law of the land that enumerates and defines the freedoms and rights of the Soviet citizen, was adopted about a quarter of a century ago, on December 5, 1936. That day has since been observed as a national holiday.

Nineteen years of Soviet statehood preceded the adoption of the 1936 Constitution. In October 1917 the people of Russia took power into their own hands and in July 1918, eight months after the victory of the Socialist Revolution, the Russian Republic drew up and ratified its first constitution with provisions that elaborated on the earliest revolutionary decrees—those of peace and land.

This constitution did away with all forms of national oppression, abolished all the privileges the exploiting classes had enjoyed under the old regime and, for the first time in history, granted the basic democratic rights and freedoms to all citizens of the country.

At the end of 1922 four independent Soviet republics joined voluntarily to form the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). And in 1924 the first Constitution of the Soviet Union was adopted.

The face of the country was altered in the years that followed. It took less than two decades for the Soviet Union to overcome the economic and cultural backwardness of centuries, to build a powerful socialist industry and collective-farm agriculture and to end unemployment forever. The country then entered a new historical era in its development—the era of victorious socialism.

In these new historical conditions in June 1936 the draft of a new constitution was published in all the country's newspapers for public discussion. In the five and a half months following, 75 million Soviet citizens presented their views on the draft constitution at meetings and in the press, approved or objected to its provisions, and submitted changes and additions.

In November 1936 a special session—the Extraordinary Eighth All-Union Congress of Soviets—was called in Moscow. For nearly ten days

the session debated the draft with its many amendments and addenda. And when on December 5 the Congress adopted the final text, the Constitution was rightfully called the creation of the people, drafted and adopted with their active participation.

An Evolving Charter

The fundamental code of law is not static, it evolves with the country, and the changes that are mirrored in current legislative acts are also reflected in addenda and amendments to the Constitution.

The adoption of all amendments, modifications and additions to the Constitution is the exclusive prerogative of the USSR Supreme Soviet, the country's highest organ of state power. It requires a two-thirds majority in each of the Supreme Soviet's two chambers. No other organ of power or state administration may make any change in the Constitution.

The Constitution establishes the principles upon which the country's social and governmental structure is based, defines the organization and functions of legislative and executive bodies and affirms the fundamental rights and duties of the Soviet citizen.

Under the 1936 Constitution all organs of state power, from the highest to the lowest, are elected. Every citizen who reaches the age of 18 may vote and be elected to office regardless of race, nationality, sex, religion, domicile, social origin, property status or past activities. In the last election held two years ago for the local councils—the Soviets—134 million people cast their ballots to elect two million deputies.

The relation between voter and deputy is by no means ended on election day. A deputy must account to his electorate periodically. The Constitution specifically gives citizens the right to recall and replace a deputy at any time before his term expires if he has not justified their trust or if he has failed in his duties and obligations.

Constitutional Guarantee

The Constitution guarantees to all Soviet citizens these inalienable freedoms—freedom of speech; freedom of press; freedom to assemble and hold meetings, demonstrations and street processions.

It further guarantees the means needed to exercise these rights. Public organizations, associations of working people and governmental bodies have at their disposal printing plants, stocks of paper, public buildings and other facilities. Some 10,500 newspapers with a circulation in excess of 60 million and more than 3,800 magazines with a circulation of 600 million are now published in the Soviet Union.

The Constitution guarantees all citizens freedom of religious worship as well as freedom of anti-religious propaganda. The inviolability of the homes of citizens and privacy of correspondence are protected by law. No person can be placed under arrest except by court decision or with the sanction of a procurator.

Irrespective of race, nationality, property status and origin, every Soviet citizen is provided with the same unlimited opportunity to develop his native capacities and abilities. According to the Constitution any direct or indirect restriction of these opportunities or, conversely, the granting of special privileges, whether direct or indirect, to citizens on account of race or nationality, as well as any advocacy of racial or national exclusiveness, hatred or contempt, is punishable by law.

National Discrimination Ended

Under the yoke of czarism, many of the nationalities that live in our country were treated much as colonial peoples and suffered oppressive discrimination. After the Socialist Revolution these nationalities won full freedom and rapidly developed their economic and cultural capacities and the well-being of their people. The Soviet Central Asian Republics prove the point. Today, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Kirghizia, Turkmenia, Tajikistan—all the fraternal republics of Central Asia—have transformed themselves from backward colonial outposts of czarist Russia into modern industrially developed socialist republics.

Their heavy industry multiplied sixty times between 1913 and 1960. Their educational systems have brought universal literacy to peoples who were almost entirely illiterate. They have trained specialists of their own in every field of endeavor and have even outdone the rest of the country in this respect. Between 1926 and 1959 the total number of factory and office workers in the Soviet Union increased sixfold; in Central Asia and Kazakhstan, the increase was tenfold. In the same period the number of engineers, technicians and agronomists in the country generally multiplied 18 times; in Central Asia and Kazakhstan it multiplied 38 times.

The national character and distinctive culture of each of the peoples and nationalities were given constitutional expression in the fifteen union and nineteen autonomous republics, the nine autonomous regions and the ten national areas that constitute the USSR. Each union and autonomous republic has its own constitution and its own legislative body, the Supreme Soviet of the republic. All the union and autonomous republics, regions and areas have their deputies in the nation's highest legislative body, the USSR Supreme Soviet.

This body has two equal chambers, the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities, the latter chamber founded expressly to guard the interests of all the nationalities that live in the country.

The Constitution gives the right to each of the fifteen union republics to remain within the union or to secede, as its people choose. The union republics exercise complete sovereignty in administering their own internal affairs through their own government, agencies, national economic councils and other state and public bodies.

Women enjoy equal rights with men in all spheres of economic, governmental, cultural, political and social life. This right is unconditional. Women have an equal right with men to work, to the wages they are paid, to rest, to social security, to education.

Role of Public Organizations

The Constitution gives every citizen the right to join public organizations—trade unions, cooperative societies and sports, cultural, technical and scientific bodies. The most active and socially conscious workers, farmers and intellectuals voluntarily unite in the Communist



District doctor Likiya Gleiberg makes a call. Free medical service is a constitutional right.

Maintenance in disability and old age is another. Tamara Parfenenko signs for monthly pension.



Party of the Soviet Union—the vanguard of the working people of the country in building a communist society.

Public organizations of working people are assigned a dominant role in running the country's affairs. The marked trend in the development of socialist statehood in the USSR today is toward the broadest democracy, in a systematic effort to draw as many citizens as possible into direct and active participation in the management of economic and cultural construction.

More and more of the functions exercised by state agencies are being taken over by public organizations. Thus, bodies of citizens are gradually being vested with the responsibility of maintaining public order. Certain misdemeanors that until recent years were tried in the courts are now judged by the offender's neighbors and shopmates in Comrades' Courts where the emphasis is not on punishment but on persuasion and re-education.

Right to Employment

The rights and freedoms guaranteed the Soviet citizen by the Constitution are not abstractions; they rest on a solid material foundation—public ownership of all the means and instruments of production, the land and its mineral wealth; the socialist system of economy which constitutes the country's economic foundation. As the economy develops with progress in science and technology, the material and cultural standards of the people keep rising.

One of the most substantive rights guaranteed the Soviet citizen by his Constitution is the right to employment and to payment for work consistent with quantity and quality produced.

This essential right is ensured by the socialist organization of the nation's economy, the steady growth of the productive forces of Soviet society and the permanent abolition of economic crisis and unemployment.

The number of employed industrial and office workers increases steadily. In 1940 there were 31,200,000 industrial and office workers within the present borders of the Soviet Union. By early 1960 the number had grown to 56,300,000 and when the seven-year plan ends in 1965, the total will have risen to 66,500,000.

Soviet law declares that no citizen may be refused employment because of social origin, past criminal record, or a crime for which his parents or relatives were convicted. A worker may not be dismissed without the consent of his trade union organization.

The Constitution guarantees all citizens the right to rest and leisure. That right is reinforced by such laws as the one passed in 1960 cutting the workday to seven hours for all factory and office workers and to six hours for those working in coal and ore mining and other underground trades.

The workday reduction was carried through without any cut in pay. In some industries it was accompanied by wage increases. The seven-year plan provides for a still shorter day beginning with 1964. Workers in factories and offices will then go over to a 6- or 5-hour day or to a 7- or 6-hour day with two days off a week. The Soviet Union will then have the shortest working day as well as the shortest working week in the world.

All Soviet factory and office workers receive annual paid vacations that range from two weeks to two months. Catering to the vacationer are more than 3,000 sanatoriums and 800 rest homes, excluding overnight sanatoriums, in every part of the country. The present vacation facilities annually accommodate upwards of three million workers and farmers. Many people get their accommodations at a two-thirds discount, the difference being covered by the social insurance fund.

Old Age Maintenance

Every citizen has the right to maintenance in old age and in sickness and disability. In 1956 the pension system was revised upward, and workers now receive from 50 to 100 per cent of their former earnings in old age pensions. The number of pensioners as of the beginning of this year totaled 18,200,000. The sick and disabled are entitled to benefits of up to 90 per cent of their earnings.

All medical services, both hospital and outpatient, are provided free by the state. The Soviet Union today has the lowest mortality rate and the highest population growth rate in the world. The average life span has more than doubled in the Soviet period.

The Soviet Constitution guarantees every citizen the right to an education. One out of every four Soviet persons is studying. There were 50 million people enrolled in schools early in 1960. All education is free. The 3,400,000 students at institutions of higher learning, specialized secondary schools and vocational schools receive monthly maintenance stipends and dormitory accommodations in addition to free tuition.

To provide the citizenry with the means to exercise the rights guaranteed by the Constitution, the government spends enormous funds. In 1959 the budget for social insurance, pensions, free medical services, free or cut-rate vacation accommodations, free tuition and stipends and various additional welfare items came to 230 billion rubles, as compared with 215 billion for the year previous. By 1965 these expenditures will total 360 billion or about 3,800 rubles per citizen per year.

The Constitution declares that the "personal property right of citizens in their incomes and savings from work, in their dwellings and subsidiary husbandries, in articles of domestic economy and use and articles of personal use and convenience, as well as the right of citizens to inherit personal property, is protected by law."

The Courts and the Law

The Constitution and the law proclaim all these rights of the individual inviolable. Should any official disregard his responsibilities to the people, he risks the judgment and retribution of legal agencies designed to safeguard these rights. The Constitution makes it incumbent upon the Soviet government to ensure public order, protect the interests of the state and safeguard the rights of citizens. The local governmental bodies—the Soviets of Working People's Deputies—are also charged with this responsibility.

The Procurator General of the USSR is vested by the Constitution with paramount supervisory authority to make certain that the law is not violated by ministries, government officials or private citizens.

The various divisions and agencies of the Procurator's Office see to it that orders and instructions issued by government bodies and officials do not violate the law or ignore the legitimate interests of citizens. In the event the law is broken, it is the duty of the procurator to set the matter to rights and call the guilty to account.

For example, the Ministry of Construction of the Uzbek Republic recently issued an order prohibiting industrial enterprises from hiring persons who had been dismissed from other jobs or who had changed jobs frequently. This violated the right to employment guaranteed all citizens by the Constitution. The Procurator of the Uzbek Republic lodged a protest against the order and it was revoked.

The courts of law are designed to protect the constitutional rights of citizens. The Fundamentals of Legislation on Judicial Procedure of the USSR and the Union Republics, adopted by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR in 1958, charges the courts with the responsibility of protecting the civil, labor, housing, personal and property rights guaranteed the citizen by the Soviet Constitution and the constitution of his republic.

Should a worker, for example, be dismissed from his job, he can take his case to court. If the court finds that his job rights have been violated, it orders his reinstatement and compensation for the period of unemployment.

The Ministry of Justice supervises the work of the courts. It has the responsibility of assuring that trials are held in strict conformity with the law and that the citizen's rights are not violated in the process. Should a judicial institution not adhere to the strict provisions of the law, the Ministry is required to take appropriate action.

In the Soviet Union the interests of the state and the individual do not contradict each other but, on the contrary, coincide. Protection of the citizen's rights and freedoms is the abiding concern of the Soviet state. The Constitution safeguards the peaceful constructive labor of the Soviet people, whose primary interest is to promote friendship and cooperation among all countries in behalf of world peace.



The constitutional right to rest and leisure is provided for by paid vacations. Ivan Fetisov reserves accommodations at a summer resort maintained by his plant.



It is the duty of Minister of Justice Vladimir Boldyrev to see that rights of Soviet citizens are not violated.

Freedom of assembly and press are inalienable. Trade unionists discussing shop problems.

Editorial office of a factory newspaper, one of many thousands published in the Soviet Union.



Happy New Year



My Heartiest Wishes

Vasili Konolop
Chairman, Executive Committee,
Moscow Regional Soviet

THIS HAS BEEN a good and constructive year for the country, if Moscow Region be any indication. We have built many new schools, hospitals, nurseries, kindergartens, and clubs, not to speak of housing which has been done on a very large scale.

Moscow Region takes in a considerable amount of industrial and agricultural territory around the capital, and both our workers in industry and on the farms exceeded the target figure for 1960 set by the seven-year plan.

One of the memorable personal events of the year was my interesting trip to the United States with a delegation of Soviet government officials headed by Deputy Poliansky, Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Russian Federation.

It is pleasant to recall how cordially and warmly we were received by all Americans—from governors to plain people. I will never forget our reception in a small town some sixty miles or thereabouts from Denver, Colorado. We had been invited to see a game at the town stadium, and when the announcer said that there were Soviet visitors present, everybody rose to welcome us with applause. We were very much moved by this token of interest and respect for the people of the Soviet Union.

Among my American impressions I cherish the cordial meetings with Governor Robert Meyner of New Jersey, Governor Stephen Mc Nichols of Colorado, Philadelphia City Council member Frederick Mann and New York Deputy Mayor Paul O'Keefe, and the very pleasant evening we spent at the home of theater producer Robert Whitehead with his family and friends.

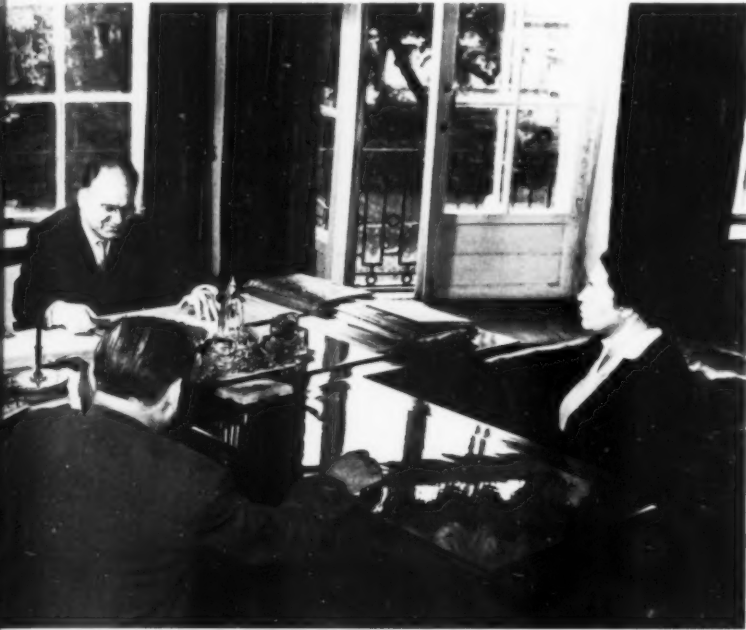
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To all the many friends I made in the United States I want to extend my warmest wishes for a new year that we all hope will bring the realization of our mutual desire for development of Soviet-American relations and friendship between our great peoples.

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Ivan F



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Happy New Year



A welcome chore this one—carrying the New Year fir tree home.



This could be any store in any Soviet city the week before the old year ends.



On New Year's Day the Kremlin is traditionally taken over by Moscow school children for a fir tree party.



New Year

THE MINUTE HAND of the Kremlin's tower clock touches midnight, and the chimes ring out the old year. The President of the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet begins his traditional address with the words, "I wish you all, dear comrades, a Happy New Year." And in homes throughout the length and breadth of the Soviet Union people touch glasses in a welcome to the year just begun.


New Year's Day is a traditional family holiday in our country. Anybody who is away from home hurries back in time for the celebration. But if, for one reason or another, this is impossible, there are good friends, neighbors and colleagues in work and study always nearby with whom to usher in the New Year.

Those who do not want to bother with arranging festivities at home can see the old year out and the new year in in the gay atmosphere of restaurants and cafes, in concert halls and palaces of culture, in workers', collective farmers' and students' clubs.

Everybody enjoys this holiday, with its hustle and bustle. There are gifts to be bought and wrapped, a fir tree to be decorated, a special dinner to be cooked.

For the young people there are balls and masquerade parties. For school children New Year's Day marks the beginning of a two-week winter holiday. These are carefree days filled with skiing, skating and sledding from early morning until dark, with only mealtime interfering. The children attend fir tree parties at which ancient Grandfather Frost and the Snow Maiden, Czarevich Ivan and beautiful Vasilisa come to life out of Russian folk tales. All the children's theaters put on special performances for the holiday season.

For young and old, New Year's is a day for well wishing and celebrations. But it has its serious side as well. It's as though it were a landmark in a man's life, a boundary between the past and future. That is probably the main reason for the pervading feeling of excitement and anticipation. It is a day for a last lingering look at the year behind, its challenges and accomplishments, its joys and difficulties, and for a much longer look at the hope and promise of the year ahead.



This is a day for well-wishing and celebration, the boundary between the past and the future.

In festively decked clubs and palaces of culture the young people dance the new year in and the old one out.



Plenty for students to do, indoors and out, on this two-week winter holiday.



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At parties and concerts Soviet youngsters see the Snow Maiden and other characters out of the old Russian folk tales come to life.

The Kremlin gardens, a spot favored by Muscovites young and old for a holiday walk.



At the Palace of Sports there are special shows for children all through the winter vacation.



"Tell Grandfather Frost what you would like to find under your fir tree New Year's morning."





FORTY YEARS OF SOVIET KAZAKHSTAN

*An Interview with Dinmukhamed Kunayev,
First Secretary, Central Committee of the Communist Party of Kazakhstan*



Dinmukhamed Kunayev was born in Verny (now Alma-Ata, the capital of the Kazakh Republic) 48 years ago, the son of a Kazakh office worker. He completed secondary school and in 1936 graduated with a diploma in mining engineering from the Moscow Non-ferrous Metals and Gold Institute.

He returned to his native republic and rose rapidly from driller to chief engineer and mine director, evidence of his high professional competence and his uncommon organizational talent.

He held a number of responsible government posts and at the same time wrote important research papers on the development of Kazakhstan's natural resources. In 1952, in recognition of his services to science, he was elected President of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences.

He was elected Chairman of the republic's Council of Ministers in 1955, and in January 1960 First Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Kazakhstan. Kunayev is a deputy to both the USSR Supreme Soviet and the Kazakh Supreme Soviet.

Question: When was the Kazakh Republic formed? What is it like today?

Answer: Our republic takes in a great expanse of country in what used to be the southern part of the Russian Empire. It grew out of the Socialist Revolution that freed the Kazakh people from the colonial oppression they suffered under czarist rule. Kazakhstan, a sovereign state, joined voluntarily with the other sovereign Soviet socialist republics to form the Soviet Union.

Our present territory stretches from the Altai Mountains to the lower reaches of the Volga and the Caspian shores. It extends from the Siberian plains to the subtropical zones of Central Asia. The 10 million people in our republic live in an area of 1,064,000 square miles, seven times the size of Japan and twenty times the size of England.

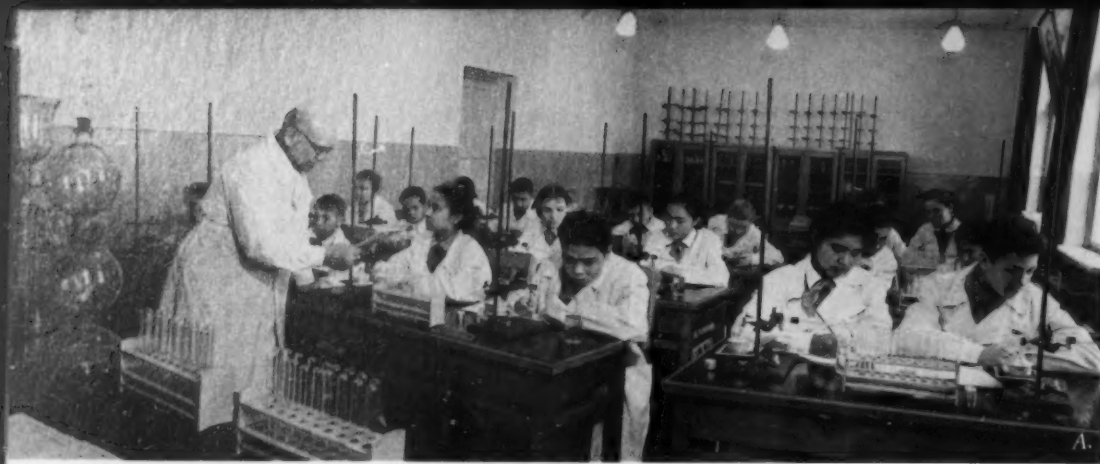
We exercise all the rights of a sovereign Soviet republic. Our Supreme Soviet is the highest governing body and adopts all laws and decrees for our people. The republic has the right to enter into direct relations with foreign countries. The territory of the republic cannot be altered without our consent. We have our own constitution, flag and anthem. As a component part of the USSR we exercise equal rights with the other Soviet republics in solving problems of national scope. And like the other republics we have the right to secede from the Union.

During the trying days of the Civil War and foreign intervention we fought shoulder to shoulder with the other peoples of Russia for the establishment of Soviet power. The *bais* (local feudal lords) and the Russian industrialists, who had made enormous profits by exploiting Kazakhstan, joined with foreign capitalists to strangle the Soviet state we had brought to power. But we were victorious. And toward the end of 1920 the Soviet form of government was stabilized throughout the region and the Kazakh Autonomous Republic was formed. In 1936 it became a union republic. This year we are celebrating the fortieth birthday of Soviet Kazakhstan.

Question: How did the Kazakhs live before the Revolution?

Answer: This was a backward outpost of the czarist empire four decades ago, isolated from civilizing influences. The natural wealth of the region did not belong to the people; it had been appropriated by the rich Kazakh landowners and by Russian and foreign capitalists. The illiterate laboring people were mercilessly exploited. A nomad Kazakh, for instance, had to trade a ram to get a single needle. His home was a worn out tent, and his daily lot was misery and hunger. In the pits where miners had to dig coal by hand, fatal accidents were common. There was only one small electric power station in the whole of the territory. For "public education" in Kazakhstan czarist officialdom's annual allocation was a grudging 27 kopecks per person. Only two people out of every hundred could read and write.

With the October Revolution, my fellow countrymen rid themselves of the parasites—the *bais*, the capitalists and their hangers-on—who had been feeding on the people for so



A. Only 2 per cent of the population was literate before the Revolution. Now education is free and compulsory.

B. Pit in the Dzhezkazgan metal complex. Kazakhstan leads the country in copper, lead and zinc deposits.

C. Turbines at Ust-Kamenogorsk. The republic generates 7,000 times more power now than in czarist days.

D. Gross industrial output has multiplied 51 times. This is a modern cement-producing plant in Chimkent.

E. Kazakhstan dairy and livestock men plan to triple their meat production and double milk output by 1965.

F. A Kazakh dance. The republic's theaters, clubs and palaces of culture all encourage the national arts.

long. The Kazakh people took the country's destiny into their own hands.

Question: What is Kazakhstan's economic picture today?

Answer: In these past forty years our republic has changed almost beyond recognition. Kazakhstan's inexhaustible store of natural wealth has been placed at the service of the people. We stand first in the country for our deposits of copper, lead, zinc, cadmium and a number of other important minerals. We now have a highly diversified modern economy. Among the key industries developed in the Soviet period are heavy machine-building, power, electrical engineering, chemicals and instrument-making. We have also done a great deal to expand our light and food industries. Kazakhstan's gross industrial output since the Revolution has grown 51 times over. Coal output has multiplied 352 times, oil output 13 times, and power output more than 7,000.

Towns and settlements have grown into industrial centers in these forty years. For example, Karaganda is now a major industrial city, the heart of the republic's coal and mine-engineering region. Temir-Tau is only 15 years old, but it is already known as a center of iron and steel, power engineering and chemicals.

Rudny, founded a few years ago, is a fast growing town built around the great Sokolovo-Sarbayya iron ore deposit. Products of the heavy engineering plant in Alma-Ata, the mining equipment plants of Karaganda, the automatic press plants of Chimkent are known and used widely at home and abroad.

Kazakhstan, with its state and collective farms abundantly supplied with the latest in farm machinery, is one of the country's principal granaries. The republic's sown area is immense—a total of 70.5 million acres. Kazakh farmers harvest 18 million tons of grain a year.

Question: How do you account for the extraordinary progress made by your republic?

Answer: It is due, primarily, to the heroic efforts of our people. My fellow-countrymen are working for themselves, for their own happiness and well-being. They know that the more productive their labor, the fuller all their material and cultural demands will be met. We have many splendid leaders in industry and agriculture. The best of them have earned the proud title of Hero of Socialist Labor and have been honored with other awards.

The underlying principle of our government policy is an ever rising living standard for the people of the republic. Our citizens are guaranteed high earnings, good working conditions and wide open opportunities for raising their educational and cultural levels. The people of Kazakhstan are working hard to achieve the goals set by the republic's seven-year plan.

Question: What progress has been made in the fulfillment of the seven-year plan and how will it benefit the Kazakh people?

