USSR

FESTIVAL OF UKRAINIAN ARTS

See page 8

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Front cover: The Ukrainian Dance Ensemble performing the suite *We Are from the Ukraine* at the Festival of Ukrainian Arts in Moscow last November. *See story page 8.*

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At the 6th Session of the USSR Supreme Soviet

The Sixth Session of the Fifth USSR Supreme Soviet opened in Moscow on December 20, 1960. Here Foreign Minister Andrei A. Gromyko reports on the international situation and the foreign policy of the Soviet Union.

Vladimir N. Novikov, Deputy Chairman of the USSR Council of Ministers and Chairman of the State Planning Committee, speaks on the 1961 State Plan for Economic Development at a joint session of the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities.

Vasili F. Garbuzov, USSR Minister of Finance, presented the State Budget for 1961 and reported on the fulfillment of the 1959 budget. The current budget provides for 78.9 billion rubles in revenue and 77.5 billion rubles in expenditures.

The many foreign diplomats present at the session witnessed the deputies' wholehearted approval of the State Budget proposed for 1961, the 1961 State Plan for Economic Development and the report on the government's peaceloving foreign policy.

A group of deputies get together between sessions. (Left to right) B. I. Samsonov, pattern-maker of the Ukhtomsky Agricultural Machinery Works; V. G. Blazhenov, Moscow railway engineer; A. M. Gorev, team leader of the Moszhilstroi (Moscow Housing Trust); A. N. Bakulev, outstanding surgeon.

SOVIET DIARY

A HISTORICAL EVENT

THE PLENUM of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union held in Moscow in January adopted a decision to convene the Twenty-second Congress of the CPSU on Ocober 17, 1961. The Party Congress is a historical event in the life of our country. Each Communist Party Congress marks a new milestone on the road to communism, each Congress presents a concrete program of Party activity. The decisions of Party Congresses have great political authority and mobilizing power in our society because the Communist Party has the trust and support of all the Soviet people.

The Twenty-second Congress will sum up the results of the Party's activity since 1959 and discuss the most important problems facing the Communist Party and the Soviet people today.

A major point on the agenda of the Twenty-second Congress will be the adoption of a new Party program on the construction of communism in the country. The decision to work out a new program, as is known, was adopted in March 1939, at the Eighteenth Party Congress, but the Second World War and other events postponed discussion on this decision.

"Now we are able to see ahead with broader vision," said Nikita S. Khrushchev. "The Party has amassed a great deal of experience, and, on the basis of this experience, on the basis of our success in developing our country, it is now possible to work out a more detailed program. . . ."

Great changes have taken place in the life of the country and of all mankind since the Party's present program was adopted in March 1919 at the Eighth Congress. As a result of the fulfillment of this program, the Soviet Union, in a brief historical period, has become a powerful socialist power with a prosperous economy, advanced science and culture, and undefeatable defensive might. This accomplished, the Communist Party is now leading the Soviet people in completing the construction of a communist society.

The Plenum also discussed new measures on the development of agriculture, summed up the results of work already accomplished and outlined a program for the further growth of collective farm and state farm production.

A BIG SHIP NEEDS DEEP WATER

TALKING ABOUT the size of the national budget for 1961 adopted at the December session of the Supreme Soviet, the people say, "A big ship needs deep water." The budget calls for revenues of 78.9 billion rubles and expenditures of 77.5 billion—this is in terms of the new ruble. It was approved after lively debate, with deputies from every part of the country presenting their reactions and the special needs of their constituents.

Deputy V. Klimenko from the Donbas proposed the construction of a new canal in his region. A deputy from Estonia, V. Klauson, asked for expansion of the republic's local industry. Deputy Batiyev wanted new oil refineries built in the fast growing Tatar Autonomous Republic he represents. Scores of such similar proposals and amendments were made and thoughtfully debated.

Previous to the presentation of the 1961 draft budget, the deputies, assembled in the Grand Kremlin Palace, heard reports on the progress of the seven-year plan now entering on its third year. They indicated that during the first two years of the plan, 1959 and 1960, the plan was not only fulfilled, but overfulfilled. In these two years capital investment totaled nearly 490 billion rubles, a sum greater than was spent in all the 22 prewar years combined. More than 2,000 large new plants went into operation.

In 1960 steel production increased by 5 million tons, cement by 6.5 million tons and oil by approximately 18 million tons. Electric power production was boosted by some 30 billion kilowatt-hours. The absolute increase in industrial production in 1960 tops the very highest previous results. Figures for the consumer industries showed that 202 million yards of textiles, millions of pairs of shoes and many other consumer goods were produced over and above the plan.

The 1961 plan adopted by the Supreme Soviet foresees an increase of almost 9 per cent in volume of industrial production over 1960. During the year another three million factory and office workers will be added to the country's payroll. Wages will rise again. Additional millions of rubles' worth of consumer goods will be stocking the country's retail stores. Ten million people will move to new apartments. College enrollment will increase by five million. Additional appropriations of many millions of rubles will go to the further expansion of consumer goods production.

A notable feature of the 1961 budget is the cut in military expenditures of some nine billion rubles following on the law passed last year that reduced the country's armed forces by 1,200,000 men. The defense item for 1961 is 11.9 per cent of the budget as against 12.9 per cent for 1960 and 19.9 per cent for 1955.

While expenditures for defense keep decreasing, those for social and cultural services keep increasing. The sums allocated to education, science, culture, health, social insurance and other welfare items will add up to more than a third of the entire national budget.

WORLD'S LARGEST POWER PROJECT

THE STALINGRAD Hydroelectric Station's twenty-first and final turbogenerator began producing commercial current on December 9, 1960. The station, the world's largest, will have a twenty-second turbogenerator, but it will be a purely experimental installation, a research laboratory for future stations.

The aggregate capacity of all the Stalingrad turbines, 2,415,000 kilowatts, exceeds that of the Lenin Hydroelectric Station near Kuibyshev, until now the world's largest, by 150,000 kilowatts. These two giant projects and the Ivankovo, Uglich, Rybinsk, Gorky and Kama Hydroelectric Stations are units in the series on the Volga and the Kama, its tributary.

The Stalingrad's rated capacity is 2,563,000 kilowatts, and its annual average output will range from 11 to 14 billion kilowatt-hours, depending upon the water level of the Volga. Besides feeding additional power to Moscow, the Volga and Central Black-Soil regions of the Russian Federation, the Donets Coal Basin and other industrial areas, the project will irrigate 18.5 million acres in the fertile but arid sections of the Lower Volga and the Caspian lowland, and will speed shipping in the Volga's lower reaches.

The Stalingrad project was completed a year ahead of schedule as a result of new engineering approaches. Construction was done on a continuous-flow basis to cut building time and costs. A new powerhouse design made it possible to reduce the length of the spillway dam by a third. These and other radical solutions are being incorporated in other projects under construction on the Volga and elsewhere to supply the country with cheap electricity.

The seven-year plan forecasts an output of power of 500 to 525 billion kilowatt-hours a year by 1965, more than double the 1958 level.

ONE PARTY— THE POLICY OF 200,000,000

By Andrei Kuchkin

Historian

THERE IS ONLY one political party in our country—the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU). This specific feature of the political life of our society seems puzzling to some people. They claim that it is abnormal and undemocratic. This is an altogether erroneous conception. A multiple-party system is no guarantee of democracy. The political history of many countries, including that of prerevolutionary Russia, makes that fact abundantly evident.

The one-party system of the Soviet Union evolved naturally out of the struggle to extend democracy to the broadest sections of the population. Before the October Socialist Revolution of 1917 there were many opposing political parties in Russia. With few exceptions, their programs won them no substantial support from the people.

On the right were the monarchist League of the Russian People; the Octobrists, who represented the interests of the landlords and the bourgeoisie; and the Constitutional Democrats—the Cadets—who served the big capitalists. Their policies were all dedicated to securing the interests of the bourgeoisie and the landlords, to preserving the monarchy and landed proprietorship, to maintaining the system of colonial oppression of the non-Russian peoples of the czarist empire and to continuing the imperialist war. As a consequence, they lost what narrow support they originally gathered and either faded away before the October Revolution, as had happened with the League of Russian People, or, like the Octobrists and the Constitutional Democrats, degenerated into counterrevolutionary conspiratorial groups that took up arms against the government of the Soviets.

In addition to these blatantly reactionary, anti-democratic parties there were the so-called socialist parties—the Mensheviks and the Socialist-Revolutionaries. They opposed the monarchy, favored agrarian reform and proclaimed themselves supporters of socialism. For a time their ostensibly democratic program won them the support of some of the intellectuals, peasants and workers.

Finally, there was the Communist Party (Bolsheviks). To explain its origin, we must turn history back a half-century. Prerevolutionary Russia had four basic classes—the landlords, capitalists, workers and peasants. The workers and the great mass of the peasants, with the exception of the rich exploiting kulaks, were poverty-stricken.

With the development of capitalism in Russia at the turn of the century, the working class grew in size and in strength. The workers and peasants were savagely exploited. They worked 14 to 16 hours a day at wages that were not enough to keep body and soul together. Their bitterness and hatred broke out in spontaneous revolts that the czarist officialdom put down by shooting and hanging strikers and rioters.

The class struggle had to be channeled and properly organized if the working people were to be eased of their terrible burden of suffering. So thought the best representatives of the people of Russia, like Vladimir Ulyanov (Lenin) and others who came from the intellectuals and from the working class itself. Life demanded the formation of a political party capable of expressing the people's aspirations and of carrying out a policy that accorded with the interests and needs of the working people. Lenin and his comrades-in-arms worked persistently for the creation of such a party. His efforts were concentrated on organizing the working class in order to lead it in a relentless struggle against its exploiters.

The Communist Party (Bolsheviks) was founded in 1903. Its organizer was Vladimir Lenin. The ideological weapon it adopted was and remains Marxism, the teachings of Marx and Engels founded on the objective laws that govern the development of society and explain the successive changes of social formations in the process of social development. The Party worked out a plan and tactics of struggle divided into a minimum program and a maximum program. The minimum program called for the overthrow of czarism by reasonable tactics and a change in the social order, with the goal of achieving democratic freedoms. The maximum program called for the establishment of the power of the working class, an end to the exploitation of man by man, conversion of the means of production into public property as a basis for building a classless communist society that would use these great productive potentials to satisfy all of man's material and cultural wants. This was, in brief, Lenin's theory of the bourgeois-democratic revolution and its transformation into the socialist revolution which was to create the basis for constructing a classless, communist society.

Almost from the moment of its birth the Communist Party was tested in battle. In 1905 the people rose against the czarist autocracy, and the Party marched in the foremost ranks of the revolutionary fighters. No other party so devotedly defended the interests of the working people.

But in 1905 the people still lacked the strength to overthrow the old regime, and czarism won. But the party of the Communists continued its work among the people, getting them ready for the decisive revolution which was inevitably brewing since brutal exploitation went on unabated and the people were being stripped of all rights. The Communists were persecuted by the czarist officialdom. With exile, hard prison labor, firing squad and gallows, the autocracy hoped to crush the Communists or to terrorize them until they gave up the revolutionary struggle. But Communists are as indestructible as the working class itself, that endless reservoir from which the Party constantly reinforces itself. In the years following 1905 the Party gained in influence and authority with its steadfast program of struggle for the interests of all working people.

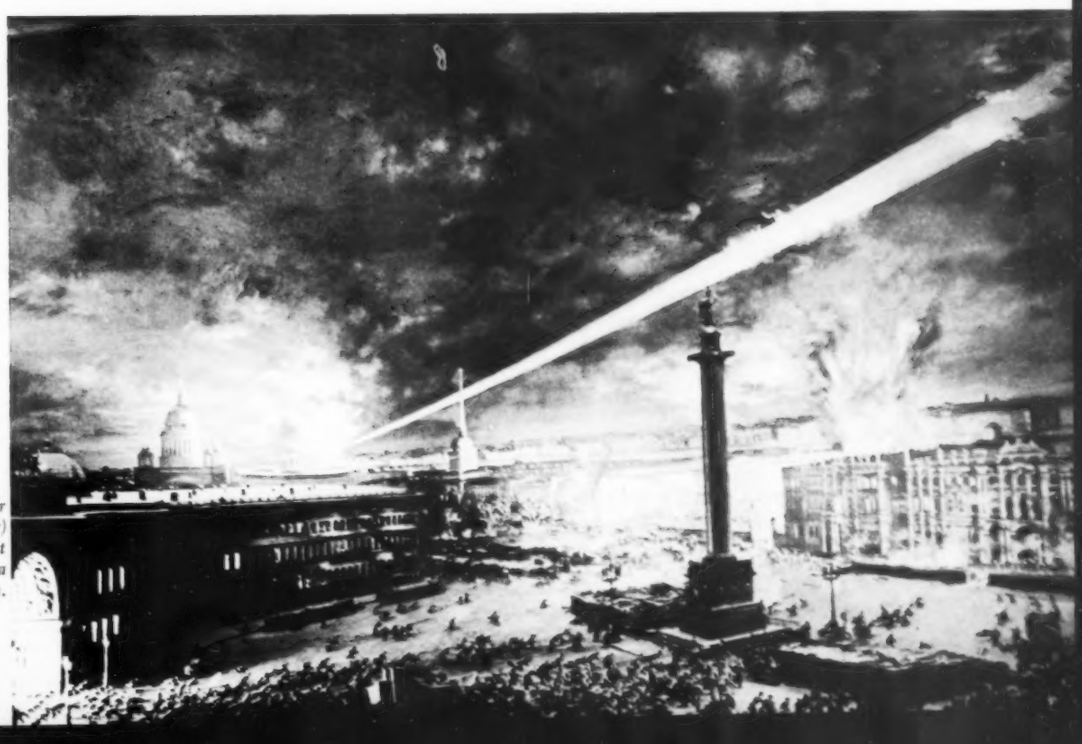
Then came the year 1917. The first imperialist war brought the country to the verge of ruin. Starvation and the whip ruled the cities and villages. War-weary and hungry, millions of soldiers refused to fight. This was not their war, they wanted an end to it. The czarist government and all the bourgeois parties demanded that the war go on. Only the Communist Party called on the workers, soldiers and peasants to struggle to overthrow the czarist government and to put a workers' and peasants' government in power that would give the country peace, bread and land, and once and for all put an end to national oppression.

In March 1917 the people overthrew the czarist government, but the bourgeoisie seized power and formed a Provisional Government

A veteran of the revolutionary movement, the author of this article, Andrei Kuchkin, is an eminent scientist specializing in the history of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. He is one of the co-authors of the textbook History of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union *which has been published in editions totaling many million copies.*

A memorable page in the history of the first Russian Revolution of 1905-1907 was written by the workers of Ivanovo-Voznesensk, now the city of Ivanovo. In May 1905 they went out on strike. During the 72 days that they were out, the workers, led by the Bolsheviks, organized the first Soviet of Workers' Deputies, the prototype of the Soviet government of today. The painting illustrates an episode from the Ivanovo strike.

The painting shows Vladimir Lenin addressing the Second Congress of the Russian Social-Democratic Party. It was at this congress that met in the summer of 1903, first in Brussels and then in London, that the Bolshevik Party was formed. In 1918 it assumed the name Communist Party.



The storming of the Winter Palace on November 7, 1917 (October 25 by the Old Style calendar) heralded the victory of the October Socialist Revolution. The historic scene is recreated in a diorama shown at the Museum of the Revolution.

The picture shows Lenin addressing the First Congress of Peasants' Deputies held in Petrograd in May 1917, when he presented the Party's program on the agrarian question. It called for the transfer of all the landed estates to the peasants.

The first revolutionary newspapers being distributed in Moscow after the overthrow of the autocracy in 1917.

which the Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries joined. The Communists could not participate in a government that represented the interests of big capital and the landlords and that called on the people for a "war until victory." The Bolsheviks demanded a government without capitalists that would declare an immediate peace and distribute the land among the peasants.

The Provisional Government did nothing to ameliorate the want and privation. The people learned soon enough that the Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries who collaborated with the capitalist parties had nothing to offer but empty promises. The suffering and hunger continued. Only the Communist Party kept fighting for the people's needs. The Provisional Government answered with reprisals and ordered the arrest of Lenin, the Party's leader.

Forced to the conclusion that the people could not win power by peaceful means, the Communists appealed to the workers, soldiers and poor peasants to rise up against the Provisional Government. The response to this appeal was immediate. It needed no lengthy persuasion for a worker, a soldier, a peasant to support and fight for the kind of government the Party called for—one without oppression, without exploitation. The people took up arms, and on November 7, 1917 (October 25, Old Style calendar), the Provisional Government was overthrown.

The Socialist Revolution carried through under the leadership of the Communist Party was practically bloodless. Immediately afterward the Congress of Soviets, authorized representatives of the people, adopted the first epoch-making decrees—the Decree on Peace and the Decree on Land.

How did the other parties react to the Socialist Revolution?

The Octobrists and Constitutional Demo-

It was in 1929, known as "The Year of Great Change," that the peasants, convinced of the great advantages offered by collective farming, joined by the hundreds of thousands. The lower photo shows the first machine and tractor station, near Odessa, set up in 1927.

The first five-year plan (1928-1933) launch the country, under the Party's leadership, a vastly ambitious program of industrializati This photo shows the last ties being laid a railroad to connect Siberia with Central As

crats openly embarked on a course of armed struggle against the Soviet power. They bred counterrevolutionary plots and supported the foreign interventionist armies. Some time later the Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries also came out against the Socialist Revolution. Their tactics at first was to destroy the Soviet governmental bodies from within.

Of the 649 delegates to the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets, 72 were Mensheviks, 160 were Socialist Revolutionaries and the remaining 390 were members of the Communist Party. The Mensheviks and the Right-wing Socialist-Revolutionaries joined in a resolution to condemn the October Revolution as adventurism and then walked out of the meeting. Their clear intent was to break up the Congress. The tactics lost them what little public support they had managed to retain.

Some of the rank-and-file Mensheviks and Right-wing Socialist-Revolutionaries remained at the Congress as did the group of Left-wing Socialist-Revolutionaries with a leadership that took a vacillating position.

When the government was formed on November 8, (October 26) 1917, the Communist Party, with an overwhelming majority at the Second Congress of Soviets, demonstrated its readiness to cooperate with other parties. In an appeal to all the working classes of Russia issued at the time, the Central Committee of the Communist Party declared: "We were willing, and remain willing, to share power with the minority . . ." The Party insisted only on one condition, that the minority agree to carry out the program of gradual but undeviating progress toward socialism adopted by the Second All-Russian Congress.

The answer of the minority parties to cooperation on that basis was an unambiguous "no." In November 1917 the Mensheviks and Right-wing Socialist-Revolutionaries joined in a "Committee for the Salvation of the Father-

A meeting of Communist Party members at a Rostov machine-tool plant with non-Party workers participating. This is general practice even at the Party's Central Committee Plenary Sessions. The diagram shows Party membership growth between 1917 and 1959.

The Kuznetsk Metallurgical Plant, one of the heavy industry projects built under the first five-year plan. The whole country responded to the Party's appeal that the target figures set in the plan be met ahead of schedule.

A scene that occurred frequently in 1941 on the battlefields of the war against fascism. A group of frontline soldiers applying for Communist Party membership.

The 21st Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union was held in Moscow in January and February of 1959. Major item on its agenda was the current seven-year plan. Before the plan was submitted to the Congress it had been discussed at meetings attended by more than 70 million people.

The Party committee of the Kuban Collective Farm in the North Caucasus discussing steps to increase yield. Party members enjoy no special privileges. They work at farms, factories and schools like everyone else. But wherever he works, the Communist is expected to set the example for integrity, civic-mindedness, industry and responsibility.

land and the Revolution," a conspiratorial group whose aim was non-recognition of the Soviet power and the organization of a bitter struggle against it.

The Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries became increasingly bold in their counterrevolutionary activities, apparently encouraged by the tolerance displayed by the Soviet government. Soon after the Revolution they took to armed struggle and instigated counterrevolutionary outbreaks led by Kaledin, Kornilov and Dutov.

In 1918 Right-wing Socialist-Revolutionaries precipitated revolts against the Soviet Republic in Samara, Saratov, Yaroslavl, Tambov and other cities. Armed conspiracy, sabotage, murder—violence of every kind on a growing scale—was resorted to by the Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries to undermine the young Soviet Republic. In 1918 the Socialist-Revolutionary Kaplan shot Lenin in an attempted assassination.

In March 1918 the Socialist-Revolutionaries withdrew from the government, and in July of that same year, while the Fifth Congress of Soviets was meeting, their Left-wing group engineered a counterrevolutionary uprising in Moscow. The Fifth Congress of Soviets thereupon expelled them. Thus, the Left-wing Socialist-Revolutionaries themselves broke their alliance with the Communists by deserting to the enemies of the Revolution.

