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THE 15th ANNIVERSARY OF THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION

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REVIEW**

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J. STALIN

XVth Anniversary of the October Revolution

STRUGGLE AND VICTORIES

15 years... From the point of view of great historical periods this is an insignificant space of time. However, in the course of these 15 years the appearance of an enormous country has altered so as to render it irrecongnisable, a radical change has been effected in the conditions of work and existence of one hundred and sixty million men and women inhabiting the enormous territory of the former empire of the tsars.

For the first time in the history of mankind there has been established a social regime not based on private property in the means of production, without exploitation, without industrial anarchy, crises and unemployment, which are firmly holding the masses in capitalist countries in their grip and keeping them on the verge of starvation and destitution.

A free Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has been formed, a union uniting on the basis of full equality and fraternal cooperation many nations, which hitherto formed an object of the worst colonial oppression by the reigning clique of landlords and capitalists.

The regime of proletarian dictatorship was won in the battles of October. It became consolidated and justified itself in a historical sense before the face of all the toilers of the world. It is now a genuine democracy for millions of people and has brought the country to the eve of a classless society.

These enormous changes in economics, politics and culture are the result of a fifteen-year ceaseless strenuous struggle, conducted under the guidance of the Party of Lenin and Stalin. This was a struggle against the resistance of the old capitalist world, against the corrupting habits of petty-bourgeois individualism, against the patriarchal system and uncivilised methods of work, in short, against the painful historical heritage, bequeathed to the proletariat and to its Party by many years of predatory methods of management practised by the landlords and capitalists. This struggle was conducted for a new labour culture,

for creative competition in labour, for collectivism in everyday life, for the introduction of the latest technique in all branches of economy, for the triumph of the planning principle in economics, for the raising of the material wellbeing and for the genuine freedom of individual spiritual growth of every toiler.

On the fifteenth anniversary the great results of the October Revolution stand out with special clarity. This Revolution opened a new period in the history of human development. Eleven years ago Lenin described in the following words the economic state of Soviet Russia: "Look at the map of the RSFSR. Boundless spaces are stretching to the north of Volgda, to the south-east of Rostov-on-Don, to the south of Orenburg and of Omsk and to the north of Tomsk. And throughout these vast spaces there reigns patriarchal system of economy, semi-savagery and downright savagery..." Lenin asked: "Is it conceivable to pass on from this patriarchalism, from these pre-capitalist economic regimes to socialism?" and replied: "Yes, it is conceivable, but only provided one condition is observed — provided there is electrification, the re-establishment and development of heavy industries, which are the foundation of socialist construction."

Lenin's plan, the plan of a genius, is being carried out with the hands of millions of toilers.

For the first time in history the reconstruction of the economic and cultural regime of an enormous country, inhabited by numerous nations, which formerly differed enormously as regards the level of their economic development, is being carried out according to a scientific plan, in which millions of people are called upon to take part.

On the fifteenth anniversary of the October Revolution the workers have to their credit such a historic victory as the starting of the Dnieper Power Station — one of the gigantic constructions which crown Lenin's plan of the electrification of the

country. During the last few years the total electric power of the Soviet Union has increased by several million kilowatts: in 1928 — by 200,000 kilowatts, in 1930 — by 600,000 kilowatts, in 1931 — by 1,100,000 kilowatts.

The lights of Dnieproges (the Dnieper Power Station) now illuminate a large number of gigantic industrial works which are either completed or in construction. To the north of the city of Lenin, in regions plunged in the darkness of polar nights, apatites are being extracted in Khibiny, minerals fertilising the fields of collective and State farms. To the east of Moscow, near the city of Gorky (Nizhny-Novgorod), the former capital of the merchants' barbarism, the buildings of the automobile giant plant are stretching, and further to the east in the Ural mountains the blast furnaces of Magnitogorsk — the second metallurgical base of the country — are blazing. To the south of Saratov, out of the gates of the Stalingrad plant come tractors which together with the tractors of the Kharkov and the Putilov works and the agricultural machines of the Rostov plant are mechanising primitive Russia, breaking the back of patriarchalism and savagery, referred to by Lenin. To the south of Orenburg and of Omsk a new industrial Kazakstan is arising. Only yesterday it was inhabited by backward nomads, now it has constructed 'Turksib, Karaganda and other strongholds of socialism.

The fundamental assets of socialist industries have more than doubled during the first Five-Year Plan — from 5,7 milliard in 1928 to 13,1 milliard on January 1, 1932. The Soviet Union has established many new industries which in the domain of technique play a decisive role in securing our economic independence: Soviet electric turbines, Soviet Diesels and high voltage transformers, Soviet bloomings, Soviet crackings etc.

In the sphere of agriculture we now have an absolute preponderance of the socialist sector — collective and State farms — over the individual sector. A considerable quantitative extension of the sown area in comparison with the pre-war period has been achieved. The technical reconstruction of agriculture has already placed on socialist fields over 100,000 tractors.

Thus a foundation of socialist economics has been constructed, and a new technical basis has been created for the completion of the reconstruction of the entire socialist economy during the second Five-Year Plan.

The ranks of the working class have grown in numbers and in strength. In 1928 there were 11,552,000 workers and employees, in 1931 their number increased to 18,590,000. The successes of industrialisation and of the reconstruction of agriculture have finally put an end to unemployment, the accursed heritage of the past. In 1928, at the beginning of the Five-Year Plan, there were 10,994,000 members of trade unions, in 1932, the last year of the Five-Year Plan, their number increased to 16,504,000. These figures clearly show the improvement in the organisation of the working class, headed by the Communist Party, which embodies "the best, the most vigorous intelligence of the toiling people of the Union of Soviets" (M. Gorky).

The successes in the development of the national economy and the improvement in the material wellbeing of the toiling masses have brought about enormous achievements in the field of cultural construction. The growth of literacy and the introduction of compulsory education, the wide spread of polytechnical schools, the increasing number of students from among the workers and the collective farmers, the rapid development of the press, the development and strengthening of the socialist form: of labour (four million shock-workers in 1932), the drawing of the masses into State administration, into the work of the Soviets, etc., finally the reconstruction of everyday life — such are those enormous changes which in the words of Lenin constitute the cultural revolution.

The mass campaign of the toilers for the mastering of technique, for the creation of their own technical intelligentsia, capable of coping with the tasks of present-day science and technique, a campaign inaugurated in response to J. Stalin, the leader of the working class, is one of the most important moments of the cultural revolution, of the construction of socialist culture.

Indeed, socialism means an extraordinarily high development of science and technique, which actually becomes the patrimony of all the toilers. The first phase of the socialism creates all the necessary prerequisites for the solution of the problem of destroying the contrasts between physical and brain work. In order to illustrate that process we can cite, for instance, the increase in the number of mass workers' inventions in the Soviet Union — 700,000 workers are members of the All-Union Society of Inventors.

All the best scientists and scholars are beginning to collaborate with the working class. Science is becoming stronger and develops itself on the basis of an organic connection with the tasks of socialist construction.

Let us quote only one figure for purposes of comparison: under tsarism the Chief Geological Board had 12 geologists on its staff. Now this institution forming part of the People's Commissariat of Heavy Industry has under its control dozens of specialists of world reputation and tens of thousands of geologists carrying exploration work.

In the single year of 1931 the number of industrial scientific research institutions (institutes and branches in industrial areas) has increased from 141 to 205; the number of scientists working in industries increased from 6,000 to 12,500, the latter figures containing a larger proportion of workers. The latest decision concerning the secondary and higher schools as well as the organisation of higher agricultural schools means an important step forward in the matter of training cadres. "We have already carried out most important tasks from the point of view of construction — little remains for us to be done — to study technique, to master science."

The cultural revolution is a whole epoch including a manysided work of reconstruction of economics and of the consciousness of human beings. In this sense the importance of the second Five-Year Period cannot be overestimated, since its task is "the final elimination of capitalist elements and classes in general, the overcoming of the remains of capitalism in the economics and the consciousness of human beings, the transformation of the entire working population of the country into class conscious and active builders of a classless socialist society" (theses of the second Five-Year Plan).

On the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution it is not only the working masses of the USSR that will look back on the past period. A new mankind is being born before the whole world covering one sixth of its area. Therefore it is difficult to imagine another country, another section of the globe, which could attract to itself such attention as does the Soviet Union.

It is not only the toiling masses of the whole world naturally leaning towards the Land of the Soviets as the fatherland of the working humanity, who are the faithful friends of our country. The greatest representatives of the present age, men who are the foremost representatives of

culture and civilisation, are turning more and more into resolute and open sympathisers and assistants of the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics. This is proved by the speeches and writings of such prominent men as Romain Rolland, Henri Barbusse, Theodore Dreiser, Bernard Shaw, Martin Andersen Nexö, Upton Sinclair, André Gide and many others. Ever larger numbers of intellectuals are becoming aware of the fact that the socialist construction of the USSR opens up unlimited possibilities to art and technique at the present time and still grander prospects in the near future.

On the other hand it is well known that the light of socialist construction attracting to the Soviet Union the sympathies of the best minds of the present age is at the same time hateful to all the dark forces who imagine that the salvation from the world economic crisis in capitalist countries lies in a new war, and above all in an attack on the Soviet Union, "that country which prevents a new war to be engineered" (Stalin). Maxim Gorky wrote recently of the economics of the Soviet Union: "The enemy's strength lies in human stupidity, which for centuries the enemy has knocked into the heads of the working people." However the enemy relies also on the strength of munitions, warships and airplanes, which the fog of "imperialist pacifism" (Stalin) constantly rising over the lake of Geneva can neither conceal, nor destroy.

Therefore on the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution the slogan of all friends of peace, of all friends of the Soviet Union is the campaign for the spread of true information to the whole of toiling mankind to all the best sections of the intellectuals about the achievements of the Soviet Country, about the justice of its cause and its great cultural power. This is the best means of combating that "stupidity" with which the enemy is operating when influencing public opinion. This struggle is conducted in order that the country in which new mankind is arising could quietly continue its gigantic work and should not be forced to turn the mighty forces of millions of people from peaceful persistent work to fights in defence of these peaceful conquests from foreign attacks.

Long live the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution!

Long live the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics — the fatherland of the workers of the whole world, the centre of new life and culture of new humanity!

THE STRUGGLE FOR PEACE AND THE FIRST FIVE-YEAR PLAN

By G. Z a n d

In the light of the international events which have taken place in the last few years, the enormous importance of the policy of peace of the Soviet Union stands out with striking clearness. The well-known French newspaper "Le Temps" almost in each issue since the signing of the Versailles Peace Treaty has treated its readers to a column of data of international life under the significant heading "L'organisation de la paix" (The organisation of peace). If we examine closely the essence of these facts which are treated under that head we find that the "organisation of peace" is understood by the organ of French imperialism to mean the consolidating of the inequality between nations and States, the securing for some powers of all political and economic means at the expense of others, the relentless race in armaments, the creation of material prerequisites for a recrudescence of imperialist expansions. The organisation of peace has in fact come to mean the opposite of what the term implies — namely the organisation of war.

The Soviet government pursuing its policy of peace has always been persistently and consistently fighting and is still fighting against this attitude so typical of militant imperialism.

A great deal has been said and written in the world press about the policy of peace of the Soviet government. Most of the statements made in this connection were unfavourable to the Soviets. Enemies of our country and of socialist construction have tried to insinuate that the policy of peace of the Soviet Union is dictated by the desire to overthrow the capitalist regime and that all the manifestations of this policy are mere propaganda which ignores entirely the practical realisation of peace.

Soviet public opinion which expresses the view of the millions of toilers of the USSR and the Soviet government itself has never concealed its deep conviction that the capitalist system harbours in itself the root causes of armed conflicts.

At the same time it is fully conscious of the fact that the masses of the people in all countries, who have suffered from the hardships of imperialist war, are most anxious to fight against the possibility of future wars and for the preservation of peace. While fighting for peace the Soviet government was fully aware that in this struggle it enjoyed the sympathy, and found support not only among the toilers of the USSR but also among the exploited masses of the population of the capitalist countries and their colonies. The consciousness of this support and the certainty of the historic justice of the cause of socialist construction enabled Soviet diplomacy to overcome the greatest difficulties, which were placed in its path, and if this alleged propaganda consists in the desire to weld together all forces of present-day society who are sincerely desirous for peace in struggle against militarist bedaubes, then the Soviet Union is quite prepared to take up this challenge and declare that no force on earth will be able to divert it from such "propaganda".

And no one has so decisively and clearly outlined the path which must be followed by all governments in order at least to lessen the danger of new wars, as did the representatives of the Soviet Union.

As early as 1927, i. e. immediately after the Soviet Union was enabled to take part in the preliminary commission for disarmament called in Geneva, the Soviet government introduced a programme of complete and all-embracing disarmament. The fate of the Soviet proposal is known to all. The inspirers and leaders of the League of Nations, who in their declarations appear as champions of peace, un-animously rejected this plan of disarmament. During the years 1927—1932 many people gained an insight as to just where the obstacles to peace were to be found, and who had prompted the actions capable of subjecting humanity to the tragic test of new bloody wars and slaughters.

The struggle of the Soviets for disarmament, which is an important item in the

We don't want to be a hammer for weak nations or an anvil for the strong. — We are striving for peace.

Stalin.

struggle for peace, was of decisive importance in this connection. By introducing a supplementary plan of partial disarmament the Soviet government has shown that it proposes to take advantage of every possible opportunity to remove one of the most formidable factors of the war menace — the existence of huge armaments, and the tendency of their constant increase. Every attempt made by Soviet diplomacy to raise the question of disarmament and of reduction of armaments in a concrete fashion has resulted in failure, owing to resistance by the representatives of the capitalist governments. But though in Geneva the upper hand was gained by forces which threaten to involve the nations in new catastrophes, the speeches of the Soviet representatives stiffened the resistance to the adventurous policy of the ruling sections of the capitalist class on the part of the broad masses of the toilers.