Answer: The seven-year plan completed will mark a big step forward in the republic's progress toward the further development of its economy and a high living standard. The tar-

get figures we are aiming at were discussed in all our factories, collective farms and scientific institutions. And with the many amendments and changes proposed in the discussion, they were adopted by the republic's Communist Party Congress in January 1959.

Here are a few of the figures from the republic's seven-year plan. Our volume of capital investments for the 1959-1965 period will reach a new high of 116-119 billion rubles. Our gross industrial output in 1965 will be 2.7 times the 1958 level. The production of iron ore, for example, will increase 6.3 times. The huge Sokolovo-Sarbaya ore-dressing plant, now under construction, will have an annual capacity of 26.5 million metric tons. A new metallurgy center, our Kazakh Urals, is growing rapidly.

Another great metal plant, one of the biggest in the country, is now being built in Karaganda. Its annual pig iron and steel output by 1965 will be roughly equivalent to that of the whole of Russia in 1913. Soviet steel mills are already getting cast iron from Kazakhstan.

Our next project will be to develop the Ayatsk and Lisakovo iron ore deposits. Its estimated 10.5 billion tons is a third greater than the aggregate ore deposits of the USA.

Our power stations are now generating four times as much electricity as all of Russia before the Revolution. By the end of the seven-year period we will have built additional plants with a capacity of 4.4 million kilowatts to boost the republic's electric power output to 26 billion kilowatt-hours a year.

The original target figure for grain called for an annual 22 million metric tons. Kazakh farmers raised that figure themselves. They propose to harvest more than 24 million metric tons annually, and this regardless of weather conditions. Our dairy and livestock men plan to almost triple meat output, double milk output and increase egg output 1.8 times over the seven years. And our cotton growers plan a large enough crop by 1965 to weave more than a billion yards of textiles.

During the plan period 250,000 Kazakhs will be provided with new apartments. This figure and all the others I have cited point up the plan's purpose—to provide every citizen with as much in the way of food, clothing, footwear and other consumer goods as he can use, to house him adequately and to provide everything he needs in the way of cultural facilities.

Question: How do the different nationalities that live in Kazakhstan get along?

Answer: National differences stopped being a problem after the Revolution because Kazakhstan became one of the equal Soviet republics. Kazakhstan is a multinational republic. Apart from the indigenous Kazakhs, we have Russians, Ukrainians, Byelorussians, Uzbeks, Uigurs and other nationalities living in our territory. There can be no question of any oppression of one nationality by another or of any racial or national discrimination. All our citizens have equal rights, all contribute their best efforts and all enjoy the fruits of their labor. An oppressed colony under czarism, Kazakhstan is now an equal member of the Soviet family of nations.

Question: What is the basis of the relations between Kazakhstan and the other Soviet republics?

Answer: The relations between republics in the Soviet Union are based on the unshakable ties of friendship that bind the Soviet people, on the unity of their ultimate goal—the building of a communist society. Each of the republics makes its own contribution toward this goal in terms of its own resources, and each republic is provided with commodities it does not produce by the others. The Russian and Ukrainian Republics, for example, supply us with mining equipment, walking excavators, various machine tools and farm equipment. We send them the goods we produce. Our coal output exceeds our needs and so we supply the Urals and other parts of the country. We are a major supplier of copper and nonferrous metals. Our engineering industry ships to other republics and to buyers abroad. We send the great crops of wheat we raise to various sections of the country. Thus, Kazakhstan's relations with the other republics are based on friendship and cooperation.

Question: How about Kazakhstan's progress in scientific research, public health, education and the arts?

Answer: Our republic has its own Academy of Sciences, 107 research institutes, a nuclear research center, an agricultural academy, a university and 27 other schools for higher education, 143 technicums and nearly 10,000 secondary schools.

Before the Revolution we had less than a hundred medical centers staffed by 196 doctors. Today we have 10,000 physicians in all the specialties, 37,000 medical assistants, and more than 2,000 pharmacists.

Kazakhstan has a century-old cultural tradition, but under the czar the arts were entirely out of reach of the working people. They were the exclusive privilege of the few people of wealth. Today our blossoming Kazakh national art, literature and theater are public property.

Question: Would you like to comment on your recent visit to the United States for our American readers?

Answer: Early this year I made an interesting trip across the United States with a large group of Soviet officials led by Dmitri Polyansky, Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Russian Federation. Ours was an exchange visit following a tour of the Soviet Union by a group of American governors. We visited a number of cities, and we were left with most favorable impressions. We were given a very cordial and hospitable welcome everywhere we traveled.

To me it was a living illustration of the interest Americans have in our country and the good will they bear toward the Soviet people. On many occasions in the months since, I have told my countrymen about the American people's friendly feelings toward us. I should like to see growing cooperation between our countries and relations built on mutual friendship and cordiality. Friendship between our nations would warm the hearts of millions the world over and give them renewed hope for an enduring peace.

Happy New Year



I Wish You
All Happiness

Larissa Litvinova, Housewife

ANOTHER YEAR gone. We always take leave of the old year with a little sadness, even when we look forward to the new one. Many good things happened to our family in 1960, the best was my husband's return home from the army. He was a flier and his unit was demobilized. Now he's back at his regular work as engineer.

We lived better this year than the year before and so did our friends and neighbors. We were pleased with the progress our thirteen-year-old son made in school and his piano lessons.

There were changes this year on the street in Moscow where we live. It was renamed Prospekt Mira, Avenue of Peace, and is better looking than ever with its new apartment houses and school buildings. Now we have kindergartens, a hospital, a library, a market, stores and a dress shop right at hand.

We saw a number of American films and we were lucky enough to get tickets for the American visiting production of *My Fair Lady*. We enjoyed it immensely.

I have an American friend, Margaret Wells, who lives in Maryland. She is a housewife too and had a baby this year, Victoria. We have been corresponding for a long time and know all about each other.

She knows that I served in the army as a flier in the war against fascism, the way other Soviet women did. I saw death, destruction, suffering and orphaned children. I don't want to see this again. Neither does my American friend. In one of her letters she wrote, "All Americans want lasting peace." This is how it should be. We need peace and friendship the way we need air. I wish you all the happiness there is, my dear Margaret. May the coming year be a good one for all of us—in America, in the Soviet Union and the rest of the world.



SARY'S BIG FAMILY

IN PREREVOLUTIONARY KAZAKHSTAN THE POOR SOMETIMES HAD NO RECOURSE BUT TO SELL THEIR CHILDREN IN ORDER TO KEEP BODY AND SOUL TOGETHER. IT ALMOST HAPPENED TO SARY YESOVA, DAUGHTER OF A CATTLE BREEDER. ONLY THE RICH COULD HOPE FOR AN EDUCATION. TODAY 57-YEAR-OLD SARY IS HEAD OF A LARGE AND PROSPEROUS FAMILY OF DOCTORS, ENGINEERS AND SCIENTISTS.



Sary is the matriarch of the family. She has twenty brothers, sisters and nieces living in various parts of Kazakhstan. 1. Her niece Batima is chief physician of a hospital in Turgai. 2. Brother Kydyrbai is a specialist in rice land reclamation. 3. Cousin Zanai teaches in one of the Dzhambul secondary schools and is shown here with his students at a farm practice session. 4. Her scientist son Nurlan heads a laboratory at the Institute of Nuclear Physics. 5. Niece Khabiba and her oil geologist husband Ural are the parents of the newest addition, Bibigul. 6. And brother-in-law Islam is a construction engineer.

By Galina Kulikovskaya

THE KAZAKHS were still living in the middle ages when Sary Yesova was born 57 years ago. Their customs carried over unaltered from one generation to the next. Her father was a cattle breeder, and the family lived crowded together in a smoke-filled skin tent, a yurt. Her mother mashed grain in a stone mortar, milked the camels, fulled their wool by hand. Sary herself, in the usual course of events, would probably have been sold to a rich neighbor as a child bride—that did almost happen to her.

All this has a feeling of a dim and distant reality. It comes to mind now only when Sary gets a phone call or telegram from one of the numerous members of her big family—she has 20 brothers, sisters and nieces—to tell her about a new addition to the family, to announce some other happy event, or to share with her their hopes and troubles. It's then she marvels at the way the lives of the Kazakhs, especially the women, have changed since the Revolution.

She herself is living testimony to the fact. The Revolution opened a horizon for them vastly larger than cooking and childbearing. Sary had to fight to break down the old lingering prejudices, but she had the help and support of a new socialist state that was determined to give women their rightful place with men in all spheres of endeavor. She went to school and then to an institute and became a historian and

the director of the museum at Alma-Ata, the capital of the republic.

Her brothers and sisters are much younger. She thinks of them as her children because she helped bring them up. By the time they were grown, the old benighted attitudes had changed, illiteracy had been largely done away with and the Kazakhs had made the great leap from the middle ages into the twentieth century.

All Over the Republic

Sary rarely has to bother with hotel accommodations when she takes one of her frequent trips for historical research to other towns and cities in the republic. Generally she will have a relative living nearby—they are scattered all over Kazakhstan—very happy to put her up.

She has a niece, Rauza, a young actress, who lives in Karaganda, a large mining town. Another niece, Batim, and her husband Nurman, both of them doctors, live in Turgai. This used to be an isolated village, plagued with the hundred diseases that come from poverty and superstition. That is why Sary has more than a familial interest in looking round the new village hospital with its airy wards, and its modern operating theaters and treatment rooms. Her niece is the hospital's directing physician.



1. One of Sary's many cousins lives in Karganda. 2. Rauza is an actress in the drama theater of this mining city. 3. Sary's youngest brother Tursun and his family live in Kentau. The city is so new you can find it only on the very latest maps. 4. One of twenty sisters, Mariam, is an agrochemist at the Soil Institute. 5. And this one is complicated—her sister-in-law's sister — Grazia works in Ust-Kamenogorsk as an economist and is often visited by Sary's grandchildren Irma and Alik.

In Kzyl-Orda, where Sary lived half her life, reside her nieces Svetlana, a young doctor, and Rosa, who manages a motion picture theater. On her last visit Sary found it hard to see the old dusty Perovsk—so the city used to be called—through all the paved streets and the handsome new buildings. One of the few familiar landmarks was the mosque where some of the older people still go to worship.

She had a hand in beautifying the town. Years ago she helped plant the trees in the public garden near the theater that is named after Aman-geldy, the Kazakh revolutionary hero.

Sister and Friend

Another of Sary's relatives, her sister-in-law's sister Grazia, lives in Ust-Kamenogorsk. She is an economist for the statistical board of the East Kazakhstan Region and works with the progress reports that keep coming in from the industrial Altai, the polymetallic works and the sites of the new hydropower stations being built. Grazia loves to talk about the changes taking place in her part of the country. When she cites statistics, she makes the figures sing.

The family centers around Sary because she is relative, friend, confidant and adviser all rolled up into one. Though many of her brothers

and sisters live a long way from her, Sary is the first one to get in touch with, whether the news is good or bad.

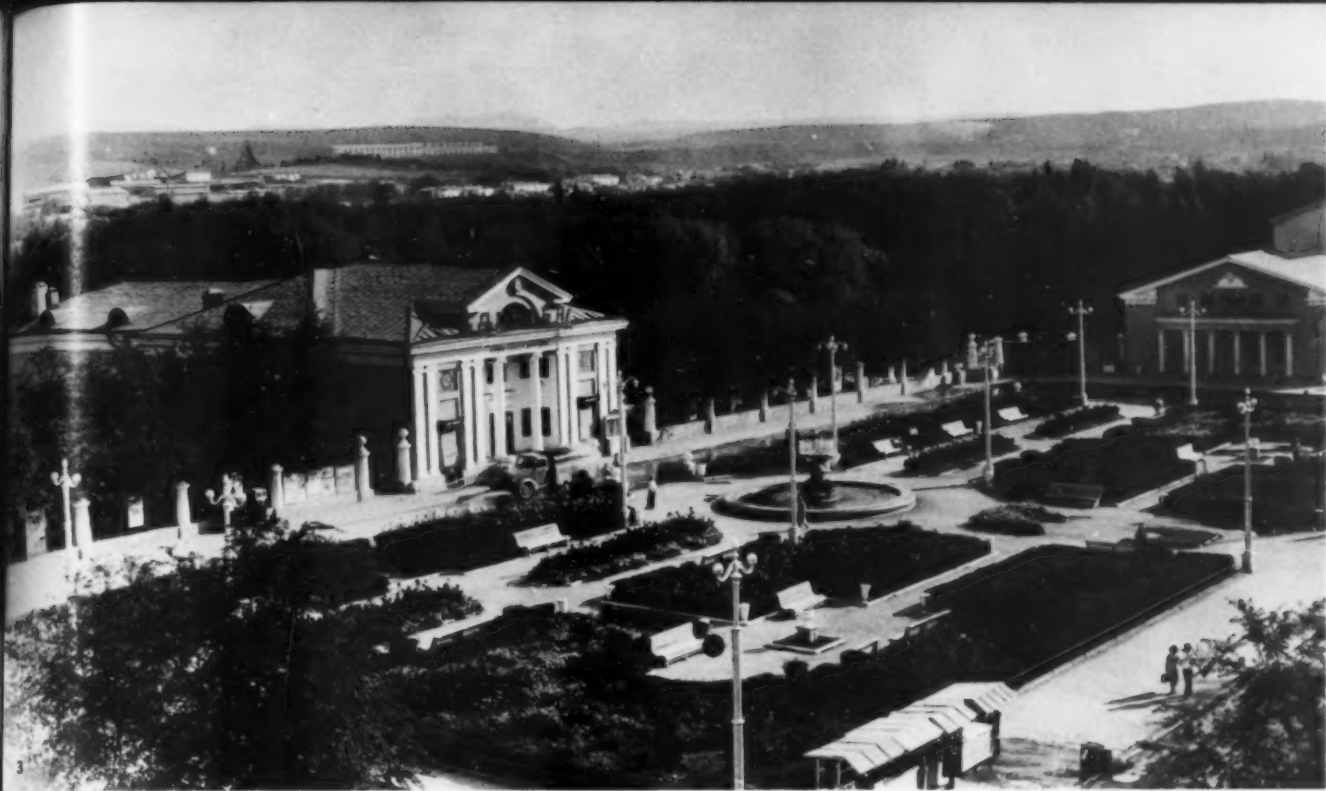
Her niece Svetlana falls ill just before she has to take her final examinations at the medical institute. What does Sary think? Should Svetlana be studying so hard when she is still convalescing?

Or here is the latest letter from Tursun, Sary's youngest brother. She brought him up after her parents died. Tursun graduated from a mining institute, got a job in Kentau and has since worked his way up to the position of department head of the plant. Kentau is one of the new green cities of Kazakhstan with wide tree-lined avenues, public gardens and man-made ponds.

When Tursun's letters began to get rhapsodic about a girl he met, Sary packed a bag and left for Kentau to see her brother and blond Natasha from the Ukraine. That was several years ago. Sary has since acquired two more nieces. In his last letter Tursun wrote her that they had moved into a new house.

About 120 miles from Kentau is the city of Chimkent where Sary's adopted daughter, Galiya Yesova, lives. A long time ago, soon after the First World War, Sary adopted the 14-year-old girl who had lost her parents. She was only 19 herself at the time.

Galiya went through a teachers' training school, got married and



moved to Chimkent where her husband was working. Not long ago a young woman came into Sary's office at the museum and introduced herself as Salima, Galiya Yesova's daughter and Sary's granddaughter. It was something of an occasion. Salima was married and she and her husband are settled at the Lenin Collective Farm, a very prosperous enterprise with an annual income of 18 million rubles from its cotton, wheat and melon crops and its large herd of sheep. Salima told Sary all about her family and what was happening to everybody.

Family Addition

The most recent tidings announced an addition to the family. When the telegram came Sary rushed into the nursery to tell her little grandchildren, Arik and Irina—Irina is named after the famous French physicist, Irene Joliot-Curie—that Khabiba had had a baby girl and had named her Bibigul.

Bibigul's arrival had been long awaited. The birth of a first child is always a great event in Kazakh families and old Kirei, Khabiba's father and Sary's brother-in-law, had been grumbling for some time about how long the girl was taking to give him a grandchild. He is a shepherd, and the first question he asked when he came home from a distant pas-

ture was, "Well?" He didn't have to finish the sentence, everybody knew what he meant.

Sary immediately sent off a congratulatory telegram to Khabiba and her geologist husband Ural, and to the delighted grandfather.

That same evening every member of the family in Alma-Ata and its environs gathered in Sary's apartment to celebrate. Among those present were Nurlan, Sary's son, a research scientist at the Nuclear Physics Institute of the Kazakh Republic; Mariam, Sary's sister, an agrochemist whose work in soil science has contributed to make the virgin and long-fallow land so fruitful; Beket, Sary's younger son, a veterinarian; and Uncle Islam, Sary's brother-in-law, who is a builder.

Islam is much like Sary's late husband, a very active man whose work takes him all over the republic—to the new mining town of Rudny, to the copper mining center of Dzhezkazgan, to the iron and steel region at Temir-Tau and to the virgin lands. Right now he is in Alma-Ata building a new hotel. Construction in Kazakhstan goes on endlessly, especially in housing.

The first toast at the party, of course, was to little Bibigul, the newest member of Sary Yesova's family and one of the newest young citizens of this thriving modern republic that was primitive hinterland a generation or two ago.

FIRST VOYAGE



Photo story by Yevgeni Khaldei

THE ATOM SHIP *Lenin*, first icebreaker in the world to run on nuclear fuel, was launched exactly twelve months ago. We carried the story in the December 1959 (No. 39) issue.

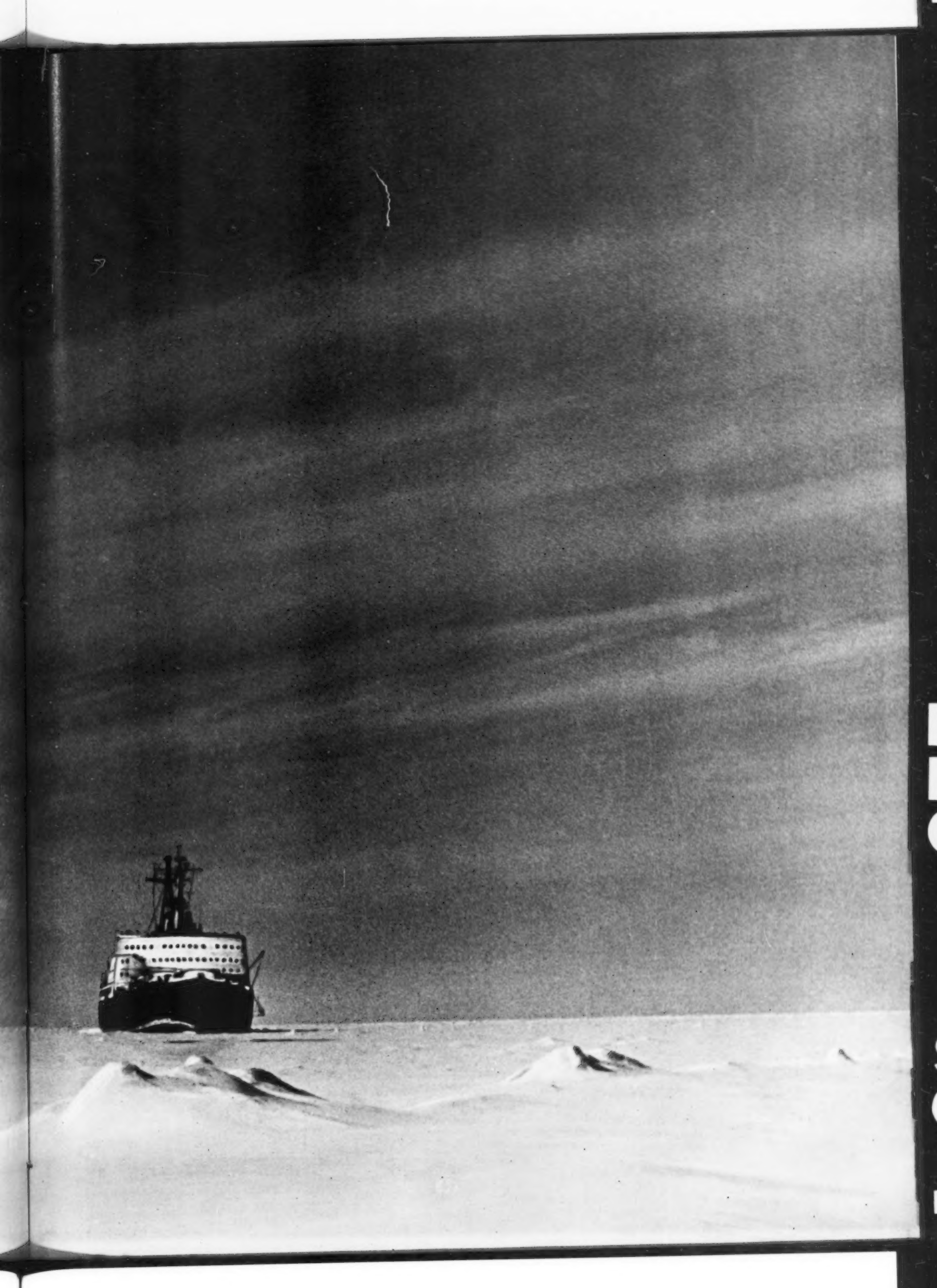
When it left the ways, the new flagship of the Soviet Arctic sailed around the Scandinavian Peninsula to Leningrad and from Leningrad to Murmansk. The *Lenin* left that port for its first Arctic research voyage.

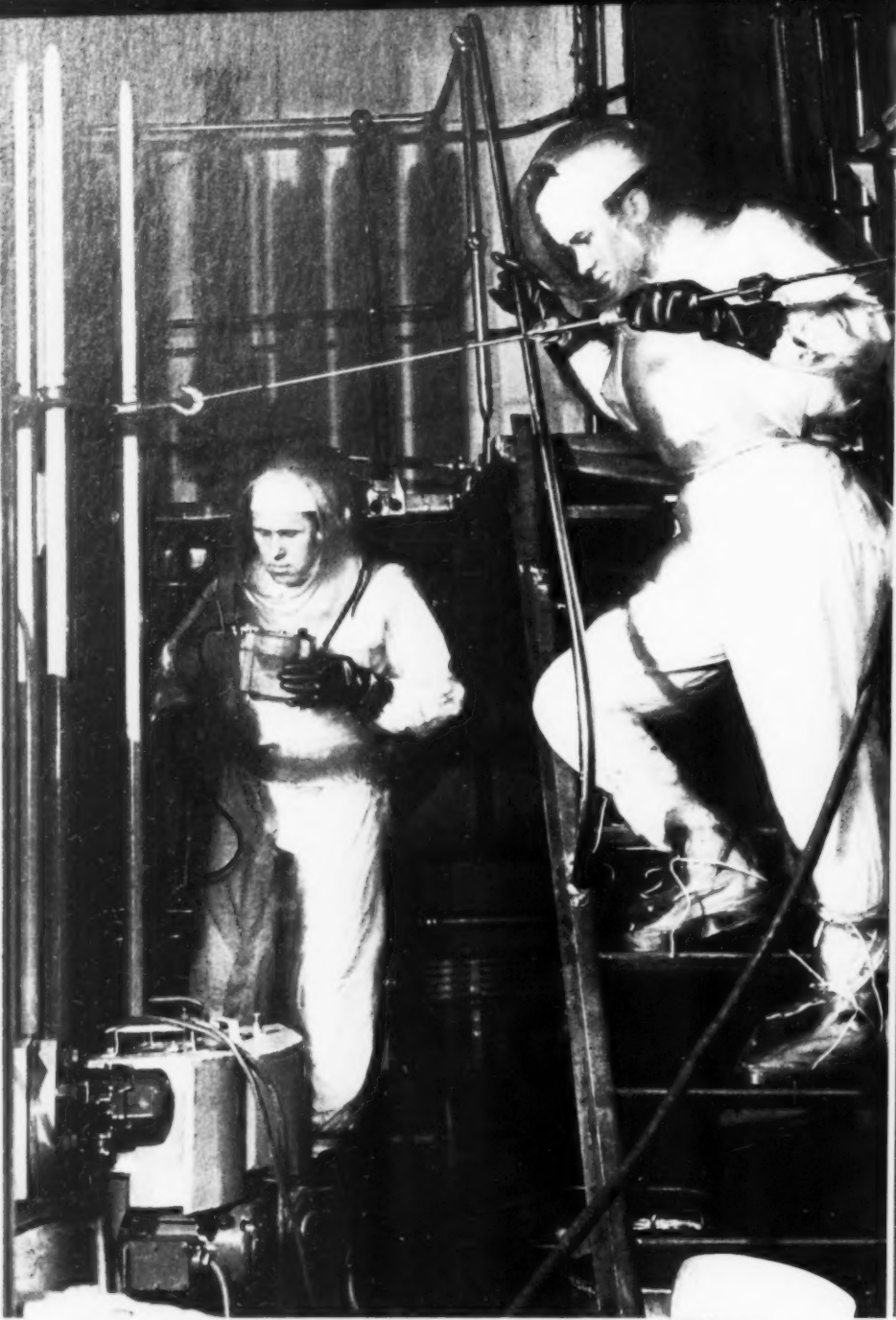
The ship did an ice reconnaissance cruise of the Northern Sea Route to open these waters for navigation. Aboard were a large party of scientists from the Arctic and Antarctic Institute and other research centers to check the ship and its mechanisms operating under severe Arctic conditions.

All the theoretical calculations on the basis of which the ship was designed were validated. The ice reconnaissance demonstrated that the *Lenin* can break through ice of any thickness. She was able to cut through a three-foot layer at a speed of 12 to 14 knots to open a 100- to 115-foot canal behind her, wide enough for any modern ship to move through.