It was not long before the policy of the Socialist-Revolutionaries and the Mensheviks brought the crisis within these parties to a head. They began to splinter, and rank-and-file members left, some to join the Communists. The two parties lost influence at a disastrous rate. In the first half of 1918 representatives of these parties made up 24.6 per cent of the delegates to the gubernia and uyezd congresses of Soviets; by the second half of the year their representation had shrunk to 4.6 per cent.

With the people's support lost, the Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries turned completely to illegal methods of struggle. In many cities they formed underground groups with their leaders directing the counterrevolutionary activities of their small number of associates from a center across the border.

The political parties that refused to accept Soviet power and failed to understand that it was a people's revolution the Communist Party had led in October 1917 vanished from the scene in the twenties. Their public support faded, and they degenerated into factions and conspiracies.

So it was that the Communist Party, by reason of its leadership of the people during the preparation and carrying out of the Revolution, the defense of its achievements in the harrowing years of the Civil War and the construction of socialist society, emerged historically as the only political party.

The October Revolution brought about the formation of a socialist state which has two friendly classes with interlocking interests—workers and farmers—with a working intelligentsia closely related. The Communist Party represents the harmonious interests of workers, peasants and intelligentsia who are moving together toward a common goal. Without conflicting classes there is no reason for the existence of other political parties.

As the only political party, the governing party, the Communist Party's existence is unthinkable without the closest possible contact with the masses of people. This close relationship with the people was underscored by Lenin, the Party's founder. The Party does not counterpose itself to the people. In all its daily work and in all its fundamental decisions it relies upon the masses, and the masses associate the realization of all their strivings with the Party.

There is only one party in the Soviet Union, but that party carries out the policy of all the two hundred million people of the country. Therein lies the source of the Party's strength and authority. For all its fundamental decisions and even for its day-to-day work the Party and its Central Committee rely on the people's knowledge and experience. Before every Party Congress and plenary meeting of the Central Committee, the questions to be discussed are published in advance so that every citizen—Party member or not—may have the opportunity to present his opinion and make his suggestions.

Take the current seven-year plan which was drafted at the initiative of the Communist Party as an example. Before the plan was finalized at the 21st Congress of the Party, it was discussed by workers, farmers, and intellectuals throughout the country at public meetings attended by more than 70 million people. Some five million citizens proposed changes and additions, many of which were incorporated into the final draft.

The Party raises the most important problems for discussion by the people, and the decisions taken by the Party embody the people's collective opinion. People from industry, agriculture, science, the arts—many of them not affiliated with the Party—are invited to the plenary sessions of the Central Committee. Their suggestions are given serious consideration before decisions are adopted. That is why the people see in the Party's decisions their own aspirations, plans and interests. That is why the decisions are carried through with such determination and enthusiasm. The country's industry now turns out in a ten-day

period as much manufactured goods as prerevolutionary Russia did in a year. Soviet science has made major contributions to cosmic exploration, rocket engineering, the peaceful uses of atomic energy, electronics, automation and other areas of research. Thousands of new factories and power stations dot the country. Consumer goods are available in ever larger quantities. Wages keep rising, the workday is being cut, taxes are being abolished, welfare services are increasing. The Soviet Union educates more engineers than any other country in the world. These are achievements that speak eloquently for the able leadership of the Communist Party.

The fact that there is only one political party in the Soviet Union does not in any way limit the democratic rights and freedoms of the citizen. The Communist Party is not the only public organization in the country. There are the trade unions, the Young Communist League (Komsomol), the cooperative societies, the women's organizations, and many others. Being a leading force of socialist society, the vanguard of the working people, the Communist Party relies upon the work of all these organizations, draws them into discussion of various problems relating to communist construction and listens to the voices of their representatives. The active exchange of ideas expressing the people's initiative, embodied in all Party decisions, takes place through the various channels for the free expression of public opinion—the press, radio, television, forums, debates and other types of public meetings.

The ideological unity of the Party itself, the harmony and discipline within the Party, presumes the active and effective exchange of opinion so characteristic of Party life. The airing of problems, the criticism of shortcomings and the continuous search for the best way to eliminate them—this is what the Party demands of all its members. Free and unhampered discussion until a decision is democratically arrived at is a law of Party life, so recorded in its Charter.

Party members enjoy no special privileges. They work in factories, farms, stores, schools and laboratories like everyone else. But wherever he works, the Communist is expected to set an example for responsibility, industry and integrity.

Nor does the fact that there is only one Party place the non-Party citizen at a disadvantage. In local government bodies, as a matter of fact, about 50 per cent of the deputies are non-Party people.

The Communist Party, like every other mass organization, has the right and the duty to nominate candidates for public office. The nominees are discussed at general election rallies. The fact that one candidate is placed on the ballot does not mean that the one-party system eliminates the possibility of choosing the worthiest candidate. On the contrary, the very absence of party rivalry enables the Party, the trade unions and other organizations to concentrate on evaluating the qualifications of the nominees and to select the candidate most likely to measure up to the job of deputy. Should the voters choose a deputy who is remiss in his duties or who does not carry out their mandate, they may recall him at will and elect another deputy in his place.

The growth of the Party membership attests to the vitality of its program and policy. Immediately before the October Revolution the Party had no more than 240,000 members. Just prior to the Second World War its membership approximated 2.5 million. The delegates to the 21st Party Congress that met in 1959 represented some eight million members.

Note, too, that the requirements for Party membership are demanding and that only the most civic minded, those who enjoy the affection and esteem of their neighbors and workmates, are permitted to call themselves Communists, a title of honor but also one of great responsibility.

To Soviet people the word Communist is a synonym for courage, self-sacrifice, social consciousness and understanding, love of people and country. It was not without reason that the Communists were the first to be hunted down and killed by the White Guards and foreign interventionists when they captured a village or town during the Civil War. The enemies knew that the Party's strength lies in its people, in the invincibility of their ideas, in their inflexible will.

When the fascists attacked the Soviet Union in 1941, one of the first jobs they set themselves was the compilation of lists of Communists in the various cities. The invaders knew well enough the Communists would organize resistance and inspire the people to struggle against the enemy.

It is no coincidence that whenever the country faces a task that requires men of exceptional steadfastness, the call is for Communists. They fought in the most exposed positions on the fronts in the Civil War and the Second World War. Today they work at the most arduous tasks that have to be accomplished to build communism.

The Soviet people have high regard for the Communist Party. They know that Communists give freely of their energy and even their life for the sake of the people's happiness. Everything for the people's welfare—this is the Party's motto. Years of experience has convinced the Soviet people that the Communist Party is concerned only with the progress of the country, with the interests of the people—this is the Party's motivating force. That is why there is only one Party in the USSR, and its policy is the policy of two hundred million Soviet people.

Nikita S. Khrushchev, First Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, with Leningrad Elektrosila Plant workers.

FESTIVAL OF UKRAINIAN ARTS

By Rostislav Babiichuk

Minister of Culture, Ukrainian Republic

A FESTIVAL of Ukrainian arts—literature, music, drama, ballet, painting, sculpture and folk arts and crafts—took place in Moscow last November. Nine of the republic's best opera, dance and theater companies brought their productions to the capital for the event. Large Moscow concert audiences applauded the Ukrainian State Symphony Orchestra, the Ukrainian Dance Company, the Dumka Academic Chorus, the Bandura Players, the Ukrainian Folk Chorus, the Transcarpathian Folk Chorus and stars of the republic's variety stage. Artists and folk craftsmen displayed their work at a large exhibition of fine arts that ran under the title "Soviet Ukraine."

This whole magnificent display of talent had one characteristic in common—its emphasis on the contemporary scene. Last year the Ukrainian theaters produced ninety plays on current themes. Many of them have become so popular that they are running simultaneously at dozens of houses. Moscow audiences had the opportunity to see many of them at the festival—Alexander Korneichuk's *Over the Dnieper*, Vadim Sobko's *Song Under the Stars*, Mikhail Andrievich's *Lesya*, Nikolai Zarudny's *A Dead God* and Nikolai Pechenzhsky's *The Birthday*.

Ukrainian musical productions are also inspired by contemporary events. The characters in Grigori Zhukovsky's opera *First Spring*, which is enjoying a long run at the Kiev Opera and Ballet Theater, are young settlers on the virgin farm lands. The life of the Donbas miners is mirrored in Vasili Gomoliak's new ballet *Black Gold*. The same theater also produced the very successful opera *Arsenal* by Grigori Maiboroda, a musical dramatization of the part played by the Ukrainian people in the Socialist Revolution.

Amateur Theater and Opera

Professional theater is not the beginning and end of the republic's lively activity in the performing arts. Factory and office workers, farmers and students spend their leisure time at the 117,000 amateur dramatic, music and dance groups in the republic. Many of these groups perform like professionals. More than 80 of them have been honored with the title "People's Art Companies" in recognition of their very high artistic standards.

These amateur ensembles have shown that they can cope not only with straight drama but with such very demanding art forms as opera and ballet as well. To date they have staged ten operas, seven ballets and seventeen musical comedies.

The production of Glinka's opera *Ivan Susanin*, by the Lugansk People's Theater has won critical acclaim. Mikhail Kotov, a fitter at the Oktyabraskaya Revolutsia Plant, sings the leading role. Not long ago he sang with other amateurs for audiences in Japan. One Japanese newspaper wrote of his performance, "Most extraordinary; a worker who is also an artist."

Our audiences see nothing extraordinary in the fact; it seems very much the natural order of things in the Soviet Union, where art is within the reach of everyone. A person who wants to try his hand at acting, painting, writing or singing does not have to go far to find facilities and teachers. As for likeminded people, there are already two million in the Ukraine alone.

These amateur groups have developed many talented actors, directors and composers. Eight years ago Yevgenia Miroshnichenko, a student at a trade school, was singing with an amateur ensemble. Professional musicians who heard her suggested she enroll at the conservatory, and now she is a soloist with the Shevchenko Opera in Kiev and has been awarded the title People's Artist of the USSR.

A feature of the Festival was the "Soviet Ukraine Art Show"—a display of 5,000 paintings, drawings, sculpture and craft work in various media.

Log Jam by Veniamin Kushner

Dmitri Gnatyuk had much the same history. He spent his childhood herding sheep for the local landlord. The first chance he had to go to school came when Soviet power was established in Bukovina. He sang his way from an amateur school group to the stage of the Kiev Opera.

Professional Coaching

Professional artists work closely with these amateur groups in various capacities. Professional performers have set up committees to assist amateur dramatic companies, choruses, ensembles and orchestras. They help with the staging and take roles in amateur productions. Not infrequently the best of the amateurs are invited to act with professional companies.

The Ukraine's artistic progress, demonstrated so brilliantly at the festival, is part and parcel of the republic's over-all cultural progress during the Soviet period. Literacy is now one hundred per cent. Enrolled at the republic's 36,000 schools are six million students. Its 140 higher schools and 600 specialized secondary schools are attended by 700,000 young men and women, as many as in England, France, Spain, Sweden and Austria taken together. Almost every fourth person in the Ukraine, 9.5 million people all told, are engaged in some kind of studying.

There are 310 music, art and dance schools, four music conservatories, three art institutes, two dramatic schools and 57 secondary theater schools that train for professional careers.

The Festival of Ukrainian Arts was an important landmark in the history of the republic's national culture. It was another manifestation of the triumph of the Leninist national policy and the friendship of the Soviet people, which have helped the Ukrainian people regenerate their national culture. The festival will also prove a great stimulus to the further development of people's art and inspire Ukrainian intellectuals to create new cultural works of lasting value.

End of the Shift by Vilen Chekanyuk

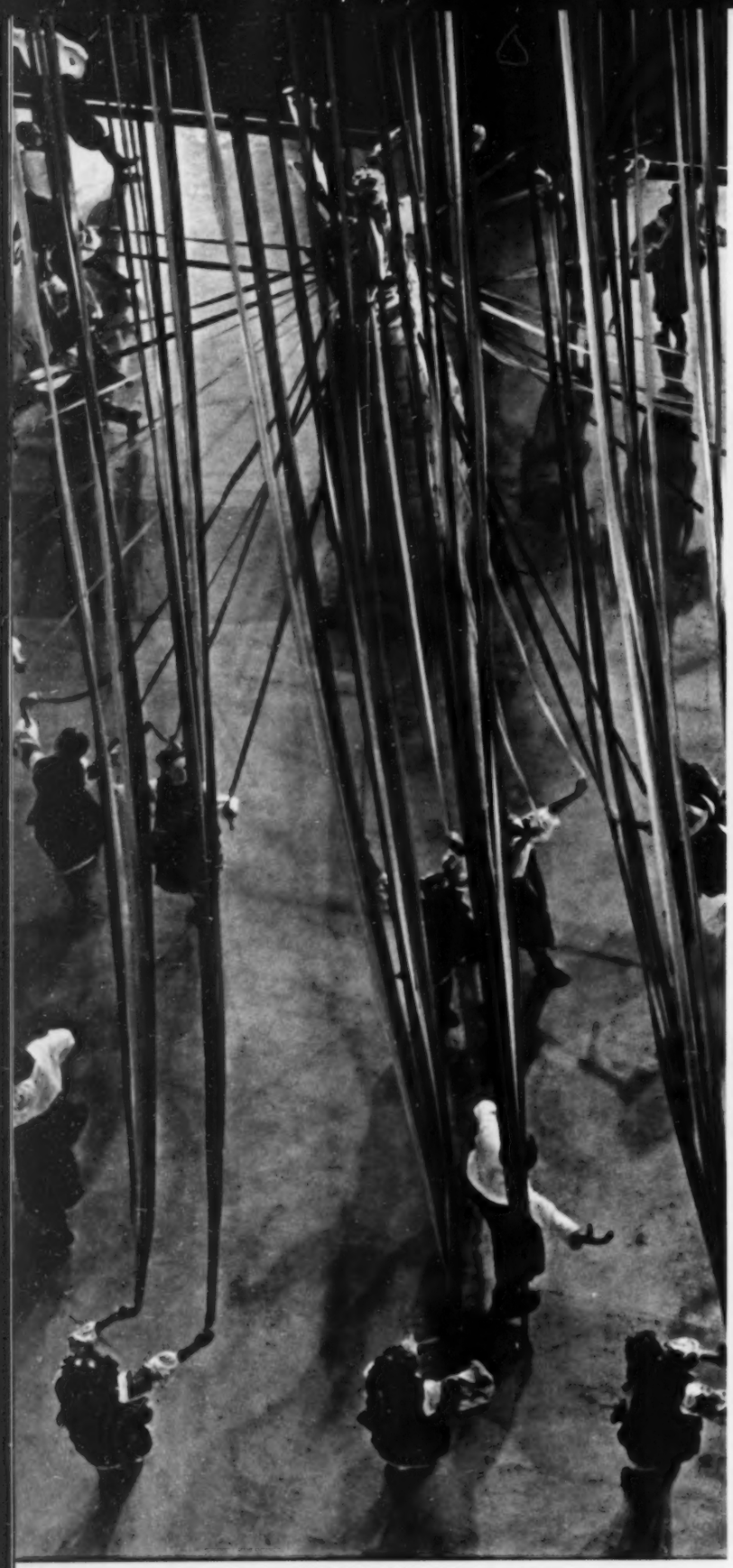
Carpathian Eagle by Valentin Borisenko

Scene from Taras Bulba *by the Ukrainian composer Nikolai Lysenko, performed by the Kiev State Theater of Opera and Ballet.*

Alexei Onelchuk in the comedy Swichka Wedding.

Elizaveta Chavdar is a soloist with the Kiev Opera.

Mikhail Romanov as Uncle Vanya in the Chekhov play.



Harvest, *performed by the ensemble of the Shevchenko Club of Zaporozhye, one of the Ukrainian amateur dance groups.*

Alla Gavrilenko and Nikolai Apukhtin of the Kiev Ballet in a duet from Forest Song.

The dance ensemble of the Transcarpathian Folk Chorus performing at the Festival.

Victor Dobrovolsky in the leading role in Alexander Korneichuk's Over the Dnieper.

Singer Bella Rudenko has been honored with the title "Merited Artist of the Republic."

UKRAINIAN LITERATURE

By Olyes Gonchar
Chairman, Ukrainian Writers Union

CONTEMPORARY Ukrainian writers have inherited a proud literary tradition. In Taras Shevchenko, Ivan Franco, Lyesya Ukrainka, Mikhail Kotsyubinsky, Panas Mirny and Pavel Grabovsky, the Ukrainian people had a galaxy of impassioned writers, thinkers, fighters for liberation and heralds of the Revolution. They left behind them a literature infused with folk feeling, democratic ideals, sympathy for the oppressed and brotherhood for the Russian, Byelorussian and other peoples of the czarist empire.

Ukrainian writing today, grounded upon these same cherished traditions of humanism and internationalism, was the subject for discussion at a recent ten-day festival of the republic's art and literature held in Moscow. With writers present from Moscow, Leningrad, Gorky and from many national republics, the conference took on the character of a national authors' assembly. As many as 115 of the 300 authors who had prepared speeches took the floor to speak.

Critics and readers throughout the country have more than once had occasion to comment on the extraordinary development of Ukrainian prose. More than 400 new books of prose and poetry by native writers come off the republic's presses each year.

Translations into Russian and other languages of the USSR and into many foreign tongues have created a reading public for Ukrainian books far beyond the republic's boundaries. In the past year more than 190 books by 55 Ukrainian writers were published in 21 languages, including French, Japanese, Danish and Hindi.

Ukrainian writers have portrayed the life of the people in a series of epic novels. Witness such works as *The Seething Ukraine* by Peter Panch, *Khmelnitsky* by Ivan Le, *Artyem Garmash* by Andrei Golovko, the trilogy *Yurko Kruk* by Pyotr Kozlanyuk, and *Blood Is Thicker Than Water* and *Bread and Salt*, both by Mikhail Stelmakh.

The restless tempo of our turbulent times and its heroes are delineated in Vadim Sobko's novel *Rest Is Only a Dream*, in Pavel Zagrebelny's *Heat* and Alexander Sizonenko's *Korabely*. Collective farm people have been portrayed magnificently by Yuri Zbanatsky in his novel *On the Eve of the Harvest*.

Poets Andrei Malyshko, Leonid Pervomaisky, Ivan Vyrgan, Mikola Nagnibeda, Lyubomir Dmiterko, Platon Voronko and Stepan Oleinik have recorded today's Ukrainian history with vivid imagery and rich lyricism.

The Ukrainian language is powerful and beautiful. All of these writers have not only augmented the literary treasury of the Ukraine but that of the multinational Soviet Union as well.

By Afrikan Balburov

Photos by Dmitri Chernov

Afrikan Balburov, Buryat writer, describes the past and present history of his people.

BURYATIA

MY PEOPLE are of Mongolian descent and have lived for centuries in the eastern part of Siberia, near Lake Baikal, a country rich in natural resources but harsh in climate. In pre-Soviet times Buryatia served as a place of exile, and the lot of the native population was wretched. The Buryats were oppressed by the czar's officials and mercilessly exploited by a handful of rich landowners. Only seven per cent of the population could read and write. When the nineteenth century Russian poet Nikolai Nekrasov visited our land, his comment was short but spoke volumes. "Trans-Baikal is an appalling backwoods," he wrote.

The Socialist Revolution saved the Buryats from extinction. For the first time in our long history we acquired statehood. In 1923 the Buryat Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic was formed within the Russian Federation. Our more than half million people have since then been masters of their own destiny, and every sphere of our economy and culture has forged ahead.

Thriving Economy

The territory of our republic covers an area eight times as large as Denmark—135,000 square miles. Three quarters is taiga country—a timber storehouse that is practically inexhaustible. Game of all kinds is plentiful—this is where the famous Barguzin sable, king of the fur market, comes from. The rivers and lakes hold all varieties of fish, among them the celebrated Baikal omul, a type of salmon. Our pride is Baikal, the deepest lake in the world, and many think the most beautiful. One of its wonders is the Baikal seal, a marine animal of the walrus family which lives on the shores of this fresh-water lake.

Nature has been very generous to us with mineral deposits. We mine

Buryatia, in eastern Siberia, is fertile country rich in natural resources. Three-fourths of the republic is forest. The smaller photo is the main square in Ulan-Ude, the growing capital.

The republic produces machinery, river boats, rare metals—industries developed during the Soviet period. This is the big cement plant at Timlyui.

coal, gold, tungsten, molybdenum and precious and semiprecious stones. During the Soviet period some 300 large industrial plants have been built. The Dzhida tungsten mill and the railroad car manufacturing plant at Ulan-Ude, the republic's capital, are among the largest enterprises in the eastern part of the Soviet Union. Buryatia also produces various machinery and river boats and has timber, woodworking, textile, fishing and fur industries.