With regard to relations between the USSR and bourgeois countries, Soviet foreign policy has always maintained the standpoint that in spite of the inevitable antagonism between the capitalist and socialist systems nothing should stand in the way of establishing and preserving normal and businesslike relations between the USSR and the rest of the world. From the time the famous thesis was advanced at the International Economic Conference in 1927 about “a peaceful co-existence” of both systems — capitalist and socialist — and down to the proposal made at the end of 1931 by the People’s Commissary for Foreign Affairs, M. Litvinov, for concluding pact of economic non-aggression, Soviet policy has consistently laid stress on the fact that the basic interests of the domestic creative activities of the Soviet Union demand the preservation and strengthening of peace.

There has not taken place a single event in the domain of international policy capable, even if only morally, of strengthening peace tendencies at the expense of militarist inclinations which did not call forth from the Soviet Union the expression of readiness to support the initiative in that direction. Everyone knows the practical value of the so-called Kellogg Pact, about giving up war as an instrument of national policy. In our days people are especially struck by the utopianism of those who imagine that such a pact would be able to relegate to the past one of the sharpest forms of imperialist policy, one of the mightiest weapons of the expansion of monopoly

capital. No one had a better understanding of the purely declaratory nature of this pact than the Soviet Union. Yet the USSR was one of the first States which recognised the provisions of the Kellogg Pact as binding on itself. The reservations made by the Soviet government when endorsing the Paris Pact, unlike those made by the other governments were intended to widen the scope of the pact and to extend it to all possible cases of hostile activities which would thus be outlawed. Thus the Soviet government expressed itself in favour of prohibiting all kinds of wars, all military occupations, all blockades and interventions. The very breaking off of diplomatic relations, which hampers the settlement of disputes in a peaceful way and which increases the danger of armed conflicts, should in the opinion of the Soviet government have been prohibited under the Kellogg Pact.

Developing its peaceful “offensive”, the Soviet government took upon itself the initiative of immediately carrying the Kellogg Pact into effect. Without waiting for this pact to come into force after its ratification by all the participants, the Soviet government proposed to its immediate neighbours to recognise at once its binding nature. The so-called Litvinov protocol was signed on February 9, 1929. However, it took more than a month before the full acceptance of the offer made by USSR an offer which had for its object only that of obtaining the signatures which had already been affixed to the pact, prohibiting wars, could be secured.

With a number of countries. (Turkey, Persia, Afghanistan) and also with Germany and Lithuania, the Soviet Union had previously to this signed treaties of neutrality and non-aggression. Unlike the treaties of “friendship” which became so fashionable among capitalist States in the post-war period, the Soviet type of agreement did not harbour any secret coalitions or secret military alliances and served the genuine purpose of strengthening peace, for it did not contain any obligations to support one State against another. On the contrary, these treaties are framed in such a way as to cast the obligation on each of the contracting parties to abstain from hostile activities — political and economic — in regard to the other and preserve neutrality in case one of the parties is attacked by a third party. These treaties do not contain a single clause, which provides for any assistance to be given in case of diplomatic

or military complications and which would therefore facilitate a party to the agreement taking such decisions as would entail military conflicts. It goes without saying that in spite of the repeated declarations of the Soviet government about its readiness to conclude such treaties with any State maintaining diplomatic relations with it, none of the imperialist countries or States that are virtually their vassals responded to this appeal by the Soviet government. Only those governments assumed a policy of an agreement with the Soviet government, which set as their task the defence of their territorial integrity and of the economic independence of their country and which realised that it is to their own advantage to consolidate peace and to conduct a struggle for its preservation. The official endorsement of the peace policy of the Soviet government by the corresponding countries not only increased the importance of the peace aspirations of the USSR in international relations, but proved conclusively that the main champion of peace was the USSR, with which every government interested for one reason or another in the preservation of general peace, should seek an understanding.

From 1929 the capitalist world has entered on an era of deepening cataclysms. The era of "prosperity", of a relative stabilisation of capitalism gave way at first to depression, then to economic crisis. Developing on the basis of a universal crisis of the capitalist system the industrial crisis of overproduction and the world agrarian crisis produced far reaching changes within that system. The growth of social contradictions within capitalism found its reflection in international relations. The decrease of purchases in the home market as a result of the destitution of the masses of consumers, compelled the ruling class to seek foreign markets. At its own frontiers it was met by the stream of commodities coming from other countries whose markets were exhausted by the crisis. Conflicts of interests are growing and these constitute the primary cause of political complications. In this ever-increasing tangle of contradictions, political jobbers of all kinds find fruitful soil for international combinations that contain in themselves the threats of new wars—in this manner are the bourgeoisie trying to find a way out of the crisis.

1929 was the first year of the Five-Year Plan in the USSR. After developing a tremendous enthusiasm for construction,

the Soviet Union began to refashion its backward economy, to transform the USSR from an agrarian appendage into a powerful socialist industrial world. Social changes were organically bound up with the construction of socialism. The stamping out of the remnants of capitalist elements in cities, the elimination of the kulaks as a class, on the basis of the all-round collectivisation of the village, and from this arising, the sharpening of the class struggle against the remnants of the exploiting classes, secured enormous successes in socialist construction, being at the same time the consequence of these successes.

During the period of crisis, the capitalist world more than ever before felt the absence in its system of the territory now occupied by the Soviet Union. These huge market of consumption with a population of 160 millions, the enormous natural wealth, the inexhaustible potential resources of the Soviet country, were missed by the bankrupt bourgeoisie. Even formerly the capitalist class could not very well reconcile itself to the existence of an independent socialist State and organised intervention against the USSR. Now with the gradual disappearance of their last ally within the USSR, the interventionist circles of bourgeois countries began to prepare with special favour for the forcible annexation of the Soviet Union to the fold of capitalism.

The Soviet policy of peace was confronted with a truly gigantic task of fighting for peace in conditions of increased danger of the capitalist bloc attacking the USSR. The aggressive activity of the ruling circles of the capitalist world used all kinds of methods in order to create a favourable political situation capable of furthering the realisation of schemes of invasion against the Soviet Union. It became necessary at all costs to make the USSR appear as though undermining the economic well-being of capitalism. To make it appear responsible for all the sufferings which are experienced by the toiling masses of the capitalist world resulting from the ever increasing economic crisis. To make it appear in the eyes of the petty-bourgeois masses and the backward sections of the working class as a traducer of religious feelings and in that way to instil anti-Soviet feelings among the masses of the population abroad. The dirtiest methods of agents-provocateurs played an important role in the arsenal used by politicians in their anti-Soviet

campaigns. The notorious campaigns of alleged Soviet "dumping", "forced labour", "religious persecutions", were only one of the forms of preparation for the rupture of peaceful relations between the capitalist and the socialist systems.

Not a single international conference was held, such as were particularly plentiful at the height of the economic crisis, which in one aspect or another was not directed against the Soviet Union. Everyone remembers the attempt made by French imperialism to exclude the USSR from nations invited to take part in the pan-European Commission. France explained its viewpoint by the consideration that the presence of the USSR could not fail to handicap the plan of an economic boycott of the Soviet Union, which was engaging, the attention of the ruling circles of France, which country at that time headed the anti-Soviet elements of world capitalism. The boycott was to serve as a preliminary stage for the preparation of a military attack on the USSR. The seizure of the Chinese Eastern Railway by Chinese generals carried out with the blessing of the imperialists was a provoking action against the USSR, which if successful, would have plunged the world into war. The USSR had to fulfil one of the most difficult of tasks—the preservation of universal peace. An enormous amount of self-control and iron logic was necessary in order, in the face of numerous provocative actions, to be able ceaselessly to expose the real essence of the anti-Soviet slanders and actions, and also to be able to preserve peace. The shots fired by Stern and Gorgulov at the official representatives of capitalist States prove that the imperialists and their agents were losing all hope of provoking the Soviet Union to action or to cause it to surrender peaceful relations. They pursued the object of inciting the other party to assume a more hostile attitude in its relations with the USSR. It is not their fault that the desired results were not attained.

Everything possible was done by elements hostile to the USSR and the cause of peace to bring about these results. It is owing only to the ceaseless and active work on the part of the Soviet Union to preserve peace and owing to its exposure of the anti-Soviet plots of the imperialists and their agents, both in the USSR itself and abroad, that peace was not broken. The trial of the "Industrial Party" could not but alarm the widest masses of the toilers in

capitalist countries. From past experience they well know what are the results of the activities of general staffs. They could not fail to see—the struggles of the Soviets for peace helped them in this—that the ruling circles of the bourgeoisie were preparing a new, a second intervention.

The crisis forced the bourgeoisie to seek a smoke screen for its militant activity. 1931 witnessed a number of appeals issued to the USSR by various countries, including France, proposing to resume the negotiations concerning the non-aggression pacts which had made no headway since 1926. True to its policy of peace, the Soviet Union accepted these proposals. The course of the negotiations proved that only the pressure of the changed political situation prompted the ruling groups of the bourgeoisie to make a show of its "peaceful" tendencies. They kept their daggers concealed but in readiness. Only three States—Finland, Latvia and Estonia—fully ratified their treaties with the USSR. With other border countries and with France the agreements have not yet been signed owing to some pretext or other advanced by them.

The international situation is still extremely tense. Peace has been broken in several localities, and armed struggle proceeds at the very frontiers of the Soviet Union. Soviet policy is today even more than before a most important factor in the preservation of peace, so necessary for toiling humanity. Having achieved enormous successes in the building of socialism, standing on the threshold of the second Five-Year Plan, which pursues the task of building a classless society, the toilers of the Soviet Union know how to value the importance of peace. But they are not less able to value the conquests of the October Revolution, which has overthrown the oppression of capitalists and which has opened up before the exploited classes new historic perspectives. But if anyone tries to attack the cause of the working class, if anyone tries to wrest away by it even "an inch of ground" of Soviet territory, to restore on it the domination of the bourgeoisie, if in spite of the peaceful policy of the USSR, peace will be broken by the imperialists—the toilers of the Soviet Union will know how to protect their cause against any attempts made by the class enemy. Let the imperialists blame no one but themselves if their interventionist adventure will turn out to be a stick which in the end hits him who takes it up.

FROM THE PRISON OF NATIONS TO THE UNION OF SOVIET REPUBLICS

By Z. Ostrovsky

"The attempts of the capitalist world for the last decades to solve the problem of nationalities by means of combining the free development of nations with a system of exploitation of man by man proved fruitless" (from the declaration on the formation of the USSR).

This has been very strikingly illustrated by the many years' practice of the League of Nations. Even the congress of bourgeois representatives of the national minorities of Europe, which was held in 1928, was compelled to admit that "the confidence of the forty millions, belonging to the national minorities, in the League of Nations as a guarantor of the minority rights, has been thoroughly undermined. Hitherto the League of Nations, owing to the methods it used to follow, did nothing serious in regard to the solution of the national minority problem".

At the present time, just the same as before, the world war, numerous colonies supply raw material for the industries of capitalist countries; they are the sources of surplus profits, enormous markets for the sale of manufactured articles... At the present time, as before, an altogether brazen national oppression prevails in capitalist countries along with class oppression and the least manifestations of protest on the part of the toilers of the oppressed nations are cruelly and pitilessly quelled.

A totally different state of things we witness in the USSR, the only country in the world where the national problem has been settled not partially or formally, but completely and in point of substance. This is explained by the fact, that "the Soviet rule is a new form of State organisation, different in principle from the old bourgeois-democratic and parliamentary form, a new type of State, adapted not to the tasks of exploiting and oppressing the toiling masses, but to the task of their complete emancipation from all kinds of oppression and exploitation, to the task of the dictatorship of the proletariat" (J. Stalin).

The radical solution of the national problem in the USSR constitutes one of the most brilliant victories of Leninism — the militant programme of revolutionary struggle and socialist construction.

As far back as 1894, in his book entitled "Who are the friends of the people", V. Lenin indicated the main lines of those methods which later were practically followed in order to solve the national problem on the territory of the former tsarist Russia. At the second Congress of Russian Social-Democratic Labour Party held in 1903, "the right to self-determination for all nations making part of the State" was recognised in a special paragraph of the Party programme.

After the October Revolution this programme began to be put into effect.

In tsarist Russia, which comprised a great number of nationalities speaking different languages, national oppression was so strong that Russia was justly termed "the great prison of nations".

The national policy of tsarism was only serving its imperialist aspirations. The seizure of the best land in the conquered borderlands, the reckless exploitation of the most accessible natural wealth, such as fuel, mineral ore, and various kinds of raw material; the colonisation of the outlying districts by "reliable" people from among the Russian Cossacks, kulaks and high officials; the enlisting of the native exploiters, the nobles and the clergy to the side of the oppressor — such was the practice of Russian imperialism. At that period the policy was to effect such measures as would kill "any beginnings of national movement among non-Russian peoples, to suppress their national culture, to restrict the use of their language, to maintain their inferior status, and finally to russify them as far as possible".

The colonial regime of tsarism left a painful heritage in the shape of an extraordinary economic and cultural backwardness of these numerous peoples and of very hostile relations between the various national minorities. This backwardness and national hostilities were purposely fostered by the exploiting classes in order to becloud the class-consciousness of the toilers belonging to different nationalities and to prevent their unification for the purpose of fighting their oppressors.