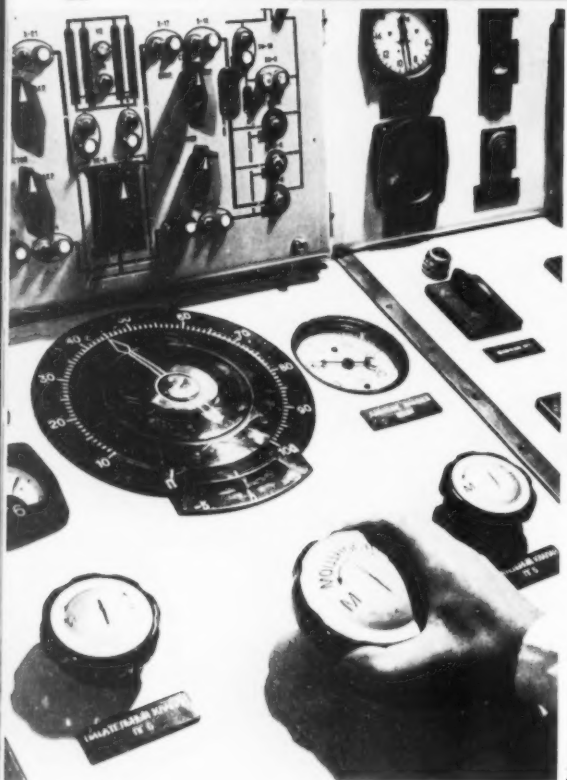
There is no icebreaker functioning today that comes anywhere near matching this. The *Lenin* subsequently plowed through thick ice stretches of the Northern Sea route to cut a route for the icebreakers *Moshva*, *Krasin*, *Yermak* and several others. More than forty river ships followed in their wake day and night. The pioneering convoy, first in Arctic history, voyaged 250 miles through the ice in six days.

The atom ship *Lenin* is a powerful weapon in the hands of the Soviet people in their struggle against the severe nature of the Arctic.





1. Nuclear engineers Yuri Granchin and Vasili Serov keep a vigilant instrument check on the radiation in the atom ship's central compartment. 2. Control desk for the Lenin's atomic reactor. 3. & 4. The icebreaker was powered for the entire Arctic cruise by about 500 grams of nuclear fuel. The bottle holds that much. It did the job of some 250 oil tanks of the size shown in the photo below. 5. One of the four turbines in the ship. Their total capacity is 44,000 horsepower. 6. Seaman Ivan Teterin does his homework en route. He is taking a course by correspondence at the Arctic and Antarctic Institute. 7. The ship's personnel — sailors and scientists — get together to rehearse for a show. 8. New kind of sailors for a new kind of ship. These two young chemists are testing water taken from the reactor. 9. Arctic soccer.





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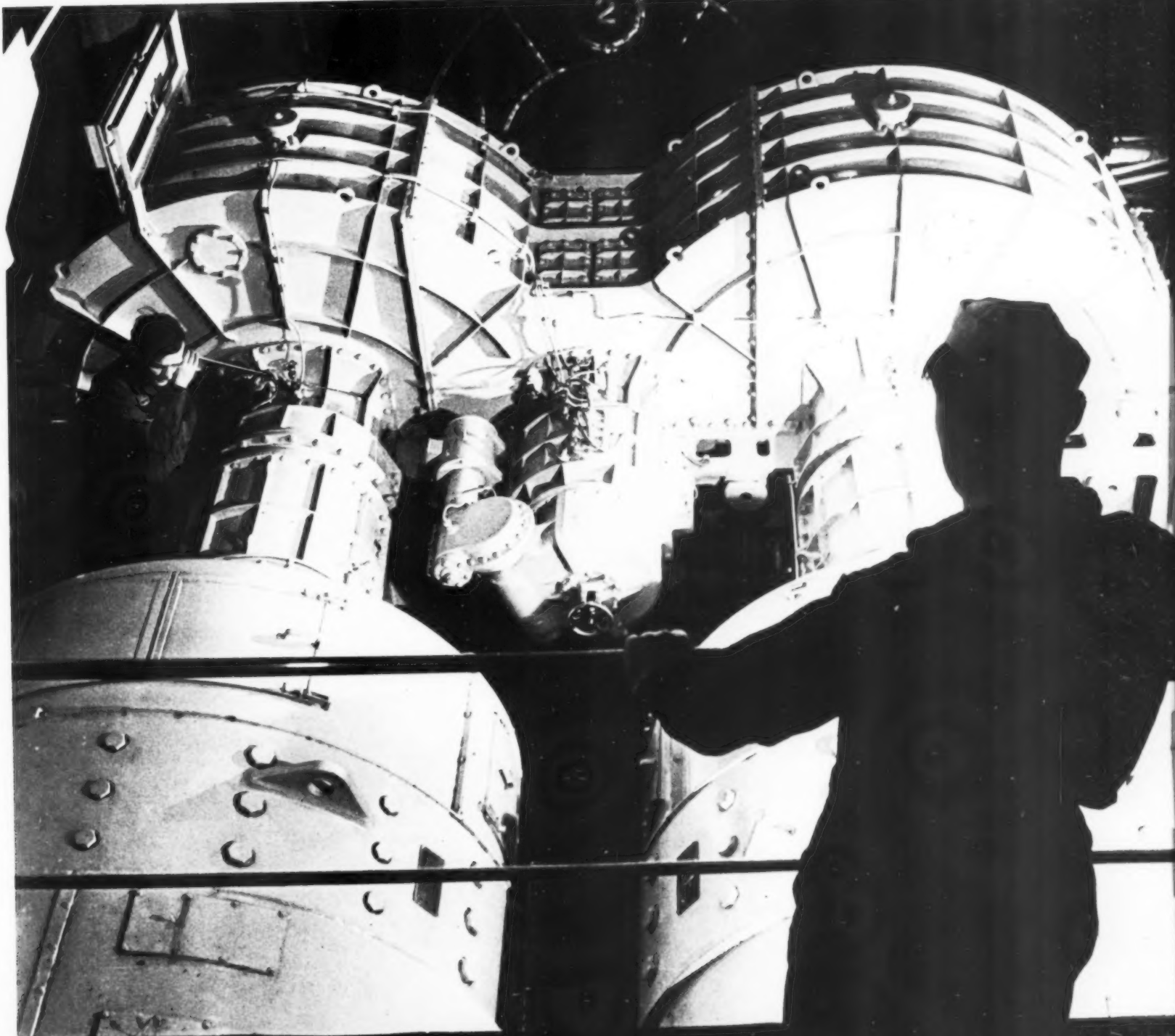


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Happy New Year



For More Fruitful Cooperation

*Viktor Gorshkov
Vice President of the Presidium,
Union of Societies for Friendship and
Cultural Relations with Foreign
Countries*

ON BEHALF of the many thousands of Soviet people in our Union of Societies for Friendship and Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries I extend the heartiest New Year's wishes to the American people. Ours is one of the largest public organizations in the Soviet Union. Its purpose is to promote friendship and understanding with people in all countries. Our union cooperates with organizations and individuals in 112 countries.

We are pleased that in the year just past we have been able to expand our contact with Americans, whose creative genius we respect and admire. We have excellent relation with such organizations as the American Friends Service Committee, the American National Theater and Academy, the International Institute for Advanced Study of the Theater Arts, the Exchange Fund and many other scientific and cultural centers. We have been host to such distinguished Americans as Eleanor Roosevelt, Carl Sandburg, Cyrus Eaton, Rockwell Kent, Robert Dowling, Norman Cousins, Leopold Stokowski and Robert Whitehead.

We are grateful to Americans for the hospitality shown to Nina Popova, president of the presidium of our society, film director Sergei Gerasimov, Academician Ivan Artobolevsky, astronomer Alla Masevich and others of our representatives who visited the United States.

We hope that Soviet-American relations and cultural contacts between our two countries will continue to expand during the next year. It would be desirable to use every opportunity to create societies for cultural contacts. We, in our country, are preparing to set up a Soviet-American Society as one additional means for cementing friendly relations.

Happy New Year, friends! I wholeheartedly wish you happiness and success. Let us continue to cooperate in the new year.



THEY STUDY IN THE SOVIET UNION

By Pyotr Dmitriev
Photos by Leonid Lazarev

STUDENTS from 42 countries meet in the classrooms and laboratories of Moscow University. The Lenin Hills section of the capital's Southwest, where the towering university structure stands, at times has all the polyglot feeling and flavor of a young people's Mecca.

Students from practically every nation in the world are enrolled in the 14 departments staffed by a faculty of 2,000 that includes 400 eminent professors. The university's total student body runs upward of 25,000.

Foreign students and their Soviet friends form a single close-knit family. Young people applying for entrance to Soviet colleges do not have to hurdle barriers of race, nationality, sex, religion or property status.

As a rule, foreign students take five or six years to complete their studies. Some come to the Soviet Union for graduate work—twelve months is the usual time—or for their final year of professional training.

Inter-governmental agreements on student and graduate exchanges for one academic year have been made by the Soviet government with the United States, Britain, France, Italy, Sweden and other countries.

Moscow University is not the only school for higher education open to foreigners; there are dozens of others in many Soviet cities. This year a new one, Friendship University,

specifically addressed to foreign students, opened its doors in the capital. It will train 4,000 students from Asia, Africa and Latin America each year.

As in all other Soviet schools, tuition in Friendship University is free, and students are given maintenance scholarships and dormitory accommodations. Even their traveling expenses are covered by the university. They major in one of the several departments—engineering, agriculture, medicine, physics and mathematics, the natural sciences, history and philology, economics and law. Friendship University has become so popular among the youth throughout the world that this fall the entrance committee of the University received and processed more than 28,000 applications from young men and women in 70 countries.

The college years are memorable for foreign students in the Soviet Union. They take back to their native countries not only a diploma or a degree, not only theoretical and practical knowledge, but warm recollections of lasting friendships that cut across time and distance. The letters received from former students by instructors make this point with deep feeling.

Here are brief descriptions of the life and studies of three of the 1,700 foreign students who have come to Moscow University from various countries in Asia, Africa and Europe.



New Year



For More Fruitful Cooperation

Yakov Dzhigalov

First Deputy of the President, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries

On the eve of the New Year, the Soviet people are preparing to bid adieu to an old year of struggle for peace and cultural relations with foreign countries. I would like to wish the New Year wishes to the American people. They are one of the best and most important ones in the Soviet Union. It is pleasant to think about the past year's cooperation with people in all countries. The Soviet Government will do everything to help you to do it in 1952.

We are pleased that in the past year you have been able to expand your contact with the Soviet Union. We have had an important and fruitful relation with such organizations as the American Friends Society, Commission on American National Progress and Action, the International Institute for Advanced Study of the Theater Arts, the Friendship Fund and many other scientific and cultural centers. We have been glad to send distinguished Americans as Lenin Prize winners and scholars. Some of them, such as Robert Lynd, Norman Cousins, Joseph W. Kugel and Helen Whitehead.

We are pleased to know that you have been able to visit the Soviet Union. The first group of American students and teachers visited the Soviet Union in 1949. They were followed by American and French artists, writers and scientists. The Moscow and other Soviet universities also visited the United States.

We hope that Soviet-American relations and cultural relations between our two countries will become even closer during the next year. We are glad to see that you have opportunity to expand your scientific contacts. We are also glad to see that you are able to visit the Soviet Union.

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THEY STUDY IN THE SOVIET UNION

By Pyotr Dmitriev
Photos by Leonid Lazarev

STUDENTS from 42 countries meet in the classrooms and laboratories of Moscow University. The Lenin Hills section of the capital's Southwest, where the towering university structure stands, at times has all the polyglot feeling and flavor of a young people's Mecca.

Students from practically every nation in the world are enrolled in the 14 departments staffed by a faculty of 2,000 that includes 400 eminent professors. The university's total student body runs upward of 25,000.

Foreign students and their Soviet friends form a single close-knit family. Young people applying for entrance to Soviet colleges do not have to hurdle barriers of race, nationality, sex, religion or property status.

As a rule, foreign students take five or six years to complete their studies. Some come to the Soviet Union for graduate work—twelve months is the usual time—or for their final year of professional training.

Inter-governmental agreements on student and graduate exchanges for one academic year have been made by the Soviet government with the United States, Britain, France, Italy, Sweden and other countries.

Moscow University is not the only school for higher education open to foreigners; there are dozens of others in many Soviet cities. This year a new one, Friendship University,

specifically addressed to foreign students, opened its doors in the capital. It will train 4,000 students from Asia, Africa and Latin America each year.

As in all other Soviet schools, tuition in Friendship University is free, and students are given maintenance scholarships and dormitory accommodations. Even their traveling expenses are covered by the university. They major in one of the several departments—engineering, agriculture, medicine, physics and mathematics, the natural sciences, history and philology, economics and law. Friendship University has become so popular among the youth throughout the world that this fall the entrance committee of the University received and processed more than 28,000 applications from young men and women in 70 countries.

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LETTERS FLY TO ITALY

BRUNA ZACHINI is a cheerful girl who has innumerable Soviet friends in the Economics Department where she is studying. Her parents are tenant farmers in Bologna. Bruna is in her fifth and final year and will soon be returning to her large family in Italy. Her parents and friends are very proud that their shy little Bruna will be returning home with a degree to work as an economist. Anyone who doubts it will immediately be shown the letters she writes from Moscow almost every week.

"When I first came," says Bruna, "I did not know a single Russian word and it was quite a job to make myself understood. I was helped by my Russian friends who volunteered to teach me the language. And they did.

"We foreign students are treated with warmth and friendliness. I have my own room for which I pay a trifling 35 rubles out of my monthly scholarship allowance of 900 rubles. I get along fine on that. For instance, a good dinner in the student dining room is only 5-6 rubles. Textbooks and other literature can be borrowed from the library for an indefinite period. There is no charge at all for this.

"Our dormitory has all the necessary facilities—a laundry room where we wash and iron our things, and a good kitchen where I taught my Russian friends to cook spaghetti. There is a lounge on every floor with a TV set and a piano where we entertain friends. We also have a club where we dance evenings and see the new films.

"Our Italian Students' Association gave an amateur concert at the club not long ago that everybody liked. The association is a permanent body and in a democratic way discusses and settles whatever problems come up concerning every aspect of life of the Italian students."

Bruna is now busy preparing her graduation thesis on the evolution of the metayer system in Italy. This is her first serious piece of independent research, and she spends whole days in the history division of the library.

While the Soviet higher schools open their doors, laboratories and libraries to the foreign students, they do not interfere in their way of thinking. Foreign students are free to observe their national or religious rites. They also have complete freedom of choice as to whether they wish to attend the lectures in the social sciences—dialectical materialism, history of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, political economy, etc.—that are compulsory for Soviet students.

Bruna Zachini, like many other foreign students, decided to spend her vacation last summer in the Soviet Union instead of going home. And she doesn't regret the decision for a minute. The university made all the arrangements. With Soviet and foreign friends she spent a month at the university holiday resort where students get their accommodations free. Then she took an interesting trip through the Caucasus and stayed for the remainder of her vacation at a rest home for students on the Black Sea coast.



A STUDENT FROM THE WHITE NILE

AT a student party El-Sammani Jakub recited this very familiar verse from Lermontov in perfect Russian:

*Long since I craved to leave my cage,
Walk through the fields and see the
world,*

*If it's as splendid as I heard;
To find out whether we are born
To sing and laugh or just to mourn.*

He came from the Sudan three years ago to study physics at Moscow University. He says, "I am very fond of nineteenth century Russian poets, and Mikhail Lermontov is my favorite. In my spare time I've been translating his wonderful poem *The Circassian Boy* into my native language. Ever since I can remember, I've wanted to find out 'if the world's as splendid as I heard.' The African people, I'm deeply convinced, are really born to 'sing and laugh' in freedom, not to 'mourn' in slavery."

Sammani is one of eleven children in the family of a Sudanese farmer. He loves his homeland and can go on talking for hours about his childhood spent on the banks of the deep White Nile.

To study at a university and develop his gifts for mathematics is a long cherished

dream of his. He will be graduating as a physicist and will very likely, so his professors predict, make a name for himself in the field. He is a leading spirit in the university's Student Research Society whose members do independent research of their own under the guidance of a professor. There are student research groups of this kind in every department.

Besides all this, Sammani seems to find time to read a great deal of Russian poetry. His grasp of the language is astonishing for a foreigner.

He is now working in nuclear physics, very likely the first person from his country to be doing research in the field. Sammani says, "I admire my professors, who are some of the biggest names in physics, electrodynamics and differential equations—men like Academicians Kikoin and Leontovich, Professors Matveyev and Khapayev."

Soviet professors are very much concerned with fostering the abilities and talents of their students. They give every student as much time and individual attention as he needs.

In his study group there are Soviet students from different cities and republics—an Uzbek and a Tajik, a Kazakh and a Ukrain-

ian—and foreign students besides himself—a Nepalese and a Hindu, a Bulgarian and a Frenchman. Sammani particularly appreciates the spirit of cooperation and friendliness among the students. They are always ready to help one another, and they all work, study and spend their free time together.

Sammani and his dormitory neighbor Alexander Kolomiitsev, who comes from Central Asia, are engaged in an odd kind of competition—to see which one of them reads more of the many millions of books in the Lenin Library. In consideration of the fact that this is Moscow's biggest book repository, they decided to leave the time limit open.

Alexander has been teaching Sammani how to ski, quite a sport for a young man who never saw snow before coming to the USSR.

Sammani likes to tell how he happened to be guide and interpreter for Sydney Chapman when the noted English physicist visited the university. They became very friendly and soon shared the opinion that the Physics Department of Moscow University was among the world's best. On his return home Professor Chapman sent the young Sudanese scientist with a great future a copy of a new book on terrestrial magnetism.



HE'LL BECOME A GEOLOGIST



TO FIND Djoyo Sukleya, a student from Indonesia, after class hours you look for him at the open-air swimming pool right near the campus. The pool and various other athletic facilities, together with instruction and expert coaching, are available to all students at no charge.

Djoyo chose geophysics as his specialty. It's a new and very important science, particularly for a country like his, with natural resources that have to be searched for in heavy jungle terrain. Geophysics makes it possible to carry on geological prospecting for minerals with such precise techniques as electric and radio surveying.

Theoretical study is linked very closely with practice in all Soviet schools, something for which Djoyo is most grateful. He has taken part in two geological expeditions to the Crimean Mountains and the Black Sea shore. The university encourages the student to acquire practical skill and experience. That background is going to be very valuable to Djoyo when he gets back home to work.

He spent his last summer vacation at home. In Djakarta and other places people were most interested in his impressions of the Soviet Union, the way people lived and worked. He told them that he particularly liked the sincerity, warmth and hospitality of the Soviet people. "Beginning with the Rector of Moscow University and ending with the first-year student, they couldn't have been more cordial and friendly. Their friendship and cooperation are a real spur to study. The students feel that it wouldn't be right to let us lag behind our Soviet friends, and they're always ready to help us over the rough spots."

Some of his compatriots have married Soviet girls, he added, and there isn't one of them who is sorry. Djoyo expects to join the happy fraternity soon. His bride to be is also a student; she came to Moscow from the distant Caribbean. Their common language is Russian. They met at Moscow University, which has become a second home for these many students from foreign lands.



The new Friendship University in the capital opened its doors this fall. Addressed specifically to young men and women from Asia, Africa and Latin America, it will train 4,000 students yearly.



Young people from many nations vacationed at the Vinnitsa student camp in the Ukraine. Shorr Hersh of the USA (left) and Britisher David Hilley give their autographs to local school children.

AT FRIENDSHIP UNIVERSITY



For Ibrahim Fadim from Iraq skiing is a brand-new but very interesting pastime. There's no snow where he comes from.



Soviet student Dmitri Zagorsky (right) with classmates from Iraq. Foreign students get a monthly stipend besides free tuition.



Pierre Kamin tries out his Russian on some young friends. He came from the Cameroons to study at Moscow University.



Gabriel Amirash from Rumania is studying at Moscow Conservatory under the noted Professor Stanislav Neugaus.

Liz Christensen is from Denmark. Russian is part of her course of study at a Leningrad school of ballet.



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DOCTOR ON CALL

By Yuri Gofsky

Photos by Alexei Bryanov



(Above) Nurse Alla Tavrova follows up on the district doctor's call. If the case is infectious, she will check on the whole family.

(Upper right) Iraida Kulkova is one of the 14 doctors at the Zhigulevsk polyclinic who care for the district's 16,000 residents.

(Right) Besides her usual calls, the doctor keeps an eye on the elderly folk. A home visit with pensioner Boris Bogoyavlenski.



People—sick and well—who live in Iraida Kulkova's district in Zhigulevsk, a town on the Volga, call her "our district doctor." She is one of that large body of general practitioners whose province is a town or city neighborhood. Her patients are the young and the old, and her medical knowledge, like that of most general practitioners, needs to be almost encyclopedic.

In a typical working day she will be required to diagnose and treat a half dozen widely different ailments. The job would be impossible were it not for the fact that Dr. Kulkova has at her command the knowledge of specialists in every branch of medicine, an excellently equipped hospital for the sick and a sanatorium for the convalescent. The state spends an average of 100,000 to 130,000 rubles a year to supply free medical facilities for a district like hers.

YEVDOKIA BYKOVA left word at the hospital asking the doctor to call. The patient has slept badly, has a metallic taste in her mouth and feels weak all over.

Dr. Kulkova begins an unhurried and thorough examination. She has a quiet voice, soothing hands and a good bedside manner. She is especially gentle with this patient. Yevdokia's husband, an engineer who helped build the Volga Hydroelectric Station, died a few months ago of cancer. Both surgery and X-ray had been ineffective. She had treated the husband before and after his operation.

Yevdokia answered the doctor's questions. But suddenly she burst into tears.

"What is it, my dear? Has anything happened?" the doctor asked.

"Oh doctor, I'm not sick at all. It's just that I miss my husband so much. I'm so sorry I made you come to the house."

"Well, that's where you're wrong. You were right to call me. You have the beginnings of quinsy."

The doctor sees that Yevdokia gets into bed and is comfortable. They talk for a while before Dr. Kulkova glances at her watch to find that the call has taken 40 minutes. Now she must get on.

She hasn't far to go fortunately, just down the street, to the apartment of a truck driver by the name of Grigori Sukhanov who is in the hospital with dysentery. The disease is infectious and the doctor has to examine the other members of his family.

While she's doing that, district nurse Alla Tavrova—they call her the doctor's shadow—comes in to disinfect the apartment. In case of dysentery the patient's home has to be disinfected seven days running. Dr. Kulkova knew the nurse would not miss a single day. Not only that, but even after the patient recovered, she'd keep him and his family under observation for six months. The nurse also checks the temperature of Sukhanov's wife and children and gives them a supply of anti-infection tablets.

A Chronic Case

The next patient on her list, Mannivalet Iskakov, suffers from chronic rheumatism. He works at an asphalt factory and his ailment was detected a year ago at one of the periodic physical checkups given to the employees. The factory polyclinic sent the diagnosis to the city hospital and Iskakov was registered for treatment.

Like all chronic sufferers, his rheumatism is more acute at one time, less at another; it operates in cycles. When he doesn't show up at the clinic for a long stretch, Dr. Kulkova generally calls up to find out how he's doing. In the fall and spring when he has bad sieges, she gives him alleviative treatment. Sometimes it helps. When it doesn't, he takes to his bed and phones for her.

That's the case today. Dr. Kulkova can see that the man is in great pain.

"We'll put you in the hospital," the doctor says, "and see what we can do for you. I think the best thing would be to send you to a sanatorium."

Most of the people in Dr. Kulkova's district work at the Volga Hydroelectric Station or outlying factories. She knows all of them and feels

personally responsible for the state of each one's health. "More so than they do themselves," jokes house painter Victor Churkin of 92 Peschnaya Street. In 1958 he developed a stomach ulcer and was given a long course of treatment. He was taken to Kuibyshev to be looked over by specialists and was transferred to a less taxing job at the same wages. He seems to be getting along fine, but she insists on his coming in for a checkup at regular intervals.

Pavel Sobol, a teacher, is another patient who has reason to say that Dr. Kulkova is more concerned with his health than he is himself. He first went to see her about pains in his chest. Dr. Kulkova diagnosed his case as stenocardia. It was caught early, and with treatment he grew better, so much better that Sobol decided he was healthy and stopped coming. Dr. Kulkova laid down the law to him and insisted that he finish the course of treatment. He goes to her office once a month regularly, and if he doesn't, she wants to know why.

The Aged

There are quite a number of people of advanced age in Dr. Kulkova's district and she makes a practice of visiting one of them each day. This time she calls on Boris Bogoyavlensky and his wife.

He's a tall wiry old man of 72 with a cropped black mustache. He helped build the hydroelectric station and then worked as a house-builder until he retired on pension. At one time he suffered from myocardial infarct and had been hospitalized. He's fine now but the doctor likes to make sure.

His wife also has a heart complaint. She spent three years in a concentration camp the Hitlerites set up in Byelorussia during the Second World War and it was then her heart went bad. The doctor looks her over carefully and although the old woman seems perfectly well, Dr. Kulkova arranges for her to have a thorough checkup at the hospital the next day just to make doubly sure.

Consultation

That done, Dr. Kulkova hurries to 28 Lermontov Street where she has asked a number of specialists to meet with her for a consultation on a serious case—twenty-year-old assembly worker Anatoli Parakhnevich, who has been completely crippled. By all the rules of medicine his is a hopeless case. But the young man has so much will to live, so much unbeatable courage, that he won't accept the medical verdict. He has been seen by specialists in Kuibyshev, and the eminent internist Professor Boris Grinberg has visited him and worked out a course of treatment. At the patient's bedside Dr. Kulkova finds Nina Orlova, chief of the city polyclinic; Vladimir Berelkovsky, pathologist; Valeri Mizerovsky, head surgeon of the polyclinic; and chief internist Valentina Kabanina. They examine the patient together, study his radiographs and agree that the disease is slowly retreating. It's still a long pull but one that the young man will make, if he and his district doctor, Iraida Kulkova, have anything to say about it.