Fur has long been one of the mainstays of Buryatia. We have wealthy hunting cooperatives and animal nurseries that breed silver fox, blue fox, American mink, Barguzin sable and muskrat. Our people are also hereditary herdsman, and we are very proud of our fine-fleeced sheep. There are collective farms where the average number of sheep per family runs as high as 500. In spite of the rigorous climate our farmers grow practically everything, including sugar beet and watermelon.

Two Meetings

There are two meetings I like to cite that show how speedily Buryatia has developed its economy and culture.

One dates back to the summer of 1944 when Henry Wallace, then Vice President of the United States, visited our republic on his tour of the Soviet Union. Accompanied by advisers and correspondents, he looked into many aspects of our life—agriculture, industry, education.

The American guest was struck by the large number of schools in our republic and the fact that they functioned uninterruptedly in spite of war difficulties. On a collective farm in the distant valley of the Selenga River he saw a model, kept as a memento, of one of the squalid, soot-covered felt tents that the Buryat herdsmen used to live in before the Revolution. In the farm's visitors' book he wrote that he was astonished at the way our economy had developed compared with 1913.

The second meeting is more recent. One evening I happened to be on the shore of Lake Baikal with a good friend of mine, the Russian writer Vsevolod Ivanov. It was that wonderful time of day when the sun was about to set, and all the colors of the rainbow were shimmering on the water's surface. We stood on the cliff looking toward the horizon. And then from behind the cliff, like Hiawatha in a canoe, came a Buryat fisherman rowing a small boat.

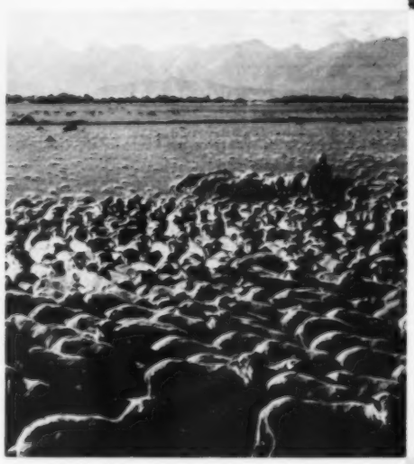
My friend wanted to talk with him. I had to work hard to keep translating Vsevolod Ivanov's eager questions and the detailed, unhurried answers of our new acquaintance—his name was Mikhail Zhigzhitov. The conversation centered on the way Buryat life had changed. It began to get dark, and the fisherman invited us to come home with him.

The Ust-Barguzin Fish Cannery. Buryatia's rivers and lakes are limitless fish reservoirs.

The republic has its own large corps of highly-trained engineers. These people make railroad cars.

Fishing the world's deepest lake, Baikal, haunt of the celebrated omul, a succulent type of salmon.

Despite rigorous climate, Buryatian farmers grow practically everything, including watermelon.



Fine-fleeced Buryatian sheep give breeders ten thousand tons of top-grade wool annually.

This timber rafted down the Baikal is headed for one of the many construction projects under way.

Vasilisa Tumurova has been honored by the republic for her regional dances, some of them very ancient.

Vandan Bayarov (left) manages a large state farm, the Kurumkan. With him are harvester-combine operators Bubeyev and Badmayev. The republic's 123 collective and 22 state farms work some 2.5 million acres.

Buda Nekhurov is writing a book. Before the Revolution the Buryats had no written language.

When we got to his village, there was no one home. "They must all be at the club, watching the new picture," he apologized. We had a fine supper, including fried Baikal salmon—that is always part of the meal. Then our host pulled a thick manuscript out of his desk. So we discovered that Mikhail Zhigzhitov, who makes his living hunting and fishing, spends his leisure hours writing fiction.

Cultural Progress

The story by this unexpected writer about Buryat life has already aroused considerable literary interest. It has been accepted for publication by the Writers Union of the Buryat Republic, and will appear in one of the forthcoming issues of its journal. People like Mikhail Zhigzhitov are not as rare as you might imagine. Here is another example. Bazhei Zhatukhayev, a mechanic at the railroad car plant in Ulan-Ude, collects the poetic folk epics that have been handed down from generation to generation.

Our people have long since forgotten that before the Revolution this was a region of almost total illiteracy. Now seven years of schooling is compulsory, and the republic has moved ahead to make secondary school education universal. Keep in mind that before the Revolution the Buryats did not even have a written language of their own. Now we have not only educated people in every field of endeavor, but even our own branch of the USSR Academy of Sciences.

The names of Baldama Dorzhiyeva, shepherd girl, and Gombo Tsydekov, collective farm chairman, are familiar to people throughout the republic. They have been honored with the title Hero of Socialist Labor, the highest civic award in the Soviet Union. Prima ballerina Larissa Sakhyanova, who dances at the capital's theater, and eminent Buryat singer Akhasaran Likkhovoln have won the acclaim of audiences all over the Soviet Union and in many Asian and African countries they visited on their recent, very successful tour.

Our people, once deprived of all political rights, now have their own sovereign government. The highest legislative body in Buryatia is our Supreme Soviet elected by popular vote as provided for in the republic's Constitution. The President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet is Dorzhi Tsyrempilon, a former teacher. The Buryat Economic Council, which administers the republic's industry, is headed by engineer Nikolai Pivovarov. Both these high officials are Buryats born and bred.

Buryatia, once a backward borderland of the czarist empire, has every reason to be proud of its achievements. Like all the other peoples of the multinational Soviet Union, we look confidently toward the future.

Collective farm chairman Gombo Tsydekov wears the country's most honored civilian award—the Hero of Socialist Labor medal.

Modern towns like this one are changing the landscape of Buryatia, a once desolate, poverty-stricken outpost.

Students of the Buryat Teachers Training School. Under the czarist regime this was a region of almost total illiteracy.

Dorzhi Tsyrempilon (left), a former teacher, is President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Buryat Republic.

A SOLDIER COMES H

EX-SERGEANT Anatoli Chernyavsky expected his native village to look smaller when he got home—any place seems smaller when you have been away for a considerable time. But when he walked down the street, he had to stop every once in a while to orient himself—the village looked so much bigger. New houses stretched for a long way into the steppe, with new gardens and orchards around them. The collective farm had new hothouses and barns. Even the cornfields seemed bigger and extended as far off as the smoke from the factory chimneys of Novosibirsk on the distant horizon.

There were a good many more people around than when he'd left, and all of them were busy. Truth to tell, he was a little disappointed that there wasn't more of a fuss made about him—when he was a young boy, the arrival of a demobilized soldier was an event for the whole village. Now, too, people seemed glad to see him, shook his hand, asked what it felt like being home again, offered their help if he needed it—but then went on to talk about what the collective farm had been doing and its big plans for the future.

Well, Anatoli told himself, it's not big news anymore, considering that there are thousands of young men coming back home now in army tunics with shoulder straps off. Even in his village he was not the only one to return home from service last year.

But he wasn't given too much time to bother himself about that. While he had been in the army, the Sibir Collective Farm had grown in all directions—bigger areas under cultivation, more livestock, better machinery. An ex-sergeant of the Armored Corps who knew how to service motor vehicles and handle radio equipment was a valuable adjunct to this fast-growing farm community.

The collective farm board had found out by experience that ex-servicemen were knowledgeable and reliant people. Anatoli was put in charge of a team of machine operators. Before long he had won the reputation of being a good foreman—and a good instructor, too. The knowledge of machines he had acquired in service was more than helpful on the farm.

Anatoli's new life "on the home front," as he put it, was also shaping up well. He married a childhood friend, Raissa, now a teacher in the village school. Not long ago their son, Sergei, was born.

The collective farm board alloted Anatoli a plot of land to build a house, a long-term loan and building materials. The house is already finished and an orchard planted around it. Now Anatoli is building a porch and asphalting the orchard lanes. He and Raissa are saving for new furniture, a television set and a car, in that order. With their present income of 200 rubles a month, plus frequent cash bonuses, this should be no problem.

It has been a busy time for this ex-sergeant since he was demobilized—a new job, a new home, a new family, and a new and promising future.

Anatoli is studying evenings now so he can get into the Institute for Mechanization of Agriculture.

Anatoli can certainly use the machine servicing skills that he acquired while he was in the army.

Putting the finishing touches on a new house that he built with a loan from the collective farm.

ESHOME

He married Raissa as soon as he got back to civilian life. She teaches at the village school.

TAMAN DIVISION MEN

IN OFF-DUTY HOURS

By Pyotr Dmitriev
Photos by Igor Vinogradov

TO get these photographs of garrison life in peacetime, we traveled out to the base of the Taman Motorized Infantry Guards Division, an army unit whose name commemorates a victory over the Nazi invaders on the Taman Peninsula in the North Caucasus during the Second World War.

There was nothing unusual about the base with its neat groups of many-storied barracks, blocks of garages for armored carriers, the big field for parade drill and the general feeling of top-to-bottom organization. All this added up to a strict and carefully ordered military routine. But we learned very quickly that the day-to-day life of this division—or any other that we might have chosen to visit—was by no means confined to things military.

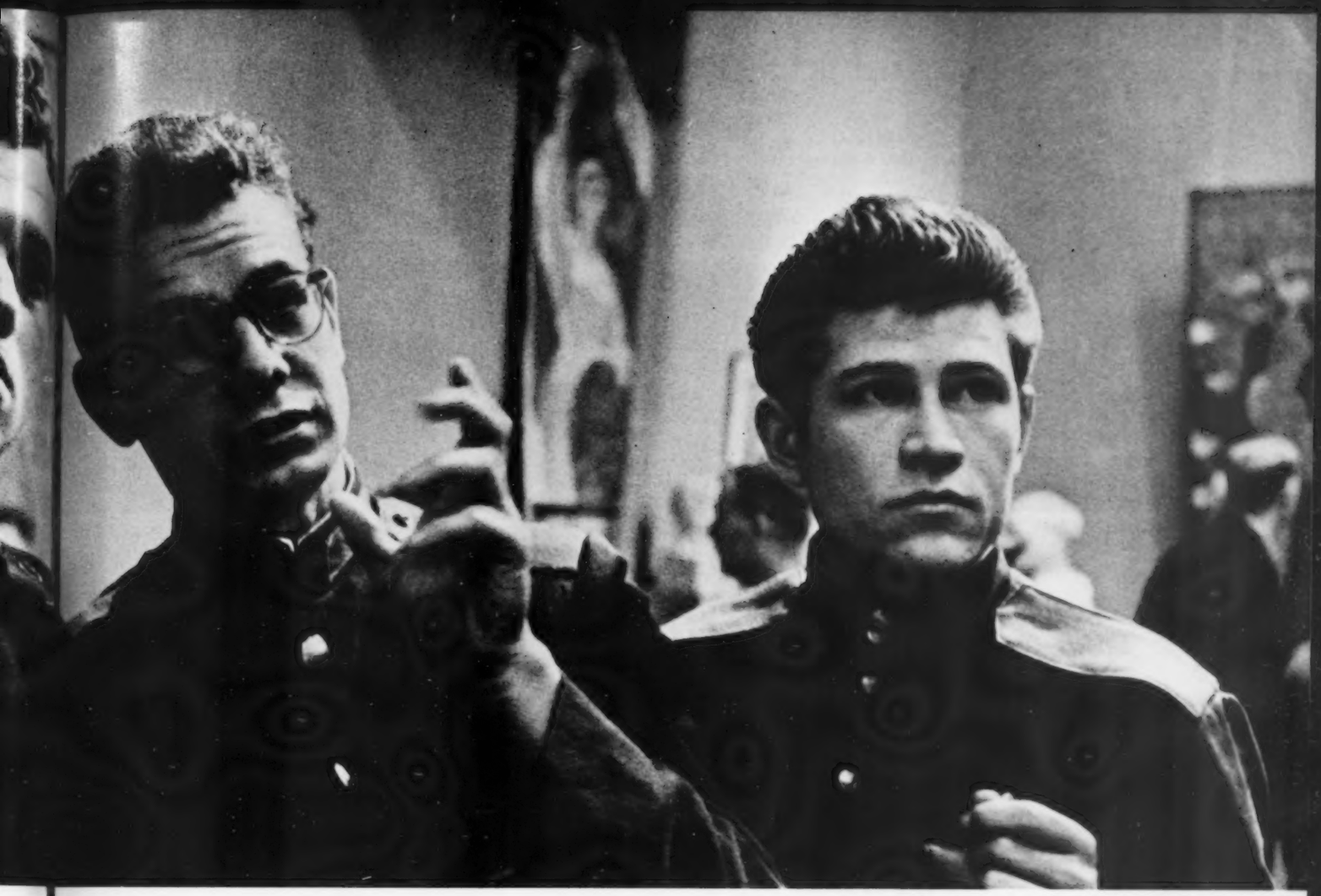
The first place Captain Ivan Chernov, our guide, showed us at the base was the Division's clubhouse, a spacious building with a colonnaded front. A list of the month's recreational activities posted on the bulletin board included motion pictures once or twice a week; concerts by variety performers from Leningrad and dancers of Moscow's Bolshoi Ballet; a talk by the stage director Yuri Zavadsky on his trip to the United States; a forum on the topic "When Man Reaches Outer Space" with leading scientists participating; a lecture on international events; a meeting with the coach of the Torpedo soccer team, the 1960 national title holder; several readers' conferences on new books with the authors present; and such assorted items as classes in dressmaking for wives or dances.

Rounded Civilians

"This is all part of peacetime army life," said Captain Chernov. "We do whatever we think will help develop the men as rounded *civilians* while they're in the service," he stressed the word civilian, "so that when they are demobilized they can go home with a better cultural and vocational background.

The amateur drama group of one of the Division units rehearsing a play. The female lead is Maria Mukhina, an officer's wife.

These guardsmen are studying English for college entrance. Their pretty teacher is Stella Onika, a local university student.



Organizations in the neighborhood arrange trips to museums and give theater and concert parties for the men in the Division.

The men go in for boxing, skiing and every other indoor and outdoor sport. Volleyball is perhaps the most popular.

A corner of one of the recreation rooms, and an impromptu song fest in which Company Commander Chernov joins.

Every unit in the Division puts out a newspaper which the men write, edit and make up.

The Division has any number of amateur painters and every so often schedules a much-discussed art show.

Some of the men complete their formal schooling while in the service, others learn trades and skills."

A soldier who wants to continue his education while in the service has all the facilities he needs to study under the secondary school program. Army units also organize college preparatory courses if there are men interested, and there generally are. During our visit to the Taman Division base we saw quite a few men who spent nearly all their off-duty time in classroom and library with school textbooks.

People from the factories, colleges and organzations in the area do a good deal of cultural work with the Taman Division. They give talks, stage plays, arrange excursions to industrial plants, museums and theaters. College students do voluntary teaching in their special subjects.

Each unit in the Division has comfortably furnished recreation rooms where the men gather in the evening to read, watch television, play chess or sing. There are many capable musicians and singers, dancers and artists among the men, enough so that the units frequently hold music competitions and art shows. There are also, of course, contests in boxing, basketball, soccer, wrestling, skiing, gymnastics, volleyball and other sports.

Our guide introduced us to a group of servicemen in one of the recreation rooms at the Division's base. They were rehearsing a concert and show for Army Day. This is a national holiday celebrated on February 23 each year and commemorates the first Soviet Army victory in 1918 over the foreign armies that invaded the country soon after the October Socialist Revolution. Distinguished guests visit army units, friends bring gifts to the men in the service, and salvoes are fired in many cities in honor of the occasion.

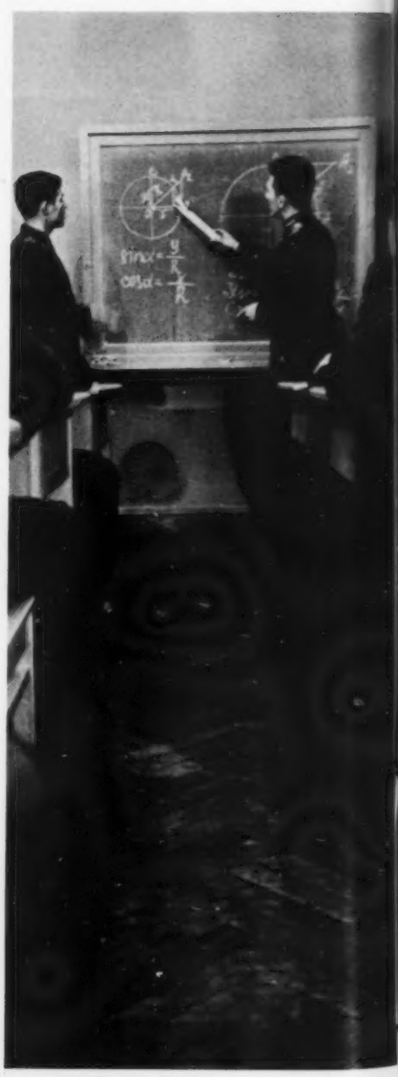
Vocational Training

During a break in the rehearsal we talked to a few of the amateur singers and actors. Sergeant Valentin Mukhin of Vladimir Region told us he expected to be leaving for home soon. "I'll be going back to the plant where I worked as a mechanic before I was called up," he said. "I've decided to take a college correspondence course in mechanical engineering. Students here have been helping me bone up in preparation for it."

Private Yuri Grigoriev said he was going back to his native city, Yaroslavl on the Volga, to work as an electric welder. He learned the trade in the army.

Sergeant Valintin Abradov also learned his trade in the service. He is an electrician and intends to go to one of the big Siberian construction projects when he is demobilized. "The solid technical background I got in the army," he said, "is going to be very useful in civilian life. There are jobs all over the country for which I can qualify."

Some years ago a group of men in the Taman Division got together when they were demobilized and went out to Kazakhstan. There in the virign lands they set up a state farm and, appropriately enough, named it Tamansky, after the Division that equipped them with the variety of skills needed to run a modern mechanized farm. They have been joined by many other Taman Division vets since.

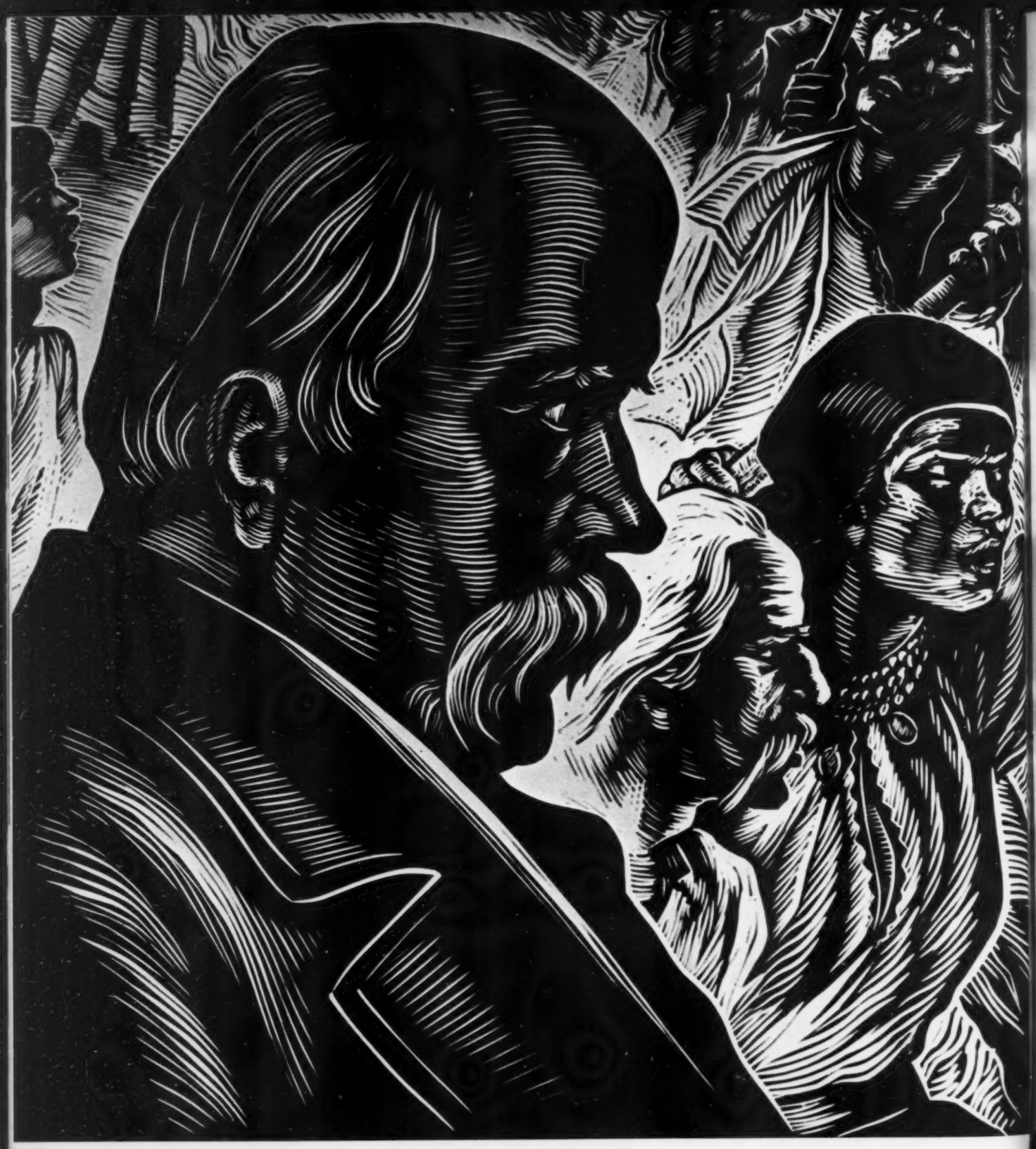


A much-used part of the Division clubhouse. The librarians often arrange reader-author get-togethers.