After destroying the regime of the tsar and of the landlords, the proletariat destroyed also its economic, social and juridical



M. Kalinin, President of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR



V. Molotov, President of the Council of People's Commissaries of the USSR



K. Voroshilov, People's Commissary for Army and Navy



M. Litvinov, People's Commissary for Foreign Affairs

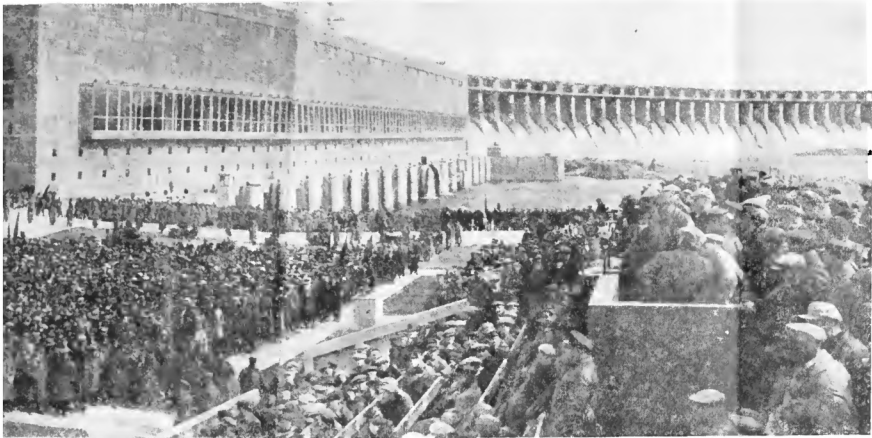
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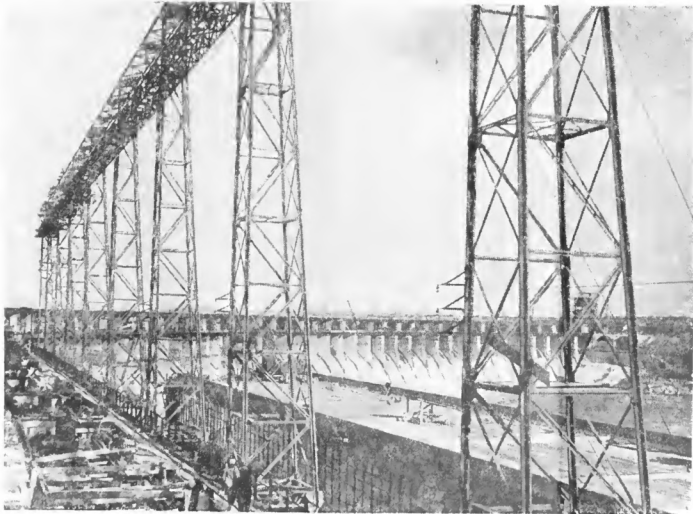
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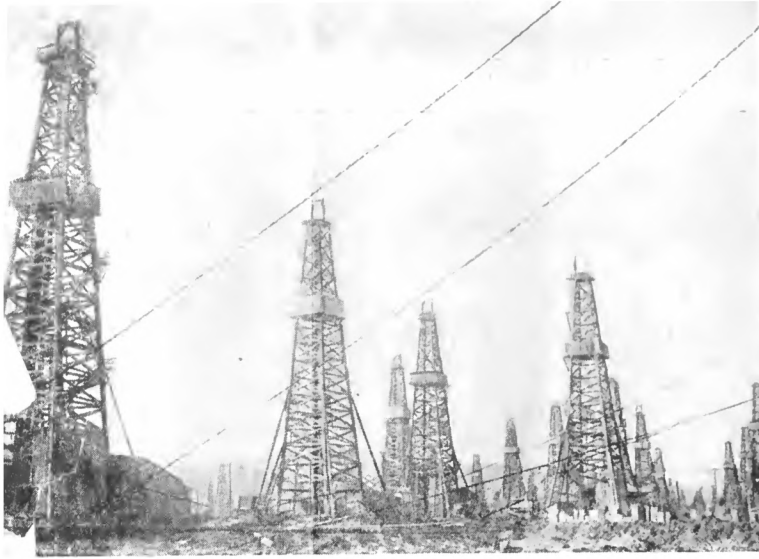
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STATE POWER STATION (DNEIPROGES)



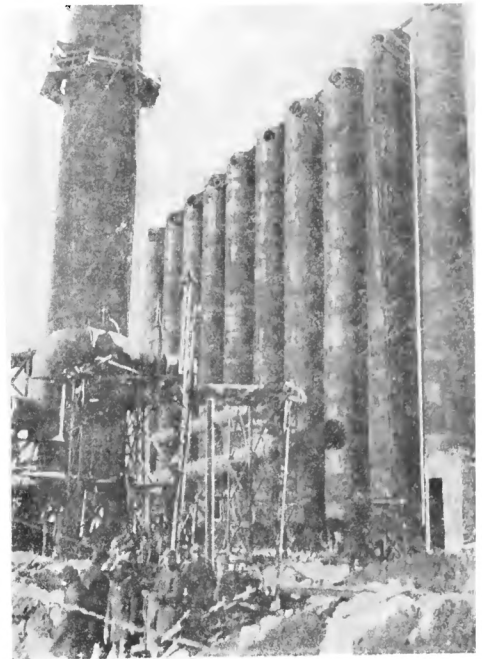
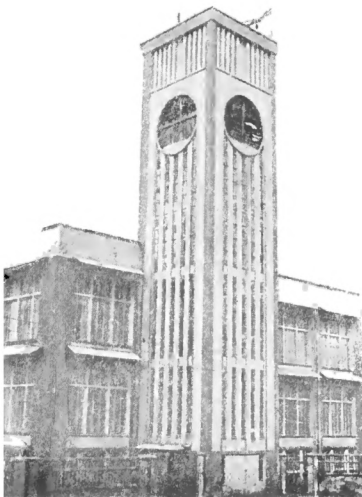
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Grozny. Boring towers

Textile fac'ory in Ashkhabad



Magnitostroy

base. Instead of the tsarist "single and indivisible" prison of nations, a powerful and free Union of the Socialist Soviet Republics was formed.

The main lines of the policy of the Soviet rule in regard to the national question amount to the following: a) the absolute abolition of all privileges hitherto enjoyed by some of the national groups; equal rights of all nations; colonies and subject nations are granted the right to complete self-determination, including even secession; b) a thorough abolition of the remains of national inequality in all spheres of social and economic life, and above all, a planned spread of industries in the outlying districts; in this connection, it is proposed to develop the economic and cultural life of backward nations at a more rapid rate than of other nations; c) giving the utmost assistance to the labouring masses of nations other than the Great-Russians — in the first place, in the matter of developing and strengthening of the Soviet regime in forms which are in harmony with national habits and customs of these nations; secondly, in furthering courts, administration, and economic bodies, using the native language and composed of local people familiar with the life and customs of the native population; thirdly, in furthering the national press, schools, theatres, and other cultural and educational institutions using the vernacular. Thus the nations of the Soviet Union are now able to build up their own culture "national in form and socialist in content" (J. Stalin). Apart from this, the policy of the Soviet government is directed towards the training of skilled workers, Party functionaries, Soviet officials, business managers and educationalists from among the national minorities.

The Party and the Soviet government are in every way promoting a rapprochement between the proletarians and semi-proletarians of the various nationalities, but at the same time they are waging a ruthless war on national deviations and especially on the chauvinist deviation, which constitutes the main danger. The resolute and consistent carrying out of such a national policy explains the fact that the USSR is the only country in the world where national or race problems do not exist. The importance of these successes is the more remarkable, since they have been achieved on the territory of an enormous country inhabited by hundreds of big and small nations, which not only differ from

each other by their racial characteristics but which are on most diverse levels of economic and cultural development.

The USSR comprises seven allied republics, which in their turn include fifteen autonomous soviet socialist republics, one Soviet Socialist Republic founded by special treaty, seventeen autonomous regions and thirteen national districts.

The Soviet government, the moment it came into power, stated before the whole world in a special declaration issued on November 3, 1917 and signed by V. Lenin and J. Stalin: "There is no return, nor can there be a return to the shameful policy of tsarism; henceforward it must be replaced by a policy of voluntary and honest alliance between the nations of Russia."

The first political union of the nations inhabiting the former Russian Empire was formed immediately after the October Revolution, under the title of "Russian Socialist Federative Soviet Republic". This alliance of separate Soviet States and autonomous regions existed in its original form for over four years. During these years the Soviet Republics had to hold their own in a long and steady struggle against all the counter-revolutionary forces, which fought the Soviet country with the full assistance of world capital, that found its expression in the blockade, in arming and supplying the White-Guardist armies and in the direct intervention from north, west, south and east. Most of the national Republics and regions took final shape only after the termination of the civil war, i. e. twelve years ago.

In December 1922, at the Constituent Congress of Soviets in Moscow, the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics was formed. J. Stalin, in his speech at the Congress said:

"This is the day of an important change; it marks a boundary line between the old, past period when the Soviet Republics, though acting together, went each its own way, and the new period, which has already begun, when an end is put to the separate existence of the Soviet Republics, when the Republics are united in a single federal State."

According to the Constitution of the USSR, the equality in rights and duties of the separate republics, both Union republics and autonomous ones, is fully guaranteed. For this purpose, a council of nationalities is set up in the Soviet system, a special political body representing all the autonomous units without exception.

“Since the formation of the Soviet Republics the States of the world have split up into two camps: the camp of capitalism and the camp of socialism. There, in the camp of capitalism, you find national hatred and inequality, colonial slavery and chauvinism, national oppression and pogroms, imperialist brutalities and wars. Here, in the camp of socialism, you find mutual trust and peace, national liberty and equality, a peaceful co-existence and fraternal co-operation of nations” (from the declaration on the formation of the USSR).

At the present time, the USSR comprises the RSFSR, the Transcaucasian Federation, the Ukraine, White Russia, Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Tadjikistan. The original treaty of 1922 was concluded only between the first four of the above named republics: the remaining three joined the Union later.

The largest of the above mentioned seven Union republics, the RSFSR, comprises 12 autonomous soviet socialist republics, and 14 autonomous regions: Bashkiria, Buryato-Mongolia, Daghestan, Kazakstan, Kirghizia, Karakalpakia, Karelia, Crimea, the Republic of the Volga Germans, Tataria, Chuvashia, and Yakutia; moreover, the Chechen, Ingush, North Osset, Kabardino-Balkar, Karachay, Tcherkess, Adyguei, Kalmuck, Mari, Udmurt, Mordovian, Oyrot, Khakass, Komi regions etc.

The RSFSR is the largest and the most populated of all the Union republics and comprises also a larger number of nations than any other. The 26 autonomous units of the RSFSR comprise over a hundred large and small nationalities. This circumstance naturally made it enormously difficult to carry out a correct national policy. However, enormous successes were achieved in the economic and cultural life of even the most backward nations and these successes were strikingly illustrated by the results of the first Five-Year Plan. This is the more remarkable, since an overwhelming majority of the national autonomous republics and regions emerged from the state of civil war much later than the purely Russian districts.

If we turn now to the figures and facts in the domain of the economic and cultural construction of the nations of the RSFSR we will find the following:

In 16 autonomous units, the total sum of investments during the past 4 years of the Five-Year Plan reach approximately 445 million rubles. Of these, the greater

amount was directed to the leading industries — metallurgical, chemical and fuel-producing industries. The gross output in these autonomous units during the past period reached about 1,250 million rubles.

According to the control figures for 1932, the investments in the national economy and the social and cultural construction of the RSFSR will amount to 10,826 million rubles. Out of this sum, the share of the autonomous republics and autonomous regions is 1,650 million rubles or over 15% of the total. The expenditure on new industrial plants and on electrification in the autonomous republics and regions reached last year 217 million rubles.

The national policy of the Soviet government is well illustrated by the following figures. The increase in the appropriations for the regions of the RSFSR in 1931 was 18.9%, in regard to the autonomous republics it was 24.8%, and in regard to the autonomous regions 26.4%. According to the 1932 plan, the increase for the regions of the RSFSR will be 19.2%, for the autonomous republics 21.1%, and for the autonomous regions 34.1%.

From the point of view of a proper realisation of the Leninist national policy it is characteristic that the backward nations are favoured so as to bring them as soon as possible into line with the progressive ones. Therefore, the tempo for the economic growth in the national republics and regions is planned to be more rapid than for other regions. The following table illustrates this preposition (in %):

	RSFSR	National autonomous units
General increase of investments in 1932	134	148.1
Increase in sown area for 1932	104.6	106.6
Increase in expenditure on transport during the first 3½ years of the Five-Year Plan	142	196
Increase in the appropriation for the cultural construction in 1932	27	33
Increase in number of hospitals in 1932	14	31

Very great attention is being paid to the socialist reconstruction of agriculture in the autonomous republics and regions. Thus, in 1931 alone 180 million rubles were appropriated to that end, and this radically altered the very nature and tendencies of agriculture in a number of formerly backward districts.

A vast country like Kazakstan has been transformed already by the end of the third year of the Plan into a most important region possessing many State and collective farms: suffice it to mention that by August 1, 1931, there were 130 State farms on the territory of Kazakstan, possessing 23.5 million hectares, and that 60% of farms belonging to poor and middle peasants were collectivised.

And as regards the growth of industries, the third all-Union coal base is being worked there — Karaganda, which exceeds the Donets basin in point of quantity and quality of coal extracted. In the near future Karaganda will yield 2.5 million tons of high-grade coking coal. In one year and a half an important railway line Turksib — was constructed cutting through the whole of Kazakstan from north to south, and stretching for 1,500 kilometres.

The tempo of industrialisation in other republics of the RSFSR is equally rapid, even in those which suffered most from the colonial regime of tsarism.

In Bashkiria the powerful Komaro-Zigazin combinat is growing. In Daghestan a new glass works has been erected which is the last word in technics, the best in the USSR both as regards technics and capacity. In Crimea the Kerch metallurgical giant plant is being completed. In Karelia an enormous paper factory, the Kondopoga factory, has been completed.