The Family

This is the doctor's last call for the day. Three hours in the office at the polyclinic, three hours visiting patients and the workday is over for Iraida Kulkova. Her work brings her in close contact with other people's ailments and she has a tendency to forget about herself. But on the way home she remembers with a feeling of satisfaction and pleasure that her husband will be waiting with their two lovable little daughters.

The district doctor enjoys her domestic responsibilities quite as much as she does her work. After dinner she plays with the children, and when they've been tucked in bed she and her husband, a surgeon at the Zhigulevsk oil workers' hospital, exchange the day's happenings.

Dr. Kulkova has been working in Zhigulevsk for four years now. She went there after graduating from the Kuibyshev Medical Institute. The work isn't easy, but it's the kind she likes—keeping people healthy and helping to make them well when they are ill.



Like any general practitioner, Dr. Kulkova is likely to have to diagnose and treat half a dozen widely different ailments in a typical working day. A consultation at the home of a patient.

The district doctor (extreme right) assists at an operation. Dr. Kulkova can command the services of specialists, a well-equipped hospital for the sick and a sanatorium for those convalescing.



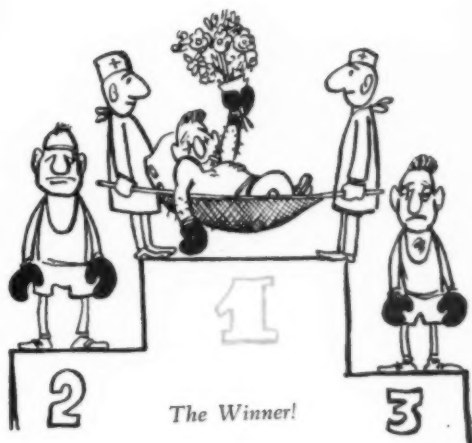
HU R



"You're sure it's not a boy?"



"He jumped me!"



The Winner!



Weather Prophet.



"Waiting long?"

Happy New Year



For a Year of Friendship

Nikolai Belov
Member, USSR Academy of Sciences

FOR RESEARCH scientists a year, even one as full of discoveries as this one, is a relatively short time by which to measure progress. That is true in my own field, crystallography. At the Institute of Crystallography of the USSR Academy of Sciences we use complicated mathematical computations for our studies of the internal nature of crystals and the laws of their formation. This year, we have been trying, with some success, to work out ways of using electronic computers in our investigations.

As is our custom, we share our scientific findings with our foreign colleagues. I made one of the five principal reports at the International Congress of Crystallographers held in Cambridge, England, this August. At the congress we discussed a broad range of research problems and exchanged views with scientists from the United States, France, and Great Britain.

The meetings gave me the welcome opportunity to talk once again with colleagues I had met in January when I visited the United States under the exchange program worked out by the American and Soviet Academies of Sciences.

During my trip I lectured and delivered reports at thirteen major research centers. My meetings with American scientists were most informative. I visited the laboratory of Dr. Linus Pauling and was greatly impressed with his bold and creative approach in applying crystallographic methods in analyzing the nature of anesthetics. I was also very much interested in a new theory of the location of mountains on the earth's surface advanced by Dr. George Kennedy.

I recall with pleasure meetings with other American scientists—Raymond Pepinsky, William Zachariassen, David Harker, Martin Burger, Clifford Frondel. I should like to wish them a very happy year to come and continued success in their work. And for all of us—a year of friendship, peace and continued scientific exchanges between the United States and the Soviet Union.



The atmospheric zone critical for future space travel is explored with these rocket probes.

The ship's 16 laboratories research the atmosphere and the ocean depths.

By Alexei Golikov

WE ARE ON THE DECK of a floating laboratory, the weather ship *Y. M. Shokalsky*, built for the USSR Hydrometeorological Service to investigate the upper reaches of the atmosphere and the ocean depths.

The ship, quiet except for the throb of engines, cuts through the waves. But the quiet is tense, suspended. The crew is set to launch a meteorological rocket; the radar beam is already aimed at the part of the sky across which the rocket is to pass.

"Attention! Fire!" comes the clipped command over the ship's radio, and a jet of flame and fire-red smoke shoots out of the rocket launching installation in the fore part of the ship. For a fraction of a second the rocket seems to hang suspended in the sky, for another second or two you see its fiery tail. Then that too vanishes, leaving only an intricately curved white track in the sky.

As the rocket travels along, it signals data on temperature and air pressure and on solar radiation to the ship's radio receiver. At an alti-

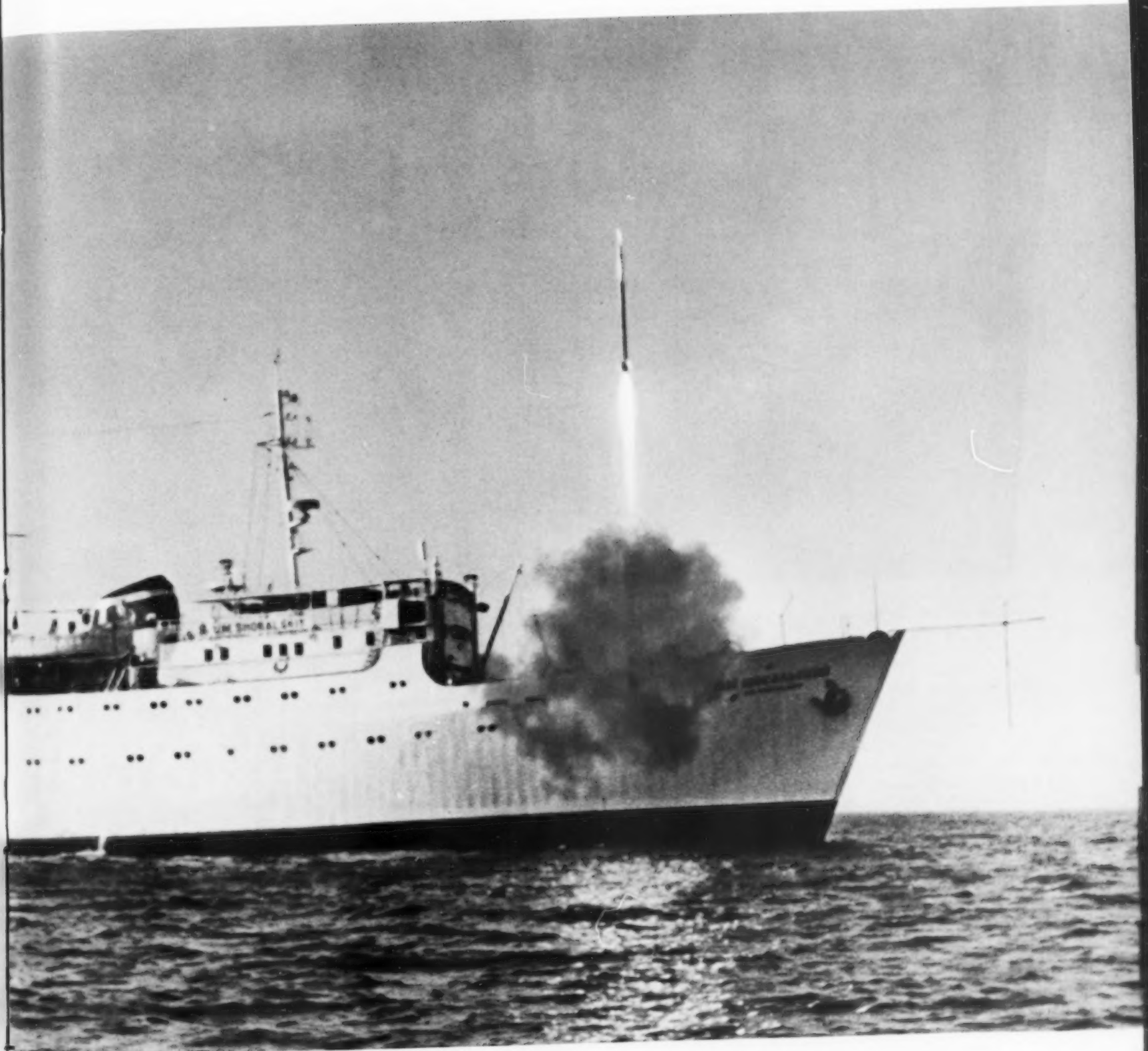
tude of 50 miles the nose cone with its instruments separates from the body and is parachuted to earth. The entire flight is tracked by radar.

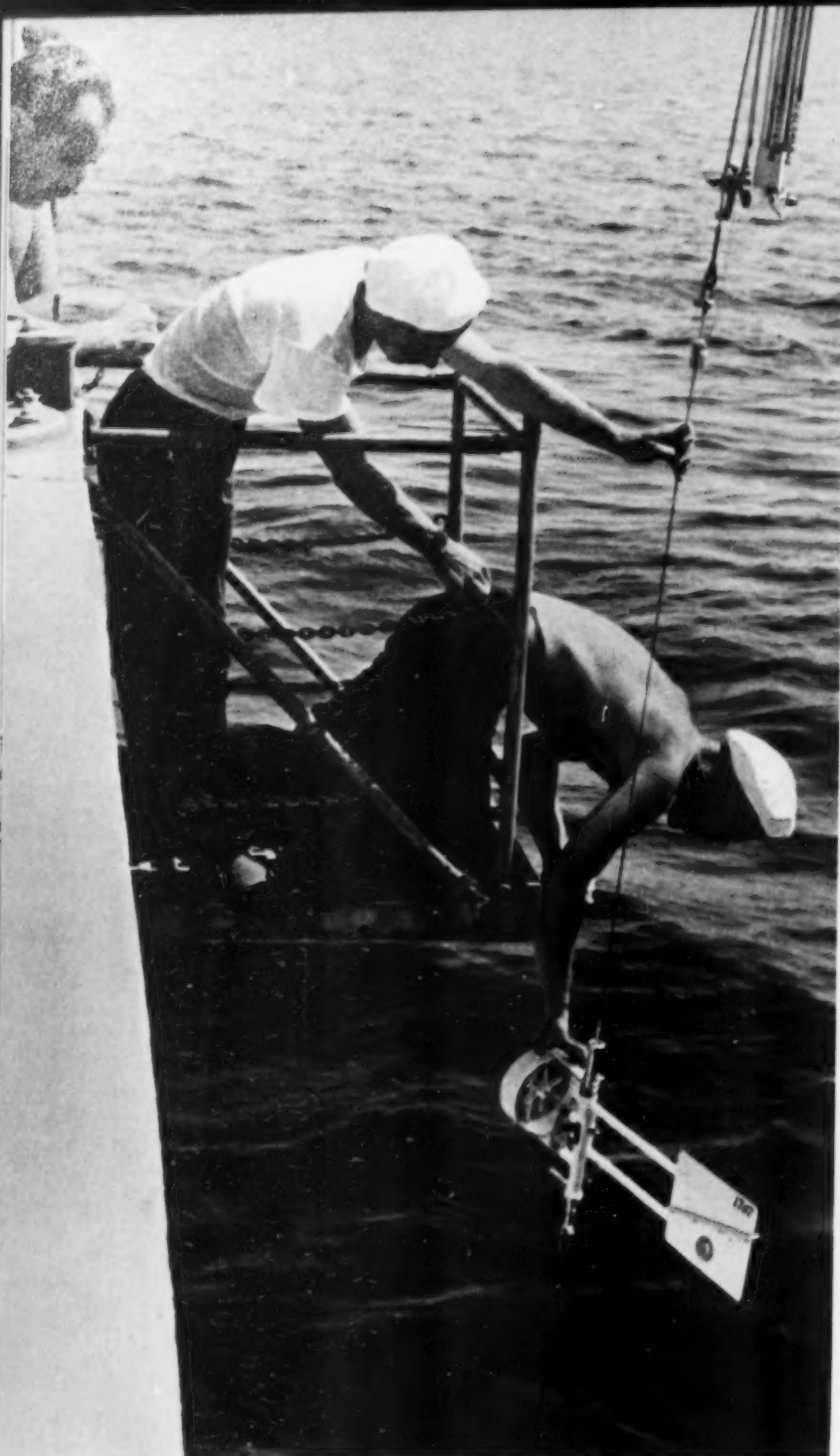
The Critical Middle Zone

Georgi Golyshev, director of the ship's aerological observatory, gives us some background information. "Meteorological rockets," he explains, "are the only means we have of penetrating that zone of the atmosphere lying between 25 and 125 miles above the earth. Radiozondes cannot reach an altitude of more than 18 to 21 miles. Sputniks, on the other hand, cannot give us data on altitudes below 125 miles because they burn up when they reach the denser air at that level. We must find out the characteristics of this middle zone if we are to guarantee the safe return of future space travelers."

Soviet scientists started probing the atmosphere with rockets as far back as 1951. Later, during the International Geophysical Year, many

WEATHER SHIP





Investigating waves, currents, swells and the temperature and salt concentration of the sea.



Soviet scientists began these rocket atmosphere probes in 1951. An instrument check.

rocket probes were made in various parts of the globe—in the Amundsen Sea, near Easter Island, and in the tropical latitudes of the Atlantic.

These probes helped Soviet scientists establish the fact that the temperature of the air surrounding our planet changes radically with distance from the earth's surface. At first it falls gradually. Then comes a frigid belt with a constant minus 55-65 degrees centigrade. Beyond an altitude of 12.5 miles, however, the temperature begins to rise, until it reaches the ceiling of 15 degrees centigrade. This is due to ozone, the earth's wonderful gas shield that protects all living things from the deadly effects of ultraviolet rays.

Studying the Sea

Physicist Nikolai Kucherov tells us: "The processes that occur in the atmosphere actually start on the surface of the planet. That's why we study the sea and its thermal balance." The weather ship has 16 laboratories where hydrologists, aerologists, meteorologists and geophysicists carry on their work.

In the hydrology laboratory geographers Alexei Muromtsev and

Yelizaveta Karakash study sea waves, swells and currents and determine the temperature and salt concentration of water at different depths.

The people in the aerology laboratory study the data gathered by the radiozonde launchings.

The isotope laboratory is walled off from the rest of the ship by thick lead plates. There physicist Lena Krichenko takes regular measurements of the radioactivity in the air, sediment and sea water.

The *Shokalsky*, a fine seaworthy ship equipped with the very latest in navigation and piloting instruments, chooses its own cruising area.

Quarters for the crew and scientists are commodious and well ventilated. The large library carries technical literature and a representative collection of fiction.

Signal for the end of the working day on board the research ship is a motorboat lowered for those who want a swim before dinner. Researchers and sailors off duty play chess, lift weights, listen to music, or sing songs around the piano in the mess room.

When the sun goes down, all lights on the ship are turned off except those in the weather forecaster's quarters, where the forecast for the next day is being compiled.



(Far left) Evenings are for chess, books and never-ending talk about things meteorological.

(Left) The research day's end is signaled by an ocean swim, an impromptu shower and dinner.

(Below) Readyng an atmosphere probe. The nose cone with instruments is parachuted to earth.



By Evnika Svetlanova

The Girl From THE WATCH FACTORY

THE YOUNG FELLOW used to go to the post office every day to get his mail, but even after he'd get a letter he'd wait around. The reason for his dallying was the neighboring window, or, to be exact, the girl who worked there, the telephone operator. Her thin, nimble fingers kept pulling the long wires and crossing them in a way only she understood. She'd connect plant and warehouse, storeroom and factory, one person with another. The young man would have given anything in the world to have been able to speak to the girl, but how could he arrange it? He had found out many things about her—that her name was Galina, that she had graduated from high school, that she was planning to leave her job very soon. That meant there would come a day when he would appear at the post office as usual to get his mail, but instead of Galina, there would be another operator pulling away at those wires.

And so he finally mustered all his courage, went over to the girl, and said: "My name is Ivan. I should very much like to know you." His voice was barely audible, and he shoved his head so far through the little window that it seemed as though he would never be able to pull it out again.

Galina went over to the window, and a pair of light, meditative yet stern eyes gazed right up at him. Soft wavy hair framed her high forehead. Her eyes suddenly looked warmer, and a slight smile lit up her youthful face.

"I've noticed you," Galina said. "You come here every day, don't you?" And the girl blushed a deep red.

Ivan hadn't spoken a minute too soon. Galina was expected to begin work at the watch factory the next day.

At 17 it's not easy to decide what you want to do with your life. But there was one thing Galina was sure of—she liked detail and precision. That's why she enjoyed working with the telephone wires and buttons. But that really wasn't what she was most interested in.

She would listen to the ticking of her wrist watch, right beside her, on her own hand. Its faint, rhythmic beat always gave Galina the strange feeling that the watch was a living thing, always moving and very wise. How was it made? And how could so many little wheels, springs, and screws be collected in such a tiny space and be made to move? Galina

wanted to learn how to make watches, and so she decided to go to the watch factory and learn the trade.

Time Pieces by The Millions

The first day on the job a foreman took Galina through the factory. The tour began with a room he called the museum where the different kinds of watches the factory had manufactured over the years were displayed in chronological order. There were those with thick cases and big hands made 30 years ago. As time went on they kept getting thinner, more streamlined and more elegant. The hands were of all colors, some were iridescent blue, the color of a fly's wing; the most recent was an almost imperceptible golden thread that crossed the minute dial of a delicate lady's watch.

The foreman told her that the Soviet watch industry produced 25 million timepieces every year and that by 1965 annual production would be 35 million. He showed her square, round and triangular watches; sturdy ones for everyday wear and delicate ones for gifts; watches with calendars and stop watches; and others for special uses.

Then he led her through the shops. She watched an automatic transfer line that transformed the rough wire into the beginnings of screws, axles and other fine parts. Every piece of metal had to go through hundreds of operations and checks before it became part of the driving mechanism that turned the hands of a watch.

Galina couldn't get enough of watching the way the automatic machine picked up the microscopic parts, processed them and placed them in precise position. "Not so very long ago," the foreman explained, "before Soviet engineers designed these machines, our people here did all this by hand."

In the assembly shop the operators were all girls. They worked at the big conveyor with easy practiced movements. The foreman explained that the factory was the first one in the industry to install a conveyor setup. It had raised output and made the work easier at the same time.

When the bell sounded announcing that work had begun, the girls all took their places at the conveyors. Each one placed a dark magnifying glass on her forehead. It seemed to Galina that swarms of spring





On Sunday watchmaker Galina just lets the time roll by. She's off for a stroll in the country.

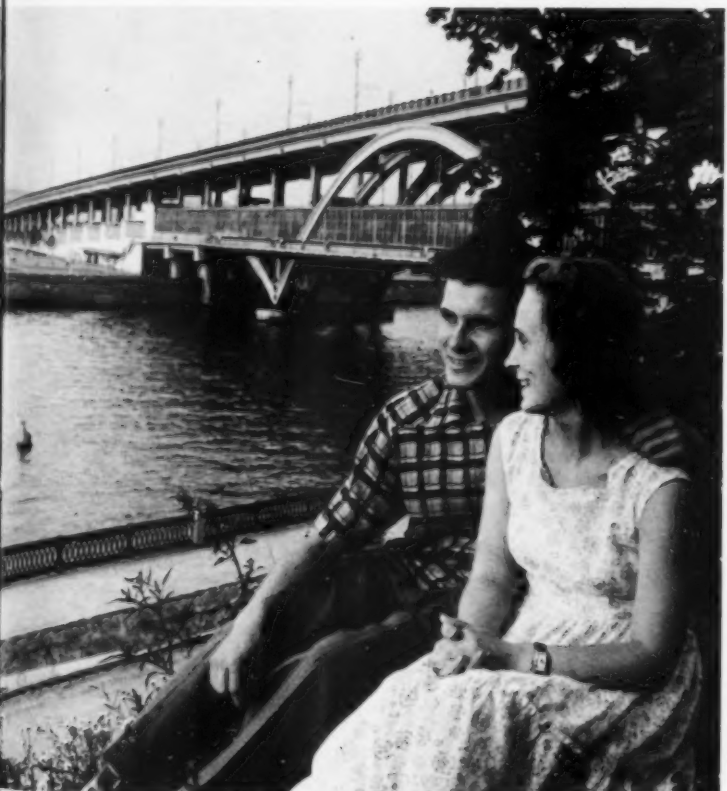
In this shop skilled hands and modern equipment assemble the tiny parts that go to make up the perfect timepiece.



(Left) Time is a precious commodity. Galina doesn't waste hers. She's studying for college entrance exams.

(Center) One of the electronic instruments in this up-to-the-minute factory checks for split-second accuracy.

(Bottom) Galina's free time is for Ivan. They spend a great deal of it planning their future life together.



bees had come flying down above hundreds of beehives and were fussing about in their cells. But little golden wheels, pinions and screws, not honey, filled these cells.

Although the day was hot, it was cool and pleasant in the shop. The green leaves of potted plants stood out here and there against the white of the girls' smocks. When work stopped, the whole white beehive became full of relaxed, merry motion.

As Galina listened to the foreman, she pictured herself working faultlessly and precisely in this world of tiny figures that seemed to come to life under the influence of her hands, acquiring the ability to move. She saw herself coming into this factory in the morning and felt herself a part of that white, gay crowd of girls who were creating time.

Learning the Trade

It's a year and half since Galina took that tour of the factory and was assigned to her learner's job. Hardly an intricate task—to wind the watches. Her real job was to learn the various operations and to read up on the history and practice of watch making.

At the end of three months she took an exam to test her technical knowledge. She passed it and was given a higher category rating and a wage increase. Subsequently she took a second exam to qualify for her present job as an inspector in the testing department. She checks the watches before they leave the factory. They've got to be perfect before they leave her hands.

Galina's social life now centers around the factory club where there is always something interesting to do, hear or see—a lecture or discussion about some new book, a concert, a film showing. A while ago the amateur film group showed a movie it had made with the factory personnel as cast. There were shots of the shops, of the technical school organized by the toolmakers where working engineers do the teaching, of the clubhouse with its various music, art and literature circles.

The film also showed the factory's summer kindergarten in the country for 250 preschool children, and the Young Pioneer camp for 1,000 youngsters, and shots of the vacation resort at the seaside now being built for the personnel.

Galina often reads aloud at the Society for the Blind, over which the youth organization of the factory has assumed patronage. Her measured, warm voice conveys every nuance of the words.

Study Is the Fashion

Listening to watches ticking away day after day is a reminder that time is a precious commodity. Galina doesn't waste much of hers. She is preparing for college entrance. She expects to work at the factory and go to school evenings.

The girls get an hour for lunch, two 10-minute rest periods and a 15-minute period for setting-up exercises given over the radio. Galina has been using part of her rest and lunch periods for study.

Study has become very much the fashion for the young people at the factory, especially since the working day was cut from eight to seven hours. That extra hour makes it easier. About 1,500 of the workers, one out of every four, are taking one of the classes given at the factory to qualify for a better job, or studying at specialized evening secondary schools or colleges. Galina hopes to work at the factory as an engineer when she gets through college.

Most of the boys and girls she knows are also continuing their studies. There's Katya, a nurse; Klava, a textile worker; Rita, an artist; Alyosha, a machinist; Edik, a construction worker; and, of course, Ivan, the young man who used to look in at the post office and now waits at the factory gates to see her home every evening.

**EACH YEAR THE COUNTRIES
OF THE WORLD
SPEND ON ARMAMENTS**

\$100,000,000,000



10,000,000 apartments



50,000 schools

**ENOUGH
TO
BUILD**



10,000 hospitals

ARMS CUT EQUALS BETTER LIVING

By Mark Postolovsky

A SMALLER defense budget equals more consumer goods, housing, education and health services for the people. This is an equation of Soviet economics that needs no extended proof. It is evident from the 16 to 17 billion rubles that will be saved annually as a result of the most recent cut in the Soviet armed forces and the uses to which this very sizable sum is being put. If we total the savings for the remaining six years of the seven-year plan, beginning with January 15, 1960, we shall find that the Soviet Union will be able to spend another 100 billion rubles for peaceful purposes, thus providing creative labor with the material requisites for reaching the prime goal of socialist society—to raise the people's living standards.

This armed services cut, legislated by the USSR Supreme Soviet on January 15, 1960, is not the first of its kind. The Soviet Union spends a good deal less on its defense than other Great Powers.

From 1955 to 1960 the country's defense budget was reduced by seven per cent—from 19.9 to 12.9 per cent. Each per cent represents a very considerable sum. In 1959 one per cent of the budget came to somewhat more than a billion rubles, and this year it comes to nearly double that figure. During the same five-year period the budget allocation for social-cultural items was increased by more than a third.

The budget figure for pensions also went way up. The average old age pension today is four-fifths higher than it was in 1956, and for

the current year alone expenditures for social insurance grew by more than five billion rubles.

Since the January session of the Supreme Soviet, the government has been working out measures to augment social services and increase the flow of consumer goods.

In view of the rapid growth of the country, particularly in the new industrial areas of the East, an additional 1.8 billion rubles over and above the amount earmarked under the seven-year plan have been allocated for the construction of medical research institutes and hospital facilities. More than 600,000 new hospital beds will be added to those now available, bringing the country's total to 2,146,000 in the next five years.

The Russian Federation will be getting 1,230 new hospitals, 70 maternity wards and 100 dispensaries. In Siberia, the Volga Region, the Urals and the Far East the number of hospital beds will be increased by 30 to 45 per cent.

The government's goal of increasing production of medical equipment and drugs by three and a half times is now a certainty. New

pharmaceutical plants are already turning out their products. The prices for medicines, incidentally, were cut drastically not long ago, by as much as 30 to 40 per cent.