Rehearsing for a concert. There are a good many amateur musicians and singers, some of them very talented.

Mail from home, and for those nearing end of service, job offers. Trained ex-servicemen are in heavy demand.

ome of the men complete their formal schooling in e service. Others learn the fundamentals of a trade.



TARAS SHEVCHENKO
POET AND REVOLUTIONARY

By Yevgeni Kirilyuk
Corresponding Member, Ukrainian Academy of Arts

THE GREAT UKRAINIAN POET and revolutionary democrat Taras Gregorievich Shevchenko died on March 10, 1861, after a lifetime of creative work dedicated to the struggle of his people for a better and happier life.

He was born in 1814 to a family of serfs. His landlord-owner brought him to Wilno (Vilnius) as a servant, and it was there the young Shevchenko revealed his gift for painting. Subsequently he went to St. Petersburg, the capital of the Russian Empire, where Yevgeni Grebenka, a fellow Ukrainian; the Russian artists Karl Bryullov and Alexei Venetsianov; and the poet Vasili Zhukovsky helped to free him from serfdom. With their aid he was able to acquire an education at the Academy of Arts.

That he was an artist of great talent, a master of the brush, pencil and chisel, is evident from his strikingly original paintings, drawings and sculptured figures on permanent display at the Shevchenko Museum in Kiev. But his interest turned to poetry when he was 23.

This was in 1837, the year when the czarist autocracy maneuvered the death of the poet Alexander Pushkin, whose pen was so trenchant a weapon in the struggle for the emancipation of the serfs and freedom for Russia's people. With the death of Pushkin, killed in a duel provoked with that design, czarism hoped to throttle all progressive thought. But the very year of Pushkin's tragic death brought to public notice the creative efforts of two other great democratic poets—Mikhail Lermontov in Russia and Taras Shevchenko in the Ukraine.

Shevchenko's first books, *Kobzar* and *Gaidamaki*, proved him not only a writer of the first rank but a passionate advocate of equal rights for the people of the Ukraine. His poetry did much to heighten the national and social awareness of his countrymen.

He lived at a time when the Ukrainians, like the other peoples of Russia, suffered profoundly from czarist oppression. They had been stripped of everything—liberty, statehood, culture and even name. But there was another side to the picture. This was a period when the national liberation movement in the Slavonic countries was growing apace as capitalist producton developed intensively.

One of the resulting effects was a renaissance of the national cultures. There had been many other Ukrainian writers before Shevchenko who used the native language. The poetry of freedom they wrote prepared the way for Shevchenko's *Kobzar*. But these writers saw no future for Ukrainian culture. Metlinsky wrote bitterly, "Our language is already dying."

Shevchenko held a different opinion and wrote it into his poetry. All his life and work is a lyric affirmation of belief that the people would continue their march along the path that his poetry pointed out, that in the end they would win to freedom. It was Shevchenko's social consciousness and revolutionary outlook that gave him that certainty.

His view of the world's future and the inevitable direction of its movement developed gradually. It was shaped by many influences. Shevchenko came from the very heart of the people. As a child he had listened to songs and legends of the struggle of the Ukrainian peasants against their landlords and of the movement for national liberation. He studied art in his youth with the noted Russian painter Karl Bryullov, who had spent many years abroad and who told him about the revolutions in the European countries.

When he lived in St. Petersburg, Shevchenko was close to the poet Vasili Zhukovsky, a friend of the Decembrists, the group of revolutionary-minded Russian officers who had risen against the autocracy in December 1825. Their ideas permeated the whole intellectual atmosphere of St. Petersburg. In *Journal*, his diary, Shevchenko suggested that a medal be struck in memory of the Decembrists inscribed to the "The First Russian Heralds of Freedom" and in many of his poems, notably in "*A Dream*" (1844), he drew sympathetic portraits of the officers who participated in the uprising.

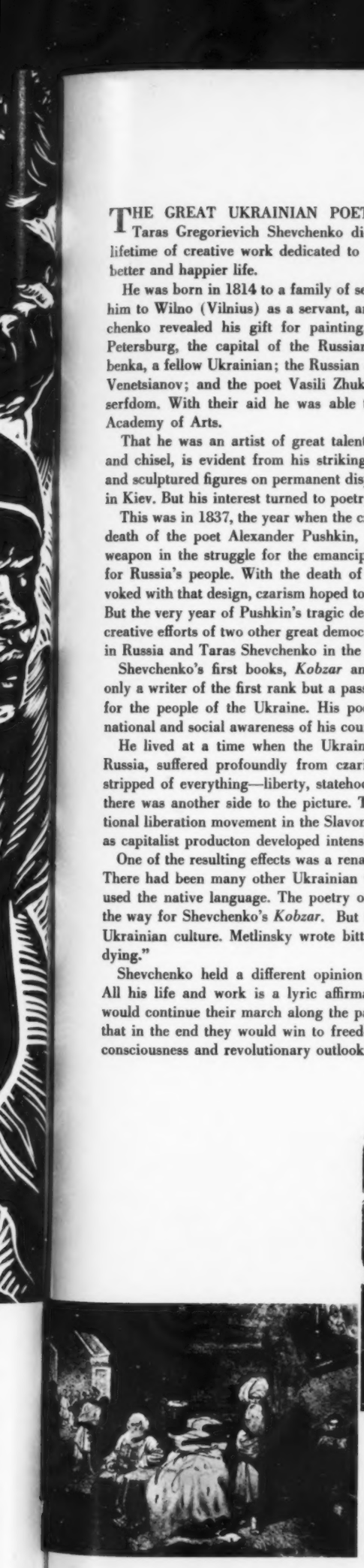
In St. Petersburg the poet met many of the progressives who later formed the Butashevich-Petrashevsky political group to spread socialist ideas in Russia. A diary kept by N. Mombelli, one of the members, makes references to the hopes the group placed in Shevchenko as ideologist of an uprising in the Ukraine. In the files of the czarist secret political police that relate to the Butashevich-Petrashevsky case, his name appears frequently.

The most decisive factor to shape the poet's revolutionary democratic consciousness was the liberation movement of the Ukraine's peasant masses. The poems he wrote in the Ukraine are infused with so much revolutionary passion that the flame of the peasant uprisings seems still to be burning in them.

In a number of his poems—"The Opened Grave," "Chigrin, Chigrin," and "The Great Cave," he laid bare the national oppression his people were suffering with the sharp, bold strokes of his caustic pen. There was no one before him and no one for a long time after him who so resolutely struggled for the national equality of the Ukrainians.

The clear meaning of his poems have been distorted by Ukrainian bourgeois nationalists to make Shevchenko out to be an "enemy of Russia" rather than of Russian autocracy. The poet drew a clear separation between the two Russias—one reactionary, the other progressive and revolutionary. He never joined the nationalists, thoroughly cognizant of the fact that the Ukrainian people could win national liberation only with the overthrow of the autocracy, and for this the union of all of Russia's progressive forces was necessary.

Nothing could shake Shevchenko's conviction that there had to be a revolutionary uprooting of czarism, that there could be no real national liberation without social liberation. He fought the Ukrainian feudal



Besides his great poetic gifts, Shevchenko was an extraordinarily fine artist. He often illustrated his own poems. Shown (left to right) are an etching he did for "Chigrin, Chigrin" (1844), an illustration for "The Blind" (1842) and "Among Friends in Exile" (1856) in sepia. The linoleum cut of the poet on the left-hand page is by the Soviet artist V. Kasiyan.

landlords without compromise, lashed out at them in such poems as "The Great Cave" and "The Living and the Dead." In the "Cold Steep Bank" (1845) he demands to know:

. . . By what just and
Sacred law do you sell
Unfortunate people
And the land
Given to all? . . .

Shevchenko saw and understood that all the people of the empire, the Russians included, were oppressed by czarism and by serfdom. The fate of the Ukrainians was tied inextricably to the fate of all the other peoples. In "Three Crows," a section of his poem "The Great Cave," he portrays in allegory the exploiting classes of three nations—the Ukrainian, the Polish and the Russian—each crow boasting of the crimes it has perpetrated against its own people. He has the Russian crow say:

I strangled six thousand souls
Within the space of one verst.

Shevchenko was referring to the great number of workers who died in the construction of the St. Petersburg-Moscow Railroad.

In another poem, "The Caucasus" (1845), he comments with bitter irony on the desperate lot of all peoples of Russia under the autocracy:

From the Moldavian to the Finn
All are silent in all languages.

Nor did the poet devote only his pen to the struggle against social and national oppression. In 1846 he joined the underground political fraternity Kirill-Mefodiy, whose aims were to end serfdom and unite all Slavonic peoples in one republican federation. But these aims could not be attained without overthrowing czarism. In 1847 czarism smashed the organization by imprisoning all its members, Shevchenko included. When they arrested him, the police seized a notebook into which he had copied those of his revolutonary poems that had been banned by the censor. From this collection, titled "Three Years," he had been accustomed to read aloud so that listening friends could learn and circulate his verses. Shevchenko was sentenced to serve in the army and forbidden to write or to paint.

In 1850, only a year after he regained his freedom, he was arrested again and exiled to the Novopetrovskoye fort (now Fort Shevchenko) in Kazakhstan. While there he asked friends to send him the works of the Russian poets Mikhail Lermontov and Mikhail Koltsov and expressed his thanks for the Lermontov poems in "It Seems to Me I Do Not Know" (1850):

Thank you, my poor friend,
For having sent to me, in prison
The poems of our poet, who opened
For me a door to freedom.

Although Lermontov, Koltsov, Gogol and others of the progressive writers were not of Ukrainian descent, Shevchenko talked of them as *ours*.

Influential Russian friends of Shevchenko's helped get him released from exile and secured permission for him to go to St. Petersburg.

After his return to St. Petersburg, Shevchenko became the most popular figure in the capital, hailed for his courageous fight for freedom and honored for his preeminent work as poet and artist. The Academy of Arts made him an Academician of Engraving, and in 1860 his *Kobzar* was published in a translation by the Russian poets Alexei Pleshcheyev, Nikolai Kurochkin, Lev Mei, Nikolai Gerbel, Vsevolod Krestovsky and Nikolai Berg.

While in St. Petersburg he did not temper his attacks on serfdom and autocracy. During the period he wrote several poems of an anti-religious nature—"Oh, People, Blind Simpletons," "In Former Days," "Oh, Quiet World." He worked with the democratic magazine *Sovremennik (Our Contemporary)*, met Ukrainian friends and Polish revolutionaries and visited at the home of Nikolai Chernyshevsky.

Chernyshevsky's articles in *Sovremennik* clarified certain important political questions for Shevchenko, and the Ukrainian poet's knowledge of the way the masses of people lived and thought helped to enrich young Chernyshevsky's understanding. In his articles the great Russian revolutionary frequently referred to Shevchenko as *a generally recognized authority*. Another Russian revolutionary democrat, Nikolai Dobrolyubov, wrote a review of *Kobzar* for *Sovremennik* in which he called its author "a people's poet, the like of whom we do not have." So did Shevchenko fight shoulder to shoulder with the Russian revolutionary democrats for the liberation of all the peoples of Russia.

Some of his most poignant verses—"Katerina," "The Hired Hand," "Marina," "Maria" and others—are dedicated to women suffering from traditional discrimination and domestic servitude. He wrote tender, lyric poems—"Little Maryana," "The Cherry Orchard Near the House," and "Both Golden and Dear." There are whole generations of Ukrainians who learned Shevchenko's verses by heart. His poems have been set to music. "The Wide Dnieper Groans and Moans," "Such Is Her Destiny," "My Thoughts, My Thoughts," "The Rapids Rush Along," "The Bequest," "The Cherry Orchard," "How Alone Am I, How Alone," and many, many others are songs beloved by millions.

Shevchenko's dream of a free and happy life for the Ukrainian people became a reality only after the October 1917 Revolution, when the Ukrainian people formed their own state.

The Socialist Revolution made Shevchenko's literature and art the property of the millions of Soviet working people, regardless of their national origin. Since 1917 Soviet publishing houses have issued 396 editions of his works in 41 languages in a total of more than 11 million copies.

Translations of Shevchenko, unfortunately, do not begin to do him justice. He was a poet of great and enduring stature whose writings contributed enormously to the development of Ukrainian as one of the literary languages of the world. His influence is so many-sided that the word *shevchenkovedeniye* has been coined for the study of his work. It engages the attention not only of literary but of social historians, of scholars of art, philologists, philosophers and educators. Streets, libraries and schools in cities and villages bear Shevchenko's name. Statues of the poet are to be found in squares throughout the country.

On the occasion of the commemoration of the centennial of Shevchenko's death, the whole country pays homage to one of its great revolutionary writers.

Shevchenko's paintings and drawings are exhibited at the museum in Kiev that bears his name. (Left to right) "The Slave" (sepia, 1843), "Paternal Home" (1842), Self-portrait (1845).

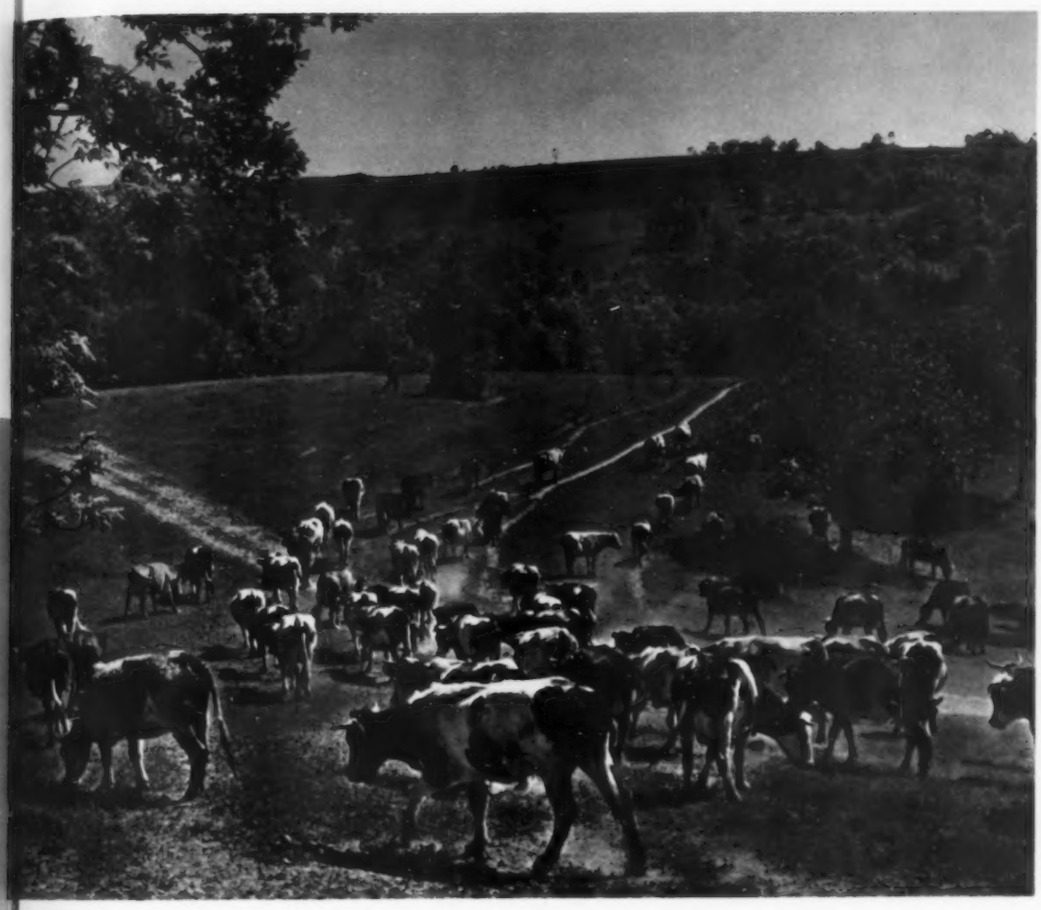
Ukrainian Glass and Ceramic Art

The beautifully handcrafted work of artisans in glass, ceramics and other media was shown at the Festival of Ukrainian Arts held in the Soviet capital last fall. The very lovely glazes and the traditional designs attracted many thousands of admiring viewers from all over the country.

When People Work Together

Four years ago two collective farms in Kursk Region merged. Everyone concerned has reason to be pleased with the results. The income of the new farm doubled in three years.

By Yakov Mikhailov



Livestock, buildings, machines and the rest of the common property was worth 7,122,000 rubles before the merger. In 1959 it was worth 10.3 million.

THE VILLAGES of Sukhaya and Bolshoye Nizovtsevo are three miles from each other, both located amidst rolling steppe with occasional groves so characteristic of Central Russia. They've both been there for centuries, many of the families are related by blood and marriage. But they never did much mixing, largely because one village was a little more prosperous than the other. In spite of their proximity and family ties, it never occurred to anyone that the stronger village should help its weaker neighbor.

The relations between the two villages began to change when they both set up collective farms. They did this almost at the same time, in 1931. Since then they've been sharing experiences, learning from each other, and when necessary, helping each other. Before the war they were both doing well and raising bigger crops year after year.

Two years of fascist occupation ruined both villages. There was only rubble and ashes to show for all the years of collective work when the invaders were driven out.

In 1946 Captain Fyodor Maximov, who had been chairman of the collective farm in Sukhaya, and Sergeant Artyom Vasyukov, who had held the same post in Bolshoye Nizovtsevo, were demobolized and returned home. The farmers again elected them to head their farms, and they took over their old jobs.

Both collective farms started to rebuilt immediately after liberation. They both were granted long-term credits from the government on easy terms for their construction projects and to buy farm equipment, seed and livestock.

Given the same start, the Sukhaya farmers moved ahead somewhat faster than their neighbors—they seemed to have more push and initiative. Besides their basic crop, wheat, they put in sugar beet. A refinery that had opened about six miles from the village bought their entire beet crop. They also began to grow their own fodder corn and so were able to do a better job with their livestock. In a short time the farm had not only replaced the cattle slaughtered and shipped off by the fascists but had increased its herds very considerably.

All this, of course, showed up in the farm's balance sheet. In 1946 its income was 700,000 rubles; by 1953 it had more than doubled and reached 1,650,000 rubles. The neighboring farm, with practically the same acreage, grew much more slowly. By 1955 its income was only 700,000 rubles.

Sukhaya kept growing. With each year it had more and more funds to invest. A power station and new barns were built on the farm, and a clubhouse, kindergarten and nursery in the village. The Sukhaya farmers were doing well also, of course, since they shared the collective profits. Many of the families made 17,000 to 20,000 rubles a year in cash alone, besides what they got in kind.

The Bolshoye Nizovtsevo farmers, being human, envied their more fortunate enighbors. But envy doesn't grow bigger potatoes, as centenarian Boris Khudushin put it. He is the oldest member of the collective farm in Sukhaya and was one of the first to vote for the merger with the neighboring collective farm when the question came up in 1956.

It's not only honey that draws these youngsters. They like Gerasim Petrikeyev's tales of the farm in the old days.

Fyodor Maximov (left) is chairman of the merged farm. Artem Vasyukov managed one of the original farms. They make a good working team.

The farm has been doing a great deal of building since the merger. One of the new streets in this growing community.

For this 600-family farm the merger has paid off handsomely. In 1960 a million more rubles in cash was distributed to the members than in 1956.

The merger talk, interestingly enough, started at the more prosperous farm, and it didn't take long before it was *the* topic of discussion in both villages. Sentiment for the merger grew after Fyodor Maximov, the Sukhaya farm chairman, had this to say at one of the membership meetings:

"Our oldest member, granddad Boris Khudushin, still remembers the time when every peasant lived only for himself, worried only about his own well-being and, far from helping his weaker neighbor, sometimes even tried to figure out how he could make money at his expense. But now times are different. We all have one common aim—to combine our efforts and work together for the general good. We here can't be indifferent to the fact that the neighboring collective farm is weaker than ours. We have to see to it that Bolshoye Nizovtsevo grows as strong as we are. We can do it by merging."