Equally great successes were achieved in the domain of culture in the autonomous republics and regions.

In Chuvashia nearly 100% of children attend the primary schools, in Bashkiria over 76%, in Tataria nearly 100%, in the Crimean Republic 97%, in the Adyghei region 100%, in the Kabardino-Balkar region over 98%, in North Ossetia 100%, in the Udmurt region about 100%, in the Mordva region 97%, in the Komi region 99%, etc. In the past year alone about 2 million persons in the autonomous units learned how to read and to write and about 1—1½ million were taught in special schools for illiterates.

*

The republic which ranks next in importance after the RSFSR is the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic.

Before the Revolution, the Ukraine was in fact a colony of tsarist Russia. The degree to which its national economy was exploited is incidentally shown by the fact that from 1898 to 1910 tsarist Russia

took from the Ukraine on an average 45% of its revenue. On the other hand, the Ukraine was also exploited by foreign capital which took the lion's share in the metallurgical and coal industries of the country.

The realisation of the Leninist national policy secured a full utilisation of the enormous potential wealth of the Ukraine. In 1913, the total production of metal was 2,600,000 tons, in 1932 it reaches 5,500,000 tons. The reconstruction of the mines of the Donets basin will already, by the end of the first Five-Year Plan, enable us to exceed two and a half times the pre-war level of coal production. In a relatively short period, the Ukraine was covered by industrial giant plants: Dnieprostroy, the Kharkov tractor plant, and a number of most important enterprises for agricultural machine building, etc.

The Ukraine has become collectivised to the extent of 100%. At the same time we observe an increase of mechanisation in agriculture. In 1930, there were only 47 machine and tractor stations in the Soviet Ukraine, and these were covering an area of 952,000 hectares. In the summer of 1932, 448 machine and tractor stations were working in the Ukrainian fields and were covering an area of 13.5 million hectares.

The rapid economic development of the Ukraine brought in its train a considerable cultural revival of the republic. In a country where, before the Revolution, the teaching in the native language was forbidden, there were 18,430 Ukrainian schools in 1931. In 1914 there were only 1,648,000 persons attending all the schools in the Ukraine, in 1931 this number increased to 4,071,000. In 1913, 22,533 persons were studying in the higher schools of the Ukraine, they were mainly sons of capitalists, landlords and kulaks; in 1931, out of the 92,493 students of the higher schools of the Ukraine, the majority were sons and daughters of working men and peasants. In 1923/24, there were 430 scientists and 256 aspirants in the Ukraine, in 1931 the corresponding figures were 4,792 and 5,454.

A similar attention is paid to the education of the national minorities of the Ukraine. In 3,328 schools for the children of these nationalities, tuition is given in their native languages. In 1931, there were 347 Polish schools, 579 German schools, 495 Jewish schools etc. Special higher schools, technicums and scientific research institutes were founded.

Prior to the Revolution, the Ukrainian press and Ukrainian books were banned. Even in 1921 there existed only one newspaper in the Ukrainian language, with a circulation of a few thousand copies. At the present time 336 Ukrainian newspapers are published, with a daily circulation of over 7 million copies. The total output of school text books in the Ukrainian language has reached 35 million copies in 1932. The output of the industrial-technical literature in the Ukraine will reach by the end of 1932 19 million copies.

In 1923 only one art and literature magazine was published in the Ukrainian language, at the present time there are twelve of them. Many talented authors made their mark. There is now a large number of literary men from among the workers and peasants.

The successes attained by the Ukrainian literature, theatre, painting and other arts, are known far beyond the boundaries of the Soviet Union. In particular, many Ukrainian painters achieved fame by their works of art exhibited abroad.

*

Equally striking are the successes attained by the White-Russian Republic, which before the Revolution was one of the most backward outlying regions of tsarist Russia (in 1917 80% of the population of White Russia was illiterate). Last year's investments in industrial construction of that country form a sum which is twice the amount which was spent on industries in pre-revolutionary White Russia in the course of a whole century. About 100 million rubles were assigned to cultural needs during the present year, whereas only 15 million rubles were spent in 1914—1915 on the people's education in the territory of the present White-Russian republic. In 1929/30, the corresponding figure was 50 million, and in 1931, 99 million rubles.

Illiteracy has almost entirely been eliminated in White Russia. Universal primary education has been introduced, for which purpose hundreds of new schools were built and thousands of teachers trained. A country which did not possess a single university, has now 12 universities and 60 technicums of various specialities in which 40 thousand persons are studying.

Moreover, White Russia possesses a large number of scientific research institutes for various branches of economy and culture.

Four years ago, the White-Russian Academy of Sciences was founded. In all these institutions there are about 350 aspirants, most of them workers and peasants by origin.

The White-Russian State Publishing House, together with the publishing departments of the various scientific institutions, has in the course of six years (1925 to 1930) published about 4,000 books, with a total of 20 million copies.

After the Revolution, the toilers of White Russia had to create anew their art-culture and White Russia at the present time possesses a number of theatres, among them a Jewish theatre and a Polish theatre. Last year an operatic studio was opened and this year a White-Russian conservatory will be founded.

*

Nowhere in the Soviet Union do we observe such variety of nations on a relatively small territory, as in Transcaucasus. This circumstance was cleverly taken advantage of by the tsar's government, which found it to its advantage to incite national hatred between various races and tribes. It is only under the dictatorship of the proletariat that this hostility has ceased, and at the present time Soviet Transcaucasus represents a fraternal union of three republics and is the model of a peaceful co-operation of nations. During the ten years of its existence (the Transcaucasian Federation was formed in 1922), the republics of Transcaucasus achieved great successes in the domain of economics and culture. Such constructions as Zages, Dzorages, Riorges and other power stations are known not only in the USSR but also abroad. The reconstruction of agriculture is progressing with gigantic strides. 260 million rubles this year, as against 174.4 million spent last year. The following figures will illustrate the cultural development of Transcaucasus.

The Transcaucasian Federation consists of three republics: Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaidjan (for further details about Soviet Transcaucasus see the 'VOKS' magazine No. 1, 1932).

Prior to the October Revolution, the average percentage of literacy among the nations of Transcaucasus did not exceed 35%. In 1930 it was 52%.

In 1928/29 the Transcaucasian Federation disposed of 11 higher schools and 9 workers' faculties; in 1930 the number of higher schools reached 32 and of work-

ers' faculties — 31. Already in 1932 Georgia and Armenia were able to introduce universal primary education; next year it will be introduced in Azerbaidjan.

One of the most important reforms is the introduction of the new latinised script among the Turkic nations of the USSR in place of the Arabic script. By means of these measures, the bourgeoisie and the clergy of the Eastern nations inhabiting our country were deprived of the monopoly of learning and culture, which they used in order to oppress the common people. The broad masses of the toilers are now able to proceed along the path leading to the greatest conquests of culture. Lenin called this reform "the greatest revolution in the East".

*

From the standpoint of the practical realisation of the Leninist national policy, an exceptional interest is attached to the economic and cultural revival of the Asiatic and Central-Asiatic republics, the ones which under tsarism were treated as colonies or semi-colonies.

The decisive factor in this connection was the land and irrigation reforms, which undermined the economic base of the exploitation of natives. At the same time, far-reaching land-improvement schemes were effected, viz gigantic irrigation construction, such as the Tadjent dam and a number of canals and water-routes. The local machine and tractor stations were supplied with special dredges, and this relieved the local peasants from the slavish labour of cleaning irrigation canals by hand labour.

Another measure of historic importance was the transformation of nomads and semi-nomads into settlers. This was effected first by means of collective and State farms and secondly by developing local industries, and attracting to them the native population, e. g. in two-and-a-half years in Kazakstan alone, 145 thousand families abandoned their nomadic mode of life and became members of collective farms and of cattle-breeding associations. It is interesting to note that the former nomads have to such an extent mastered the art of agriculture that in 1931 they produced 2.5 million centners of grain and over 630 thousand tons of hay for the market, and in the spring of 1932 they have cultivated over 5,000 hectares in their collective farms. The socialistic system of agriculture has introduced the latest technic-

al improvement into the farms of the backward Asiatic regions. In the fields of Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Tadjikistan and Karakalpakia, where the primeval "omach" (a very primitive plough) was the only agricultural implement used, there are now thousands of tractors and other machines at work, and machine and tractor stations are growing in number. A revolution is being effected in agriculture.

The natural resources of these republics make it possible to develop their industries by feeding them with local raw material. Since the Soviet rule has been established in the former tsarist colonies of Central Asia, the following new important branches of industry have been introduced there: cement, sulphur, the bulk of which is now produced in Central Asia, the chemical industry, the textile industry — a number of big factories in Fergana, Ashkhabad, Khodjent, Stalinabad and Chardjuj, — and finally the sugar industry in Kirghizia. The metallurgical, chemical and fuel-producing industries have been firmly established and there is every reason to expect that they will be of enormous importance.

A wide development of scientific research and geological exploration work supplies an enormous impetus to the industrialisation of the Central-Asiatic republics.

The total investments in the economic and cultural construction of the Central-Asiatic republics are growing from year to year and have reached this year 1,178 million rubles. The total investments for the four years of the first Five-Year Plan throughout the Union reached the colossal figure of 2,500 million rubles.

The following figures show the exceptionally rapid tempo of economic growth of the Central-Asiatic republics: †

The area under cotton: 1914 — 643.6 thousand hectares, 1932 — 1,529 thousand hectares.

The cost of industrial production: 1914 — 219.3 million rubles, 1932 — 950 million rubles.

The total power of electrical plants: 1914 — 3.6 thousand kilowatts, 1932 — 45 thousand kilowatts.

The sum total of investments in industries of Central Asia for the four years of the Five-Year Plan is over 640 million rubles and for educational purposes about 95 million rubles.

In the second Five-Year Plan the sum total of capital invested in the industries of Central Asia will be 5,500 million rubles. The capacity of the electric power

stations in the Central-Asiatic republics will reach the level of the most progressive industrial districts of the Union.

The cultural revolution in the Soviet East is characterised above all by the spread of universal education. By the end of the first Five-Year Plan, the number of pupils in the primary schools of the Central-Asiatic republics will reach 1 million and the number of students in the higher schools will be at least 25 thousand. In this connection it is noteworthy that women are now entering the schools, in spite of the difficulties that beset them, owing to the customs and habits of the East. Among the students who graduated in 1931, 18.5% were native women.

The number of newspapers has trebled and of journals doubled during the first three years of the Five-Year Plan. At the present time, 71 newspapers and 40 journals are published in Central Asia, most of them in the vernacular. The output of the national publishing departments has increased from 587 to 3,000 different books.

During the second Five-Year Plan, 500 million rubles will be spent on cultural construction: 257 million in Uzbekistan, 72 million in Turkmenistan, 80 million

in Tadjikistan, 70 million in Kirghizia and 21 million in Karakalpakia.

The instance of the socialist transformation of the former tsarist colonies in Central Asia fully bears out Lenin's thesis, that "with the aid of the proletariat of the most progressive countries, the backward countries will be able to pass on to the Soviet regime and after passing certain stages of development they will arrive at communism, missing the capitalist stage of development".

The officials in national regions are mostly drawn from the native population, familiar with the language, customs and habits of the corresponding nations. At the present time, there exist 12,760 native village Soviets, of which 93.5% consist of one nationality only.

Such are the most important data and facts enabling us to judge of the achievements of the policy in regard to various nationalities followed by the Soviet Union for the last 15 years.

The October Revolution has secured for the toilers of all the nations of the USSR not only a formal right but also an actual possibility of taking an active part in the great construction work of the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics.

FIFTEEN YEARS OF CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE USSR

By D. Skomorovsky

The October Revolution has solved in a new way the problem of culture, for it has blasted the foundation upon which the power of landlords and capitalists reposed in tsarist Russia.

October opened such tremendous sources of creative cultural power that none of the social orders could even conjecture their existence. For the first time in the history of humanity, in the place of the privileged social stratum which monopolised culture, millions of souls have come freely forward as the creators of new values not only material, but intellectual as well.

October has made public education truly the business of the masses. From the first years of the Revolution there began to appear in all quarters of the immense territory of the USSR new cultural institutions from kindergartens to universities. The educational enthusiasm of the masses was so great that even the collapse of national

economy caused by the imperialist war, the civil war and intervention could not hinder the creation of the many new cultural organisations and institutions.

It was the period of the most chaotic collapse — the years 1918—1920 — that witnessed the first wave of the building of new pre-school institutions and universities. A second such cultural wave on a far greater scale than the first coincides with the period of socialist reconstruction of industry and agriculture. The first successes of socialist industrialisation and agricultural collectivisation have created a concrete basis for the solution of the problems of cultural development.

The particularly rapid tempo of cultural evolution during the years of the first Five-Year Plan was logically brought about by the necessity to put an end to this lagging behind the tempo of economic construction.

And in fact the Five-Year Plan, which gave the USSR victories on the fronts of industry and agriculture, is characterised at the same time by successes in revolutionising culturally tens of millions of toilers, active participants in the new order. Compulsory elementary education for children and adults has been introduced on a national scale; a system of pre-school academies and institutes for mass political education have been organised on a nationwide scale. In the sphere of preparing qualified specialists for national economy, not only were the existing literary and scientific institutions enlarged, but a whole system of new universities and technicums was created.

As a result of these all-important measures the Soviet Union shall have placed 50% of the entire population in some educational institution or other by the end of the first Five-Year Plan, which is being fulfilled in four years, — 1928—1932. At the present time every second person in the country is studying. Prior to the Revolution only a mere 8 or 9 million persons attended university. This number had increased to between 15 and 16 millions during the first year of the Five-Year Plan, and is expected during 1932 to exceed 75 millions. This data conclusively demonstrates to what extent the Soviet Union has progressed along cultural lines compared to tsarist Russia. We are well aware that the cultural advancement of the toiling masses has gone onward at a rate never before heard of.