Another 25 to 30 billion rubles have been allocated—again over and above the amount scheduled by the seven-year plan—to expand production of consumer goods. Instead of the 80 to 85 billion rubles originally budgeted, 105 to 115 billions have been made available to develop the light and food industries. Most of the money will go to the textile and hosiery industries and the raw materials these industries require.

In 1959, the first year of the seven-year plan period, the target figure for consumer goods output was exceeded by 21 billion rubles. Estimates are that, with the added funds available, it will be possible to exceed the scheduled figures for the first two years of the plan (1959-1960) by 437 million yards of textiles and 24 million pairs of footwear.

Major textile centers are being developed in Central Asia, Siberia, the Far East, the Urals and the Caucasus. Large and small mills are presently being built in Barnaul, Miugoschaur, Stalinabad, Karaganda, Almu-Ata, Kustanai, Semipalatinsk, Ferghana, Kasimovsk, Orenburg, Chitri, Chelokskoy and Samsarkand.

The food industries, particularly sugar and meat, are expanding rapidly. Five times more sugar production capacity was added last year than in the five years previous, and four times more meat-packing capacity than was built in 1958. A larger output of

other foodstuffs as well—fruit, berries, grapes, corn, vegetables—as a result of special measures proposed by the government and the Central Committee of the Communist Party.

The revised school construction program makes reference to the fact that the additional funds are to come from money saved by the cut in the military budget. During the current year Moscow will be getting 54 new schools. A hundred new schools are being built in Krasnodar Territory. Kharkov already has a big new university with ten stories of library stacks and two million books. Kazakhstan is building 29 new schools with 132 million additional rubles it received, and Kirghizia 37.

A year ago Chairman Khrushchev said that the country will use the funds released by the cut in the Soviet armed services to raise the people's living standards—to increase consumer goods production and to build more houses, schools, hospitals, theaters and palaces of culture, to abolish taxes, reduce prices and shorten the workday. Now this is the plan translated into fact.

Happy
New
Year



For a World Without
Wars and Weapons

Pavel Lebedev

Chairman, Soviet of the Union,
USSR Supreme Soviet

MILLIONS of people all over the world look forward to the new year with the hope that it will bring completed peace talks and progress in all spheres of activity. They hope that in the year ahead there will be no more bloodshed, no world without wars and crises—will come true.

As Chairman of one of the Chambers of the USSR Supreme Soviet, the Soviet of the Union, I would like to say up to a few words on the work done by the Soviet government this year.

In January 1959 the Supreme Soviet passed a law to cut the armed forces by 1,200,000 men. This was not the first such law in our country.

It gives us great pleasure to see young people returning to their peaceful labors, to their native fields. We are firmly convinced that only by such concrete actions will countries solve the problem of disarmament. The will of all Soviet people to achieve general and complete disarmament was vividly expressed in the program submitted by our Chairman, N. S. Khrushchev, to the United Nations General Assembly last September.

The Supreme Soviet approved other important legislative measures this year. At its May session it adopted laws to complete the change-over from an 8 to a 7-and-a-half-hour day by the end of the year, to abolish overtime work within the next few years, and to raise the living standard of the people.

These legislative acts show the concern of our socialist state for the people's welfare. They are new steps along the road to a peaceful program.

The Soviet Union is preparing a second round of talks to exchange and partial control over test-ban talks for general disarmament and contribute to peace. Our Soviet government works to bring such general disarmament to a preliminary agreement from an early date. It has already and the Soviet Union is the initiator of the Supreme Soviet. It is working on legislative measures aimed at increasing the living standard of the people and the development of many institutions of the State Union of the Republics of the USSR people's economy. For the year ahead we will continue to work on these issues and to reach a final understanding between nations.

May the coming year bring peace to the peoples of the great land of peace throughout the world.

May the new year bring responsibility to relations between the great powers, between the peoples.

I would like to wish all Americans a happy new year and success in their work and

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For a World Without Wars and Weapons

Pavel Lobanov
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In January 1960 the Supreme Soviet passed a law to cut the armed forces by 1,200,000 men. This was not the first such law in recent years.

It gives us great pleasure to see young people returning to their peaceful labors, to their native fields. We are firmly convinced that only by such concrete actions will countries solve the problem of disarmament. The will of all Soviet people to achieve general and complete disarmament was vividly expressed in the program submitted by our Chairman, N. S. Khrushchev, to the United Nations General Assembly last September.

Our Supreme Soviet approved other important legislative measures this year. At its May session it adopted laws to complete the change-over from an 8- to a 7- or 6-hour day by the end of the year, to abolish income taxes within the next few years, and to raise the buying power of the ruble.

These legislative acts show the concern of our socialist state for the people's welfare. They are new steps along the road to economic progress.

The Soviet Union is engaged in peaceful labor. Exchanges and personal contact, we feel, make for better understanding and so contribute to peace. Our Soviet parliament works to foster such contacts. Recently 41 parliamentary delegations from various nations visited the Soviet Union at the invitation of the Supreme Soviet. In return our legislative deputies visited 28 countries. Besides that, delegations and individual legislators of many countries visited the Soviet Union at the invitation of the USSR parliamentary group. For the year ahead we expect to broaden these contacts that help so much to foster understanding between nations.

May the coming year, 1961, witness the triumph of the great idea of peace throughout the world!

May the new year bring improvement in relations between our great countries, between our peoples!

I would like to wish all Americans happiness and success for the new year!



By Alexander Kozlov

A FOREIGN BUSINESSMAN who asked how many retail trade firms there were in the Soviet Union received this laconic answer:

"Two. State and cooperative."

A person not familiar with Soviet life will, of course, need further clarification. He will wonder how two trading firms (really trading systems) can service a population of more than 200 million and how such a mammoth mechanism can work smoothly.

The more than half a million stores and the 150,000 restaurants and cafeterias in the Soviet Union are owned either by the state or by consumer cooperative trading organizations. Their cash registers daily ring up sales of two billion rubles.

Sales turnover is a reliable index of the level of consumption and therefore of living standards. The rise has been continuous in the Soviet Union. Annual retail sales grossed 662 billion rubbles for 1958, went up to 709.6 billion in 1959 and will exceed 765 billion for the current year.

Between 1950 and 1959 the annual rate of growth in retail trade turnover has averaged 11.4 per cent.

An even greater expansion in retail trade will take place in the next few years. The seven-year plan provides for an important advance in living standards, which means a considerable growth in consumption. By 1965 annual retail trade turnover in the state and consumer cooperative systems is expected to be more than a trillion rubles.

The state-owned stores account for 65 per cent of the total retail trade and cater mainly to city people. These large and small department stores and specialty stores in cities and urban communities sell thousands of items ranging from toys and television sets to automobiles and building materials for the construction of private homes.

The consumer cooperatives operate mainly in the rural areas. They have a membership of almost 40 million individual shareholders. Their dues and a percentage of the profits comprise the organization's circulating capital.

The shareholders in each village form a consumer society that operates its own stores, restaurants and cafeterias, managed by a board elected by and accountable to the society's members. The village cooperatives are joined in district and regional associations.

Besides its retail trade setup, the consumer cooperative organization has a purchasing division that buys farm produce and helps the collective farms and their members sell foodstuffs in the cities. Special cooperative stores—they are to be found in cities all over the Soviet Union—sell fruits, vegetables, wine, fruit juices, meat, pickles and many other items delivered to the stores by the village cooperatives.

Moscow has a hundred of these summer open-air vegetable markets.

(Left) A stylist in a Tallinn shop helps customers choose dress goods.



(Above) Fitting a very young man at the Child's World Department Store.

(Left) This confectionery shop in Lugansk—it's called the Golden Key—is the town's favorite dating spot.

(Below) Fabric Pavilion at Luzhniki. This permanent trade fair in Moscow draws thousands of customers daily.







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Almaty has a hundred of these window displays resembling markets.

Right: A woman and children shop for consumer choice dress goods.



Below: Dining a very young man at the Ministry of Civil Department of State.

Right: This fashionable shop in Leningrad is called the Golden Key — is the town's favorite dining spot.

Below: Sales Pavilion at Leningrad. This is a modern trade fair in Moscow at great thousands of customers daily.



Fully Meet All the People's Demands

There are, aside from the state and cooperative stores, collective farm markets in all cities, where farmers can sell their products. But the volume of this individual trade is trifling by comparison with the turnover of state and cooperative trade. Farmers prefer to sell their products to the local cooperatives rather than waste time bringing them to market.

The Soviet government and Communist Party are concerned with every aspect of Soviet trade which affects the daily life of the population. As the country's wealth steadily grows, so do the incomes and purchasing power of the people. And it is completely understandable that Soviet consumers have become much more selective as incomes have risen. The retail buyer is no longer satisfied with yesterday's standards, whether in assortment, quality or service.

This August the USSR Council of Ministers and the Central Committee of the Communist Party adopted an important decision aimed to meet these more demanding consumer requirements. Many more stores, warehouses, restaurants and cafeterias are to be built in both urban and rural communities. Shopping centers are also to be constructed with department, specialty and service stores and food catering establishments.

Plans are to open specialized stores in the large cities to sell goods manufactured by the different Regional Economic Councils and individual light industry factories.

The state and cooperative establishments employ more than three million people. A staff this size linking producer and consumer is relatively small for a population of 215 million, and it is not burdensome so far as overhead is concerned.

The people who work in trading establishments are trained in specialized schools, as are people in other occupations. There are about 230 vocational schools for cooks, salesmen and related categories of workers. The specialists needed for department stores and warehouses get their training at 143 trade secondary schools. And the managerial personnel, who must have a good background in economics, get theirs at such schools of higher education as the Plekhanov Institute of National Economy, the oldest institution of its kind in the capital. The seven trade colleges now functioning had 1,100 first-year students enrolled at the beginning of the 1959-1960 academic year.

The staffs of the trade organizations solicit the advice and cooperation of customers and public organizations—the trade unions, collective farms and youth leagues. The Young Communist League recently launched a campaign to interest 100,000 young people in training for the retail trades and thus facilitate carrying out the decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party and the USSR Council of Ministers to expand the network of stores in urban and rural districts. The young specialists will be needed in the next five years to staff 105,000 new stores and

64,000 new catering establishments that are being built to serve three million additional customers.

The city and village Soviets are also doing a good deal to help improve service. Each local Soviet has a standing committee on trade and catering responsible for checking on the quality of products sold and related matters. The committee calls on the store management for periodic reports and puts the most important trade problems before the regular sessions of the Soviet.

The single and solitary function of the Soviet retail trade system is to provide the best possible service to the public. Profit is not a major consideration. The job of manager, salesman and other people in the retail trades is to get high quality goods from the producer to the consumer in less time, with less overhead and at the lowest possible prices.

A store has the right to return shipments that are not up to standard to the wholesaler or manufacturer. Moreover, the law specifies that the store may, in such cases, claim damages from the factory. This protects the consumer and guarantees him high-grade goods.

Purchasers and sales people do more than meet over the counter. It is customary for the management of stores and catering establishments to hold meetings where customers can criticize or offer suggestions for better operation.

Items of general interest in retail selling are carried by trade newspapers and magazines and by the general press as well. They feature the latest trends in merchandising items of consumer interest and letters from readers on quality of goods and services.

Distributor costs are the world's lowest. In 1959 they were only slightly more than five per cent of total turnover. In accordance with the decision "On measures for further improvement of trade," the emphasis now is on increasing the delivery of goods direct from factory to retail store without intermediary handling. State and cooperative stores are encouraged to conclude arrangements directly with the manufacturer.

In the last six years per capita industrial output in the Soviet Union has risen by 71 per cent. The output of such farm products as grain, meat, dairy products, vegetables, potatoes, fruits and wool has also increased markedly. The stores have consequently been handling greater volumes and wider assortments of goods. Under the seven-year plan the production of consumer goods will be increasing at a still faster rate. The light and food industries are expanding their output by 1.5 and 1.7 times respectively. It is planned to invest 80 to 85 billion rubles to raise the production capacity in these industries.

The rate of growth in consumer goods output has been exceeded in the first two years of the seven-year plan. The cut in the Soviet armed forces by 1,200,000 men now under way will enable the country to make large additional investments in consumer goods

industries totaling 25 to 30 billion rubles in the seven-year plan period. These large sums are being channeled for the most part into the textile and footwear industries and their raw material sources. This, of course, will mean additional retail sales.

The Plenary Session of the Central Committee of the Communist Party held in July 1960 discussed ways and means of speeding up consumer goods production. All the republics and the Regional Economic Councils that manage the country's industry have been instructed to increase the output of a wide range of high-grade consumer items.

Incidentally, not only the light and food industries and the local factories and handicraft cooperatives are consumer goods manufacturers but thousands of key plants in heavy industry as well. For example, the country's biggest iron and steel plant at Magnitogorsk, besides its basic products, turns out annually tens of thousands of beds and other articles. And the Sormovo shipyards, in addition to building hydrofoil vessels, are also producing thousands of washing machines and furniture.

The manufacture of goods for children is due for a particularly high boost. A special government measure orders the clothing and shoe industries in many of the republics to set up new factories for mass production of all kinds of children's wear. Footwear and clothing factories in the Russian Federation, the Ukraine, Byelorussia, Azerbaijan and other republics have set up new shops to produce children's wear and shoes. In Moscow alone there are 12 such factories.

In addition to the growing volume of goods produced at home, the trade organizations handle large amounts of various consumer items imported from Czechoslovakia, Italy, Finland, Britain, Cuba, France, China and other countries. As Soviet foreign trade expands, the volume of consumer goods purchased abroad increases.

The Soviet Union has no problem of overproduction. The huge volume of goods handled by the state and cooperative stores has a waiting market. Real wages of workers and real income of farmers keep growing systematically. The growth is not fortuitous, it is planned. This creates an unlimited retail market.

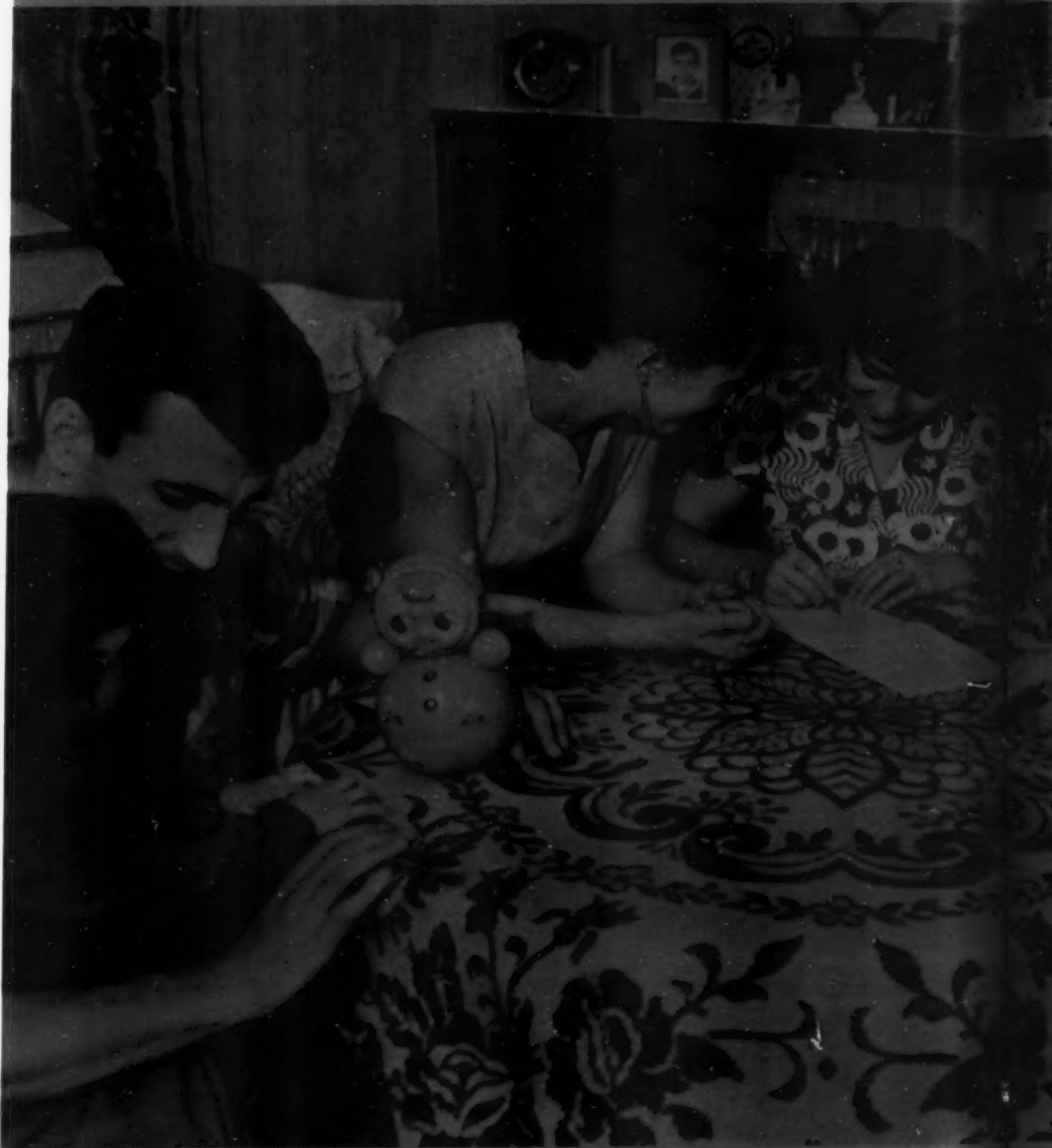
There is another factor that makes for continuously growing sales. Since 1947 retail prices have been cut progressively. As a result, goods costing 1,000 rubles in 1947 could be bought for 430 rubles in 1957. The price is even lower today.

"The aim of our domestic policy," said Nikita Khrushchev, "is to build a way of life worthy of mankind's highest ideals. Our seven-year plan is calculated to promote peace and the welfare and happiness of the people."

A good illustration of the noble principles underlying our policy is the steady growth in goods and services to meet all the requirements of the consumer.

WAGES PLUS

BUDGET OF SOVIET FAMILIES SUPPLEMENTED BY DOC



"We earn more and naturally we spend more," say the Ryazanisevs, a typical Soviet family, checking over their budget. "We eat better, dress better and live better."



By Alexander Guryanov

IN THE SOVIET UNION the entire national income is spent on the personal and public needs of the people. Therefore, the larger the national income, the higher the living standard of every Soviet family.

What does this mean in bread-and-butter terms? Is the average Soviet family living better or worse than it did five years ago? Statistics are helpful as an over-all measure, but they don't give the individual picture. To get that, let's visit one of these average families.

The Ryazantsevs are a large family with children grown up and working. Four of the Ryazantsevs are employed at the same machine-building plant in Moscow. Veniamin, the father, is a fitter. Lyudmila, the eldest daughter, is a designer. She recently completed a five-year evening engineering course while working at the plant. Lyudmila's husband, Marat Sigalovich, studied at a machine-building school after he finished his army service and is now a technologist. Galina Ryazantsev, the youngest daughter, went on to college after secondary school and works at the plant as an economist.

Another son, Vyacheslav, is doing his army service. He will soon be returning to civilian life, one of the 1,200,000 men to be demobilized under the provisions of the law cutting the armed services, passed at the spring session of the Supreme Soviet.

The mother, Olga, takes care of the house and her two-year-old granddaughter, Marina.

Earnings Up—Prices Down

The plant's payroll sheet shows a steady rise in the earnings of the family over the past five years—from 35,000 rubles for 1955 to 58,000 rubles for 1959. But this increase is meaningful only if prices do not go up at the same time. As a matter of simple fact, prices have not gone up. Quite the reverse, there have been price cuts for many kinds of foods and manufactured articles during the five-year period.

What does the expense side of the family budget look like? Item number one is, of course, food, for which the Ryazantsevs spend somewhat less than half their earnings—from 26,000 to 28,000 rubles a year. The family sets a good and varied table. There's no need to skimp on food. Weekdays, food bills will run to 65-70 rubles, on Sundays and holidays, to 90-100 rubles. Below we list the staples consumed in an average six-day period.

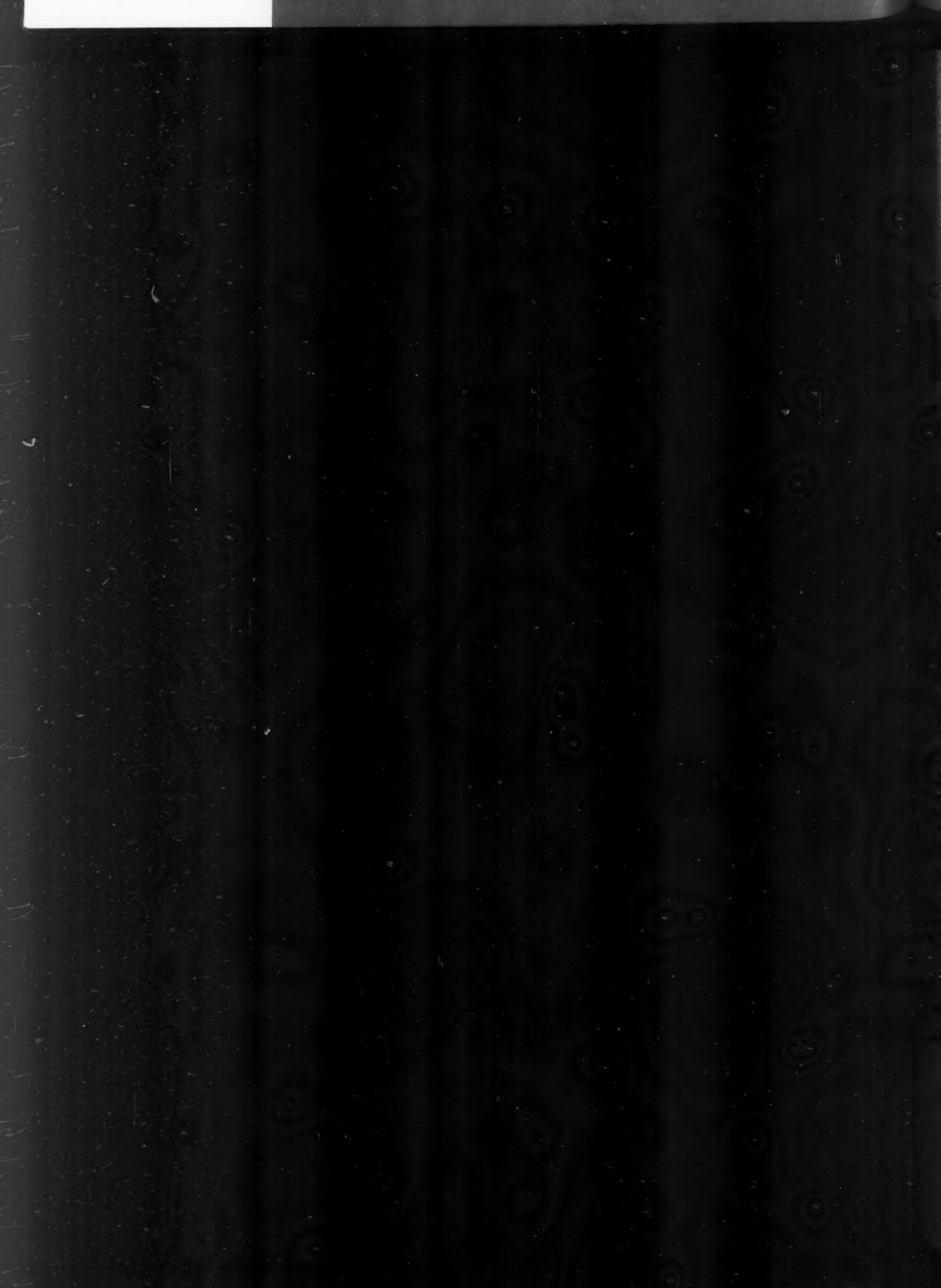
<i>Food Item</i>	<i>Weight</i>
rye bread	8½ lbs.
wheat bread	17½ lbs.
macaroni, noodles, etc.	1 lb.
cereals and lentils	3¼ lbs.
potatoes	15¼ lbs.
vegetables	22 lbs.
fruits and berries	22 lbs.
sugar	8½ lbs.
pastry	2¼ lbs.
vegetable shortening	1 lb.
fish and fish products	4¼ lbs.
meat and meat products	18½ lbs.
milk	20 qts.
dairy products	3¼ lbs.
butter	3¼ lbs.
eggs	2½ doz.

The Ryazantsevs pay no more than four to five per cent of their earnings for rent and all utilities.

Last year they moved into a new apartment house with all modern conveniences built by the plant for its personnel. They bought new furniture for which they spent about 10,000 rubles of their current earnings and some of their savings.

Everyone in the family has work and dress clothes and footwear for each of the changing seasons. Last year the Ryazantsevs spent 7,000 rubles on new clothes.

For books, newspapers, magazines, theater, movies and other cultural and entertainment items the family spent approximately 4,000 rubles during the year. The Ryazantsevs are readers, like most Russian families. They borrow library books and buy their own besides to build up a home library which now contains several hundred volumes. They sub-



IN THE SOVIET UNION the entire national income is spent on the personal and public needs of the people. Therefore, the larger the national income, the higher the living standard of every Soviet family.

What does this mean in bread-and-butter terms? Is the average Soviet family living better or worse than it did five years ago? Statistics are helpful as an over-all measure, but they don't give the individual picture. To get that, let's visit one of these average families.

The Ryazantsevs are a large family with children grown up and working. Four of the Ryazantsevs are employed at the same machine-building plant in Moscow. Veniamin, the father, is a fitter. Lyudmila, the eldest daughter, is a designer. She recently completed a five-year evening engineering course while working at the plant. Lyudmila's husband, Marat Sigalovich, studied at a machine-building school after he finished his army service and is now a technologist. Galina Ryazantsev, the youngest daughter, went on to college after secondary school and works at the plant as an economist.