From the applause he got there was no question about the general feeling on the question. There were a few so-called hardheads who needed more convincing, but they came along when the farm chairman presented figures to show that the merger wasn't altogether philanthropic. There was every likelihood that both farms would do better if they combined.

A unanimous decision to merge was also adopted at a general meeting of the Bolshoye Nizovtsevo farmers, and in February 1957 the two farms joined forces. Fyodor Maximov was elected chairman of the new amalgamated collective farm.

The Sukhaya people don't believe in doing things by halves. At the first combined membership meeting these proposals were moved and adopted: that a good half of Sukhaya's tractors and other farm machinery be used on the fields of Bolshoye Nizovtsevo; that Sukhaya funds be used to build artesian wells and new barns for Bolshoye Nizovtsevo; that agronomists from Sukhaya be assigned to Bolshoy Nizovtsevo.

It is four years now since the merger, and everybody concerned is more than pleased with the results. The joint effort has boosted crops and livestock yields. In the first three years the income of the new farm doubled, and in 1960 it reached seven million rubles. Last year the farm distributed a million more rubles in cash to its members than the two farms had in 1956, besides large amounts of grain, vegetables, meat and other products.

The common property of the two farms owned collectively by its members—buildings, livestock, machinery, etc.—was worth 7.1 million rubles before the merger; in 1959 the new farm was worth 10.3 million rubles. That means that in the three-year period the 600 households that make up the collective farm had added more than three million to the value of the property they held in common. Before the merger the two farms had 17 trucks. There are 26 now, and more tractors, combines and other machines. Three agronomists and a zootechnician now see to it that the farm uses the most modern growing and breeding methods.

All this makes for larger yields, bigger incomes, and the kind of neighborliness that comes when people work together for the common good. It certainly isn't like the old days, as granddad Boris Khudushin would say.

Story and Photos by Nikolai Shilov

INSTITUTE AT A STATE FARM

THE SOVIET FARMER today with his multiple machine hookups working thousands of unfenced acres is a technological age removed from the pre-czarist peasant laboring on his tiny plot of land. With manual labor giving way to the machine in field, orchard and dairy, farming calls for increasingly more brain and less brawn.

Farm institutes, many of them with branches located directly on large farms to make them easily accessible and to provide the closest possible tie-up between theory and practice, provide advanced schooling in all agricultural specialties. One of the several branches of the Kuban Agricultural Institute of Krasnodar is at the Kuban State Farm. The requirements for admission are the same as for the parent institute—completion of secondary school and passing the entrance examination.

The branch now has five departments—agronomy, fruit and vegetable, zoo veterinary, financial-economic and engineering. The student body of one hundred comes from the Kuban State Farm and other state and collective farms in the vicinity. Who are these students? The large majority are young people—working tractor mechanics, dairymaids, gardeners and truck farmers—with an admixture of older people who, for one reason or another, did not get advanced schooling earlier.

Mikhail Yevdokov is one of the students in this latter category. In 1953 he graduated from a farm secondary school and took a job as zootechnician at the Lenin Collective Farm. The farm grew and merged with others in the neighborhood. Yevdokov felt that his background wasn't good enough to keep pace with the fast growing stock division of the farm, and so he enrolled for advanced veterinary study. Pyotr Tatarinov is another one of the older students. He was recently demobilized from the Soviet Army with the rank of major and now works as a team leader at the Kropotkin fruit and berry state farm.

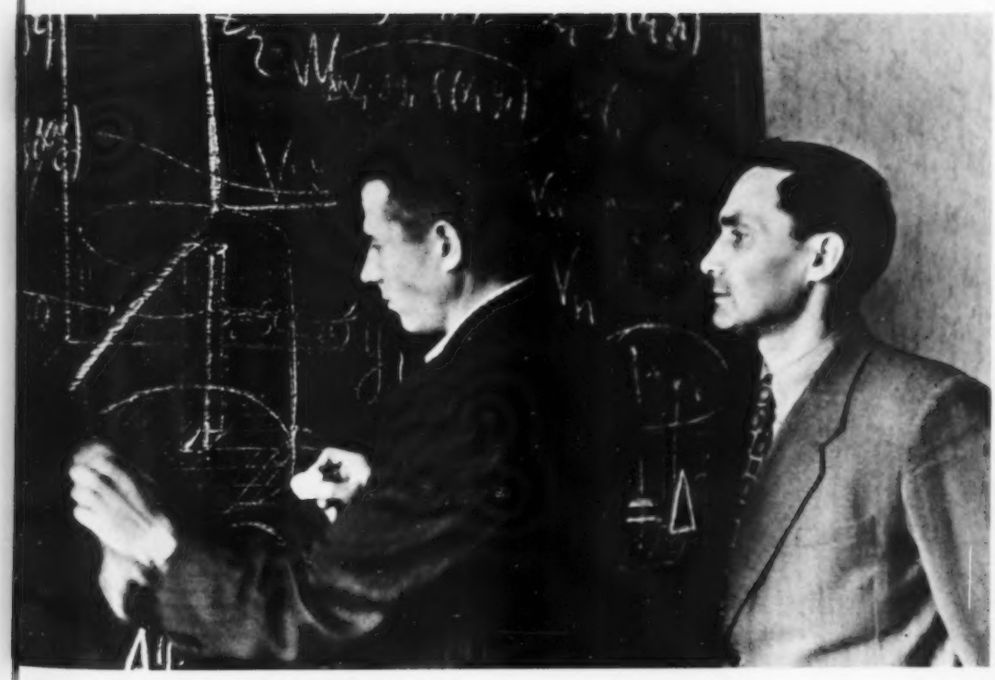
Galina Zhidkova is typical of the young students. She was born and raised on the Kuban State Farm and graduated from the village secondary school. She works in the vineyard and is taking advanced courses at the same time.

The students do their assignments at home but gather once a month for lectures, laboratory demonstrations and conferences at the Kuban State Farm with instructors from the parent institute at Krasnodar.

Classes are held at the farm-community's club, and the local secondary school provides laboratory facilities. Instruction is free and students are given time off with pay from their farm jobs to prepare for final exams.

The objective of large-scale socialist operation is to make the most rational and productive use of the land, to get maximum returns with the least expenditure of labor power and with the lowest production costs. This needs people with thorough training in the theory and practice of scientific farming, the kind of people who are being trained by the Agricultural Institute of Krasnodar at the Kuban State Farm.

One of the several branches of the Agricultural Institute of Krasnodar is located directly on the large Kuban State Farm to make advanced training easily accessible.



Present farmer and future engineer Ivan Yelnikov works out a problem for his instructor.

Raya Drozdova is the farm's switchboard operator. She's an institute student, too.

Galina Zhidkova, one of the younger students, works in the vineyard.

Tractor operator Alexander Somov and plumber Nikolai Salkov doing an assignment with help from instructor Vasili Baklanov.

Pyotr Tatarinov, an ex-army major, is finishing his second year at the institute.

Institute Professor Mamikon Pogosbekov with a few of his Kuban Farm students.

Students react about the same to exams, no matter what their age is. These not so young ones are just as nervous as grade school children.

THE GOAL OF PRODUCTION UNDER SOCIALISM

By Yevgeni Kasimovsky

Economist

ONE HUNDRED MILLION people are at work in Soviet factories and mills, collective and state farms, transport and trade, research institutes and laboratories. They produce an ever increasing volume of values of every kind and description to satisfy the growing requirements of the country's population. This is the sole aim and purpose of production under socialism—to produce a sufficiency of goods and services for every citizen, to provide him with the facilities for cultural growth, to equip him with skills so that he can do a creative job, to ensure him the security with which he can enjoy his leisure.

The development of every sphere of the Soviet economy has one end in view that is encompassed in the phrase "a high standard of living." That has been the goal of the Soviet Union ever since the Socialist Revolution. In the very first months following the establishment of the Soviet government legislation was adopted to improve living conditions. The workday was legally fixed at eight hours. All workers were granted an annual paid vacation at state expense. A system of state social insurance was set up. Everyone was guaranteed free medical attention. Women were granted paid maternity leave. Rents were drastically reduced.

But the young Soviet state had only limited possibilities at the time for a really expanded and thoroughgoing social welfare program. Those were hard years. The Soviet government had taken over a country with a backward economy and almost totally illiterate population, a grave legacy of the czarist rule, a country which had been, moreover, virtually ruined by the First World War.

The Civil War and the intervention of 1918-1920, when Soviet people had to defend themselves against the invading armies of fourteen foreign powers, reduced production to the barest minimum. It took the concentrated effort of the entire nation to repair the colossal damage, and only in 1927 was the economy brought up to the 1913 level.

But even with this the Soviet Union was still far behind many other countries. Its industrial output was several times below that of France, Britain and Germany. It produced less pig iron than Belgium or Luxemburg, less coal than Belgium or Poland, less electric power than Italy or Switzerland. In 1925 it produced a grand total of 525 tractors and 116 automobiles.

Program for Industrialization

Prerevolutionary Russia was primarily an agrarian country. To make it economically independent, the Soviet people had to build a heavy-industry base. This was an immediate necessity, the only way by which every other sector of the economy could be developed, including that of consumer goods production, to ensure radical improvement of living conditions.

With a series of five-year plans—then ridiculed as grandiose, now universally acknowledged as monumentally successful—the Soviet Union transformed itself into a leading industrial country. The industrialization program also changed the character of the country's agriculture. The large-scale collective farm equipped with modern machinery replaced the hand-worked peasant household of czarist Russia.

The Soviet Union had to build its own engineering industry; power plants; iron, steel and nonferrous metal mills; oil, coal, chemicals and building materials industries—all practically from scratch and many of them new to the Russian economic scene. It was not an easy way, but it was the only possible way to provide the country with a modern technological base and thereby guarantee its economic independence and raise the people's material and cultural well-being to levels never before attained by any society.

Industrialization on this scale and in so short a span of time required the mobilization of all the resources of the nation and meant temporary sacrifice, even of necessities at times. But the people made the sacrifices willingly. They were aware that the hardships were dictated by difficulties of growth of a new country, and that all sacrifices and hardships would be repaid with high interest in a future not too distant.

It was industrialization that helped the country to win both a military and an economic victory over Hitlerite Germany and to make its decisive contribution to the war waged by all freedom-loving people against fascism. Especially at that crucial time did the wisdom of the policy of heavy industry concentration become most apparent.

The achievements of prewar industrialization brought good dividends also after the Second World War. The Soviet Union was able to heal the scars left by Nazi invasion in a remarkably short time and not only restore the economy but push it much beyond the prewar level. By 1959 Soviet industry was turning out five times the volume of goods it had in 1940—more than Great Britain, France and West Germany combined. In the basic industries—iron, steel, oil, coal and electric power—the Soviet Union has long held first place in Europe and second place in the world.

The rapid growth of all branches of the national economy has helped to solve such a grievous social problem as unemployment. At the close of the twenties there were still labor exchanges in the Soviet Union. By the early thirties, when the program for industrialization got into full swing, they had all shut their doors. They were no longer needed since there were no longer people out of work.

The number of employed in the country has been growing from year to year. In 1928 there were 11 million factory and office workers employed; in 1960 the figure had shot up to 60 million. In the period following the Second World War the annual increment in employed workers averaged two million. It increased appreciably after the recent cut in the Armed Forces which returned 1,200,000 men to peacetime jobs. The problem today is not jobs but men to fill them.

Consumer Goods

During the initial period of industrialization, when large funds were invested in building heavy industry, the Soviet Union was not in a position to develop its light and food industries at a comparable rate.

But even then production of consumer goods ran ahead of population growth.

As soon as general economic growth made it feasible, however, the pace was accelerated. In 1929-1932 the ratio of increased output of consumer goods industry to heavy industry was 1 to 1.75. After the Second World War the ratio narrowed and is now 1 to 1.09. Production of consumer goods at present is 16 times greater than it was in 1913, while the population has increased by 36 per cent. This means that the 1961 consumer receives 12 times the quantity of goods the 1913 consumer did.

Growing consumption is graphically reflected in mounting sales in retail trade. In 1960 state and cooperative shops sold about 5.5 times more goods, in comparable prices, than in 1932. Sales in 1965, the end of the current seven-year plan period, will be almost eight times higher.

A breakdown of the sales figures shows that people now spend less on food but eat better. While consumption of such foodstuffs as rye bread or potatoes has dropped, that of meat, bacon, dairy products, eggs, sugar and confectioneries have gone up. As food prices go down, more money becomes available for manufactured goods, and here, too, the trend is toward higher quality. Silk and woolen fabrics, for example, sell much faster than cottons. In recent years trade is particularly brisk in radios and television sets, cameras, washing machines, vacuum cleaners, motorcycles, automobiles and furniture.

Housing

One of the gratifying results of industrialization has been the creation of a solid foundation for large-scale housing construction—the production of cement, structural steel and other building materials keeps increasing, and the country has more and more building machines and equipment. Industrialized methods of construction make it possible for the Soviet Union to solve its housing problem much more quickly than any other country.

In prerevolutionary Russia millions of people lived under the most appalling conditions. In urban communities 80 per cent of the houses were made of wood. Rent ate up a third of the month's earnings. Workers, as could be expected, suffered most. Many of them could afford to rent only a bed or share a basement. As early as the first months after the Revolution the bulk of the housing in cities and towns was nationalized. Hundreds of thousands of workers' families were moved into decent apartments. This helped considerably, but it did not solve the acute housing problem.

During the Soviet period the country's population grew by 55 million. The rural-urban ratio shifted, to complicate the problem even more. Prior to the Revolution only 18 of every hundred people lived in cities, but now the figure is closer to 50. Although housing was being constructed on an unprecedented scale, until quite recently it was outpaced by the growing urban population.

The shortage was aggravated enormously by the war. Hundreds of cities and thousands of villages were literally wiped off the face of the earth. More than 25 million people—every third or fourth person in the Nazi-occupied regions—lost their homes. These ravaged cities and villages were all rebuilt after the war, but it was not nearly enough to meet the increased need for housing.

In 1957 a national plan was adopted to end the housing shortage within ten to twelve years. The rate at which construction is going on everywhere in the country is phenomenal. In the past two years more than 25 million people moved into new apartments and houses. During the seven-year plan period, from 1959 through 1965, it is estimated that at least 100 million people will have new housing. By the end of the sixties the whole of the Soviet population, an expected 230 million, will be adequately housed.

Rising Incomes

Expanding socialist production and growing labor productivity increase the national income year after year. It is used entirely, in the final analysis, to meet the people's needs and to raise their living standards. This means a better life for every family.

The gradual abolition of the income tax has already been put into effect with the exemption of low income workers as of October 1, 1960. By 1965 taxes will have been abolished for people at all wage levels. There have been several retail price cuts since the end of the Second World War. All these savings mean more real income for the population.

Real income in the Soviet Union is growing much faster than cash income. The reason is a constant increase in allocations from public funds to provide more social services. These funds come from the state budget, the budgets of industrial enterprises, collective and state farms, trade unions, cooperatives and other public organizations.

The public funds are used for social insurance payments, old age and disability pensions, free medical services, free education, sports facilities and a score of other benefits which in most other countries a worker would have to pay for out of his earnings. Training of one college student costs the state about 75-100 rubles a month. Besides that, eight out of every ten students get a state maintenance stipend. Each visit to a polyclinic doctor costs the state a ruble, a hospital patient costs about 5 rubles a day. The population has all this free.

A recent survey of 200 Moscow families demonstrated that these various services actually raise the average wage by nearly 36 per cent, and even more in the case of low income workers. The maintenance of a child in a nursery or kindergarten, for example, costs the state 50-60 rubles a month (figured in terms of the new ruble), but the parents pay only 12 rubles, and those whose wages are low or whose families are large pay nothing at all. The major expense of keeping children in boarding schools is also carried by the state, while the parents pay only a tenth of the actual cost.

Public funds keep increasing year after year. So do wages, although not so rapidly. The average wage of factory and office workers is expected to rise by about 26 per cent in the 1959-1965 period, while expenditures financed from public funds for all kinds of social services during the same period will go up about 70 per cent.

By 1965 allocations from the national budget for social insurance and other welfare items will average approximately 380 rubles a year per worker, or 30-odd rubles a month. Another 80 rubles a year per worker will go to build schools, clubs and palaces of culture, hospitals and housing.

The real income of factory and office workers—wages plus social services—in 1959 was roughly four times higher than in 1913. For the farmers, it was five times higher. By the end of the seven-year plan period the real income of the working people in town and country will be about three times higher than on the eve of the Second World War.

The World's Highest Living Standard

Constant expansion of production in every sphere of the national economy accelerates the building of the material and technical foundation of communism in the Soviet Union, brings closer the time when it will be possible to implement the Communist principle "From each according to his ability, to each according to his needs."

During the current seven-year plan period the Soviet Union started out on the decisive phase of its work toward its fundamental economic goal—to overtake and then outstrip the most highly developed countries in per capita production. That means the further expansion of the productive forces to provide the world's highest standard of living.

The entire previous development of socialist production created the necessary prerequisites. The Soviet Union already has a higher absolute level of production of major commodities than Britain, West Germany and France, and it is steadily approaching the level of the United States. In 1959 the industrial output of the Soviet Union was 60 per cent that of the United States and its per capita production was 50 per cent. In 1960 the ratio in this peaceful economic competition between the two Great Powers continued shifting in favor of the Soviet Union.

The decisive factor for successful achievement by the Soviet Union of its fundamental economic goal is a rapid rate of industrial and agricultural growth. Up to the beginning of the seven-year plan the average annual increase in industrial output was 10.1 per cent. In the past two years this figure was exceeded. This is a continuing guarantee that in the near future the Soviet Union will be able to give its people a higher standard of living than any nation in history has yet achieved.

MOSCOW

KUIBYSHEV

Transcontinental Electric Trains

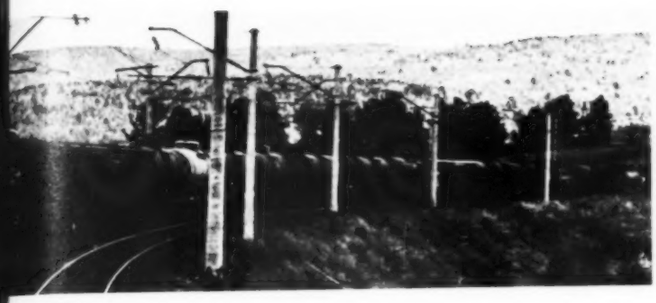
ELECTRIC TRACTION has recently replaced steam and diesel locomotives on the 3,300-mile railroad from Moscow to Irkutsk—about two-thirds of the transcontinental haul between the European and Asian parts of the Soviet Union. This trunk line links many industrial cities and farm regions. On its way to Lake Baikal it cuts through forest and steppe, semidesert and taiga country. It crosses the Ural range and passes by the spurs of the Sayan Mountains. It spans some of the largest Russian rivers—the Volga and Irtysh, the Ob and the Yenisei.

To convert the railroad, hundreds of electric substations had to be built, thousands of miles of cable laid and millions of feet of contact wire strung between gray-green concrete support poles. Even for the Soviet Union with its numerous large-scale construction projects this was a big job, especially since it was all done without interrupting the usual train traffic. The construction men joked about working "right under and over the wheels."

Trace the Moscow-Irkutsk run on a railroad map of the Soviet Union and you'll see the reason for this immense conversion project. From the nation's capital eastward, you have a radiating beam of track, but at the Urals and in Siberia the beam narrows. Beyond Novosibirsk there is only one thread of track that stretches to Lake Baikal and on to the Pacific.

This single thread of road was sufficient to handle the traffic of prerevolutionary Russia. But it comes nowhere near meeting freight and passenger needs today, in spite of a very considerable development of highway, river and air transport. Hundreds of new industrial and agricultural centers new dot parts of the map that were blank at the turn of the century.

The many times multiplied volume of traffic must have additional carriers between the center of the country and the Urals, between the Urals and Siberia, and between Siberia and the Far East. In addition



Hauling freight on the Moscow-Irkutsk trunk line, the world's longest electrified railway — 3,300 miles between the European and Asian parts of the Soviet Union. At the right is a control panel for this automated and telemetered line.

A public address system on one of the trains. Passengers get a periodic rundown of the news and a description of points of interest en route, interspersed with music.

It's a hundred-hour transcontinental run from Moscow to distant Irkutsk, time enough for a whole tournament.

Travel on this very modern line is pleasant and fast. The change-over to electric traction has eliminated botlenecks and boosted traffic capacity.

A Siberian family homeward bound. The line cuts across the Ural range and spans some of Russia's largest rivers.