Pre-school education

The October Revolution has brought about a complete emancipation of the working woman in the Soviet Union. The organising of a system of social institutions and pre-school preparatory courses has set free the woman from the burden of housework so that now she is able to live the active life of a builder of socialist society. In tsarist Russia the pre-school system was of course unknown; here and there some pre-school institution, mostly kindergartens, were opened as a result of private or public initiative. These schools, however, served exclusively the well-to-do strata of the population. The Department of Public Education of tsarist Russia did not deal at all with the problems of pre-school education. It is only under the Soviet government that pre-school institutions became an inalienable component of the whole system of education. Despite the difficul-

ties of the first few years after the Revolution, more than 200 thousand children were organised in pre-school institutions. The system of pre-school instruction grew concomitantly with the restoration and reconstruction of national economy, and to such an extent that by the beginning of the first Five-Year Plan it embraced about 400 thousand children.

The immense work — entailed both in magnitude and building tempo — made the Soviet Union not only the one country in the world where unemployment is liquidated but it likewise demanded thousands of new qualified specialists, and labour power in tremendous quantities. Thus it became imperative that women be drawn into industrial work.

In order to permit millions of women to study and to work, it was of utmost necessity to organise new pre-school training. Economic institutions, Soviet farms, and collective farms, all of which are vitally interested in obtaining women workers, now offer considerable pecuniary assistance to pre-schools. Especially during the last few years have these conditions, together with the drawing of the toiling women themselves into the work of the pre-school organisations, contributed to the speedy expansion of the new system.

According to the Plan the contingent of pre-school institutions must enroll during 1933 1 million children, but in reality already in 1932 10 million children are embraced by them. A little more than 3 million pupils are from towns and the rest from villages. At the present time the Soviet Union is introducing general compulsory education throughout the land.

General compulsory education

Ever since the October Revolution the central problem of cultural development has been general compulsory education. For the first few years the Soviet government was unable to solve this problem for reasons already mentioned, e. g. civil war, international and economic collapse. In 1923 it was decided to introduce general compulsory education within the following ten years. In the first stages of this work it was difficult even to foresee what speedy rates of cultural development would be required. The initial plan provided for the complete introduction of compulsory education throughout the country during the second Five-Year Plan. It is evident that the early decisions turned out to be

too slow for the rapidly increasing tempo of socialist construction. That is why, at the suggestion of the XVth Congress of the All-Union Communist Party (1930), it was decided to introduce immediately the general compulsory education.

The carrying out of this programme was declared an immediate task of the succeeding period. Mass work has been developed, into which not only educational organisations were drawn, but also social groups; the Party, Komsomol (Young Communist League) and trade-union organisations as well as economic and co-operative bodies. Millions of workers throughout the country began an earnest struggle for the realisation of this most important cultural measure. In a single year the plan was fulfilled in its principal features throughout the territory of the USSR, with the exception of the most remote and culturally backward nationalities. By the end of the first Five-Year Plan, in 1932, the general compulsory education of children had been introduced in every region of the country. In the central regions and districts, as well as in some republics, such for instance as the Ukraine, White Russia, the seven-year compulsory school is now functioning. With regard to large industrial centres, the seven-year schools have now been reorganised into eight-year schools, with the ninth and tenth groups to be added within the next few years. Thus the second Five-Year Plan will see the realisation of the compulsory general polytechnical education for children up to 17 years of age, according to the decisions laid down by the Communist Party.

The actual carrying out of the general education, according to J. Stalin, is a tremendous victory not only on the cultural front, but also on the political and economic fronts.

The October Revolution has effected a complete change in all educational institutions. Prior to the Revolution there had been two types of schools: one for the "populace" — for workers and peasants, and another for the privileged strata of the population. Both systems were characterised by an excessive variety in their internal structure. The children of workers and peasants, if they had at all the opportunity to study, attended the city and village primary schools, industrial schools which trained handicraftsmen, parish schools, and vocational institutions. For the privileged there were public schools or gymnasiums for boys and girls, commercial

schools, and others. A fee had to be paid at all these educational institutions. There were separate schools for boys and girls. The curriculum included religion subjects. The school in the hands of the ruling classes in former Russia served as a means of poisoning the minds of the youth. By strengthening class divisions, these schools prepared the future objects of exploitation to obey the dominating classes and made of them either virtual slaves or slave-overseers.

A decree of the Soviet government published in 1918 abolished all class privileges in the sphere of public education. This decree is one of the most important of all existing documents, for it demonstrates the struggle of the masses for enlightenment. Principles of the Soviet school as set forth in this decree, remain of tremendous significance up to the present day.

Instead of the former scholastic verbal school which prepared submissive and prompt servants, a school of dull discipline, — a new unified labour school has been created on the co-educational plan, which is secular and internationalistic in spirit. The Soviet school is free of charge, compulsory in attendance and polytechnical in training. This new type of school educates a truly new generation, a generation capable of realising the establishment of communism.

Polytechnical education comprises: the sciences as physics, chemistry, mathematics, native language, geography, etc. The student is taught to become familiar with both theoretical and practical aspects of the main branches of industry and given an understanding of the scientific principles of the major industrial processes. The students even develop skill in handling the more common tools of modern labour. The combination of education with productive work is carried out in order to subordinate all productive and social work of the students to the educational aims of the school.

The polytechnisation of the Soviet school is being realised both by creating workshops, work-rooms and laboratories and by attaching schools to factories, State farms, machine and tractor stations etc.

The polytechnical schools of the USSR must turn out conscious, active builders of a classless socialist society, persons of all-round knowledge, able to link up theory with practice. By this the school aims to eventually abolish the difference between manual and mental labour.

Under fifteen years of Soviet rule, the school has achieved considerable success not only with regard to a "root and branch" improvement of the substance matter and quality of its work, but also as to quantity. The growth of the mass school can easily be seen by the following table:

Primary schools	1914	1927/28	1932
Total students . . .	7,200,000	10,503,000	19,001,000
Town . . .	—	2,139,000	3,250,000
Village . . .	—	8,364,000	15,751,000

High schools			
Total students . . .	564,000	1,399,000	4,675,000
Town . . .	—	1,048,000	1,630,000
Village . . .	—	351,000	3,045,000

We observe here the dynamic tempo not only of the mass school, but also of its rapid development in the village, particularly with regard to institutions of higher education. This is indeed truly remarkable. In tsarist Russia the secondary schools were located largely in towns; now under the Soviet educational system, which considers the abolishing of the cultural backwardness of the village, as one of the most important tasks, the main bulk of the more advanced schools are being developed in the village.

Before the Revolution the mass school hardly embraced one fourth of children of school age. In the USSR by the end of the Five-Year Plan almost 100% of the children will be attending school. It is extremely important to note the stability of these contingents. Instances of children leaving school prematurely prior to the Revolution were known to reach to more than 50%. Now the number of pupils who drop out of school is too insignificant to matter. At the same time the cases of pupils repeating the year of studies due to deficient scholarship is being rapidly eliminated. In the Soviet school, which is really accessible to the toiling masses, the majority of the students consists of children of workers, of collective farmers and of individual peasants.

The institutions of learning for national minorities are entirely a creation of the Revolution. Where fifteen years ago the adherents of russification banished the native language from the schools, today children are being instructed in 72 different dialects. The opening of national schools has been continued for the past few years and today is progressing at a remarkable tempo.

It is only natural under these conditions that the number of teachers has steadily increased. During the first year following the introduction of compulsory general education the number of primary and secondary school teachers was increased by over 100,000; 1931, the third year of the Five-Year Plan, witnessed an increase of from 480,000 to 653,000 teachers and 1932 has so far required another 200,000. During the second Five-Year Plan with the introduction of the seven-year general education school and with the formation of the third concentric circle in the nine-year school, hundreds of thousands of new teachers will be required.

With regard to their material well-being, teachers have now been placed on a par with industrial workers, and their wages are systematically increased. In accordance with a recent decree, a number of new homes, sanatoriums and rest-homes are to be built in the south of Russia for the exclusive use of the employees of the board of education. The terrible scourge of unemployment is unknown to the Soviet teacher.

In the Soviet Union great attention is being given to mass political educational work among adults, and particularly among women. In the present stage of this work all efforts are being devoted to the liquidation of illiteracy and semi-illiteracy. The importance of this task will be realised if we remember that tsarist Russia was one of the most backward countries of the world, not only economically but also culturally. More than two thirds of the population were illiterate in a land, the government of which regarded the ignorance of the people as one of the guarantees against even the slightest possibility of Revolution. The Soviet government had already in the period of the most trying struggle against counter-revolution and intervention issued a decree calling for liquidation of illiteracy for people between the ages of 8 to 50 years. The Five-Year Plan also covers this branch of socialist work. The diminishing of illiteracy is being carried out in accordance with the struggle for mastering technique and for furthering communist education. The masses have mobilised themselves to create an army of cultural workers amounting to many millions; they have conceived the most varied means of combating illiteracy: cultural campaigns, cultural relay races and other methods.

In August 1931 a decree was published calling for the general compulsory education

of illiterate adults and it is expected that by the end of the first Five-Year Plan the USSR will become a country of almost entire literacy, since already more than 90% of the entire population from 8 to 50 years of age have received a primary education. Significant progress has indeed been realised during the past few years. Up to the year 1928 merely 10 millions had been taught to read and write, while in a single year, 1929/30, this number amounted to 10.5 millions. During 1930, 31 15 millions more were given primary instruction and during 1932 over 25 million workers and peasants are being instructed. The Soviet Union is becoming one of the most advanced countries from the standpoint of its level of literacy.

Alongside the tremendous cultural growth of the masses is the wide development of the presse. The press in the USSR is one of the most important weapons of the cultural revolution. The output of the press in spite of its immense growth over preceding years is still insufficient to satisfy the demands of the toiling masses for printed matter. This phenomenon one can rightly consider as a proof of the unusually rapid economic and cultural development of the Soviet Union. The active participation of the most diverse strata of the population in the socio-political life of the country is ample testimony of this fact. During the fifteen years of the existence of the Soviet government, the Soviet Union has not only equaled in the amount of printed matter produced, but far surpassed the most advanced countries.

	Number of titles		
	1929	1930	1931
USSR	40,000	49,900	56,500
Germany	28,000	25,000	—
U.S.A.	10,027	10,312	—
England	—	15,393	14,688
France	11,542	9,829	—

According to these figures the USSR even as early as 1929 had far surpassed the press output of Germany and the United States of America. In 1930 we had almost doubled the printed production of Germany, about five times that of the United States and France, and three-and-one-half times as much as England. The Soviet Union has attained the first place in the world not only in number of issued titles but also in point of copies. Thus Germany which occupied first place among Western countries and America

in this regard issued in 1930 70 million copies of new books. The USSR during the same year published more than 400 millions of copies.

The following table reveals the growth of the book and magazine output for the last few years (in millions of printed sheets):

1929	1930	1931
2,240	3,950	5,242

For two years there was an increase of two-and-one-half times.

The book in the USSR is a powerful means of diffusing the Marxist-Leninist theory and technical education among the masses; it is a means of enlightening the toilers and mobilising them for the task of economic and cultural construction.

In according with these tasks mass literature occupies the first place in book output. In 1927/28 mass literature constituted 20% of the entire production; it leapt to over 50% in 1930. Some books of a mass character were distributed in unheard-of numbers of copies. Such were the pamphlets by J. Stalin, "Giddiness from Success" and "The Tasks of our Business Managers" of which 18 millions and 7 million copies respectively were sold. The fulfilment of J. Stalin's motto of mastering technique found its expression in the production of the technical book. In 1930 we had 153 million sheets of new technical subjects, during 1931, 310 millions, and in 1932 we must print 578 millions of printed sheets.

During the fifteen years of the Soviet government there has been issued approximately 4 billion book copies. This data certainly indicates the tempo of our cultural growth.

The introduction of general compulsory education for children and adults, the tremendous network of factory schools, the higher technical schools, universities, and technical institutes and the organisation of a system of education for workers and collective farm peasants were directly responsible for the unbelievable increase in educational literature.

The supply of textbooks is still behind the demand, for they are being consumed three times much as before. The limited production of printed matter is caused mainly by the conditions existing in the paper industry which is developing slower than other branches of industry. This is why the improvement of paper manufacture is receiving so much attention.

There is yet another indication of the rise of culture and of the political consciousness of the toiling masses. This is the increase in the number of Soviet newspapers. We occupy second place in the world after the United States in regard to the number of newspaper copy, and at the present moment are beginning to leave America behind.

The number of dailies issued was the following (in million of copies):

	U.S.A.	USSR
1929	39,425,615	12,500,000
1930	39,589,172	22,000,000
1931	38,761,187	32,000,000

In 1932 the number of copies of our newspapers is approaching 40 million. In two years our circulation has increased more than two-and-one-half times. The number of issues of our central newspapers, "Pravda" and "Izvestia", have been growing particularly rapidly. In 1929 "Pravda" published 661,000 copies. By 1932 the number had reached 2,350,000. For "Izvestia" the respective figures are 426,000 and 1,600,000.

Tsarist Russia couldn't even dream of such accomplishments, of such figures.

The tasks of the second cultural Five-Year Plan

The fifteenth anniversary of the October Revolution coincides with the completion of the first Five-Year Plan and the preparation for the second Five-Year Plan.

The programme of cultural construction for the first Five-Year Plan has been exceeded. However the conditions of life demand an even more rapid rate of advance on the cultural front. This is necessitated by those grandiose tasks, which the USSR sets itself during the second five-year period.