Another son, Vyacheslav, is doing his army service. He will soon be returning to civilian life, one of the 1,200,000 men to be demobilized under the provisions of the law cutting the armed services, passed at the spring session of the Supreme Soviet.

The mother, Olga, takes care of the house and her two-year-old granddaughter, Marina.

Earnings Up—Prices Down

The plant's payroll sheet shows a steady rise in the earnings of the family over the past five years—from 35,000 rubles for 1955 to 58,000 rubles for 1959. But this increase is meaningful only if prices do not go up at the same time. As a matter of simple fact, prices have not gone up. Quite the reverse, there have been price cuts for many kinds of foods and manufactured articles during the five-year period.

What does the expense side of the family budget look like? Item number one is, of course, food, for which the Ryazantsevs spend somewhat less than half their earnings—from 26,000 to 28,000 rubles a year. The family sets a good and varied table. There's no need to skimp on food. Weekdays, food bills will run to 65-70 rubles, on Sundays and holidays, to 90-100 rubles. Below we list the staples consumed in an average six-day period.

<i>Food Item</i>	<i>Weight</i>
rye bread	8½ lbs.
wheat bread	17½ lbs.
macaroni, noodles, etc.	1 lb.
cereals and lentils	3¼ lbs.
potatoes	15¼ lbs.
vegetables	22 lbs.
fruits and berries	22 lbs.
sugar	8½ lbs.
pastry	2¼ lbs.
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By Alexander Guryanov

PUBLIC FUNDS SPENT ON FREE SOCIAL SERVICES
FOR THE RYAZANTSEV FAMILY
Over a Five-Year Period (in rubles)

Table with multiple columns and rows, currently blank.

scribe to two newspapers, *Komsomolskaya Pravda* and *Soviet Sport*, and buy the magazines *Ogonyok*, *Krokodil*, *Rabotnitsa* (Working Woman) and *Zdorovye* (Health).

They have a radio and television set, see most of the new Soviet and foreign films, and take in a show or a soccer game every so often. Family tastes differ. Galina rarely misses a new opera or ballet production at the Bolshoi. Marat and Lyudmila are both sports fans. Marat is one of the high scorers on the plant's volleyball team, and Lyudmila is the plant ski champion.

Income Additions

Like every other Soviet family, the Ryazantsevs get many services for which they do not pay. These indirect additions to income plus earnings determine their standard of living. Many of the family's vital needs are financed from public funds. State appropriations for these welfare items for the current year came to 244 billion rubles.

Galina Ryazantsev, an economist, who likes to play with figures, calculated what the state had spent on the family over the past five years for three of these free services—education, health and public utilities.

In prerevolutionary times when Veniamin Ryazantsev's father had to have medical treatment, he paid for it out of his own pocket; that is, if he had it to pay. More often than not, he resorted to home remedies.

Today Veniamin Ryazantsev's family pays nothing for medical services, and that includes every kind of service from confinement to the most complicated operation that ends with a long convalescence at a sanatorium. Moreover, the sick person draws full pay for the entire period of his illness.

The Ryazantsevs are a fairly healthy family, but even so, their medical and dental bills would be considerable if they had to pay for them. Last year, for instance, Marat broke his leg at a volleyball match and

was bedridden for four months with his leg in a cast. Apart from the fact that he did not pay a kopeck for treatment, he kept getting his average wage. The year before last Lyudmila gave birth to Marina and took the four-month paid maternity leave she is entitled to by law.

These various health benefits that the family got free—treatment for Marat's broken leg, Lyudmila's confinement and maternity leave, sick benefits, annual paid vacations, labor protection, physical examinations—Galina figured, had cost the state 57,561 rubles in the past five years.

Kindergarten Through College

Under the old regime Veniamin Ryazantsev's father couldn't give his children an education. He didn't make enough to pay for it. Soviet people do not have to pay for schooling. Elementary, secondary and higher education are all free. Moreover, college students get maintenance stipends; correspondence students get paid time off from their jobs to prepare for examinations and to write their course papers; and vocational school students get free meals, dormitory accommodations, their clothing and a small apprentice wage besides.

The state in these past five years spent 100,403 rubles on schooling for the Ryazantsevs, by Galina's reckoning.

The family pays the usual low rent. Capital repairs of all dwelling units in the Soviet Union are paid for out of special state appropriations. Rent covers only the current upkeep of an apartment, wages of the janitor and minor repairs. When the state builds housing projects, it does not figure on profits nor does it expect to get a return on the money invested. The actual cost to the state of the Ryazantsevs' apartment—over and above the rent the family paid—was 76,140 rubles.

Galina tabulated the items paid for by the state (see table). They totaled 234,109 rubles for the five-year period. None of this came out of the family pocketbook.



Vyacheslav, head of the family, and three children of the Ryazantsevs work in the same Moscow machine-building plant. Vyacheslav is an expert fitter.

All-arounder Marina helps her mother, Marina's wife, Lyudmila, work in the drawing office of the plant.



Is the state especially liberal to the Ryazantsevs? Not at all. What holds for the Ryazantsevs holds for every Soviet family.

Take Sergei Solovyov, a worker at the same plant and a neighbor. He has two children—Yurik, in the third grade at school, and three-year-old Zhenya. Before beginning elementary school, Yurik had six years of nursery school and kindergarten. He spent four summers at a country kindergarten camp, two at a children's sanatorium in southern Crimea and this past summer at a Young Pioneer camp. He has just begun his education, but his schooling and vacations have already cost the state 41,000 rubles. The parents paid only a sixth of this amount, the rest came from the state and the Machine-Builders Union that his father belongs to.

Another neighbor of the Ryazantsevs—Olkhov, who used to work as a molder—is a pensioner. His annual pension, paid out of state funds, is 14,000 rubles.

The difference is that in one family, as in the case of the Solovyovs, most of the money out of public funds is used to meet the cost of the children's upbringing; in another, as in the Olkhovs, it goes for pensions; and in a third, as in the Ryazantsevs, it is spent on education. But in each case it is an indirect addition to the family's budget which, along with the wages earned, in the long run determines the real living standard of a Soviet family.

In what way will the next five years affect the living standards of the Ryazantsevs? It is impossible to give the exact figures, but one thing is clear—the earnings of the family will increase and so will its share of public funds. Vyacheslav will return from the army and will no doubt want to go on with his education. Marina will be old enough to attend kindergarten. And the time is drawing near when the head of the family will retire on pension.

None of this is charity, and no Soviet citizen looks on it as such. It is the way a socialist society operates to meet the needs of its citizens.



Olga Ryazantseva takes care of the house full time. For relaxation she grows gooseberries on the family suburban plot.



This is a third generation Ryazantsev. Little Marinka is shown here with her mother, Lyudmila.

PUBLIC FUNDS SPENT ON FREE SOCIAL SERVICES
FOR THE RYAZANTSEV FAMILY
Over a Five-Year Period (in rubles)

Items	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	Yr. Period
1. Medical treatment	2,000	2,000	2,100	2,100	2,300	13,500
2. Lyudmila's confinement	—	—	—	1,035	—	1,035
3. Lyudmila's leave	—	—	—	3,248	—	3,248
4. Sick benefits	210	700	811	300	4,053	6,074
5. Annual paid vacations	1,361	1,525	1,773	1,990	2,355	9,004
6. College for Lyudmila and Galina	15,000	15,600	15,600	6,000	1,000	53,200
7. Technical school for Marat	—	3,000	3,200	3,300	3,400	12,900
8. Marat's and Lyudmila's paid "study leaves"	680	1,690	2,010	6,560	4,480	15,420
9. Secondary and vocational school for Vyacheslav	1,100	1,200	6,148	—	—	8,448
10. Galina's stipend	3,480	3,480	3,480	—	—	10,440
11. Labor protection of working members of Ryazantsev family	1,400	2,400	4,500	4,000	4,400	16,700
12. Disease prevention expenses—plant medical center, dietetic feeding in canteen, sports, etc.	1,600	1,800	2,400	2,400	2,800	11,000
13. Public utilities (share falling to Ryazantsevs)	600	720	840	900	1,080	4,140
14. Cost of new apartment now for use of the family for life	—	—	—	—	72,000	72,000
Total	27,431	34,115	42,862	31,833	97,868	234,109

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His son-in-law Marat (left) is an engineer. Marat's wife, Lyudmila, works in the designing offices of the plant.



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This is the fourth article in a series on the Soviet teacher. The first, on teacher training, appeared in the September issue. The second, in the October issue, dealt with the economic status of teachers. The article in the November issue discussed the rights and privileges of teachers.

By Sergei Shapovalenko

Corresponding Member, Academy of Education of the Russian Federation

THE SOVIET TEACHER must have a comprehensive knowledge of his subject when he comes into his classroom. But that is only one facet of his training. He must know *what* to teach and *how* to teach it.

His job is to prepare children for social living, to teach them to use their abilities and talents for the general good. The aim of the Soviet school is to bring up educated men and women who are able to apply their knowledge and skills, people with a good background in the sciences and the humanities, with well-developed aesthetic tastes and high ethical standards.

As he gives his students the specific content of his subject, whether it is physics, history, mathematics or any other, the teacher must be conscious of the basic social attitudes he wants them to acquire—love of country and an earnest desire to participate in building a new, a communist, society.

His success in teaching not only subject matter but social attitudes will depend in large measure upon how he meets the dual problem of *what* and *how* to teach.

His over-all guide is the curriculum which specifies subjects to be taught and weekly hours of instruction for each grade. Examples of Soviet school curriculums are given below.

The syllabus provided for each subject lists the topics to be studied, the sequence of topics and problems for class discussion. The same subject syllabus is used throughout the country. This is to make sure that the child covers the same basic content whether he goes to school in Moscow or Siberia, the Ukraine or Uzbekistan.

The uniform syllabus has other values. Children whose families move from one part of the country to another can continue their schooling without interruption. It also makes it possible for the colleges and universities to have uniform entrance requirements.

But this conformity in the subject syllabus does not mean that the national identity of Soviet people is ignored or glossed over. On the contrary. The syllabuses used in the national republics invariably include study of the native language and the regional history, geography, literature, industry and farming.

Who Drafts the Course of Study?

Research institutes in the various republics help devise the courses of study. The curriculums and syllabuses for the schools of the Russian Federation are drawn up by the RSFSR Academy of Education.

The courses of study are built to conform with the principles outlined in the school reorganization law passed by the USSR Supreme Soviet a year ago. The descriptive title of the measure is "On Strengthening Ties Between Education and Life and the Further Development of the Educational System of the USSR."

Taken into account in devising courses of study are new scientific and technological discoveries and achievements and the selective body of experience accumulated in rearing successive generations of young people.

Educators are not the only group of people concerned with courses of study. A draft syllabus, after it has been tentatively approved by the Ministry of Education of a given republic, will be published and circulated widely for discussion, not only at universities and scientific institutes but also at industrial establishments, offices, farms and construction sites.

The *What* and *How* of Teaching

The courses of study for the various types of schools in the Russian Federation, for example, were discussed by scientists, educators and industrial workers in all the districts, regions, territories and autonomous republics of the Federation before they were finally adopted. The 200,000 opinions and reactions submitted were carefully considered and some were incorporated in the final draft. Thus, every syllabus is a product of collective thought and diversified experience.

To help answer the question *what* to teach, the courses of study specify

THE TEACHER AND THE COURSE OF STUDY

the subject matter and work habits which the child is expected to acquire in each grade. The question of *how* to teach is left to the teacher in large measure. The course of study does not restrict the teacher; it is designed to give him every opportunity for creative initiative.

The faculty or the individual teacher may make changes in the choice of study material, the sequence in which it is taught, the method used in presenting it and the amount of time devoted to a topic. All these factors will vary with the subject matter, the readiness of the children and the learning situation. As a rule, teachers will use a great deal of material not specified in the syllabus, material they take directly from life.

These are typical variations from the course of study found by the writer. At School No. 69 in Moscow the teacher was giving his class material on semiconductors, one of the newest areas in physics. In another class, automation and remote control were being studied as supplementary topics. At school No. 329 more time than was called for by the physics syllabus was being allotted to electronics because the children asked for it.

At Goryachev rural school in southern Stavropol Territory children are experimenting with hybrid corn under the teacher's guidance. The children of the Konstantinovsk school in Novosibirsk Region are working on a color movie project.

Regional Emphasis

Every teacher supplements the subject matter outlined in the syllabus with regional material. The biology teacher includes the local flora and fauna in the syllabus, the geography teacher local earth science, and the physics and chemistry classes study the application of these subjects to local industry and farming.

So too for the non-science courses. The literature teacher introduces his students to the work of regional writers, the history teacher to regional history, and so on.

Cotton is one of the stressed topics in the schools of Ferghana Region of the Uzbek Republic. This is rich cotton country. Biology teachers at Siver in Leningrad Region give study time to methods of growing vegetables in the North. At schools in Mineralnye Vody District, Stavropol Territory, children study grape growing, while in the schools of Sukhumi, Georgia, emphasis is on tea growing. This is not merely classroom study. Children work in the fields and learn what farming is by doing it.

At schools in the Far North children study reindeer breeding, fur-bearing animals and peltry and the fishing industry in considerable detail. In Gorky Region many class hours are given over to machine building, in Kemerovo Region to chemicals, and in the Donbas to coal mining. These are major centers for these various branches of industry.

Schools in Stalingrad, Sevastopol and Leningrad pay particular attention in their history classes to the heroic defense these cities put up during World War II. Ryazan schools study the history of the Ryazan principality, and those in the Ukraine the history of the Kiev State.

Creative Teaching

For the creative teacher the uniform syllabus is a point of departure. Each of the topics outlined by the syllabus in skeleton form must be given flesh and blood. The teacher needs to muster all the knowledge and imagination at his command to meet this perpetual challenge.

Soviet teachers make a practice of sharing their class experiences. Each school has a committee on methodology. So do the district and regional departments of education.

District teachers' conferences on teaching methods are held in the early fall before the school year begins and during winter vacation. Once or twice a year all regions and territories hold conferences to discuss new teaching approaches.

The teacher's creative experience is carefully studied by the research institutes and Academies of Education and serves to enrich the uniform syllabus they draw up. The syllabus itself is continuously re-evaluated to

TABLE A
CURRICULUM
of the Eight-Year School

Subject	Number of hours per week per grade								Total number of hours		
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Per week	Per year	
	1. Russian language	12	12	12	10	6	5	3	2	62	2,184
2. Literature	—	—	—	—	2	3	2	2	3	10	357
3. Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	5	47	1,663	
4. History	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	3	11	391	
5. Nature Study	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	3	105	
6. Geography	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	8	286	
7. Biology	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	8	286	
8. Physics	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	3	7	249	
9. Chemistry	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	4	142	
10. Drafting	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	2	71	
11. Foreign Language	—	—	—	—	4	3	3	3	13	465	
Total	18	18	18	21	24	25	25	26	175	6,199	
12. Drawing	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	—	7	248	
13. Music and Singing	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	283	
14. Physical Culture	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16	566	
Total	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	31	1,097	
15. Manual Training	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	20	709	
16. Socially-Useful Work	—	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	426	
17. Production Practice in Grades V-VIII	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	180	
Total	2	2	4	4	5	5	5	5	32	1,315	
Total	24	24	26	29	33	34	34	34	238	8,611	

TABLE D
CURRICULUM
of the Evening Secondary General Educational School
(Hours are arranged to suit working shift or season)

Subject	Number of hours per week per grade			Total number of hours
	IX	X	XI	
1. Literature	2	2	2	6
2. Mathematics	3	3	3	9
3. History	1	2/1*	2	4.5
4. Constitution of the USSR	—	—	1	1
5. Economic Geography	—	2/1*	1/2*	3
6. Physics	3	3	2	8
7. Astronomy	—	0/1*	—	0.5
8. Chemistry	1/2*	2	2/1*	5
9. Biology	2/1*	—	—	1.5
10. Drafting	1/2*	—	—	1.5
11. Foreign Language	2/1*	1/2*	2	5
Total	15	15	15	45
12. Electives to Improve Vocational Skills	2	2	2	6
13. Study Consultation Hours	3	3	3	9
Total	20	20	20	60

*Two numbers in a column indicate hours for the first and second semesters.

TABLE B
CURRICULUM
of the Urban Secondary School with Occupational Training

Subject	Number of hours per week per grade			Total number of hours	
	IX	X	XI	Per Week	Per Year
1. Literature	3	3	3	9	339
2. Mathematics	4	4	4	12	452
3. History	2	3	4	9	335
4. Constitution of the USSR	—	—	2	2	70
5. Economic Geography	—	2	2	4	148
6. Physics	4	4	2	10	382
7. Astronomy	—	1	—	1	39
8. Chemistry	2	3	2	7	265
9. Biology	3	—	—	3	117
10. Drafting	2	—	—	2	78
11. Foreign Language	2	2	3	7	261
12. Physical Culture	2	2	2	6	226
Total	24	24	24	72	2,712
13. Technical Subjects, Occupational Training (Theory and Practice) and Productive Work	12	12	12	36	1,356
Total	36	36	36	108	4,068
14. Electives	2	2	2	6	226

TABLE C
CURRICULUM
of the Rural Secondary School with Occupational Training

Subject	Number of hours per week per grade			Total number of hours	
	IX	X	XI	Per Week	Per Year
1. Literature	4	3	4	11	338
2. Mathematics	5	4/5*	5	14.5	445
3. History	3	4	4	11	338
4. Constitution of the USSR	—	—	2	2	64
5. Economic Geography	—	3/2*	2/3*	5	155
6. Physics	5	5	3/2*	12.5	380
7. Astronomy	—	1	—	1	30
8. Chemistry	2/3*	3	3	8.5	261
9. Biology	4	—	—	4	120
10. Drafting	3/2*	—	—	2.5	75
11. Foreign Language	3	3	3	9	276
12. Physical Culture	2	2	3	7	216
Total	31	28	29	88	2,698
13. Fundamentals of Agricultural Production and Occupational Training (Theory and Practice)	5	8	7	20	614
Total	36	36	36	108	3,312
14. Productive Work According to Seasons					
in days	54	54	18	—	126
in hours	324	324	108	—	756
Total in hours					4,068
15. Electives	2	2	2	6	184

*Two numbers in a column indicate hours for the first and second semesters.

see that it reflects this experience. This mutual assessment and review is the best guarantee for an ever progressing educational system in the Soviet Union.

Table A. The curriculum of the Eight-Year School requires that grades I-IV study the Russian language, arithmetic, nature study, history and manual training and be given lessons in singing, drawing and physical culture.

In the elementary grades children learn to read, write and count and acquire their first ideas about nature and the social and work activity of people around them. Manual training gives them elementary work skills. It teaches them how to work with paper, cardboard and cloth and how to grow flowers and vegetables. Manual training also includes lessons in homemaking and other socially useful work in school and out.

In grades V to VIII children are given more intensive work in Russian language, literature and history. They begin the study of a foreign language. The course of study for these grades provides considerable time for the natural sciences and mathematics. Work education continues. The children learn the basic skills required by a fitter and an electrician, how to grow field crops and take care of farm animals. The boys learn to work with wood, while the girls study domestic science—sewing, cooking, and homemaking. In these grades the children also begin to learn to operate machines—drill presses, lathes, sewing machines,

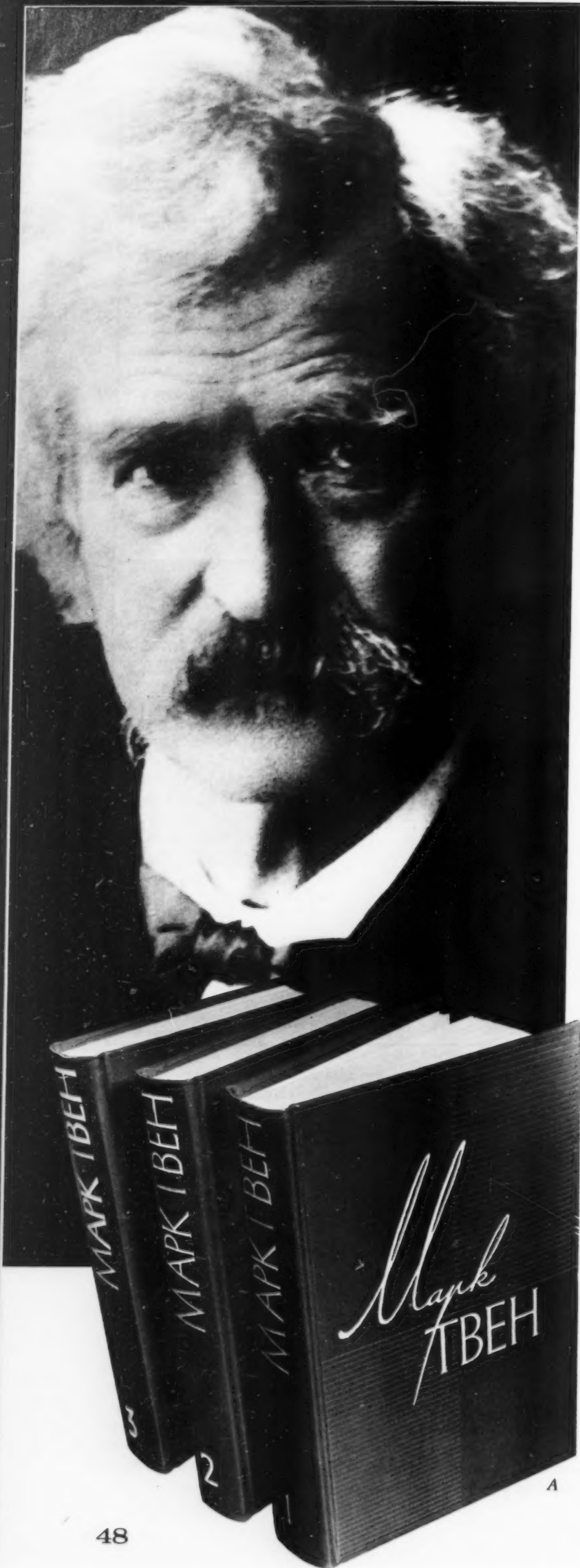
etc. They are taught to make and read simple working drawings. They learn the technology of materials, crop cultivation, care of livestock and are taken on excursions to industrial plants and collective and state farms.

Tables B and C. The courses of study for the Urban and Rural Secondary Schools with Occupational Training are so designed that an eight-year school graduate is either able to continue his secondary school work in preparation for college entrance or go on to job training.

Two-thirds of the classroom time in grades IX to XI are devoted to academic or polytechnical subjects, one-third to occupational training and productive work. Instruction at school is combined with work at factories, farms, construction sites or cultural institutions.

Table D. Secondary evening schools are open to young working men and women with an eight-year school background. There they get a complete secondary education and improve their professional skills.

The syllabus is uniform and all children in the grade study the same subjects and cover the same basic material. Elective courses and extracurricular activities—clubs, discussion groups, lectures, etc.—are open to students who wish to develop their abilities and talents or who are interested in some particular phase of science, engineering or the arts. The young people themselves decide what they will study. Extracurricular participation is voluntary.



125th Anniversary of Mark Twain's Birth

the writer beloved by millions

By Pavel Pavlovsky

HUCKLEBERRY FINN would not seem to be the kind of book you would expect to come across in an isolated part of the Siberian taiga. Vsevolod Ivanov, the well-known novelist, tells this story to make his point that Mark Twain has millions of Soviet readers.

Two years ago, Ivanov made a trip to the part of Siberia where he was born. He was traveling by horse along a narrow path in the taiga. This is a lonely stretch of country, he explains, with only an occasional trapper's cabin and settled communities few and very far between.

Suddenly he came on a clearing and there was a girl in slacks and a sports jacket with her back against a tree, munching a sandwich and reading a book as though she were in a Moscow park. The girl explained that she was a geologist, a scout, so to speak, for a prospecting party and was waiting for the others to show up. And the book she was reading? *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*.

"My favorite writer," she said. "I've read *Tom Sawyer* and *Huckleberry Finn* a half dozen times. I keep going back to them. I feel like a kid again every time I read them."

There are a great many people in the Soviet Union who feel the same way. When they were children they adventured with Tom, Huck and the rest of that inimitable crew on the Mississippi. When they grew up they read Twain's sardonic humor and his passionate denunciations of injustice and oppression. Soviet readers know Mark Twain's humanism, his biting contempt for hypocrisy and self-seeking, his attacks against entrenched money and privilege. This most disarming of humorists was also a great social critic who wrote into his books a masterful description of the America of his time.

His books have been published in the Soviet Union 266 times, in 25 languages and in editions that total 12 million copies. They are to be found in the home libraries of Russians and Ukrainians, Armenians and Georgians, Tajiks and Uzbeks, Estonians and Letts, Byelorussians and Kazakhs.

A twelve-volume set of Twain's Collected Works is presently being published in a large edition. Included are many items not in the American Collected Works.

Mark Twain Staged

Mark Twain is a favorite of the Soviet children's theater. A stage version of *Tom Sawyer* has been running in the playhouses of Moscow, Tula, Lvov and in the Leningrad Puppet Theater. *Huckleberry Finn* was dramatized by the famous Vakhtangov Theater in Moscow. Sergei Mikhailov, the Soviet poet and playwright, wrote a stage version of *The Prince and the Pauper* that played to standing-room-only crowds in Leningrad and Vilnius.

Last April, at the World Peace Council's suggestion, the fiftieth anniversary of the death of Mark Twain was commemorated in many countries. In the Soviet Union readers' forums were held in schools, libraries, palaces of culture and in farmers' and workers' clubs. The major newspapers and literary journals all published Twain material and critical articles. The Soviet Union will also be paying homage to Mark Twain on the 125th anniversary of his birth this year.