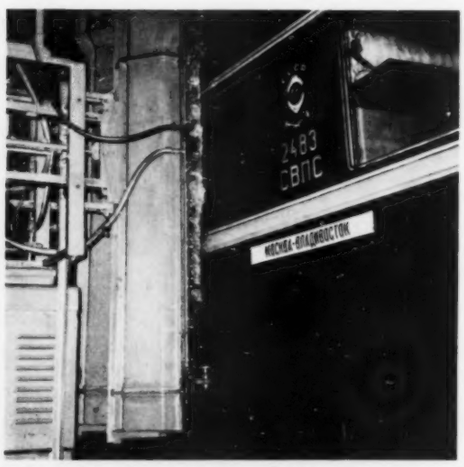
there is the growing freight and passenger traffic between the Soviet Union and China, Korea, Mongolia and other countries in Asia. These are two of the reasons for congestion on the Trans-Siberian Railroad, especially on the section between Omsk and Irkutsk.

The electrification of the Moscow-Irkutsk railroad is more profitable than the construction of a parallel line for steam and diesel locomotives. The change-over to electric traction has already tripled traffic capacity on many sections of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. Climate is an important factor here. Steam locomotives are very sensitive to the bitter Siberian winter, while electric locomotives run better at low temperatures since their motors do not overheat.

Here is a typical example. The section between Krasnoyarsk and Kacha has many steep grades and sharp turns. Even a powerful steam locomotive can barely pull a train of 1,400 metric tons on the stretch. A diesel locomotive can pull a 3,000-ton train, but on long upgrades it will do no more than ten miles an hour. The section is now electrified, and 5,500 horsepower electric locomotives have no trouble pulling 3,000-ton trains; the speed on steep grades is 30 miles an hour and better.

Another example. The Omsk section carried the country's heaviest traffic and was very congested. Now, with electric traction, the line moves more freight than any other road anywhere, and without the slightest delay.

The cost of the conversion job for the Moscow-Irkutsk road is estimated at about 350 million rubles, as figured in terms of the new ruble. Electrification will more than pay for itself. The estimate is that operational economies from electric traction during the current seven-year plan period ending in 1965 will amount to three billion rubles.



Mechanical washers do a thorough job on this Moscow-Vladivostok express before it pulls out of the terminal.

TWO YEARS out of seven

By Anatoli Kussov

Photos by Alexander Maslorsov

Alexander Kuznetsov is cutting up these outmoded gas generators that he helped assemble 20 years ago.

The Stalinogorsk Chemical Plant where he works is being automated. This is the methane separation shop.

THE SOVIET PEOPLE have just completed the first two years of the seven-year plan. Statistics on production in industry and farming aside for the moment—what difference have these two years made in the living conditions of the average Soviet family? To make our average family as representative as possible, let us choose one from a small town far from large industrial centers, rather than from a big city like Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev or Sverdlovsk, where the impact of the plan is more immediate and more apparent.

The Kuznetsov Family

The Kuznetsovs—that's the family pictured on these pages—live in Stalinogorsk, a small city in Tula Region. Alexander is a gas welder employed at the Stalinogorsk Chemical Plant. Yekaterina is a housewife. They have three daughters, two of them working, the third a teenager still at school.

Alexander Kuznetsov looked puzzled when we asked him about the changes during these past two years in his home life, his job or his town.

"Changes!" he exclaimed. "Nothing but. So many that I have to think back to remember them all. Take the plant. We converted to natural gas a year ago and work exclusively on that now instead of coke. The shops are all much cleaner now, and our production has shot way up."

The production process had been reorganized, he explained, to make the work easier for the operators. A worker used to have to shield his eyes from the terrific heat when he looked into the vats and containers; now there are television screens for checkups. Every shop has control panels, and the people behind them feel more like laboratory technicians than factory workers.

Kuznetsov has been at the Stalinogorsk Chemical Plant since 1933 when it opened. He learned gas welding right there and ever since has been working on one or another repair or assembly job. When we came to the plant, he was taking apart instead of putting together—dismantling the former gas generator shop. "It feels funny," he said. "I helped to build these generators that I am cutting up now."

The change-over to natural gas last year was the initial step in modernizing the plant. The first to be completely automated was the shop for the separation of air. Automatic equipment is now being installed in a group of recently built shops for the separation of methane. This year the plant will begin producing material for the manufacture of synthetic wool. It will supply textile mills that are being constructed not far from Stalinogorsk.

"Relatively Good" Is Not Good Enough

Yekaterina Kuznetsova had this to say in answer to our query about whether the family was living any better than it had two years ago:

Alexander says there have been changes at the plant, in the town and at home these past two years—all of them good.

His wife Yekaterina agrees. A year ago th moved into a new apartment. They p the same low rent they did for the old o

"When I do my shopping, I see a wider choice and better quality of goods in every store. Or take prices—on many items they have been cut in these past years. It's like raising my husband's wage. But what is even better for my family is that we received a new apartment. It was last February, exactly one year after the seven-year plan was adopted."

One of the objectives of the seven-year plan for Stalinogorsk is a modern apartment for every family. The city's housing construction program has been considerably stepped up in the past two years, and as of now 63 new apartment houses have been built. Every month now dozens of workers of the chemical plant and the local power station move with their families into new apartments.

Twenty years ago Stalinogorsk was considered a good city to live in, with relatively modern housing, but people today have new requirements and "relatively good" is not good enough.

The new streets of the city keep pushing the surrounding steppe back. The old is giving way to the new, step by step, everywhere, as the builders complete, one after another, new five- and six-story apartment buildings, motion picture theaters, restaurants and shops. One of the newer conveniences for which Yekaterina Kuznetsova and other Stalinogorsk housewives are grateful is a home-service kitchen that prepares carry-out meals.

Valentina, their eldest daughter, was married in October. She works at the chemical plant and studies evenings.

Advanced Education a Must

Stalinogorsk's educational setup has been considerably expanded during the past two years. The city built ten new day and evening general schools and a specialized chemico-mechanical secondary school. Its Chemico-technological Institute moved into a new five-story building.

The Kuznetsovs' two elder daughters Valentina and Raissa combine work with study. Advanced education is practically a social must everywhere in the country these days. This helps explain why both specialized schools in Stalinogorsk get more applicants than they have room for. Preference is given to those who have already had some work experience.

Valentina, the eldest daughter, who is 23 now, went to work at the Stalinogorsk Chemical Plant as a timekeeper when she graduated from secondary school. At first she wasn't particularly interested in advanced schooling.

"What for?" she asked her father. "I'm making good wages and the work is all right."

Her father was insistent: "You don't want to be a timekeeper all your life, do you?"

Valentina kept pleading lack of time, but the excuse wasn't quite convincing, especially when the plant workday was cut from eight to seven hours. She finally succumbed and enrolled as an evening student at the chemico-mechanical school. Now she's very glad that her father, as she puts it, knocked some sense into her head.

She attends school three evenings a week, four hours a session, and gets her practical experience on the job. She's in her third year at the school, and her training has already paid off in terms of a skilled job and higher pay. She says, only half-joking, that she'll soon be earning more than her father makes. Kuznetsov doesn't seem to be worried at the prospect.

Valentina is doing very well indeed as both student and worker. She seems to be heading toward the "captain's bridge" of the plant—the Central Control Panel of the shops that separate methane. She has already started to learn the operation of the apparatus installed there.

In October last year Valentina was married. Her husband Nikolai Ranin works as an electrician at the Stalinogorsk power station. This coming May Day they plan to give a housewarming party of their own—they will be getting an apartment in one of the new houses now being built in the city. Every once in a while they walk over to watch it going up.

Raissa started working at the plant this fall. Her workday is only seven hours—that's the present legal maximum. She also pays no income tax because of the new tax abolition law.

Like most of her friends at the plant, she is working for an engineering degree at the Chemicotechnological Institute. When she is through with the five-year course, she hopes to get a job in the design office.

Income Tax Abolished

Early last year the USSR Supreme Soviet, the country's parliament, passed a law to abolish the income tax gradually. Those making 50 rubles a month or less (figured in terms of the new ruble) were exempt as of October 1, 1960. By the end of the seven-year plan the law will cover all workers in every income bracket. Among the first group to enjoy tax exemption was Raissa, the Kuznetsovs' 19-year-old daughter, who started at the Stalinogorsk Chemical Plant last fall as a tracer in the design office.

Like her elder sister, she is continuing her schooling—she is an evening student at the Stalinogorsk Chemicotechnological Institute. When she is through with the five-year course, she hopes to remain in the design office, but at a much more engrossing and challenging job than the purely mechanical one she now does as a tracer.

Raissa is also something of a musician, and she has an interesting method, even if it's a very personal one, of learning musical notation.

"I've always been fond of mechanical drawing," she says. "Strange as it may sound, it was mechanical drawing that helped me master musical notation when I began to study the piano. I kept drawing every note on music sheets until I knew them all by heart. My fondness for mechanical drawing also carried over to the analytic geometry and theoretical mechanics I'm studying at the institute."

Although Raissa has many friends at the institute—they are all young people who work at the plant—she tends to stay home more than her sister did. She's a somewhat more serious-minded person who prefers reading to dancing.

Raissa is a rather serious-minded person. She likes mechanical drawing, is quite a good musician and prefers reading to dances and parties.

Many Changes—All Good

The Kuznetsovs' youngest daughter, Lida, is fourteen. She's an all-around girl with a teenager's multiple and changing interests.

This year she's crazy about chess, heads the mathematics club in her school and is working hard to prepare for the mathematics contest the city has scheduled for youngsters. Last year she was the mainstay of the dramatics club at the Young Pioneer Palace and had no time or interest in anything not connected with the stage.

Lida loves to write letters and has pen-pals in Bulgaria, Rumania, Italy and Vietnam. Like all young people, they enjoy sharing news about their schools, families, friends and plans for the future.

When she's asked what she would like to do after she graduates from secondary school, she says: "I want to go to a medical college in Moscow." She doesn't question the fact that she will be able to if she passes the competitive entrance exams. Finances won't stand in the way since all schooling, including university and professional education, is free in the Soviet Union.

* * *

With three members of the family working, the Kuznetsovs' combined income comes to 240 rubles a month. Most of it goes for food, clothes, furniture and entertainment. Rent is low—less than 2.5 per cent of the family income. That is about the only thing that hasn't changed. Otherwise there have been changes by the dozens, the Kuznetsovs agree, in the first two years of the seven-year plan period—all of them to the good.

Teen ager Lida is still at secondary school. She wants to be a doctor and is aiming for one of the medical schools in Moscow. Finances won't be a barrier if she passes the entrance exams. Professional training is free in the Soviet Union.

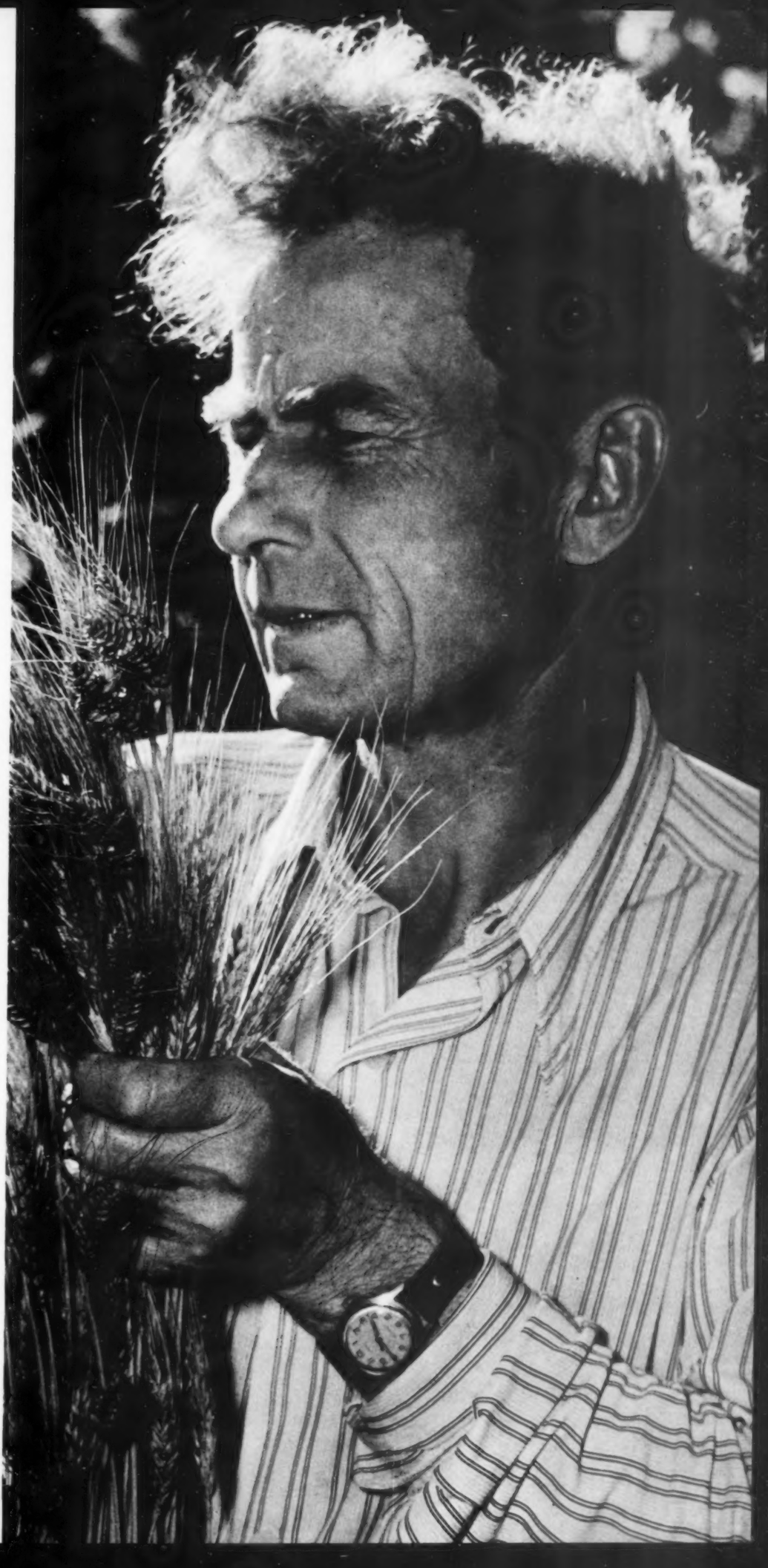
She's a happy child, with all the multiple and changing interests of a fourteen-year-old. This year she's crazy about ping-pong and chess; last year she was the mainstay of her dramatics club.

A SCULPTOR OF LIVING PLANTS

By Mikhail Sukhanov

Plant selectionists are surrounded with every attention and respect in the Soviet Union. They are honored with government awards, honorary titles are conferred on them, and large sums of money are appropriated for their work.

The following article briefly outlines the achievements of the Ukrainian plant selectionist Academician Fyodor Kirichenko, Hero of Socialist Labor and Lenin Prize winner.



THE DEW still glistens on the wheat growing on this experimental plot at the Plant Breeding and Genetics Institute in Odessa. It is early morning but there is a plant breeder already checking and rechecking the effect of the night's weather on the plants. This new variety of wheat is not yet named, but even an inexperienced eye can see that it towers above its neighbors and, notwithstanding the heavier ear, its stem is straighter and stronger. It is not simply an improved plant but a new variety of hard winter wheat that has taken selectionist Fyodor Kirichenko years of patient and painstaking work to develop.

This Ukrainian botanist is one of the men responsible for the remarkable work being done in the Soviet Union to improve existing wheat varieties and develop new ones. Of the 276 winter and spring wheat varieties grown in the USSR, 207 are of Soviet origin.

Farmers in the southern steppes of the Ukraine had long dreamed of the kind of wheat Kirichenko developed—a hardy type that could withstand heat and cold and yield rich returns under inclement conditions. The southern steppelands of the Ukraine are rich, but moisture is lacking; rain is rare in these parts. Summers are hot and winters are severe, and in spring the young shoots have to be able to take sudden temperature changes and unexpected frosts.

Because it is hardier and its yield higher, Ukrainian farmers in the steppe belt have long preferred to grow winter wheat in spite of the fact that its soft grain is inferior to hard spring wheat. There is more protein in the grain of hard spring wheat, and it makes a better quality of flour. It also sells for a considerably higher price and is in greater demand both at home and in foreign markets. But with all these merits, the harvest yield is low, and it has therefore been sown only sparsely in the Southern Ukraine and in the highly fertile Krasnodar and Stavropol territories of the Russian Federation. As a matter of fact, the hard variety is grown on only 10 per cent of the world's wheat acreage.

Combining Qualities

Fyodor Kirichenko conceived the idea of combining the best qualities of soft winter wheat and hard spring wheat. This meant changing the characteristics of the plant radically and giving it altogether new properties. The experiment had been tried by many scientists before him without success.

He began working at the Plant Breeding and Genetics Institute in Odessa twenty-five years ago under the tutelage of the eminent biologist and academician Trofim Lysenko.

The varieties of winter wheat then sown on the Ukrainian steppes were poor. Some of them thinned out considerably during the wintering period and at times were completely destroyed by frost; others yielded small, poor-quality grain and suffered from rust and other diseases. A new, hard, high-yielding variety was needed.

After some years of intensive research, the young selectionist evolved two new varieties of winter wheat—Odesskaya-3 and Odesskaya-12—adapted to the harsh steppe climate. They proved winter-hardy and drought-resistant and were sown over an increasingly larger acreage from year to year.

The fame of the new wheat variety spread quickly beyond the Ukraine to farm regions in the North Caucasus, Moldavia and elsewhere. Now it is grown on 17 million acres of state and collective farmland and gives the country an additional two million tons of wheat each year. Its yield exceeds that of the old varieties by 220 pounds per acre, and when winter growing conditions are favorable, by as much as 600-700 pounds.

Making Soft Wheat Hard

But the positive qualities of the new wheat did not blind Kirichenko to its flaws. Odesskaya-3 lodged in rainy years and Odesskaya-12 ripened late and yielded low returns in dry years. He began to work with a new variety, a much altered and supplemented Odesskaya-12. After subjecting the plant to intravarietal crossbreeding, he and his co-workers worked out a series of fantastically delicate operations in familial seed selection. The result was another winter wheat variety, Odesskaya-16. It yields larger harvests, is more resistant than the parent seed to frost and drought, ripens earlier, gives from 2200 to 2600 pounds of wheat per acre and an even higher yield for individual sections, and makes a better quality of flour.

But the new winter wheat varieties developed by Kirichenko still had the basic failing —their grain was soft and inferior to the hard spring wheats. His next experimental goal was to make the soft winter wheat hard, to convert the farinaceous grain into a plump, amber type. After twelve years of repeated failure, he and a group of scientists under his direction developed a seed that stood up under laboratory and field tests and flourished in actual growing conditions.

He named the new variety of hard winter wheat Michurinka in honor of Ivan Michurin. It was a tribute to the great Russian remaker of nature whose theoretical work showed Kirichenko how to control the complex biological processes of plants.

Michurin ranks with Darwin, Luther Burbank and other great naturalists. He developed more than 300 varieties of fruit and berry plants now grown in many parts of the Soviet Union. As a result of his work fruit growers have been able to push out to the colder, more northerly parts of the country.

Controlling Heredity

Out of his rich experience in plant breeding, Michurin proved, theoretically and practically, that it was possible to control the development of plant organisms and so direct their heredity and variability as to make them more useful to man.

Soviet biologists like Fyodor Kirichenko are constantly proving Michurin's thesis that man "can force any form of animal or plant to change more quickly and along a desired direction."

Successful plant breeding depends in large measure on the materials the selectionist starts with. For his work on Michurinka, Kirichenko collected and, as a matter of fact, created, his initial seeds. He used varieties of hard spring wheat from the worldwide collection of the All-Union Institute of Plant Growing in Leningrad, local varieties, and winter wheats he developed himself, particularly Odesskaya-3, which served as the source of the new hard winter wheat.

As the theoretical basis for developing the new variety he employed Michurin's principles of interspecific hybridization. He crossed high-yield hard spring wheats with frost-resistant winter wheats. The hybrid obtained was sown in the autumn. After the crop was harvested, the seeds were thoroughly selected and their qualities studied and appraised. Then the hybrids were crossed a second time with soft winter wheats.

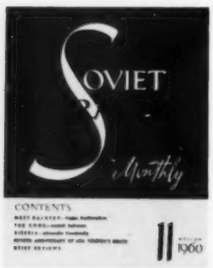
In its productive and frost-resistant qualities, this variety compares favorably with the best winter wheats. Its grain surpasses that of soft wheats by a large margin in protein content, translucence and other desirable characteristics. Before long the Ukrainian steppes and other farm areas of the Soviet Union will be producing bumper harvests of this top-quality wheat.