These tasks are: in the field of politics the final elimination of the capitalist elements and classes in general; a complete elimination of conditions producing class differences and exploitation; the abolition of the remnants of capitalism in the economic system, and in the consciousness of men; the transformation of the entire working population of the country into conscientious and active builders of a classless socialist society. In the sphere of economics: the completion of the reconstruction of the entire national economy,

the creation of a new technical base for all branches of national economy.

These two fundamental tasks determine the character and content of the second cultural Five-Year Plan, in so far as the re-education of the entire toiling population of the country and the training of a huge army of highly skilled technicians requires a gigantic cultural work.

The creation of an intelligentsia of engineers and technicians recruited from among the workers and peasants is the most important element in the cultural revolution and in the successful construction of socialism in the USSR.

The growth of big State-owned agricultural enterprises and the equipment of the State and collective farms with the most up-to-date mechanical devices are transforming agricultural labour into a branch of industrial labour, they create conditions for the complete elimination of all the contrasts between town and country. In this connection the tempo of cultural development in villages and in separate national districts must be especially accelerated in order to bring them into line with the cultural level of the industrial centres.

These fundamental tasks determine the programme of the cultural revolution in the second Five-Year Plan. During the first Five-Year Plan the two crucial problems of cultural work were the elimination of illiteracy and universal school education. During the second Five-Year Plan the following problems arise: pre-school education and the training of cadres. Universal pre-school education will be fully realised and in this connection it will become necessary to establish an enormous network of pre-school institutions to provide for 25 million children (from the age of three to the age of seven).

The first Five-Year Plan settled the question of universal primary instruction and partially also of the seven-year school. The second Five-Year Plan will bring about the universal introduction of seven-year school throughout the whole country. This measure affects particularly the villages and the backward national areas. In industrial centres, cities and big State farms two to three years will be added to the seven-year schools.

During the first Five-Year Plan principal attention was turned to the maximum development of school construction; the task was to embrace the maximum number of children of school age.

The new Five-Year Plan will enable us to build up the polytechnical school on a new technical basis and to improve it qualitatively. The struggle for quality will be the main issue. At the same time the decision of the programme of the Communist Party concerning universal compulsory polytechnical instruction of children up to 17 years of age will in the main be realised.

In view of the task of abolishing the contrasts between town and country the programmes of village and town schools will be made uniform.

Mass political-educational work will occupy a particularly important place in the programme of the second cultural Five-Year Plan. The strengthening of the material basis will enable us to develop this work on an enormous scale.

The educational level of the adult population in the cities will be raised to that acquired at the seven-year school, and in the villages to that acquired in the primary school.

This task is closely connected with that of mastering technique. The network of institutions such as libraries, clubs, houses of socialist culture, huts-reading

rooms, red corners, theatres, cinema and radio sets must be expanded so as to extend political and educational work to the whole of the adult population.

Circulation of daily newspapers will be so increased as to enable each citizen having a copy. The question of the personnel will constitute the main problem in the second Five-Year Plan. Until the final working out of the second Five-Year Plan, it will be difficult to give even an approximate figure of the skilled workers needed in all branches of the national economy. In order to carry into effect the second cultural Five-Year Plan an additional personnel of several million new workers will be required. This will involve the creation of numerous new educational establishments, Communist Universities, Soviet-Party schools and courses.

The total expenditure on cultural construction in the first Five-Year Plan amounted to 15,514 million rubles. In the second Five-Year Plan the sum appropriated will be several times larger than this enormous figure. In the second Five-Year Plan the Soviet Union will increase its construction of cultural institutions to such an extent as to render it unparalleled in the whole world.



Maxim Gorky's Fortieth Literary Anniversary

TO MAXIM GORKY

Dear Alexey Maximovitch!

I greet you heartily, and firmly grasp your hand. I wish you long years of life and active work to the joy of the toiling masses, and to the fear of the enemies of the working class.

J. Stalin.

Dear Alexey Maximovitch!

On the occasion of the 40-year jubilee of your glorious literary and militant-revolutionary activity we send you our heartiest comradely bolshevik greetings.

We hope that for long years yet to come you will raise millions of masses in struggle for the complete triumph of communism.

Kalinin. Molotov. Kaganovitch. Ordjonikidze. Kuibyshev. Andreev. Rudzutak. Postyshev. Mikoyan. Bubnov. Enukidze. Pyatakov. Yakovlev, Lyubimov.

GREETINGS FROM VOKS

Dear Alexey Maximovitch!

The All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries sends you, our great writer and revolutionary, our warmest greetings.

May your revolutionary pen, which has created great cultural treasures, continue for many years in the future to serve as a mighty weapon lifting the enthusiasm of the toiling masses for socialist construction.

May the might of your written word continue to pierce all enemies of the USSR and mercilessly expose all those that hide behind the lying mask as defenders of "culture" from bolshevik "barbarians".

May the name of Gorky be a call to all those in foreign countries who hold as dear the real genuine culture of mankind, — the socialistic culture, which today has already achieved gigantic success in the USSR under the leadership of the All-Union Communist Party.

VOKS wishes you for long years yet to come to serve as a flaming example of literary perfection and youthful vigourousness in social and political activity, and of socialistic culture in your literary creations.

May the fiery voice of yours, our great artist and revolutionary-proletarian fighter, resound as a bugle-call throughout the entire world.

Board of Directors VOKS.

On the occasion of the 40th anniversary of the literary debut of Maxim Gorky whose first story "Makar Choudra" appeared in September 1892 we are happy to join our voice to the innumerable congratulations and greetings that were ad-

dressed to him on September 25th not only in the USSR but throughout the whole world.

The great proletarian writer of the USSR, one of the most sincere and affectionate friends and defenders of the inter-

national proletariat, as well as one of the most irreconcilable enemies of the imperialists and capitalists of all countries, Maxim Gorky is a man of genius whose intellectual force, revolutionary spirit and infinite devotion to the cause of all toilers could not and cannot be affected by any reactionary attacks of hateful demonstrations.

To the great proletarian fighter, to the great literary genius, to the indefatigable teacher of new generations of proletarian writers, we express our most deep and cordial wishes, that he remain for many years to come in the front line of socialist construction as invincible and unyielding as ever.

Editors of VOKS publications.

THE GREAT PROLETARIAN WRITER

By A. K h a l a t o v

Gorky's life is extraordinarily colourful and rich in events. Therefore his works contain much that is autobiographical and renders his books so fascinating. The autobiographical novels: "Childhood", "In Service", "My Universities", will forever remain the important documents of the period and will appeal to toilers by their high qualities of artistic truth.

The various and important social events connected with Gorky's books always found a truthful reflection both in his works and in his life. The literary activities and the biography of the author reveal the incessant growth both of his personality and of his creative talent.

In 1910, at the time when Gorky wrote "Mother" and "Enemies" Lenin wrote: "M. Gorky is undoubtedly the greatest representative of proletarian art, who has done much for it and is able to do still more."

Such is the evaluation made by Lenin. Gorky is not only a great artist, he is also a revolutionary fighter.

Everyone knows of the events of past years, illustrating the revolutionary activities of Gorky both in Russia and abroad. We quote here the words of Lenin about Gorky's connection with the revolutionary movement. In 1909, when the bourgeois press circulated the lie about Gorky being expelled from the social-democratic party and about his having broken with the revolutionary movement, Lenin wrote the following in the "Proletari": "It is in vain that the bourgeois newspapers are giving themselves so much trouble. By his great art productions Comrade Gorky has bound himself up too closely with the labour movement in Russia and throughout the world, to reply to this imputation otherwise than by contempt."

Today Gorky is an active participant in the great socialist construction in the land of the Soviets, a participant in the great struggle, for the USSR is still surrounded by enemies. Gorky is fighting in the ranks of the proletariat and is castigating the enemies and traitors both at home and abroad. Gorky's words about our construction, about new life and about the grandiose achievements of the first Five-Year Plan, brush aside lies and slanders and find a ready response in the hearts of the workers and of the toiling masses of the whole world.

Gorky was one of the initiators of the World Anti-War Congress which assembled in Amsterdam in August 1932. He was unable to deliver his speech at the Congress, because the scared reactionaries did their best to prevent the arrival of the Soviet delegates. However, his speech, though it was not delivered at the Congress, will reach the toilers of the West.

Gorky's faith that there is no power on earth capable of turning backwards the wheel of history is unshakeable: "We are now passing through the beginning of a hurricane which will destroy the old world, and this hurricane has been set in motion by your energy, Comrades."

Gorky on his forty years' jubilee is displaying enthusiastic energy. His work proceeds along three lines: art productions, literary criticism, and publicist activity.

The last mentioned is not new to Gorky. He is a past master in it and wielded this weapon on former occasions, — suffice it to recall his propaganda in Western Europe against tsarist loans and the article "On Cynicism" published as early as 1908,

which was quoted recently by Gorky himself.

Gorky reacts very rapidly on the various burning questions of social life from the most important problems to such which at first sight appear quite insignificant. Rich material is opened to him by his sharp power of observation as a writer and by letters sent to him by an enormous number of workers from every corner of the Union. They all regard him as "their" Gorky. Gorky's activity as a publicist is very varied, it is always full of a militant appeal to work and is imbued with hatred for the old world and its monstrosities, for everything that is hostile to the victorious proletariat. A ruthless struggle must be conducted against all these evils.

It is to such ruthless and persistent struggle that he appealed in his article "If the enemy does not surrender, he must be destroyed", — an article of immense forcefulness. "We are opposed by everything that is obsolete and has lived beyond the period assigned to it by history. This gives us the right to regard ourselves in a state of civil war. Hence follows the natural conclusion: if the enemy does not surrender, he must be destroyed."

Gorky regards himself as being connected by strongest bonds with the toiling masses, which are full of the militant energy of builders. He wrote the following in a letter addressed to the educationalists of Orekhovo-Zuyevo: "It is easy to work when you know that your work is being esteemed by the energetic builders of a new life and a new culture", — and in the end he laid special stress, that he himself serves as an "echo of the victorious march of the workers and peasants in the USSR — a march to the great aim which they set themselves".

During the 15 years following the October Revolution, Gorky gave us a number of new art productions. "The Artamonov Case" and "Klim Samgin" are most important literary achievements. The third volume of "Klim Samgin" appeared this year. Now Gorky is working on the fourth volume. "Klim Samgin" is a majestic

epic, a grandiose summary of Gorky's forty year literary life, a picture of the epoch lived through by the author.

Gorky's creative work was always rich in initiative, when creating new literary values, which rallied the best forces in art and science around the burning questions of contemporary life. Suffice it to recall a series of journal and other publications issued under his guidance.

This initiative of Gorky's extended enormously under Soviet conditions, especially during the period of general socialist construction.

As early as 1928 a magazine entitled "Our Achievements" was founded by Gorky. He took a very active part in the founding of "The USSR in Construction" and "Abroad". Gorky's idea of the necessity of an everyday struggle for the raising of the literary mastery of new authors was expressed in founding "Literary Study", a journal published under his editorship.

It is almost impossible to enumerate all his activities in this field. Foremost among them are "The History of Civil War" and "The History of Factories and Works".

It is difficult as yet fully to estimate the importance of Gorky in our present-day literature, his importance in training new authors and in directing their work. He is the progenitor of proletarian art. For many years past Gorky has been corresponding with young and budding authors, with writers from among the people, never failing to respond to any of their letters or appeals. Many of the most prominent Soviet authors have openly stated that "Gorky helped them immensely" and that "they owed everything to their interviews with Alexey Maximovich".

The forty years jubilee of Gorky's literary activity, which is now being celebrated by the wide masses of the Soviet Union and by the toilers of foreign countries, is an instance of the closest communion between the revolutionary fighter and his audience, which includes many million people. This communion constitutes an inexhaustible source of Gorky's future work.



Culture and Life

SOVIET ACHIEVEMENTS IN THE FIELD OF PUBLIC HEALTH DURING THE PAST FIFTEEN YEARS

By J. Trachtman

The legacy of the tsarist regime

The achievements of the USSR in the care of public health are usually considered in comparison with the care given to public health in tsarist Russia just prior to the World War. This is not quite just, for Soviet medicine has sprung up under conditions immeasurably worse than the wretched state of public health under tsarism. It was born in a country exhausted by four years of sanguinary imperialist carnage, panting in the clutches of post-war disorder, famine and fatigue. Epidemics, breaking out as a result of all this, rolled like waves over the country. The intervention, blockade, and Civil War required new sacrifices from the toilers who had overthrown the yoke of tsarist oppression and the power of capitalists and landlords.

What then were the means at the disposal of Soviet government for fighting epidemics, for developing the work of public health? The material basis left from tsarism was insignificant and was as much destroyed by war as any other branch of industry or national economy.

In order to appreciate the accomplishments of the Soviet Union in this field during the past fifteen years we must review, however very briefly, the principal historical stages of its development.

The care of public health under tsarism lay in the hands of more than twenty different departments, the work of which was directed by the class interests of the bourgeois and landlord regime. A police bureaucracy dominated everyone of these departments.

In the village there was a very insignificant network of medical centres organised by the "Zemstvos", or elective district councils of pre-revolutionary Russia. With the impassable Russian roads and with the lack of means of transportation this system was hardly accessible to the widely scattered peasant masses, and furthermore, it was quite unobtainable for the poor,

who had no means of transportation to convey them to the hospitals often located at a distance of twenty, thirty, or even forty kilometres. The investigations of the "Zemstvo" or country doctors showed that even a distance of ten kilometres very greatly reduced the attendance of the population of a given district.

Medical attention for workers in towns was in an embryonic state. The social insurance law was passed in 1912, only five years before the Revolution. The hospital budgets provided miserly sums for medical service of the insured.