A. Mark Twain's books have been published in the Soviet Union in editions that total 12 million and in 25 languages. He has been a favorite with generations of readers. B. Mark Twain's stories in Russian. C,E,G. Illustrations for his novels and sketches. D,F,K. Editions of Tom Sawyer. I. Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court. H,J. Huckleberry Finn.

MARK TWAIN ABOUT RUSSIA



Mark Twain and Maxim Gorky with American writers and journalists in New York (1906).

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MARCH, 1905.

THE CZAR'S SOLILOQUY.

BY MARK TWAIN.

After the Czar's morning bath it is his habit to meditate an hour before dressing himself.—*London Times Correspondence.*

[Viewing himself in the pier-glass.] Naked, what am I? A lank, skinny, spider-legged libel on the image of God! Look at the waxwork head—the face, with the expression of a melon—the projecting ears—the knotted elbows—the dished breast—the knife-edged shins—and then the feet, all beads and joints and bone-sprays, an imitation X-ray photograph! There is nothing imperial about this, nothing imposing, impressive, nothing to invoke awe and reverence. Is it this that a hundred and forty million Russians kiss the dust before and worship? Manifestly not! No one could worship this spectacle, which is Me. Then who is it, what is it, that they worship? Privately, none knows better than I: it is my clothes. Without my clothes I should be as destitute of authority as any other naked person. Nobody could tell me from a parson, a barber, a dude. Then who is the real Emperor of Russia? My clothes. There is no other.

As Teufeldröckh suggested, what would man be—what would any man be—without his clothes? As soon as one stops and thinks over that proposition, one realizes that without his clothes a man would be nothing at all; that the clothes do not merely

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ADDRESS.



To His Imperial Majesty—
ALEXANDER II, Emperor of Russia.

We, a handful of citizens of the United States, traveling for recreation—and unostentatiously, as become our unofficial state,—have no excuse for presenting ourselves before your Majesty, save a desire to offer our grateful acknowledgments to the Lord of a Realm which, through good and through evil report, has been the steadfast friend of our Native Land.

We could not presume thus to present ourselves did we not know that the words we speak and the sentiments we utter, reflect the thoughts and feelings of all our countrymen: from the green hills of New England to the snowy peaks of the far Pacific. Though few in number, we utter the voice of a Nation.

One of the brightest pages that has graced the world's history, since written history had its birth, was recorded by your Majesty's hand when it loosed the bonds of twenty millions of men, and Americans can but esteem it a privilege to do honour to a ruler who has wrought so great a deed; The lesson then taught us we have profited by, and our Country is as free in fact today, as before it was in name.

America owes much to Russia: is indebted to her in many ways; and chiefly for her unwavering friendship in the season of her greatest need. That the same friendship may be hers in time to come, we confidently pray; that she is, and will be grateful to Russia, and to her Sovereign for it, we know full well; that she will ever forfeit it by any premeditated, unjust act, or unfair course; it would be treason to believe.

Samuel Clemens, Wm Gibson, T D Crocker, S N Sanford, P Kinsey, Committed

Respectfully tendered on behalf of the excursionists of the American Steam Yacht Quaker City
Yalta August 26th 1867.

By Leonid and Nelli Gulyev
Soviet Graduate Exchange Students
at the University of California

FIFTY YEARS have passed since the death of Mark Twain—Samuel L. Clemens (1835-1910), outstanding American writer. During these years a great deal has been written concerning his theory of morality, his humor and satiric genius. His international reputation has been amply reviewed. One aspect of his writing, however, has been almost completely ignored by critics, namely, his attitude toward Russia and its people with regard to certain historical events. Is this neglect attributable to Clemens' unfamiliarity with this country? Probably not.

He was the first major American writer to visit Russia and to state his opinion of the Russian people. Traveling with the "innocents abroad" he landed on August 22, 1867, at Sevastopol—a Russian port on the Black Sea. In a letter which appeared in the *Daily Alta California* on November 1, 1867, he recorded his first impression: "We have been in no country yet where we have been so kindly received or we felt that to be Americans was a sufficient visa for our passports."

Clemens remained in Russia for a week. With a small group of American tourists he visited Sevastopol, Odessa and Yalta. Everywhere the Americans appeared they encountered a hearty welcome. They experienced a feeling of freedom on Russian soil because they were considered true representatives of a young and friendly nation. In a letter from Yalta, Clemens commented as follows:

"Any man could see that there was an intention here to show that Russia's friendship for America was genuine. . . . That we felt a personal pride in being received as the representatives of a great people, we do not deny; that we felt a national pride in the warm cordiality of that reception, cannot be doubted."

By that time the amicable relationship between the two nations was evident. Russia had been one of the first countries in the world to manifest sympathy for the struggle of the American colonists for freedom. Even before the establishment of diplomatic relations it had turned down the request of King George for an expeditionary force of 20,000 troops to suppress the American Revolution. In 1780 it had declared a policy of "armed neutrality," the practical effect of which was to break the foreign blockade of American ports. In 1809 Russia had urged the King of Denmark to free an American merchant vessel detained in a Holstein port. In the fall of 1863, during the American Civil War, the good-will visit of two Russian naval squadrons to New York and San Francisco, undertaken at the request of American officials, assumed the character of a demonstration of solidarity for the North.

Cooperation, the happiness and welfare of mankind—that was the foundation of the relationship between the two countries at the time Clemens came to Russia. Feeling a personal pride in being an American, he expressed his gratitude to Russia for its friendship and help. He was the chief contributing author of the address presented to the Russian Czar Alexander II by the group of American visitors.

"America [the address ran] owes much to Russia; is indebted to her in many ways; and chiefly for her unwavering friendship in the

season of her greatest need. That the same friendship may be hers in time to come, we confidently pray; that she is, and will be, grateful to Russia and to her Sovereign for it, we know full well; that she will ever forfeit it by any premeditated, unjust act, or unfair course, it would be treason to believe."

The warm feeling toward the Russian people acquired during this brief visit Clemens carried throughout his life. He followed events in Russia very closely, and when, twenty-two years later, the first reports of the revolutionary movement in Russia reached the United States, Clemens without hesitation raised his voice in favor of an oppressed people struggling against the anarchy and arbitrariness of czarism. At that time Russia lagged considerably behind other European countries, and the development of capitalism was extremely costly for the working people. Their exploitation had become intolerable. The workday in the mills and factories was not less than twelve hours. Nor was the situation of the peasants any better. In addition to paying rent they were often compelled to cultivate the land of the big landlords without remuneration. These appalling labor conditions made the working people realize that a radical and speedy change was urgent. Russia went through the first steps of the revolutionary movement which in 1917 brought the country to the Great October Socialist Revolution.

All those who have read Clemens' *A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court* know his opinion of such radical changes, his point of view on revolution as a way of overthrowing unjust or tyrannical governments. But while Clemens in *A Connecticut Yankee* delved into fictionalized history, Russian autocracy was a horrible reality. In 1889 Clemens declared: "I wish I might live fifty years longer; I believe I should really see the end of what is surely the most grotesque of all the swindles ever invented by man-monarchy." He stigmatized Russian czarism as "the head slave-driver of Europe," and came to the conclusion, identical with that of the Russian people, that "all earthly figures fail to typify the czar's government," and that "one must descend into hell to find its counterpart."

Moreover, Clemens, in a letter written at the request of the editor of *Free Russia* in 1890, called upon the Russian people to be more active in their struggle. He severely criticized the liberal parties for seeking a compromise with czarism. Clemens wrote:

"What is the Czar of Russia but a house afire in the midst of a city of eighty millions of inhabitants? Yet instead of extinguishing him together with his nest and system, the Liberation parties are all anxious to merely cool him down a little and keep him.

"It seems to me that this is illogical—idiotic in fact. Suppose you had this granite-hearted, bloody-jawed maniac of Russia loose in your house chasing the helpless women and little children—your own. What would you do with him, supposing you had a shotgun? Well, he is loose in your house—Russia. And with your shotgun in your hand, you stand trying to think up ways to 'modify' him."

The entire system had to be obliterated, not merely altered. That was Clemens' opinion of

the situation in Russia. He emphasized that the people of his own country had paid for their freedom with rivers of blood, and "the properest way to demolish the Russian throne," Clemens suggested, "would be a revolution." He concluded that the aim of the revolution was the establishment of a republic.

The letter was never mailed. It was not published until 1917. But Clemens replied to this letter himself. The reply was dated July, 1890, and was supposedly written by Alexander III from his bomb-proof summer residence in Galitzin. Calling brotherhood among men "hypocrisy," he declared that since he was a czar, and the bloodiest of all czars, the crimes he had committed against his people needed no justification. In this scathing satire on Russian czarism, Clemens skillfully explained the reason for the revolutionary movement in Russia.

This movement met the warm support of the progressive-minded people of both Europe and America. In the early nineties the Society of Friends of Russian Freedom was organized in Great Britain, the United States and Germany. Clemens joined its American branch in April 1891. He was one of the first to sign the circular of the Society that defined its aims: ". . . to aid, by all moral and legal means, the patriots in their efforts to obtain for their country political freedom."

Although Clemens had been a member of the Society for several years, in public he spoke little about Russia. His ideas, as Albert Bigelow Paine wrote, were too openly revolutionary at that moment. In his mind he continued to believe that "a crusade to make a bonfire of the Russian throne and fry the Czar in it would have some sense." Scarcely more than a quarter of a century was needed to make his belief timely.

Within this period of time (1891-1917) drastic changes took place in Russia. It went through three revolutions, and in October of 1917 an entirely new state—the socialist state of the working class and peasantry—was established.

Mark Twain witnessed only the First Russian Revolution (1905-1907). When the fearful news of "Bloody Sunday" (January 9, 1905) reached the United States, he could restrain himself no longer. To the Czar's orders to fire upon the unarmed people who were attempting to present a peaceful petition of their needs, he replied with "The Czar's Soliloquy," his well-known article that appeared in the *North American Review* of March 1905. Twain caustically represented the Russian Czar Nicolas II as contemplating himself in the nude and reflecting on what a poor human specimen he was. This "lank, skinny, spider-legged libel on the image of God . . . with the expression of a melon" on his face, had robbed millions of Russian people, insulted them, and trampled them underfoot. For centuries his family had done as it pleased. "Our common trade has been crime," declared the Czar, staring at himself in the mirror, "our common pastime murder, our common beverage blood, the blood of the nation." People lived in slavery, "suffered and died with no purpose and no function but to make that Family comfortable." But their patience came to an

end, the nation awoke "from its immemorial slave-lethargy." Slowly but surely their hearts were filled with indignation and hatred toward czarism. "Bloody Sunday" was the bitter climax. "Indeed," Twain exclaimed, "there are going to be results! The nation is in labor; and by and by there will be a mighty birth—PATRIOTISM!" Now Russian mothers taught their children that "true patriotism, the only rational patriotism, is *loyalty to the Nation all the time, loyalty to the Government when it deserves it.*" But loyalty to czardom was gone.

With "The Czar's Soliloquy" Twain publicly showed how deeply he understood the Russian people and sympathized with their struggle. But how closely his point of view of the social revolution coincided with that of the true Russian revolutionists Twain demonstrated later, when he expressed his attitude toward the Russian-Japanese war (January 1905—August 1905). The Czar hoped that this war would stifle the revolution, but his hopes were not realized. The war hastened its outbreak, and the defeat of the czarist government in Manchuria meant only the strengthening of the revolution.

The signing of the peace treaty (August 1905, Portsmouth, New Hampshire) disappointed Clemens. He understood that the peace treaty would, to a certain degree, restore the position of Russian czarism. While others hailed this treaty as a victory for civilization, he wrote to his daughter Clara: "The Russians were within an inch of civil liberty, but it has been snatched from them. This seals the fate of billions of human souls who, on account of this peace, will have to live in bondage." He repeated the same belief in his message to the *Boston Globe*. Published on August 30, 1905, it read:

"I was hoping there would be no peace until Russian liberty was safe. . . . One more battle would have abolished the waiting chains of billions of billions of unborn Russians, and I wish it could have been fought. I hope I am mistaken, yet in all sincerity I believe this peace is entitled to rank as the most conspicuous disaster in political history."

By the fall of 1905 the revolutionary movement had swept over the whole of Russia. In October a political strike broke out involving over a million industrial workers. It was followed by a struggle of the peasants, by armed uprising in Moscow and other cities in December 1905. The czarist government employed forces released from the war to crush the uprisings. The revolution was in danger of failing. It still lacked organization; it needed more arms, better centralized leadership, and international support.

In order to tell the truth about the first Russian revolution and to find sympathizers for his struggling countrymen, Maxim Gorky, the great Russian writer and revolutionist, came to America. On April 10, 1906, thousands of people gathered in Hoboken to meet and cheer him. "They had been waiting for hours in the rain," said the *New York Times* of April 11, "to greet him, and they gave him a reception which rivaled the welcome given to Kosuth, Hungary's champion of freedom, and Garibaldi, the Father of a United Italy, when they came to this country."

Among those who welcomed Gorky was Mark Twain. Immediately after Gorky's arrival in the United States a series of articles with huge headlines appeared in the American press, among them: "Gorky and Mark Twain Plead for Revolution"; "Gorky Praises Mark Twain"; "Gorky and Mark Twain Talk About the Future of Russia." In the *New York World* of April 13, 1906, a cartoon appeared picturing Mark Twain toppling the Czar's throne with a pen. The caption read: "A Yankee in Czar Nicholas' Court."

On April 11, at the dinner given at the "A" Club in New York, Gorky met Clemens. "I was little more than a boy," said Gorky, "when I began to wait and hope for this meeting." "I read him," he continued later, "at a time of my life when I was beaten for reading. . . . But I read Mark Twain in spite of beatings and I would do it again and count the penalty light enough for the enjoyment that I derived from his delightful books."

The dinner was given by the special committee of the American auxiliary movement to aid the cause of the Revolution in Russia. Mark Twain was the principal speaker. In his speech he called upon the American people to join him in serving the Russian Revolution:

"I am most emphatically in sympathy with the movement, now on foot in Russia to make that country free. . . . Anybody whose ancestors were in this country when we were trying to free ourselves from oppression must sympathize with those who now are trying to do the same thing in Russia. . . . If we keep our hearts in this matter Russia will be free."

A few days later Clemens sent a letter to be read at the meeting in the Grand Central Palace where thousands of people were gathered to honor Gorky and to collect funds for the Russian Revolution. He wrote:

"My sympathies are with the Russian Revolution, of course. It goes without saying, I hope it will succeed, and now that I have talked with you I take heart to believe it will.

"Government by falsified promises, by lies, by treacheries, and by the butcher knife for the aggrandizement of a single family of drones and its idle and vicious kin has been borne quite long enough in Russia, I should think, and it is to be hoped that the roused nation, now rising in its strength, will presently put an end to it and set up the Republic in its place.

"Some of us, even of the white-headed, may live to see the blessed day when Czars and Grand Dukes will be as scarce there as I trust they are in heaven."

Unfortunately Samuel L. Clemens did not see the end of Russian czarism. He died on April 21, 1910.

Mark Twain died, but passing time has shown that these fifty years were only the beginning of his long life in the hearts of generations of readers. His popularity in the Soviet Union has been growing from year to year. He is known there as a brilliant satirist and humorist, as a founder of American realistic literature and as a publicist-democrat whose ideas anticipated historical and political events.

North Ossetia is a country of mountains and alpine meadows, lovely plains and fertile valleys. Some 330,000 people live in the 3,600 square miles of this autonomous republic on the north slopes of the Greater Caucasus, in the basin of the upper reaches of the Terek.

For many centuries the people of this small nation lived under the heel of the *aldars*, the local lords. Kosta Khetagurov, the famed Ossetian poet, described the miserable life of his people in these words, "They have bound our bodies with iron chains; even the dead cannot rest peacefully in their graves."

But the Ossetians broke their chains with the Revolution of 1917. Within forty years this once destitute and backward hinterland of the Russian Empire has been reshaped into a prosperous, self-governing republic with a modern industry and mechanized collective agriculture. Its farms grow wheat and raise livestock and its many-branched industry turns out nonferrous metals, petroleum, processed foods and lumber.

Last fall a ten-day festival of the republic's art, theater and literature was held in Moscow, and audiences in the capital paid warm and enthusiastic tribute to the remarkable progress that this small nation had made in the arts.

The article that follows is the gist of an interview with Stepan Bitiev, Minister of Culture of the North Ossetian Republic.

COMPARISON is the best yardstick for an accurate estimate of the progress achieved by our people in the past few decades.

Let's take education. Before the Revolution only the children of well-to-do people—and there were very few—had any chance to get an education. Ninety per cent of our people were totally illiterate. Compare that with the present education picture. There are no illiterate Ossetians today. A quarter of the population is in schools. We have four colleges, eleven specialized secondary schools and a large number of primary and high schools.

Ossetia has 5,500 teachers and scientists, an appreciable number for as small a republic as ours. Our proportion of college students to population is 189 to 10,000, a ratio seven times higher than Great Britain's. Every year we graduate about 1,300 specialists in a wide range of professions—mining engineering, medicine, agronomy, education—and hundreds of our young people are studying at colleges and universities in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Tbilisi and other cities.

Let's take our cultural life. Forty years ago there were only a few public libraries, one regional museum, a Russian theater with a small company and three motion picture houses to be found in the whole of Ossetia, all of them in the cities. Nobody bothered about cultural facilities for the villages. As far as the native arts were concerned, they were hardly encouraged by a czarist officialdom that followed a systematic colonial policy with minority peoples.

We have today an Ossetian music and drama company, a puppet theater for children, a dance and song ensemble, a philharmonic society and a considerable number of variety performers.

**By Stepan Bitiev, Minister of Culture
North Ossetian Autonomous Republic**

We have been helped tremendously by the Russian people in developing our own specialists in every field of culture. Many of our fine actors were trained at the Moscow Institute of Theater Arts and at the Shchukin Dramatic School, also in the capital. Our Ossetian Opera Studio is run by the Moscow Conservatory. Most of our artists and sculptors have studied at the Moscow Surikov Institute of Fine Arts and the Leningrad Fine Arts Academy.

Festival of the Ossetian Arts

At the ten-day art festival our drama and music groups performed for Moscow audiences. Our music and drama theater presented an interesting repertory performed by its two independent groups—the drama group founded in 1935 and the music group founded in 1958. One of the artists, Vladimir Tkhapsayev, a former miner, has earned a national reputation for his *Othello*. The new music group scored a great success performing *Spring Song* by Khristov Pliev, the first Ossetian musical comedy, and the comic opera *Keto and Kote* by Dolidze. The North Ossetian Song and Dance Ensemble appeared in two programs. The orchestra played the works of national composers, notably those of the gifted and versatile young Khristov Pliev, who has written several symphonic works and the one-act opera *Kosta* besides *Spring Song*.

Exhibited at the festival were about 500 Ossetian paintings, drawings and sculpture as well as folk arts and crafts. A section of the art and sculpture display was of children's work.

The republic's young film industry showed two features, *Fatima* and *Iriston's Son*, and the documentaries *Soviet Ossetia*, *North Ossetia's Arts*, *At the Foot of Mt. Kazbek* and *The Tseisk Gorge*.

Literature holds a significant place in the life of our people. Following the tradition of their great predecessor Kosta Khetagurov, Ossetian writers have produced quite a number of important works. Such splendid historical-revolutionary novels as *Poem of Heroes* by Dabe Mamsurov and *Toward Life* by Yezetkhan Uruimagova, and books by Tatari Epkhiev, Maxim Tsagarayev and others have been added to Ossetia's literature in recent years. Russian translators have done a great deal to acquaint the country's millions of readers with Ossetian books.

Ossetian drama developed simultaneously with the national theater. Much credit for its advancement is due to Dabe Mamsurov, David Tuayev and Georgi Dzhimiev. Ashakh Tokayev's play *The Suitors*, which has been staged in many cities, enjoys great popularity with Soviet audiences.

In both town and country we have built dozens of clubs, motion picture theaters and libraries in the past few years. In Ordzhonikidze, the republic's capital, new building is presently going on to house our music and drama theater, a book and newspaper publishing plant and a television center. We have several projects on the drafting board—a half-million volume library, a boarding school for children with a gift for music, a children's movie house. The opera and ballet theater which we are planning to develop will contribute to the advancement of the arts in Ossetia.

We Ossetians feel we have reason to be proud of our cultural progress. But what we have done so far is only a beginning. We see large cultural vistas ahead for our republic.

OSSETIAN ART



2.



3.



4.

The North Ossetian Song and Dance Ensemble performed for appreciative audiences at the Ten-Day Festival of Art held in Moscow this fall. The talented group was founded in 1938.

- 1. Soloist Agunda Kakoyoti
- 2. A humorous dance
- 3. Amateur folk dancers
- 4. Dance of the djigits (fearless horsemen)





B

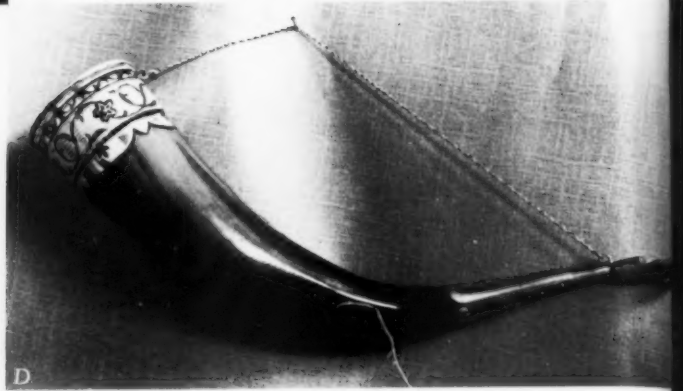
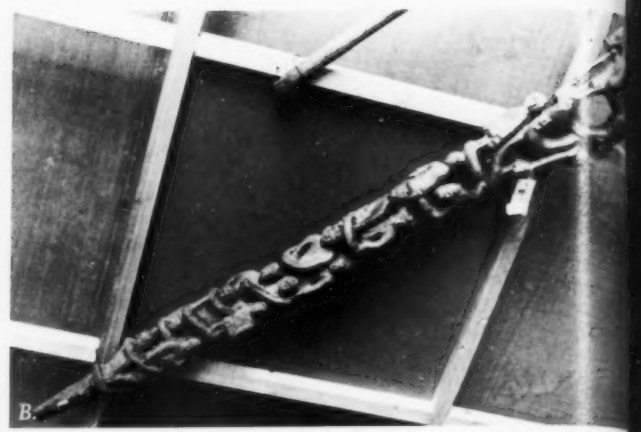
A. His performance as Othello won a national reputation for minor Vladimir Tkhapayev.

B. Veronika Dudarova is one of the republic's talented young symphony orchestra conductors.

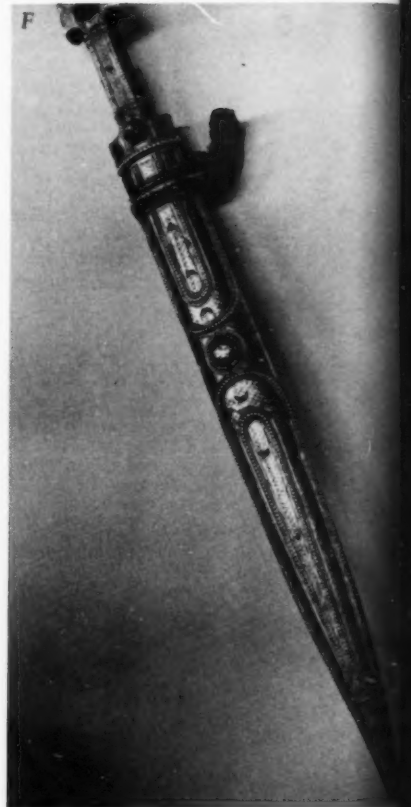
C. Ballerina Zoura Zaeva. Many of the Ossetian artists are alumni of the famed Moscow studios.



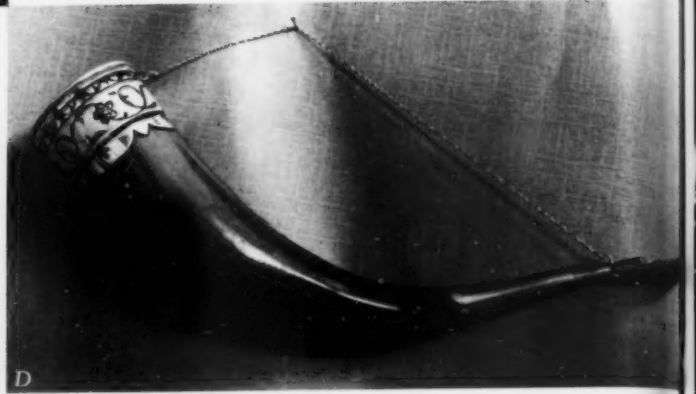
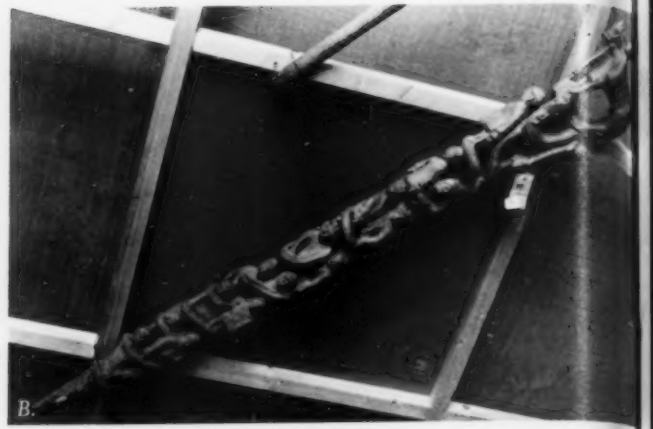
C



Continued from page 55
 A. Porcelain figurine, "Kluissonne."
 B. Walking stick, carved wood.
 C. "Little Red Riding Hood's Fox," in wood.
 D. Horn with ornamented silver bands.
 E. Carved wooden head.
 F. Silver dagger and sheath.
 G. "Bear on the Hunt," wood.
 H. Bowl with carved figures, wood.