Fyodor Kirichenko has been called a sculptor of living things. And the comparison is apt, with only a little qualification. This gifted plant breeder works with an artist's inspiration, but he can foresee his finished creation more definitely and exactly than the artist. In outlining the problem, Kirichenko already sees the solution sharply defined. He must, however, work within the strictly defined limits of the given plant; he cannot subtract or add, as can the sculptor. But like the artist, aside from such extensions of his hand as a brush for transferring pollen, or a pair of tweezers, his tools are imagination, knowledge and unbelievable patience.

Experimental fields of the Institute where Fyodor Kirichenko has been developing new winter wheat varieties.

The seeds are carefully sorted, for the material a selectionist starts with is important in successful plant breeding.

Kirichenko's pupil Alexei Sozinov and Yevgeni Tomich examine macaroni prepared from flour made of Michurinka wheat.



SOVIET MAGAZINES IN ENGLISH

The editorial board of USSR Illustrated Monthly has received many inquiries from its readers about Soviet magazines published in the English language. For example, Mr. Ernest E. Bell, 5420 East Ocean Blvd., Long Beach 3, California, asks:

"Are there any news magazines available that present the Soviet Union's point of view on current events, etc.?... If so, how may I subscribe to them either in this country or abroad?"

In reply, we list here eight Soviet magazines published in English and the cost of subscribing for one year.

Soviet Union An illustrated monthly that presents a comprehensive picture of life in the Soviet Union. Current trends in industry, science, the arts and sports are reported by authoritative writers in each of the fields. It regularly carries reproductions of paintings. The magazine is published in sixteen languages besides English. —$2.50

Soviet Woman This illustrated monthly introduces its readers to Soviet women scientists, deputies to legislative bodies, industrial executives, outstanding workers and farmers, teachers and ballerinas. It gives a rounded picture of the place women occupy in Soviet life. Contributors are eminent Soviet and foreign writers and artists and people prominent in the international women's movement. Articles, picture stories and news briefs cover a wide range of subjects, including child care and fashion trends. *Soviet Woman* is published in nine languages. —$2.50

New Times A weekly, published in eight languages, that presents the Soviet view on major international developments. Comment on world affairs, economic and labor notes, reports from correspondents in various countries, book reviews and biographical data are presented in each issue. Important Soviet foreign policy statements are given in supplements. —$3.50

International Affairs A monthly journal of political analysis published in Russian and English. Each number runs to about 130 pages. A digest of the month's international events is presented in each issue with relevant contemporary and historical material in the fields of international relations and international law. Contributors include both Soviet and foreign authorities. —$3.50

Culture and Life Published monthly by the Union of Soviet Societies for Friendship and Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries in English, Russian, French, Spanish and German. The magazine carries articles by Soviet and foreign writers on literature, music, the theater, films, art, architecture, and on science and economics. Featured is material relating to cultural exchange programs. Each issue carries pictorial material—photos, drawings and color reproductions of work by famous prerevolutionary and Soviet artists. —$2.50

Soviet Literature For those who wish to keep abreast of current trends in Soviet writing, this monthly publishes short stories, excerpts from novels, plays, poetry and criticism. The magazine presents the work of contemporary artists in black and white and color reproductions. It appears in English, German, Spanish and Polish. —$2.50

Soviet Film Illustrated with color photos, drawings and stills, this monthly carries articles on current motion pictures, profiles of film personalities, extracts from scenarios, studio plans, joint productions with foreign studios and other pertinent material on Soviet film making. —$2.00

Moscow News A sixteen-page illustrated newspaper published weekly. It carries varied information about life in the Soviet Union in the form of articles, essays, stories, comments, reviews and letters. It has regular features on economics and engineering, science and education, the theater, films, sports, current events and the foreign policy of the Soviet Union, contributed by prominent Soviet journalists and writers, scholars and public figures, as well as foreign authors. —$2.00

Subscriptions for these publications may be placed with the following firms:

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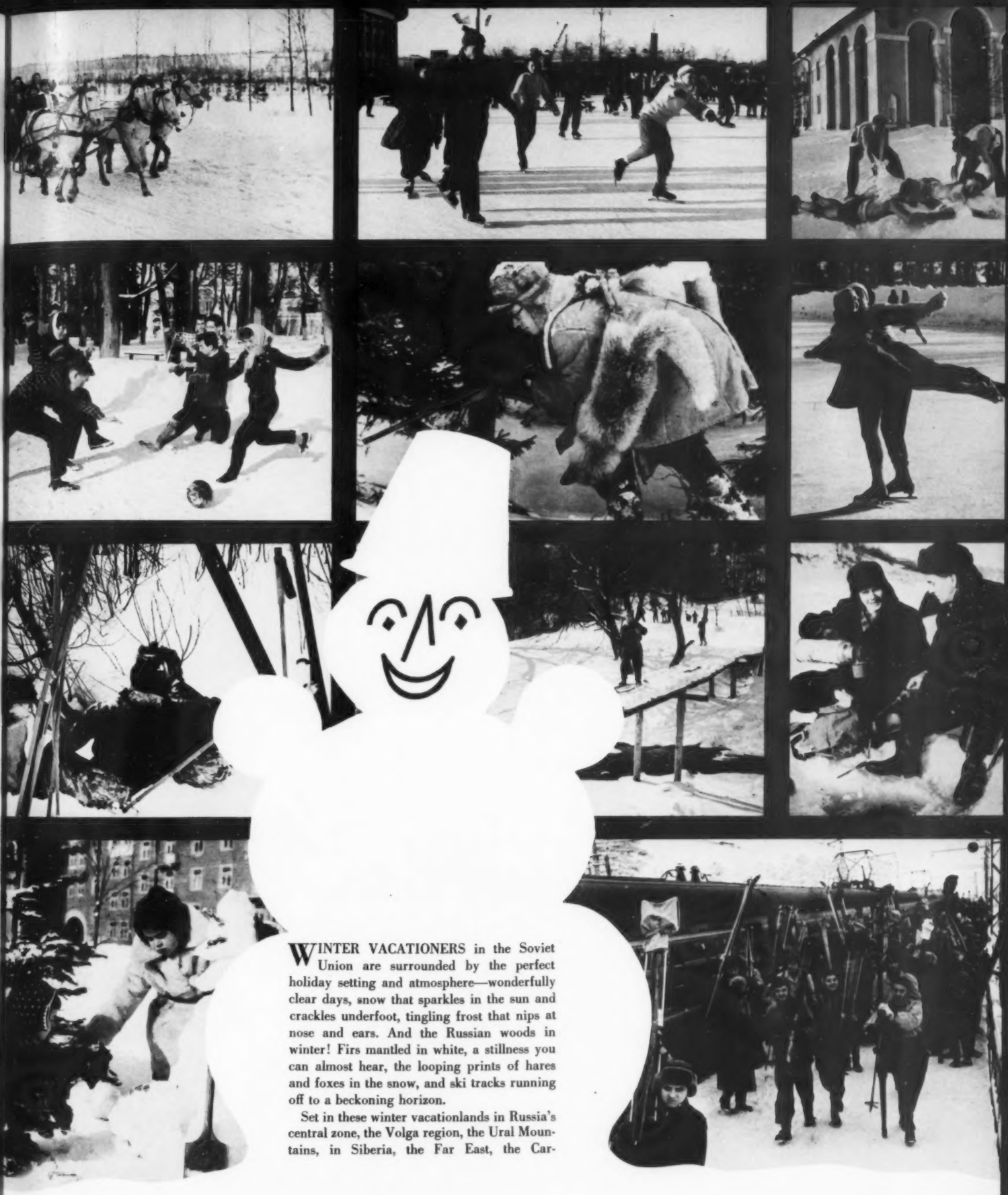


WINTER VACATIONERS in the Soviet Union are surrounded by the perfect holiday setting and atmosphere—wonderfully clear days, snow that sparkles in the sun and crackles underfoot, tingling frost that nips at nose and ears. And the Russian woods in winter! Firs mantled in white, a stillness you can almost hear, the looping prints of hares and foxes in the snow, and ski tracks running off to a beckoning horizon.

Set in these winter vacationlands in Russia's central zone, the Volga region, the Ural Mountains, in Siberia, the Far East, the Car-

WINTER VACATIONS

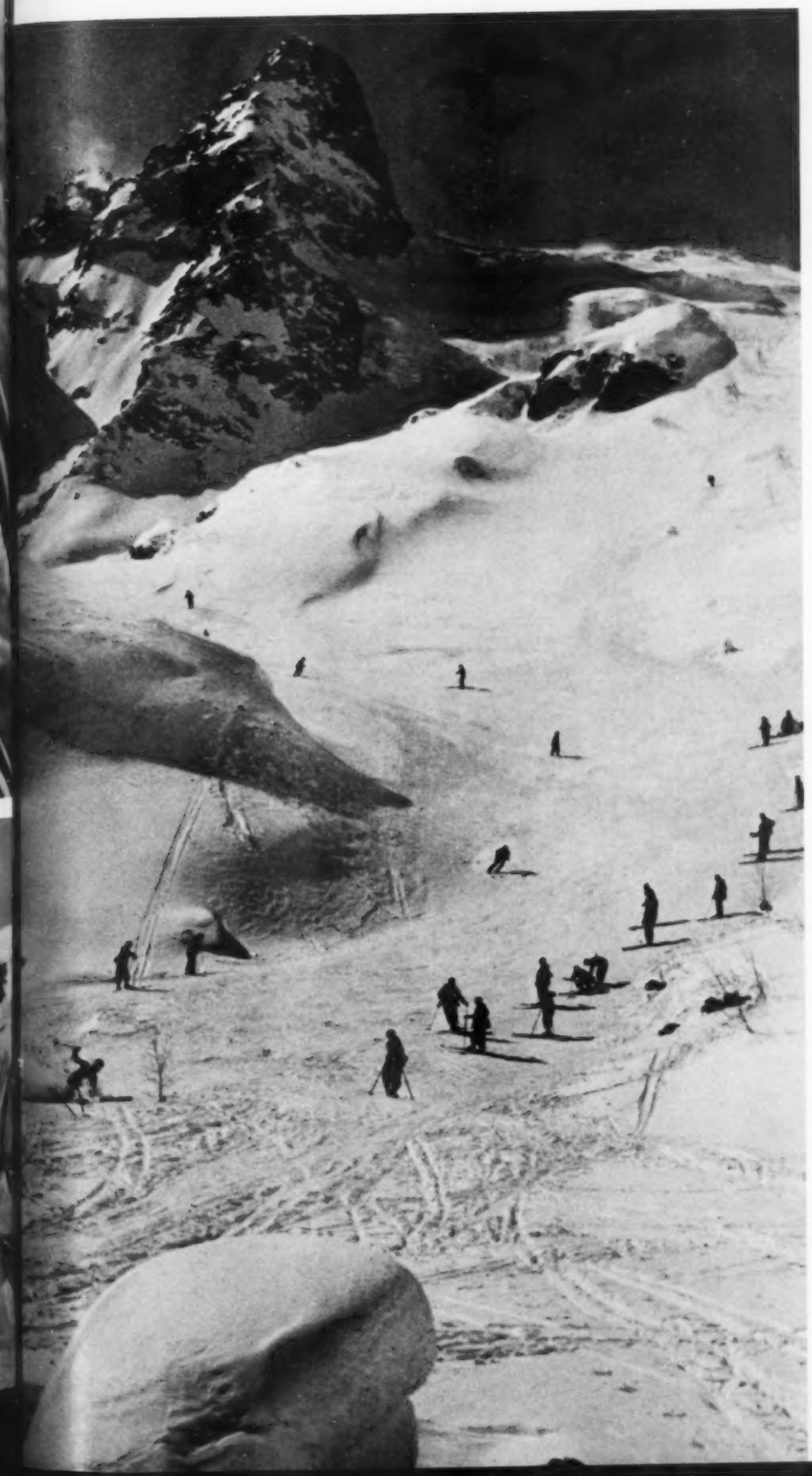
IN BAKURIANI

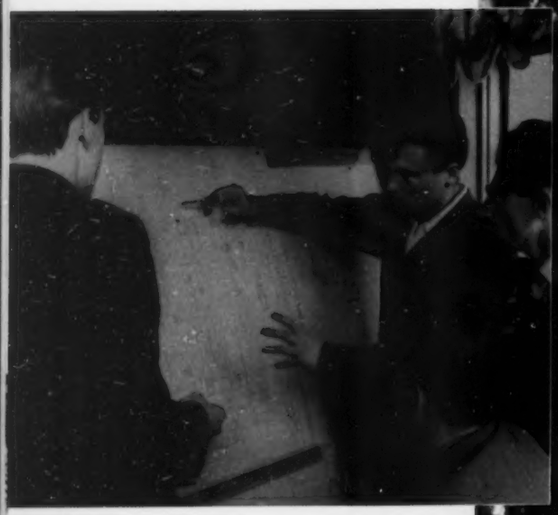
pathian Mountains and Karelia are many of the country's two thousand sanatoriums and one thousand rest homes. They stay open the year round for skiers, skaters and other winter sports devotees—those who hopefully track wild game in the woods or spend hours cajoling fish through holes chopped in the ice.

These resorts and sanatoriums—they are managed by the trade unions—accommodate some six million people annually. There are, besides, many rest homes and camps maintained by factories, institutions and colleges where hundreds of thousands of workers and students spend their winter vacations.

And for those who take their vacations in summer? No need to deprive themselves of winter fun, at least not on week-ends. Not if they join the thousands who go skiing at camps a short ride from the city by train or car, or skate at one of the innumerable rinks in parks and stadiums.

Sun, Snow and a Mountain—A Skier's Idea of Nature Properly Assembled





Designers at the Minsk automation plant working out an assembly. A section of the plant's assembly shop is shown in the larger photo. At the far end is a transfer line assembled and ready to be shipped off to the factory that ordered it. Across the aisle is a line half assembled, and at the near end a line just begun.

AUTOMATION for plenty

By Yuri Grafsky
Photos by Igor Vinogradov

A CURRENT economic map of the Soviet Union would show lines from many of the country's industrial centers converging on Minsk, the Byelorussian city where one of the largest machine-tool plants built in recent years is located. It manufactured the 2,300 new types of machines and the more than 2,000 conveyors, automatic and semiautomatic lines set up in Soviet plants during 1959 and the first half of 1960.

A national program to speed the automation of industry is in operation. It was mapped out at the 21st Congress of the Communist Party and worked out in greater detail at subsequent plenary sessions of the Party's Central Committee to which scientists, industrial engineers, plant executives and leading workers were invited. Each of the republics also worked out a plan for its own industry.

Every factory in the Soviet Union, without exception, is streamlining its production. Processes wasteful of labor power are continually analyzed and earmarked for automation. It is the job of the Minsk plant and others like it to create the machines that will do the work automatically.

The Minsk Transfer Line Plant does not take orders indiscriminately, however; it would be swamped if it did. The requests are channeled through the USSR State Planning Commission and the planning commissions of the 15 Union Republics.

A factory presents its automation needs and suggestions to the Economic Council that administers the particular economic region in which it is situated. The Economic Council coordinates the various requests and passes them on to the Planning Commission. The commission analyzes the applications, establishes priorities and distributes the orders to the appropriate machine-tool plant. The Minsk Transfer Line Plant gets its orders this way. They are extremely diverse.

Engineer Antonina Bushina designs electrical components for transfer lines. She did graduate work by correspondence at Moscow Polytechnical Institute.

Planing machine operator Leonid Potapovich is an inventor—one of many at the plant. He worked out features to speed and simplify planing operations.

The shops at the transfer line plant are modern, with high ceilings and a great deal of glass to let in maximum daylight. The heart of the plant is the 320,000 square-foot machine and assembly shop, where the parts and components of the machines and lines are manufactured, assembled, tested and shipped.

At the time of our visit, a transfer line ordered by the Shadrinsk Plant in the Urals, designed to turn out hydraulic jack housing bases, was being tested. It incorporated the latest techniques in electronics and machine and instrument making. The blanks, held fast in chucks, moved all the way round on an endless circular conveyor. As a blank rolled along, one machine drilled it, a second turned it, a third milled it —each machine performing one assigned operation. The process involved 14 lathes and semiautomatic machines operated by 32 workers. Installed, the line will save the Shadrinsk Plant more than 35,000 rubles a year (in the new currency).

Another Urals plant, the Kungur, will be getting a transfer line now in production in Minsk. This one is for the mass production of turbodrill rotors and stators that will replace 158 semiautomatic lathes and constitute a whole shop.

Consumer industries are also cutting labor costs with automatic lines. The plant is presently assembling a transfer line to machine meat-

grinder bodies that will replace 55 workers and 40 machines. It will turn out a million meat grinders annually.

Production chief Sergei Furtsev tells us: "Last year we manufactured 16 transfer lines of various types. This year we will be turning out 35. By 1965, when the seven-year plan ends, we expect to be manufacturing them at the rate of 65 to 70 a year. This is in addition to automatic machine tools we also make to order for different industries. We turn them out in the hundreds."

We ask about the expanded production facilities and staff that this ambitious program will need, and Furtsev explains that more space is already being built. This year 200 pieces of equipment will be installed and 700 more workers added to the payroll.

The Design Offices

The plant's design offices are in a new light-flooded four-story building. It looks like a carefully ordered beehive with hundreds of people at drafting boards drawing outlines for future machines. During working hours the building has the quiet absorbed atmosphere of a school in session. At lunchtime it is like a school at recess—with radios playing in all the offices, a documentary film being shown in the assembly hall and ping-pong balls clicking in the lounge. The school feeling is understandable; most of the 550 designers were students not too long ago. Only one out of every ten is over 30.

Nikolai Bodry, deputy chief designer, a busy little man who looks like a ruffled sparrow in his crumpled gray jacket, stops rushing about for a moment to tell us: "The day of the solitary inventor is past and gone. Machines these days are designed by groups of inventors working together. Automatic machines or lines are made up of many components which were used singly before." He gives us a picture of the way a team of designers takes an order that comes into the plant and breaks it down into components. Standard assemblies are drawn up in practically no time, almost in the automatic way that good chess players begin a long-studied opening. Then a special design group joins in to add the new elements that are needed. The likely versions of the design go to the bureau's technical council—the "brain trust" it's called locally —where they are discussed with the customer. Then the drawings are sent to the shops to be translated into metal.

Machine Creators

It's a research laboratory atmosphere you feel in the design building. These are not people working just to make a living. The creation of machines is their calling.

Here is one of them—designer Alexander Koblov, a lean, high-strung man. He spent a quarter of a century working in a factory near Moscow, first at the bench, then as a foreman and a process engineer and, finally, as a designer. The factory made gear-cutting machines. They were good and durable, but Koblov thought they took too much time and labor. As he operated these gear cutters, he saw with his mind's eye a new kind of machine that would turn the work, cut teeth, check quality, reject flawed units and flash a red signal to show which machine element was responsible for the defect.

Later Koblov learned that a transfer machine like the one he had in mind had been designed by the Mechanical Engineering Research and Development Institute in Moscow. It had drawbacks, however. A major one was that the whole line stopped when a single unit developed trouble.

He kept pondering over it. He thought that he'd have more chance to work on the idea at the Minsk plant, and so he moved there. He designed various machines and production lines while waiting for an order to come in for a gear-cutting transfer line.

When it did come, it came in multiples. First, an order from a spare-parts factory in Omsk, followed by similar orders from the Gorky Motor Works on the Volga, the Zavolzhsky Engine Plant and the Minsk Spare-Parts Factory.

A special design department was set up to handle these orders, with Koblov at its head and twenty young engineers assisting. The team has worked out scores of creative ideas, and the transfer line will soon be finished.

Antonina Bushina is one of many young engineers who have carved a real place for themselves in the design bureau. She was graduated from the Moscow Machine-Tool Technical School, then worked for several years in a heavy machine-building plant in Kramatorsk, the Ukraine. While there she took a correspondence course at the Moscow Polytechnical Institute. She and her husband—he is a designer, too—went around to various plants looking for automation ideas. They were both very eager to get placed with a plant like the one in Minsk, and the opportunity finally came. Antonina now designs electrical components for transfer lines.

Designer Vladimir Kravtsov came to the plant by another route. He lived in an outlying Byelorussian village near Vitebsk and was graduated from the local school. Then he went to a technical school where he demonstrated an uncommon talent for design. From school he came directly to the Minsk plant. He develops subassemblies for transfer lines, and when he isn't at his board he can be found in the bureau's library digging up data from handbooks or keeping up with the foreign literature in his field. Vladimir has a host of ideas he wants to work out. He has time—he's only 23 now.