Only in large industrial centres such as Moscow, Leningrad and Kharkov, existed a few workers' insurance medical centres. To this may be added primitive little dispensaries set-up by proprietors to conform with the requirements of the law.

Institutions of a prophylactic character — sanatoriums, special hygiene centres, hospitals for tuberculosis, for venereal diseases and narcotism, maternity institutions and nurseries, — all these, both in town and country, were either non-existent or very few.

Such was the material basis with which the Soviet government began the reconstruction of medical organisation.

The Civil War period

The gigantic tasks which confronted the working class of Soviet Russia from the first days when it took power, required immediate measures against epidemics, measures for public health and for the strengthening of fighting capacity of the Red Army.

The People's Commissariat for Public Health was organised in July 1918, after a short preparatory period, which lasted but a few months. Its work was carried out under extremely difficult conditions.

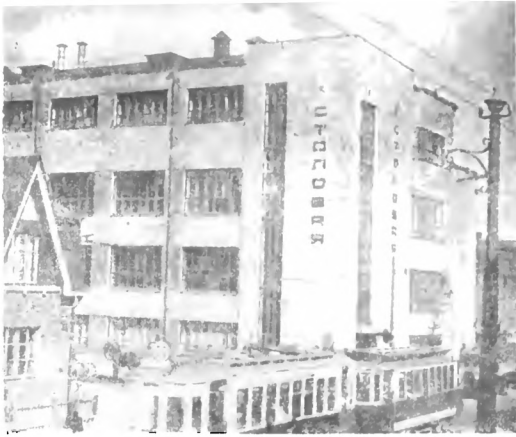
Having inscribed on its banners: "The care of the health of the toilers is in their own hands", the Commissariat for Public Health started its organisation with an



M. Gorky and J. Stalin



Henri Barbusse arriving to Moscow. From left, president of VOKS H. Lerner, H. Barbusse, Head of VOKS L. Cherniavsky



A kitchen-factory in Moscow



Home for painters in Moscow



Palace of Culture in Sormovo



New public library in
Voznesensk



Radio-station of the
Trade Union in



in Ivanovo-
sk



Pushkin square in Moscow



Workers settlement in Leningrad



Central Council of
in Moscow



“Hotel of the Soviets” in Novosibirsk



Woman shock brigadier of
a collective farm (Central
Black-Earth region)

Soviet and foreign
combines on the field
at a Simferopol Sovkhoz
(Crimea)

de
of
n



Newspaper at a collective
farm (West-Siberia)



extensive hygienic campaign among the broadest masses of workers, peasants and Red Army men. In factories, dwellings and in the Red Army they created "health nuclei", sanitary commissions, workers' commissions for promoting cleanliness, etc. "Cleanliness weeks", "Bathhouse weeks", "Water-supply weeks" were organized throughout the country.

Instruction on matters of hygiene were furthered on a large scale. In the mean time, even in that early period, the foundation was being laid for a new network of institutions unknown to old Russia: public dispensaries, infant consultations, free nurseries and other prophylactic agencies.

The restoration period and the beginning of the reconstruction era

With the victorious termination of the Civil War and the strengthening of the Soviet government, a new period began in the field of public health. The epidemics were greatly reduced at once; the death-rate decreased, and the working class began to heal their battle wounds and to direct their energies to the economic front.

Upon the new economic basis, which became more firm as time went on, the care of public health rapidly developed; it expanded qualitatively establishing more indelibly the predominant prophylactic tendencies through new methods of work and modern types of institutions.

The Party programme formulated this problem of public health in following: "As a foundation of its activity in the field of public health the Party holds the development of wide sanitary and prophylactic measures paramount."

The following table gives an idea of the wonderful growth of public health work during this period:

Growth of the system of public health institutions in the

R S F S R

	1913	1927
Bacteriological institutions	12 ¹	37
Bacteriological laboratories	29 ¹	189
Malaria stations	-	102
Pasteur stations	19 ¹	50
Tuberculosis dispensaries	a few	248

¹ Figures taken in 1914.
² " " " " 1926.
³ " " " " 1926/27.

	1913	1927
Veneral disease dispensaries		159
Veneral disease stations		144 ²
Consultations for children in towns	6	461 ²
Consultations for children in villages	7	268 ²
Lying in homes (number of beds)	5,280	12,910
Hospitals excluding military (number of beds)	146,381	206,414 ²
Stations for emergency help	4	99 ²
First-aid stations	a few	1,064
Stations for home attendance	16	457 ²
Physio-therapeutic institutions	4	94 ²
Village medical stations	2,732	4,397 ²

Here we must point out that the care of public health in the Soviet Union is a function of the new social-economic and political relations; it is a result of the entire socialist construction. Therefore, in order to understand the work of these health organisations, it is necessary to take into consideration those social upheavals in the Soviet Union which play a decisive role in improving of sanitary conditions.

In this sense Soviet labour legislation is of the utmost importance: the full non-contributory insurance for every hired worker; the introduction of the eight-hour working day, and later of the seven-hour working day; the granting of two-week holidays with full pay; women receiving four months' holidays during child birth (two months before and two months after); the abolition of child-labour and the limiting of working hours for youths, etc. The socio-cultural construction has a no less favourable influence on the health of the toiling masses: new houses, the development of communal kitchens, the growth of cultural institutions; the organisation of rest for the toilers, and a widespread "physical culture" movement. In the plan of socialist construction, the public health organisations occupy a particularly important place.

Victories of the Five-Year Plan

We are unable to present in this article a resume, however brief, of the achievements of the first Five-Year Plan in the field of economic progress in relation to the workers and peasants of the Soviet Union.

The rapid rate of national industrialisation: the fulfilment of the Plan in four, three, and even in two-and-a-half years in the most important branches of national economy; the speedy growth of the collectivisation of the village and the liquidation and suppression of the kulaks as a class on the basis of all-round collectivisation; the introduction of the five-day week and the seven-hour day in industry; the improvement of the material and housing conditions of the workers (the liquidation of unemployment, the increased number of employed persons within the family, housing, communal kitchens and cultural accommodations etc.)—such is the foundation influencing tremendously the active efforts to improve the sanitary conditions of the population. We have also achieved a further lessening of diseases and mortality, the disappearance of prostitution, a decided diminishing of the so-called “soeial diseases”—tuberculosis, venereal diseases etc.

On the background of the economic successes of the Soviet Union, which have already earned world-wide recognition and are of tremendous historical significance, outstanding in the history of mankind, let us consider the achievements of Soviet public health work during the first Five-Year period¹:

Sanitary organisations

	1927/28	1932/33	1931	1932
Beds for contagious diseases . . .	19,500	32,000	32,650	40,554
Laboratories . . .	189	360	357	575
Disinfection stations . . .	13	44	49	68
Disinfection points . . .	56	184	243	592
Sanitation doctors	1,289	1,954	1,989	3,846

The speedy development of medical organisations is stipulated by the task placed before these organisations by the Soviet government: in the near future many in-

¹ In all tables given below we give data the RSFSR: for 1927/28—figures of actual achievements; for 1932/33—the figures given by the Plan; for 1931—preliminary figures of fulfilment, and for 1932—estimated figures. The Five-Year Plan is calculated according to the budget year, from October to October. The figures of actual completion relate to the calendar year beginning from January, which is now used for all planning and calculations.

fectious diseases shall be entirely eliminated while others shall be sharply lessened.

Number of inoculations estimated for the year 1932

Vaccinations	52,003,000
For enteric fever	8,159,000
For scarlet fever	2,426,000
For diphtheria	2,628,000

The participation of large masses of workers in the task of public health has recently taken the form of social sanitary inspection. Workers who take this job do not leave their jobs in the factories. This form of social work is known as “soeialistic plurality of offices”, that is holding two or more positions. According to the very insufficient figures for the 1st of May, 1932, there existed more than 9,000 such “social sanitary inspectors”.

Hospital statistics

	1927/28	1932/33	1931	1932
Beds:				
a) in towns	111,095	142,845	139,594	162,366
b) in villages	43,593	63,440	67,908	82,009

From this table we see that the estimates of the Five-Year Plan with regard to hospital accommodations have already been fulfilled during the fourth year. In reality hospital facilities for workers have been considerably improved due to a more rational use of the number of available beds. The increase in the number of beds is considerably greater in villages than in towns.

Non-hospital forms of medical attention in town and in industrial centres

	1927/28	1932/33	1931	1932
Number of doctors' receptions	9,823	12,943	19,885	22,610
Medical stations	1,120	2,280	1,775	3,980
Doctors for home help	1,330	2,080	2,801	3,582

Non-hospital forms of assistance in towns and industrial centres have more than fulfilled the quota called for by the Plan. We must particularly point out the rapid rate of increase of medical points in factories. The care of workers, the decrease of forced absences, the decrease of the sick list, and of the industrial accidents, are attained

through the active participation of the workers themselves in striving for the improvement of the working conditions, also through a rationalisation of industrial processes and the development of sanitary-cultural endeavours.

Together with emergency assistance, the medical points are carrying an enormous amount of prophylactical work in factories. According to the data of insurance statistics the decrease in the sick rate of workers can be shown by the following figures:

The number of days of illness for 100 insured workers

1925/26	891
1929	875
1930	838
1931	812
1932	730

The following table indicates the decrease of tuberculosis among workers. In the Moscow district, from nine branches of industry, the number of cases and days of temporary disability because of tuberculosis per 100 workers has decreased as follows:

	1925	1928	1931
Number of cases	8.9	4.2	2.3
Number of days	270	150	62

The leading industries are equipped almost 100% with medical stations.

The tremendous development of State farms and the collectivisation of peasants have brought before public health organisations the task of increasing the medical and sanitary system in the village. The figures below illustrate the activities of the People's Commissariat of Health in this field:

Growth of beds in villages

(taking 1927 as 100)

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
Number of beds in permanent creches	100.0	88.8	144.4	972.7	3,803.7	12,200.
Number of beds in seasonal creches	100.0	368.3	582.3	1,533.3	3,100.0	11,686.0

The facilities for child and youth care have been greatly developed. The number of beds for children has increased from 5,800 in 1927/28 to 13,315 in 1931, and will reach 23,540 in 1932. The number of

Medical accommodations in rural districts

	1927/28	1932/33	1931	1932
Number of hospital beds in villages	43,590	63,440	67,908	82,009
Number of medical districts	4,667	6,012	7,125	7,962

The greatest tempo, quite exceptional and unprecedented not only in the practical work of the public health organisations, but also in the practical work of a wider range of Soviet institutions, are shown by the growth of the number of beds in permanent and seasonal creches.

The creche system (in thousands of beds)

	1927/28	1932/33	1931	1932
Beds in town creches	34.0	65.0	128.7	263.1
Beds in village creches:				
a) permanent	2.5	—	102.8	329.4
b) seasonal	100.5	225.4	1,426.3	3,501.0

The absorbing of women into industry and the mass collectivisation of agriculture have caused a considerable need for creches. It is only the participation of the widely scattered masses, particularly of women themselves, that has enabled us to satisfy the demand on such a large scale. We have already pointed out that in the Soviet Union the whole system of socialist construction is a powerful factor in the improvement of the health of the population. This condition is particularly well illustrated by the growth of the number of village creches in connection with collectivisation. The following will give an idea of the increase in the number of beds:

doctors for these years are respectively: 1,730, 2,166 and 3,223.

Health resorts before the Revolution were absolutely inaccessible to workers and peasants; but now the Soviet govern-

ment has organised a wide network of health resorts for the workers. The number of patients and the number of beds in the health resort sanatoriums are steadily increasing with each year.

Health resort statistics

Number of beds in sanatoriums, excluding those of Social Insurance and other departments

	1927/28	1932/33	1931	1932
Of all-Union importance	11,277	13,500	18,250	21,431
Of local importance	8,887	13,336	14,763	17,580

The supply of medicine has been improved quantitatively as well as qualitatively. There has been a complete revision of pharmacy methods on a new technical basis. Many pharmaceutical factories have been opened in principal cities. The general growth of this line of activity reveals the following figures: 1927/28 — 1,644; 1931 — 3,047; 1932 — 3,881.

The wide and rapid development of the medical-sanitation system requires a considerable medical staff, doctors as well as assisting personnel. A wide system of medical institutes has been organised for the training of these specialists. In 1927, 28 there were only 16 medical institutes with an enrollment of 14,750 students. By the 15th of April, 1932, we had already 27 institutes with 96 faculties, including 40 therapeutic-prophylactic faculties, 4 stomatologic, 23 for the care of mother and child, 23 sanitary-prophylactic, 4 pharmaceutical and 2 for physical culture. 34,000 students are embraced, in all these faculties. Medical and pharmaceutical technicums have increased from 71 in 1928 to 140 in 1932, with a student-body augmented from 18,500 to 51,000, — an increase of about 200%. There has been a wide development of system of raising one's medical qualification. During 1932 about 20% of all doctors will pass various courses of raising their medical standards.

The medical system of the national republics is making great strides. The growth of the public health organisations is expressed here in figures which surpass on the whole the average figures of the RSFSR and those for other regions and districts. Thus the national areas, which existed in tsarist Russia as colonies and had an extremely

low level of culture, are now being raised with regard to medical service to the average figures of some of the principal republics and perhaps even to surpass these.