Music lovers thronged to hear Van Cliburn on his second Soviet concert tour.

A Year of USA-USSR cultural exchange



The 1960-1961 agreement for scientific, technical, educational and cultural exchange has completed its first year. It was signed in Moscow on November 21, 1959, by Llewelyn E. Thompson, U. S. Ambassador to the USSR, for the United States, and by Georgi Zhukov, Chairman of the USSR State Committee for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries, for the Soviet Union. In the interview below, Sergei Romanovsky, vice chairman of the committee, describes the past year's exchanges and the prospects for the year ahead.

Question: How would you appraise the 1960-1961 agreement on cultural exchange between the United States and the Soviet Union?

Answer: The agreement specifies a sufficiently broad exchange program in science, engineering, agriculture, health, education, the arts and sports. This was the second agreement of its kind; the first was concluded in 1958. It demonstrated that cultural and scientific exchanges were not only desirable but that they were eminently practicable. The operation of the current agreement justifies us in the assertion that scientific and cultural ties are mutually advantageous and are becoming the ever more customary thing in the relations between our two countries. The Soviet Union is doing its best to work out the fullest possible exchange program outlined by the agreement.

Question: Even in view of certain complications in the relations between our countries?

Answer: Yes, even under these conditions, especially since cultural contacts, as we all know, tend to improve relations between the two countries and thereby ease world tensions. These mutual contacts make it possible for American and Soviet people to meet, exchange opinions, get acquainted with each other's way of life, history, culture, and achievements in science, engineering, public activity, literature and the arts.

We believe, very sincerely, that the future will be bright and luminous, that it will bring cooperation and good-neighbor relations between our two countries. I have in mind Nikita Khrushchev's answer to the letter from Mr. R. Smith, president of Harvard University's Law School Forum. "I am confident," read the message "that better times will come in the relations between our two countries, that the sun will finally rise to disperse the depressing clouds and that all people will understand the need for friendship and cooperation among nations."

Question: How is this year's program as a whole working out?

Answer: We think that the program as a whole is working out satisfactorily. This year the United States and the Soviet Union exchanged more than twenty delegations of experts in various fields of science, engineering, public health and agriculture; two large companies in the performing arts; individual actors and musicians; a large group of students; delegations of educators, athletes and others.

Question: Would you describe the science, engineering and public health exchanges in somewhat greater detail?

Answer: The agreement provides for some considerable exchange in the fields of science, engineering and public health. This follows reasonably from the fact that the United

States is a highly developed industrial country whose accomplishments in science, industry and farming interest the Soviet people. And, likewise, the Soviet Union's success in many fields of science and technology is of increasingly great interest to Americans.

The direct contact lately reached between the USSR Academy of Sciences and the National Academy of Sciences of the USA made it possible to exchange fifty scientists and scientific workers this year. The program familiarized the scientists with research projects in a variety of fields being carried on by both academies.

Our scientists participated in international congresses held in the United States. One Soviet delegation headed by Academician Y. Rabotnov took part in a symposium on plastics in Providence, Rhode Island, arranged by Brown University last spring. Academician Wulf led another delegation at the twentieth annual electronics conference. There were also exchange information and visits by experts in the peaceful uses of atomic energy.

A sizable number of American scientists attended meetings in the Soviet Union. More than 80 Americans participated in the International Congress of Orientalists in Moscow, 128 in the First International Congress on Automation and Control, and 81 in the International Symposium on Polymers.

The agreement also calls for cooperative work in public health, particularly in an effort to fight such serious afflictions as cancer, cardiovascular diseases and poliomyelitis. Cooperation with regard to polio is very promising. The Poliomyelitis Institute of the USSR Academy of Medical Sciences and the Research Foundation of the Cincinnati Children's Hospital have agreed to do joint work on more potent anti-polio vaccines. Concrete forms of cooperation in research have been worked out between Sloan-Kettering Institute and the National Cancer Institute (USA) and the Institute of Experimental and Clinical Oncology of the USSR Academy of Medical Sciences.

There were exchange visits this year of scholars in the humanities and the social sciences and of leaders in industry, transport, construction and trade. For the first time there was an exchange of civil aviation specialists. This should help to settle the long-standing and urgent problem of establishing direct air communication between our two countries.

All told, scientific and technical exchange has been of decided benefit to both countries. We hope that it will be even more successful in the future. The Soviet Union is doing whatever it can toward that desirable end with the expectation that the efforts will be reciprocated.

Question: Our magazine has received

many letters from American readers commenting favorably on the performances given by visiting Soviet choral, dance and orchestral groups and individual musicians in the United States. American artists have been received with equal favor by the Soviet public. Will you tell us something of the year's exchanges in the performing arts and plans for 1961?

Answer: The exchanges in the performing arts are almost a tradition now. These are the largest of the exchange groups and have been exceedingly popular in both countries.

During the past year the State Symphony Orchestra of the USSR and the Georgian Folk Dance Company made very successful American tours. The orchestra was acclaimed by critics and audiences everywhere on its two-month tour. Its renditions of Tchaikovsky's *First Symphony* and Shostakovich's *Eleventh* were received with especially glowing praise. The Georgian Folk Dance Company, too, received a most gratifying audience response for its originality and captivating numbers.

American actors likewise enjoyed a cordial and enthusiastic reception in the Soviet Union. The musical comedy *My Fair Lady* toured the country this spring and was hailed as a fresh and charming production. The American Ballet was also very well received by Soviet audiences, particularly for the solo performances of Maria Tallchief and Erik Bruhn.

Soviet music lovers came in large numbers to hear young Van Cliburn on his second visit, the gifted singer Marian Anderson, the violinist Isaac Stern, the Metropolitan Opera star George London and other artists.

We were pleased to read of the American audiences' reception given our Soviet singers and instrumentalists—Emil Gilels, Vladimir Shafran, Galina Vishnevskaya, Valeri Klimov, Pavel Lisitsian, Svyatoslav Rikhter, Mstislav Rostropovich and others.

As for exchanges in this field for 1961, we hope they will be broader and more diversified.

The USSR Folk Dance Ensemble led by Igor Moiseyev is scheduled for a second trip. American audiences will also be hearing the Leningrad Philharmonic Symphony Orchestra, seeing the plays of the noted Moscow Art Theater and enjoying other Soviet performers.

Question: What has happened on film exchanges?

Answer: In accordance with the agreement we bought and showed eight American films in motion picture houses throughout the country. They were *Marty*, *Roman Holiday*, *Lili*, *Seventh Journey of Sinbad*, *Man of a Thousand Faces*, *Rhapsody*, *The Great Caruso*, and *All About Eve*. Four other films—*Oklahoma*, *The Old Man and the Sea*, *Little Boy Lost* and *The Brave One*—are now being



A. The American exchange film *Seventh Voyage of Sinbad* is featured at the Khudozhestvenny Theater. B. A delegation of American teachers visiting an art class at the Moscow Palace of Young Pioneers. C. The USSR State Symphony Orchestra plays for a New York audience at Carnegie Hall. D. Boy Scouts from the USA chatting with Soviet students.

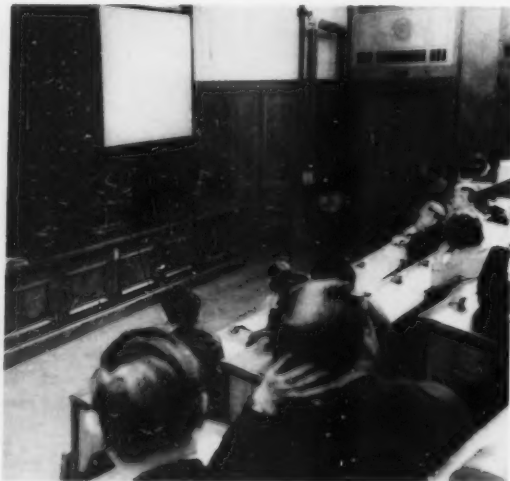


Books by American writers are among best sellers at the Moscow foreign literature shop.



Everett Fuller (left), visiting Bureau of Standards scientist, trades ideas with physicist Lev Lapidus.

American scholar Morton Fried reading a paper at the International Congress of Orientalists in Moscow.



prepared for release. All of them come out in mass editions, 500-600 copies, and are shown in as many as 300 theaters throughout the country. One or another of the American films is always being shown in a theater in each Soviet city.

Our films—*The Cranes Are Flying*, *Swan Lake*, *Circus Stars*, *Othello*, *The Idiot*, *And Quiet Flows the Don* (the first part)—have been run in the United States. We are pleased to know that American audiences are very much interested in Soviet film productions. But, we understand that our films are shown in a very limited number of American cities, so that not all Americans who would like to see Soviet films have had the opportunity to do so.

We hope that reciprocal purchases of films will continue. Audiences may look forward to seeing documentaries in addition to feature films. These are provided for in the exchange agreement.

Question: What is the situation with regard to exchange of radio and television programs?

Answer: The agreement foresees a monthly exchange of two radio broadcasts; one documentary, a popular science, education or entertainment film; two newsreel films; radio and TV appearances in one country by government officials, artists and public figures of the other; and periodic exchange of radio broadcasts on specific international problems.

Unfortunately, this section of the agreement has not been carried through. Despite the best efforts on our part, a constructive form for exchanges in this field has not been found as yet.

Question: How are the two countries working out exchanges in education?

Answer: I would call this the largest of our exchanges. We had 27 of our undergraduate and graduate students studying in major American universities for the 10 months of the 1959-60 academic year. In return, 28 Americans, both undergraduates and graduates, are attending the best of our Soviet colleges.

There have also been reciprocal delegations of public school and university educators with contacts established between Moscow and Columbia Universities, Leningrad and Harvard, Kiev and Yale.

Plans for the current year were to exchange 35 students. This unfortunately has been only partially realized. The actual number of students exchanged is 22.

We expect to have reciprocal delegations of linguists. They will study methods of teaching English in Soviet schools and Russian in the United States. There will also be visits of librarians and other public education specialists. We are exchanging pedagogical litera-

ture, educational films and related materials.

Question: Are books being exchanged?

Answer: Of course, and in considerable quantities. Besides the direct exchange between libraries, we also buy books from each other. There are some 50,000 books and magazines a year exchanged by libraries. We buy enormous quantities of reading matter for the 400,000 libraries in our country.

Although the agreement does not specifically mention exchange of plays, Soviet theaters do not by any means ignore the work of American playwrights. In the past six years 28 plays by Americans were staged by some 500 Soviet theaters, many of them very popular with our theatergoers.

Question: What was the sports exchange picture for the past year?

Answer: 1960 was an Olympic year. The winter games in Squaw Valley and the summer games in Rome took most of the time and effort of both American and Soviet athletes. That is the reason for the comparatively few exchange contests we have had this year.

But the situation will be livening up very soon. Soviet gymnasts, ping-pong and hockey players will shortly be demonstrating their skill in the United States. A broader program for sports exchange for this next year is scheduled. We expect to be welcoming men's and women's basketball teams, gymnasts, swimmers, high divers and other athletes from the United States.

Question: We know from past experience that both the American and Soviet people are very much interested in exchanging exhibitions like the ones held in New York's Coliseum and Moscow's Sokolniki Park. Are there any scheduled for next year?

Answer: Yes. The agreement calls for American exhibitions of medicine and medical services, plastics and transport to be held in the Soviet Union. Americans will be seeing Soviet exhibitions on medicine and medical services, children's books and illustrations, and the artistic and technical work of children.

Besides that, we hope to be exhibiting at international exhibitions which are to be held in the United States, and we shall welcome American participation in international exhibitions to be held in the Soviet Union.

And, may I, as a final word, take this opportunity to send my heartiest New Year's greeting and best wishes to the readers of the magazine.

We are glad that our exchanges and contacts with the United States are becoming more diversified. We shall continue to do our best to make the exchanges between our two countries broader, because we firmly believe that they are an important factor in improving relations and achieving greater mutual understanding between our peoples.







(Above) Members of the company on sightseeing tour of Moscow view the famous Bolshoi Theater.

(Left) A standing ovation for the American Ballet Theater winds up a triumphant Soviet tour.

AMERICAN ARTISTS IN THE SOVIET UNION



Singer Pavel Lisitsian and George London's wife Nora look on as the American soloist is made up.

The star of the Metropolitan Opera won glowing praise for his performance as Boris Godunov.



George London SINGS BORIS GODUNOV in Bolshoi Theater

By Yevgeni Vladimirov

MOSCOW OPERA LOVERS gave a tumultuous ovation to George London, visiting star of the New York Metropolitan Opera, for his consummate performance as Czar Boris in *Boris Godunov*.

The Moussorgsky opera has been produced by the Bolshoi for years and years. It is one of the best known to Soviet audiences and best loved. There are operagoers who have heard scores of singers do Boris. Some of the older ones will tell you in hushed and reverent tones of the time they heard the great Chaliapin sing the role.

For audiences, cast and critics combined to speak of London's Boris with unstinted praise—this is tribute. Alexander Ognitsev, a prominent Soviet singer who has sung the role frequently, said: "This is a real Boris. London is a great artist."

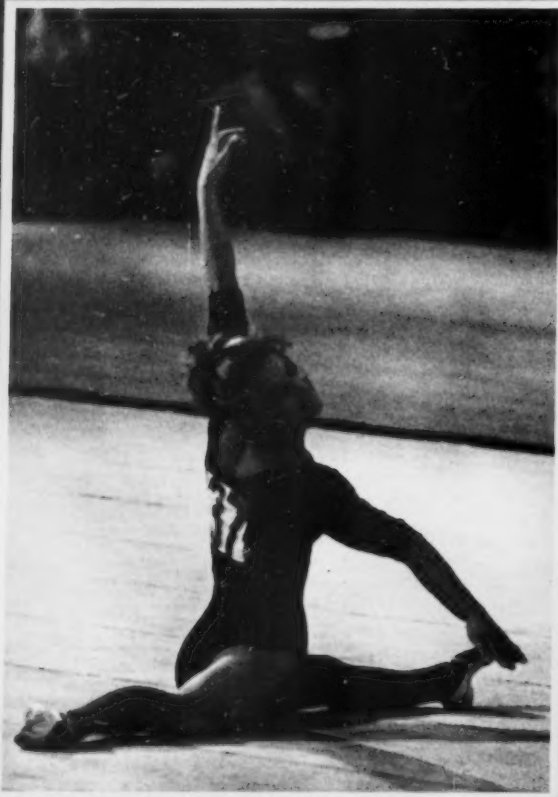
Singer Pavel Lisitsian, whom Americans

heard on his concert tour of the United States this spring, described his colleague as a fine and sensitive artist.

Leonid Baratov, who staged the opera, said: "I was amazed by his remarkable capacity for work, his ability to see so penetratingly into the very heart of this complex character of Russian opera. It was hard to believe that a foreigner was singing. This is the first time that a foreign artist has sung this famous role on our opera stage."

Professor Georgi Orvid, Bolshoi Theater director, hoped that London would be a forerunner of other visiting American opera stars: "It was with great pleasure," he said, "that I presented Mr. London with our theater's honorary badge."

During his tour in the Soviet Union George London won the hearts of many music lovers throughout the country.



Gymnast Polina Astakhova brought home a gold, a silver and a bronze medal.

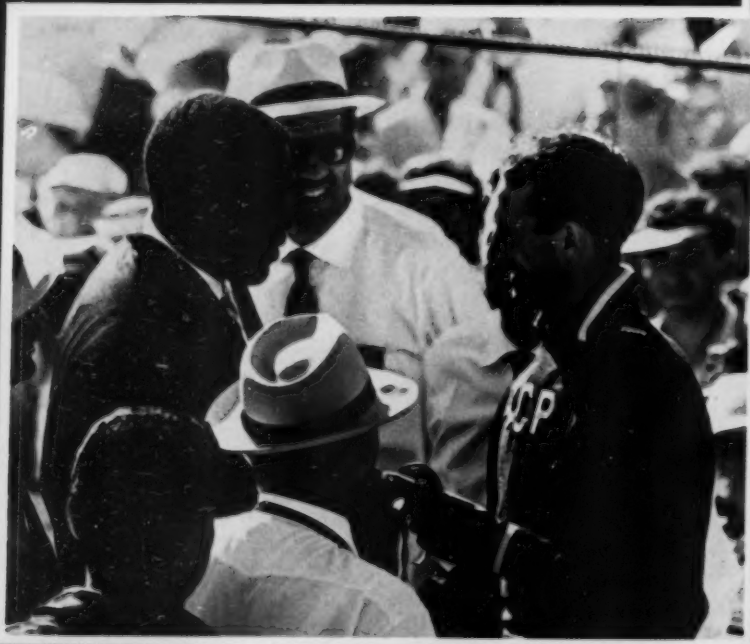


King of gymnasts Boris Shakhlin won six medals, four of them gold.



USA's Rafer Johnson and USSR's Vasili Kuznetsov, old rivals and good friends.

Valentin Boreiko and Oleg Golovanov, first across the finish line.



SOVIET OLYMPIC STARS

By Alexei Piskarev

ONE OF ROME'S seven hills is topped by a bronze figure of Garibaldi mounted on a horse. The inscription on the pedestal reads "Rome or Death." The leader of Italy's war of liberation made this declaration before his march on the ancient city of Romulus and Remus.

The athletes of five continents who took over the Eternal City this past summer for the Seventeenth Olympic games rephrased the famous declaration. To them it was "Rome and Life." The Olympiad was a world contest dedicated to beauty and strength, peace and friendship.

The athletes were gathered to compete for global firsts on the cinder track, in the gymnasium and the swimming pool. But they were also gathered as good will emissaries from their various countries.

The 300 men and women on the Soviet team faced superb rivals in every one of the 19 sports in which they competed. They are proud, and have reason to be, that they brought home more medals than any other team—43 gold, 29 silver and 31 bronze.

Competition in the track and field events was particularly keen. The level was so high and the battle so stubborn that every victory was a major achievement.

Vasili Rudenkov's consistent top form in the hammer throw defeated American world record holder Harold Connolly. In the high jump Robert Shavlakadze and Valeri Brumel beat John Thomas, the American who holds the world record. Victor Tsibulenko's first try with the javelin brought him top Olympic honors. New Olympic records were set for almost every one of the 34 events in the track and field program—proof of the unusually high level of the competition. The United States had a better team in Rome than ever before.

Gymnasts Win Ten Firsts

Our gymnasts made a brilliant showing, capturing ten gold medals. Boris Shakhlin deserves special kudos, he took four gold medals, a silver and a bronze. And our women's team was so well prepared that any one of the girls could have made a strong bid for over-all honors.

In weightlifting our men won gold medals in each of the five weight classes they entered.

At the games in Melbourne four years ago our equestrian team made only two fourth places. The Rome story was different. Sergei Filatov captured a gold medal and the team rolled up an 11-point score.

USSR yachtsmen also forged ahead. In the last Olympic games they failed to score even one point. Their performance in the Bay of Naples brought them a gold and a silver medal and 13 points for the team.

Our swordsmen made Soviet fencing fans happier with the three gold, two silver and two bronze medals they brought home, as op-

posed to the lonely two bronze ones they returned with from Melbourne. That was a jump from seventh place in 1956 to first place in 1960.

The battling for top position showed up the weak spots in our team as well. Our wrestlers, for example, did not do nearly so well in the free style bouts as they should have. The same goes for the boxers. Soviet coaches will have to do more and better with these two sports.

The Winners Back Home

But as far as over-all results go, Soviet athletes came through with flying colors. They are back home now, working at their jobs and studies and training on the side for new contests.

There is the "World's Number 1 Strongman"—that's the title newspapermen awarded Yuri Vlasov for his remarkable score of 1,182.5 pounds in the triple-exercise classic in Rome, thus surpassing by 55 pounds the record set by American Paul Anderson.

Vlasov is an engineer by profession and a leisure-time painter. He's talking of trying his hand at a script for a film about weightlifters. He's also an omnivorous reader of philosophy. In Rome he found it easier than others to socialize with athletes from other countries because he speaks fluent French. He was always glad to oblige when asked for press and radio interviews—and he was asked often.

At one social session Jim Bradford, the American strongman, had everybody laughing when he said that his wife just wouldn't let him come home without the gold medal. Too bad for Jim. That medal is now reposing in Yuri Vlasov's apartment in Moscow.

Arkadi Vorobyov, another outstanding Soviet weightlifter, is a war veteran and hails from the Urals. This Olympic prize-winner is now doing graduate work at the Sverdlovsk Medical College. He's researching the values and effects of intensive training.

This was one of the stories that went the rounds of Olympic Village about Soviet high jumper Robert Shavlakadze and John Thomas of the U.S. Thomas had earned himself the name "Human Kangaroo." They met one morning and Shavlakadze said, "I probably won't jump above your height today." Before that day was over, though, Shavlakadze had cleared the bar at more than 7.06 feet (2.16 meters) to win the high jump. His students in Tbilisi, the Georgian capital, were the first to send a congratulatory telegram to their teacher. Later that evening when a happy Shavlakadze and a disappointed Thomas got together once again, the Georgian embraced his rival and said, "I bet that at the next Olympics in Tokyo you'll fly clear into space."

The Press sisters, who won world fame this summer, are back at school in Leningrad. Tamara, Olympic and world champion in the



Track star Lyudmila Shevtsova set a new high in the 800-meter race.



Vera Krepkina did 6.37 meters in the broad jump, a world record.

shot put—she chalked up a phenomenal 58.32 feet (17.78 meters)—is a civil engineering student. Her younger sister Irina, the best hurdler in Rome and world record holder in the pentathlon, is studying at a railway transport college. After her return home from Rome Irina participated in the USSR track and field championship and improved her world record in the pentathlon, scoring 4,972 points. Both these athletes are alumnae of the famous junior sports school directed by coach Victor Alexeyev.

Tamara more than once during her stay in Rome was moved to say, "What I like most is that all the Olympians live like one big friendly family, the friendliest I've ever seen."

Simplicity Is the Word

The Italian newspaper *Il Messaggero* chose the single word "simplicity" to define the distinguishing characteristic of the Soviet contingent. "This simplicity," the newspaper wrote, "creates an atmosphere that makes one forget that he is talking to famous world champions and heroes of past and future Olympiads." Janis Krumins, lumberjack from Latvia—the "Woodland Giant," they called him; the slight blonde broad jumper from a Kiev college, Vera Krepkina; the young Leningrad fencer Victor Zhdanovich; and the other Soviet sportsmen justified the description by their demeanor on and off the field.

Pyotr Bolotnikov, cabinet-maker by trade, had made a promise he couldn't break—to bring a long-distance run gold medal back to his six-year-old son in Moscow. He performed in the record smashing tradition of the famous Vladimir Kuts. A month later, on October 16, in Kiev he set a new world record in the 10,000 meters, clocking 28 minutes, 18.8 seconds. This easygoing 29-year-old athlete seems to collect medals almost without trying. When he was asked what he liked most of all about the Olympic games, Bolotnikov said, "First, the victory of our team, and second, the sprinting of that remarkable American girl Wilma Rudolph."

The Ukraine contributed more than its usual high quota of champions. The best woman gymnast in Rome was 26-year-old Larissa Latynina, a Kiev schoolteacher, whose favorite pastime is the theater.

Polina Astakhova, another graceful Ukrainian gymnast, is 24 years old and is studying in Stalino in the Donbas Region. In her spare time she trains a team of future Olympic contenders in the local club.

Boris Shakhlin, king of Soviet gymnasts, also hails from the same general part of the country. He is a teacher. His duel at Rome with the very superior gymnasts from Japan was something to have seen.

Albert Azaryan, another top-class gymnast, comes from Armenia. When he was younger he worked as a smith in his native village, not far from the town of Leninakan, and amazed people around with his feats of strength. One of them was to hold a heavy sledge hammer at arm's length. This gifted gymnast does two side crosses and a straight one in a row on the flying rings. There aren't many who can follow suit. Albert Azaryan is now 31 and

teaches physical culture in a Yerevan school.

Victor Kapitonov, an army officer, scored a sensational win in the road cycling event. When newspapermen thronged around Kapitonov and asked him what had helped him win, he said, "First, my strong adversaries and, secondly, the fans in my home town, Kalinin on the Volga. How could I let them down?"

It was a peaceful and friendly "conquest" of Rome that took place this summer. The Olympic heroes will remember it for the rest of their lives and so will millions of their admirers. Each day of the Games was marked by thousands of wonderful meetings. Without a doubt the outstanding event of the Seventeenth Olympic Games was the triumph of the spirit of cooperation.



A. Victor Kapitonov just after he scored his sensational victory in the road cycling race.

B. Victor Zhdanovich and Yuri Sisikin took first and second place in the fencing matches.

C. Yevgeni Zhukov and Pyotr Bolotnikov lead in the 10,000-meter. Bolotnikov set a new record.

D. USSR's Anatoli Samotsvetov, hammer thrower, and Yuri Kutenko, decathlon man, with USA's hammer thrower Harold Connolly and his wife Olga (née Fikotova), a well-known athlete, herself.

E. For the second time running Larissa Latynina captured over-all honors in Olympic gymnastics.

(Opposite page) Newsmen at Rome hailed Yuri Vlasov as the "World's Number 1 Strongman."



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10	MR. HILLMAN	147.5	152.5	157.5	162.5	167.5	172.5
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12	MR. HILLMAN	147.5	152.5	157.5	162.5	167.5	172.5
13	MR. HILLMAN	147.5	152.5	157.5	162.5	167.5	172.5

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