Worker-Inventors

Designers and engineers aren't the only ones who develop new machines and improve manufacturing processes. As often as not, original ideas come from benchworkers at the Minsk plant—lathe and milling-machine operators, foundrymen and smiths. These are skilled and bright men. Nine out of every ten of them attend technical schools and colleges after work. They are masters of their own trades and have more than a smattering of skill in others. There is no dearth of new ideas at Minsk; every third worker at the plant has contributed worthwhile suggestions for improving machines. A good many are inventors in their own right.

Leonid Potapovich is one, a 30-year-old planing machine operator who has been working at the plant ever since it opened. He is responsible for any number of features to speed up and simplify planing operations and has originated methods for sharpening and hardening cutting tools.

These inventions have increased machine shop efficiency and added considerably to Leonid's income. He gets a bonus for every idea accepted.

Electrician Alexander Manulik is another worker with inventions to his credit. What motivates these men primarily is not personal gain or aggrandizement, but the admirable human urge toward technical progress. They are craftsmen who want to get more done with less expenditure of labor power.

Displaced Workers?

Automation displaces human labor—that's its reason for being. The question which suggests itself immediately is this one: What happens to the workers displaced by the automatic lines the Minsk plant manufactures?

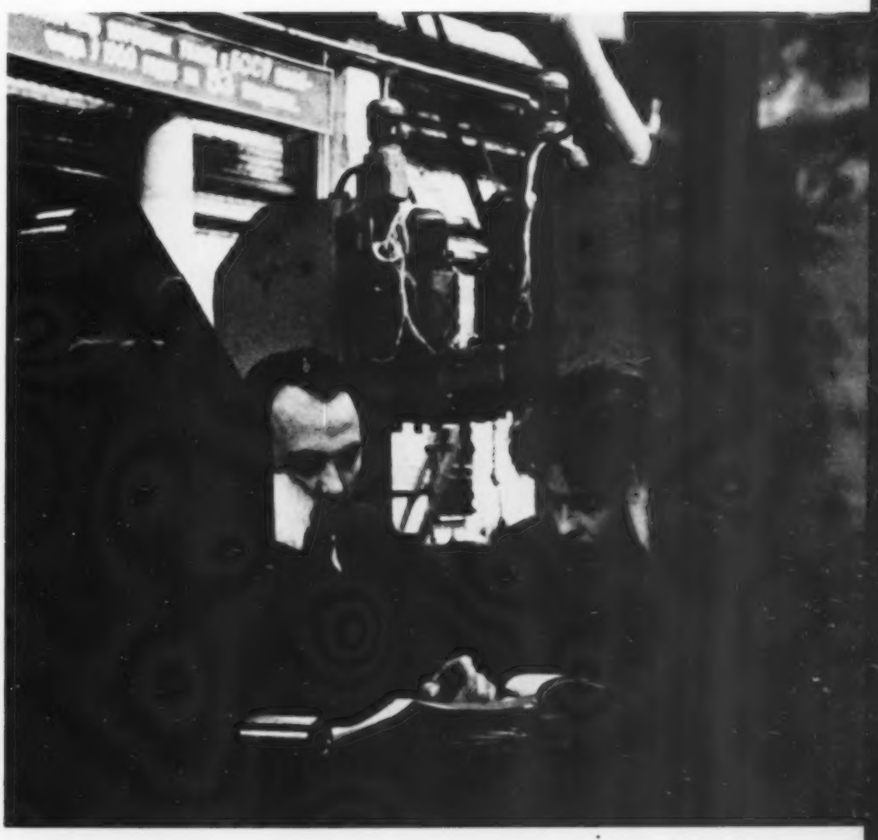
We need not go far to answer the question. There are several factories right in the city itself that have been automated. Take the Minsk Tractor Plant, a large setup with up-to-date equipment built after the Second World War.

A few years ago the Moscow Mechanical Engineering Research and Development Institute installed a large transfer line in the engine shops of the plant. It produced cylinder heads, a key engine component. The line operated faultlessly and turned out quality work. But it brought a new problem. One of the final operations on a part had to be done by radial drilling machines, and these couldn't keep pace with the transfer line. The bottleneck meant that the drills had to be worked on a three-shift basis.

The Minsk automating plant was given the job of producing an

These operators at the Minsk Tractor Plant are being retrained to handle a recently installed transfer line.

Inspector Nikolai Leino (left) and assembler Yevgeni Kruzhanovsky check over a design proposed for an automatic machine tool.



Electrician Alexander Manulik, another of the worker-inventors, is studying at an evening secondary school.

auxiliary transfer line to replace the radial drilling machines. It designed a line that streamlined the flow of work in the shop, eased the work load, tripled labor productivity, and reduced the production cost of the part in question by two-thirds.

Now, the point we are coming to is this. With the auxiliary line keeping pace with the main line, there was no need for three shifts, and the night shift was therefore discontinued. What happened to the workers?

Two of them, Ivan Muravitsky and Vasili Chaika, are now servicing the new line. While it was being set up, they and others were taught the theory and operating principles by engineers from the transfer line plant. They drew average monthly wages during the retraining period. Now, as operators, they make as much as they did before, but the job is cleaner, easier and more interesting.

Two other men who worked on the old drilling machines now service the main transfer line. They took over the jobs of trained technicians Boris Chaika and Victor Sheban who were asked to join a designing team working on the expansion of the engine shop. Shifts of this kind are frequent since the tractor plant keeps growing all the time.

The same sort of thing, on a smaller scale, happened in the crank shaft department of the plant where threading operations were done manually until the transfer line plant designed an automatic machine to take care of thread-tapping. The job of Vladislav Gudkovsky, who used to tap threads, was eliminated. He was transferred to the chassis shop where he operates a lathe and makes the same wages he did before.

We Could Use More Men

It should be fairly obvious that the workers of the Minsk Tractor Plant—and any other factory in the Soviet Union, for that matter—have nothing to fear from automation. They are no less interested in technical progress than are the men at the transfer line plant. Some 1,600 of them are efficiency idea people and inventors. They turned in more than 3,000 suggestions last year to improve production techniques. These innovators seem to be particularly numerous in the tractor factory's engine shop where the new automatic line is operating. Half of the 134 idea men are benchworkers, the others are engineers and technicians. They have formed a shop design bureau of their own, headed by Vladislav Maimusov, a recent graduate of the Minsk Polytechnical Institute.

Electrician Alexander Mamai is an active member of this voluntary design group. He and Maimusov have been huddling over blueprints lately. Oftimes you'll find them checking over the plant's two transfer lines, the main one developed by the Moscow Research Institute and the auxiliary line set up by the Minsk automation plant. Their idea is to design a turntable to link up the two lines. That would cut out the jobs now being done by the two operators of the auxiliary line. But neither Mamai nor Muravitsky worry about that. They'll tell you the reason. Not a single worker has ever been laid off at the Minsk Tractor Plant because of automation. You can say the same for any other factory you care to name.

Pick up the phone and check with some of the other plants equipped with automatic lines made in Minsk. Sergei Kulikov of the Penza Textile Machinery Plant says, "Yes, the Minsk plant made three automatic spindle-machining lines to our order."

"How many workers did the machines displace?"

"Ten."

"Where are they working now?"

"Right here at the factory. We need them. In 1959 we doubled our production over 1958, and in 1960 we doubled it once again. We employ a lot of people and could use more if we had them."

Call Iosiph Litvakovsky, chief engineer of the tractor plant in Vladimir. "Sure, Minsk set up an automatic line for us to manufacture housings for ball bearings. It cut our labor cost to a fiftieth and multiplied labor productivity by a factor of 25."

"Have you laid off any workers on account of it?"

"I should say not. Ball bearings don't make up the whole of a tractor engine. We've shifted the men to other departments. They're glad to have them."

You'll get the same story from every other plant where automatic lines have been installed to free workers for jobs where they can use their minds as well as their hands.

The automation plant's design council—called the brain trust locally—discusses a new transfer line.

1. This transfer line to finish cylinder heads designed for the Minsk Tractor Plant does three times the work with fewer operators. Here electrician Alexander Mamai (right) and engineer Vladislav Maimusov check it's operation to see what improvements can be made. The new line eliminated the jobs of a number of men, who were all transferred to new jobs after retraining. 2. Victor Sheban is now working as a technician with a group of designers who are expanding the engine shop. 3. Vladislav Gudkovsky is in the chassis shop. The new jobs pay no less than the old ones did.

SCIENTISTS MEET IN MOSCOW

THE SIXTH OF THE PUGWASH conferences on world peace and the role of the scientists was held in December of last year in the Soviet capital. The next conference is scheduled for this coming summer and will meet in the United States.

The Pugwash movement was initiated several years ago by Cleveland industrialist Cyrus Eaton, a long time advocate of American-Soviet friendship, with such eminent men of science as Albert Einstein, Frederic Joliot-Curie and Bertrand Russell participating. It derived its name from the small Canadian town where the first meeting was held.

Assembled in Moscow's Friendship Club for the sixth conference were 76 distinguished scientists from 15 countries. The United States and the USSR had the largest representations. Soviet participants included Alexander Nesmeyanov, Alexander Topchiev, Igor Tamm, Pyotr Kapitsa, Nikolai Semyonov, Alexander Tupolev, Yevgeni Fyodorov, Dmitri Skobeltsyn, Nikolai Bogolyubov and Vasili Yemelyanov—all men of international stature. Among the 26 noted American scientists were L. Szilard, J. Weisner, D. Inglis, R. Leghorn, H. Brown, E. Rabinowitch and B. Glass.

Some 50 papers were read at the ten-day conference touching on the manifold phases of the most important of contemporary problems—general and complete disarmament, the history and danger of the arms race, prohibition of nuclear weapon tests, measures to insure against surprise attacks, guarantees to preserve the peace during the disarmament period and after, and the responsibility of the scientist in preventing war and organizing international cooperation.

Professor Paul Doty contributed a paper on "Changing Views on Disarmament in the United States" and Professor Bernard Feld a paper on problems of armament inspection and controls, both of which evoked thoughtful discussion by the international gathering. Premier Nikita Khrushchev said in his message to the conference, "It is most gratifying that the problem of disarmament is being considered by the leading scientists of our time. In our age of remarkable scientific discoveries their voices are listened to throughout the world."

Mr. and Mrs. Cyrus Eaton came to Moscow for the conference and were cordially welcomed by Soviet leaders Anastas Mikoyan, Yekaterina Furtseva and Dmitri Polyansky. They called on Nina Khrushcheva and met other members of the Chairman's family. Madame Khrushchev, Mr. Eaton said in an interview subsequently, was one of the finest people he had ever met anywhere. She creates good will and friendship for the Soviet Union, he commented.

He also met with many Soviet scientists and thought them people with broad interests—not only concerned with their own specialized research areas but active participants in the general, and powerful, movement for peace. "It is a good thing," he said, "that the scientists of many countries can get together and discuss the problems of peace and general and complete disarmament. I was glad to see the spirit of understanding and cooperation which reigned at the Pugwash conference."

This is Mr. Eaton's second visit to the Soviet Union. Moscow, he commented, was expanding fast in all ways, "I mean not only in extensive construction of buildings of all kinds. Moscow is a great world capital. One sees here people from every nation of the world." As for Muscovites, he thought them wonderful—healthy, vigorous, intelligent.

In a letter published in the press addressed to the Soviet people, Mr. Eaton wrote, "You have achieved tremendous successes and you have a very promising future in store which will bring prosperity and happiness to the whole of your vast population." He said that he hoped to get better acquainted with the Soviet people and their great country and looked forward to the day when the Pacific Ocean, the common frontier between the two countries, would become a great bridge for American-Soviet trade.

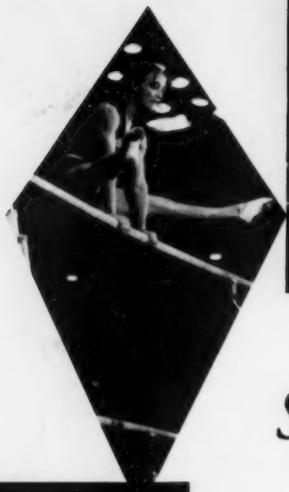
Answering a question put to him on prospects for broader American-Soviet cultural and scientific exchange, Mr. Eaton replied that he hoped to see them expanded. Visiting Soviet musicians, artists and writers are very popular in the United States, he noted; they contribute to understanding and to greater cooperation.

Mr. Eaton thought that American and Soviet farmers could, with mutual profit, trade ideas on seed selection and breeding stock. He had been very much impressed by the work Soviet farmers were doing in animal husbandry, to judge by the fine horses he had seen.

Adverting to his own field, he went on to say that American industrialists like himself and Soviet executives in iron and steel, coal, power and railroads should be seeing more of each other. "As experience has shown, our cooperation in all these fields will be mutually helpful. . . . I have always said that if there exist two countries that have everything to gain from friendship and nothing to gain from war, they are the United States and the Soviet Union."

At the Sixth Pugwash Conference of World Scientists on Disarmament and World Security held in Moscow last December. (Right to left) Alexander Topchiev (USSR), Cyrus Eaton, one of the founders of the movement, Yevgeni Fyodorov (USSR), J. Rotblat (Great Britain), E. Rabinowitch (USA).

Nina Khruscheva holds a doll that Mrs. Cyrus Eaton, wife of the Cleveland industrialist, brought for her grandchild. (Left to right) Georgi Zhukov, Chairman of the Committee for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries, Eaton aide N. R. Comiskey, Mr. Eaton and an interpreter.



SYMPHONY OF GRACE

OLYMPIC GYMNAST POLINA ASTAKHOVA

By Yevgeni Simonov
Photos by Mstislav Botashov

Polina scored first on the uneven bars, higher than her teammate Larissa Latynina, who captured all-around gymnastic honors. Larissa placed second and Tamara Lyukhina was third.

GYMNASTS of 24 countries competed for world honors at the Olympic Games in Rome. On the third day of the tournament they matched their skill and grace on gymnastic apparatus. When Polina Astakhova, of the Soviet women's team, walked to the uneven parallel bars, the scoreboard showed that the previous contestant, Japanese Keiko Ikeda, had been awarded a high 9.7 points. Paying tribute to a fine performance, fans chanted from all parts of the crowded hall: "I-ke-da . . . I-ke-da . . . I-ke-da."

A few minutes later the tall, blond Polina was whirling through a cascade of dazzling movements on the bars. The crowd watched spellbound. Then some one in the hall shouted out: "It's a symphony of grace." That broke the silence, and there was a burst of tumultuous applause.

Listening to radio commentators later in the day, we heard this repeated: "Gymnastics is more than a sport for the Soviet women; it's an art." And to see Polina in action—her faultness technique in every exercise, plasticity in every movement, the barely noticeable changes of pace—is to realize that her performance really crosses over the dividing line from sport to art.

Once a reporter asked her: "Which club do you belong to back home?"

"Vanguard," she answered.

"That's appropriate enough," he commented. "The name alone means you have to be up front."

She smiled and said: "We try to be," speaking for herself and the other five girls of the team. Between them they brought home 15 of the 16 Olympic medals awarded for women's gymnastics. Polina captured three—a gold medal for the uneven parallel bars, a silver medal for the free exercises and a bronze medal for the all-around score.

Polina was born in 1936 in Zaporozhye, one of the large industrial cities in the Ukraine. She was good at games as a child and was especially fond of skiing and figure skating. At nine she took up gymnastics and only three years later qualified for the title of Master of Sports, awarded for athletic excellence.

In 1956 she was included in the Soviet Olympic squad that went to Melbourne. This was her debut at international competitions, and she did fairly well, placing thirteenth in the all-around score in a field of 53 gymnasts. In 1959 she chalked up several major victories. She placed first in the all-around score both at the USSR Gymnastic Championship and at the USSR People's Games, and then won the European crowns for uneven parallel bars and the balance beam.

For the Rome Olympics Polina was trained by Alexander Mishakov. This athlete has a record of his own—he coached Boris Shakhlin and Larissa Latynina, all-around champions of the world and the Olympic Games. He says, talking about Polina: "She's unquestionably the top performer now on the bars. She is very stubborn, too. When she fell off the beam in Rome, she didn't get discouraged and went through the rest of the exercise with even greater determination. She came back home with laurels, but didn't ease up on her training for a minute like some of her friends did."

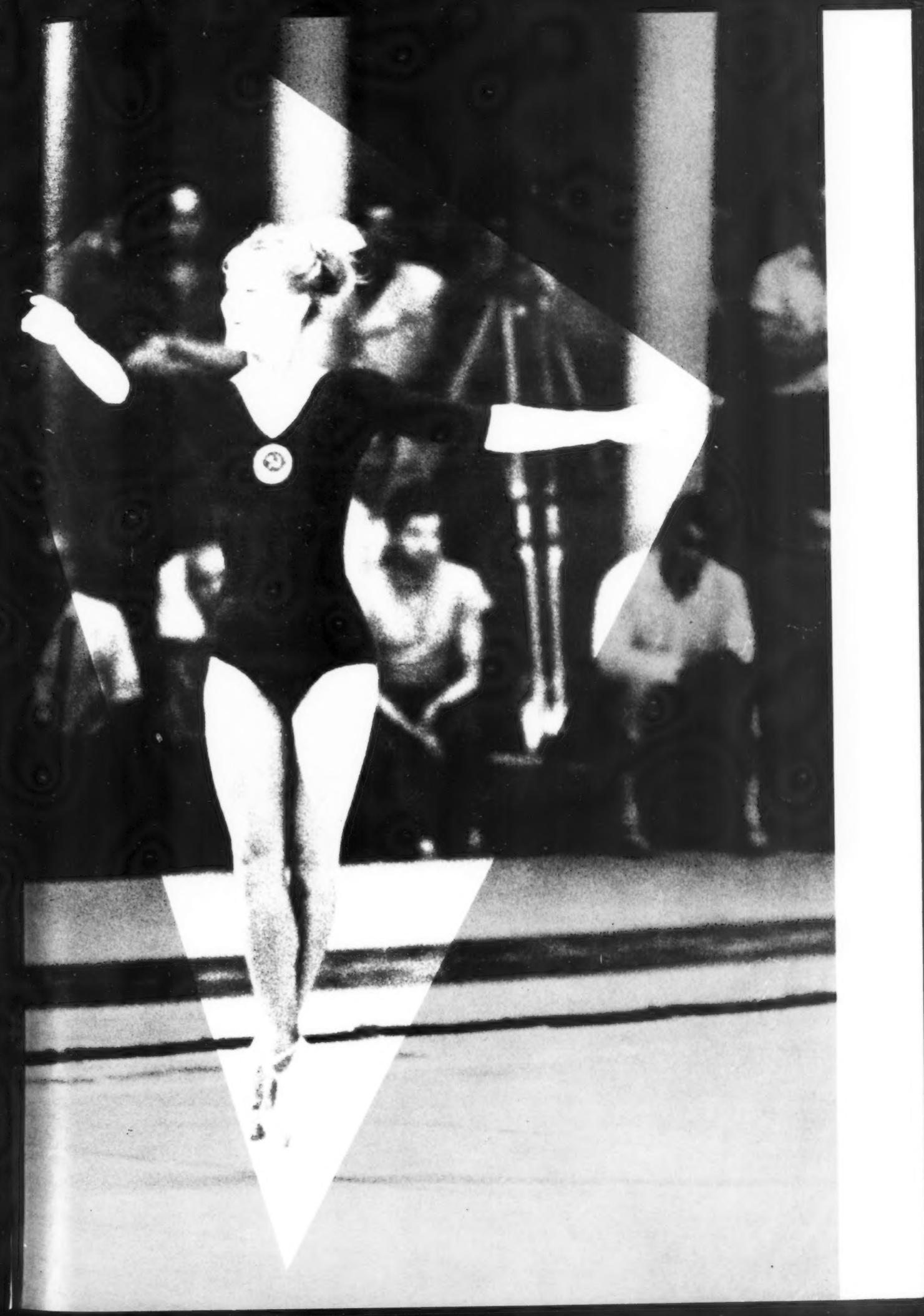
During a single practice session Polina will do a one-leg squat thirty to forty times in a row and repeat the same turn in a jump fifty to sixty times. She spends a lot of time sprinting, doing strength exercises and perfecting every movement until they all have the grace of a ballet performance.

* * *

We met Polina in Moscow soon after the Soviet athletes returned from Rome. She's a gay and very social young lady who likes people and parties, and books and music as well. She reads a lot; her favorite authors are Leo Tolstoy, Gorky, Balzac, Dreiser and Jack London.

She is now a student of physical education at a teachers training college. "When I get through school," Polina says, "I'll be coaching in my native Ukraine. In Stalino Region where I live there are no less than 26,000 young people practicing gymnastics regularly. So there's plenty of work to do."

It's altogether possible that some of Polina's future pupils will make the grade and win world athletic fame just as she has done.



WINTER FUN—See page 13