The following shows the relative growth of the medical system in the national republics as compared to the regions in the RSFSR:

	1927 28	1931	1932
Towns			
Hospital beds:			
a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR	100	120.1	143.7
b) in national republics	100	143.6	174.4
Doctors' receptions:			
a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR	100	200.1	212.1
b) in national republics	100	223.8	270.0
Medical stations:			
a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR	100	240.0	335.2
b) in national republics	100	385.0	650.0
Nursery beds:			
a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR	100	372.6	672.9
b) in national republics	100	463.6	781.8
Villages			
Hospital beds:			
a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR	100	151.1	186.6
b) in national republics	100	153.6	195.6
Ambulatories:			
a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR	100	149.6	167.0
b) in national republics	100	159.4	188.4
Beds in permanent ereches:			
a) in districts and regions of the RSFSR	100	4,143	12,934.7
b) in national republics	100	3,700	15,950.0

* This brilliantly reflects the national policy of the Soviet Government which is prompting and helping the economic and

cultural development of the previously oppressed nationalities.

Of extremely far reaching development is the method of scientific research institutes in the field of public health. The Commissariat for Public Health directly controls 35 scientific institutes covering every phase of medical research. 106 more work under the supervision of local public health departments.

In conclusion, let us consider the budget of the public health organisations. This fund consists of State grants, appropriations from local budgets, social insurance funds, and other sums including grants from industries. In connection with the rapid growth of the working population, the social insurance funds in the budgets of the public health centres have already in 1932 surpassed the funds planned by three and a half times. Thus, according to the Five-Year Plan

the grants from industries should be 17 million rubles in 1932/33, when in reality they will be 41.4 million rubles in 1932. The Plan provides no appropriations from funds of State or collective farms, but already in 1932 11.7 million rubles have been allotted from the State farm balance, and 15.3 million from the cultural funds of collective farms.

The per capital average expenditures of public health departments has increased by three times during the years of the first Five-Year Plan.

The second Five-Year Plan will bring to the Soviet Union new victories and achievements and will raise even further the level of the workers and of the peasant masses. Public health service will be confronted by even more difficult tasks in the future that will be fulfilled with merit.

HOUSING AND MUNICIPAL CONSTRUCTION IN THE USSR FOR THE LAST FIFTEEN YEARS

By S. Hart

The living conditions of the working masses in pre-revolutionary Russia deprived millions of workers of any opportunity to lead a cultured or even simple humane existence.

According to the 1912 census, 327,000 men were living in 24,500 apartments of a dormitory type on the outskirts of Moscow. This figure represents 20% of the total population of the city at that time.

In St. Petersburg in 1912 the number of so-called "corner-lodgers" occupying only a part in the room exceeded 150,000, while 63,000 persons were living in cellars. 1½ to 2 square metres -- such used to be the average space occupied per person in the cellars of the capital.

However, even these figures fade into insignificance when compared with those illustrating the housing conditions of the workers in the Donbass coal district.

There is data which show that in a single district of Donets Basin - Bakhmut (now Artyomovsk) - out of 1,638 workers' houses 30% were without a ceiling and 70% had earthen floors. 40% of the workers dwellings in this districts consisted of dilapidated mud huts.

Even the bourgeois statistician, Werner, describing in the "News of the Moscow

Duma" of 1902 the conditions of life in houses where cots were let, could not conceal the terrible state in which the workers were compelled to live. He wrote: "In spite of unattractive conditions of life of the cot-tenants, especially those who occupy only half a cot, there exists a group of persons who are in even worse conditions. That are those who, though they pay rent, have no fixed place to live, but nightly occupy any place, at the dictates of the landlord: today on the oven, tomorrow in a vacant single cot, then on the floor in the corridor, or sharing a cot with some one. Such boarders usually receive no bed linen, no change of underwear or other garments, and sleep in their clothes."

Workers' dwellings were usually wretchedly dirty. They lacked light, water and sewerage. The unpaved streets of the workers' suburbs were bare of lighting.

Such were the conditions under which the workers had to live in tsarist Russia.

It was only the October Revolution that transformed municipal economy from a means of supplementary exploitation of the workers into an organisation catering to their material and cultural needs.

During the years of imperialist war, intervention and civil war, the municipal

economy of landlord-bourgeois Russia, which had always been very backward even apart from these factors, sank into still lower depths.

The losses sustained by the municipal economy during these years are estimated at over 2 milliard rubles — 20% of the total number of dwelling houses were destroyed or made entirely unfit for habitation.

In 1916 the housing fund of Moscow reached about 14 million square metres; in 1924 it was only 9.8 million. A decrease by over 30%. Similar losses were incurred in the principal cities of Ukraine — Odessa, Kiev, etc.

For almost seven years from the beginning of the imperialist war to the end of the civil war, no new houses were built in any of the towns of the Soviet Union.

However, even after the civil war, and intervention for some years the country was unable to start the restoration of its municipal economy.

The Soviet government had first of all to restore its industries and agriculture in order to build thereon the socialist reconstruction of the entire national economy.

L. Kaganovich, in his speech at the plenum of the Central Committee of the All-Union Communist Party in June, 1931, quoted a few instances which show clearly what the October Revolution has done to improve the housing conditions of the workers:

“Here is a case which was investigated by us. Mikhail Yakovlevich Bubentsov, a carpenter and shock-worker of the “Geophysica” works, age 36; formerly he used to shift from cellar to cellar. Since 1920 he has, settled down in an aristocratic house in Khlebny pereulok. Before the Revolution this house was inhabited by a retired general — Vassiliev, the British Consul Lockhart, a mining engineer Penin and other capitalists and idle rich. Now it is wholly inhabited by workers.”

Statistical data show that in Moscow alone, during the first years after the Revolution, more than half a million workers moved from working class quarters and suburbs, from cots and miserable rooms, into well-appointed houses which had formerly belonged to a handful of money-bags.

Until 1926, the Soviet government had to strain all its energies and resources to restore the ruined industries. In the subsequent years the task of constructing the foundation of the socialist economy required special attention particularly to the deve-

lopment of heavy industry, producing the means of production.

During the first years of the Five-Year Plan, when industry was in the process of thorough reconstruction, municipal economy was only just being restored.

Municipal, and in particular housing construction entered its real building period only in 1931. In the first Five-Year Plan special attention was paid to the development of housing construction. According to Five-Year Plan estimates, the expenditure on housing construction in the socialised sector of the national economy of the country was fixed at 4 milliard rubles. However, already, in the first three years of that period about 2 milliard were invested, and so the proposed sum of investment has been more than fulfilled. Taking into consideration the control figures of investments for 1932, we find that during the four years of the Plan 3,876 million rubles are being invested in housing construction, i. e. the Five-Year Plan is being almost entirely fulfilled (96%) in four years.

In order to illustrate the increase in expenditure on housing construction during the first Five-Year Period, it is necessary to compare the above facts with the figures illustrating the expenditure on housing construction during the year preceding the Five-Year Plan.

In 1923 only 136 million rubles were invested in new constructions, for restoration and reorganisation, for current and capital repairs to dwelling houses. In the next year — 1924 — the expenditure reached 280 million rubles; in 1925 — 423 million, and in 1926 — 520 million rubles.

During all these years 5 million square metres of living space had been built and repaired, while during the first three years of the Five-Year Plan 16.2 million square metres of living space has been newly built. And in 1932 alone a similar spaceage, i. e. 16.1 million square metres, will be constructed.

The main item of expenditure is the building of new houses in the principal working class areas, located in the regions of the key-industries — the Ural-Kuznetsk Combined Enterprises, the Donets Basin, Moscow, Leningrad, Baku, etc.

It is interesting to note that by 1932 3.9 million square metres of living space will be built in the Ural-Kuznetsk Combined Enterprises alone, making 16% more than was built in 1929 for the whole of the Soviet Union.

715 thousand square metres of living space was built for the workers of the coal areas in 1926. In 1931 these same coal workers received 2,379 thousand square metres of newly built housing space.

Along with the construction of new houses, there proceeds also the development of the municipal economy, the founding of new cultural institutions, such as creches, day-nurseries, mechanised laundries, public dining rooms, workers' clubs, cinemas, theatres, libraries, etc.

1,108 million rubles have been invested in the municipal economy during the first three years of the Plan. The corresponding sum invested in 1932 will be 950 million rubles, i. e. a 120% increase over the 1931 figure.

The greatest sums were appropriated to the municipal economy of Moscow, Leningrad and Nizhny-Novgorod. In these three cities the increase in the sums invested in 1932, in comparison with 1931, is approximately 355%. In Moscow 250 million rubles have been assigned for municipal economy construction in 1932, and 150 million rubles for Leningrad.

How are these sums expended? What improvements in workers' housing conditions are we able to note on the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution?

In 1911, out of 1,063 cities each with a population of over 10 thousand, only 219 had a public water supply.

The existing system of water pipes mainly served the central bourgeois residence quarters of the city; the factory, districts, the outskirts of the city and the working class suburbs were without even this elementary necessity.

By 1926 283 cities of the USSR had their public water supply and by the end of 1931 this number increased to 335. In 1932 water supply will be extended in those towns where it already exists while piping will be laid in 25 cities more.

The consumption of water per head of population has accordingly increased very considerably, -- from 61 litres of water before the Revolution to 120 litres at the present time.

There is an equally rapid progress in regard to sewerage.

In 1917 there were only 18 cities with sewerage; in 1931 50 cities of the USSR possessed sewerage, while in 1932 there will be 70. Moscow, which before the Revolution had only 316 kilometres of sewerage pipes, increased this length by 600 kilometres during the first three years of the Plan.

In 1932 three times more was spent on the laying of new sewerage than in 1930.

Before the Revolution, of the cities which are situated in the present territory of the USSR, only 61 were electrified; now there are 393 cities electrified.

The working class suburbs, which formerly in the evening were plunged in darkness, are now brilliantly illuminated. Suffice it to glance at the figures representing the expenditure for lighting and electrification during the last few years. In 1930 only 2.5 million rubles were spent on street lighting, in 1931 - 5.6 million, in 1932 10.4 million rubles.

Although baths and laundries are somewhat lagging behind in comparison with other aspects of municipal construction, still even here there is marked progress. Thus, 29 million rubles were appropriated in 1930 for the construction of baths for the whole of the Union, in 1932 the corresponding figure is 50 million. The same in regard to laundries: appropriations have increased from 8 million in 1930 to 27 million rubles in 1932.

During the second Five-Year Plan Period it is proposed that State laundries will cater to not less than 50 to 60% of all the requirements of the population. In 1932 125 new mechanised laundries and about 300 new baths will be built.

More and more money is being invested each year in planting trees and shrubs in industrial towns and in the workers' settlements. 4.5 million rubles were assigned under that head in 1930, and in the last year of the Plan 18 million rubles is to be appropriated for this purpose.

Prior to the Revolution, trees and shrubs were planted only in the central city districts. In 1931 in Moscow alone such planting was carried out at 77 factories and works, in 218 streets, on 108 boulevards and squares, in the summer and autumn of the present year (1932) 1 million shrubs and 30 thousand trees were planted in Moscow. The corresponding figures for the pre-revolutionary years average 20 thousand and 5 to 6 thousand.

Because of lacking space we are unable here to give an account of the exceptional successes achieved in the sphere of city transportation and in the improvements of roads, construction of heat and gas pipes, etc.

The cities of the Soviet Union are changing their appearance.

The industrialisation of the country entails an exceptionally rapid growth of the urban population. In pre-revolutionary Russia the total population in all the cities of the empire amounted to 20.7 million. In 1926, by the end of the period of industrial reconstruction, the urban population increased to 26.3 million. Now on the eve of the 15th anniversary of the October Re-

volution the urban population has increased to 35 million.

It is natural that the increase in the number of town dwellers requires a corresponding development in the municipal services, improving the living conditions of the toilers. This task has been recognised as one of the most urgent and important in the second Five-Year Plan.

PUBLIC FEEDING IN THE SOVIET UNION

By S. Ginevsky

Lenin regarded public feeding as one of the most important necessities for passing from individual petty household economy to big collective economy.

Public feeding has no pre-revolutionary history. It was newly created after October and has now become a powerful factor in raising the productivity of labour, in carrying out the economic plan of the Union, in refashioning everyday life on new socialist principles.

In the complex of measures passed by the Soviet government, — measures directed towards a steady improvement in the wellbeing of the toilers, — the strengthening and development of the system of public feeding takes a most important place.

J. Stalin in his directives referring to the improvements in the living conditions of the toilers assigns a very important role to the development of public feeding.

In August 1931 a decision was passed on the setting up of a system of public feeding. This decision lays down a definite programme of reconstruction in this most important branch of the food industry.

“The decisive successes in the field of the economic construction of the USSR, the cultural growth of the masses and the attraction of members of workers families to industries, in connection with the complete elimination of unemployment, sets before the consumers' co-operatives the task of a gradual shifting of the food supply from the forms of individual consumption to public feeding” (resolution of the Plenum of the Central Committee of the CPSU, December 1931).

5 million workers, 3,880 thousand other toilers in the cities, 3 million school children represent the total number of consumers covered by the system of public feeding in 1931.

13,400 enterprises are served by this system. In the last 3 years the Soviet Union has spent 200 million rubles on capital construction in this field. Though these achievements are considerable, they are, of course, inadequate in view of the enormous increase in the requirements of the toilers. The need of the day is a gigantic development of the system of public feeding. According to the plan, within the next two or three years the number of workers, office employees, and their dependents covered by the system, will be doubled. 25,000,000 — such is the number of the toilers who at that period will be served by the various institutions in the system of public feeding. Moreover, the plan foresees hot meals to school children and to children in pre-school institutions.

The social idea underlying this system, which takes care of the material and living conditions of the toilers, is exceptionally profound. Public feeding takes a prominent place in this system.

Both as regards its idea and its structure, the Soviet system of public feeding is unequalled anywhere else in the world.

At the first stage of its development the main type of the system was a dining room to which hot food was delivered cooked from a distributing centre.

The enterprises of the public feeding system did not yet use complicated machinery, they possessed no transport of their own and their methods of production were primitive.

Now, in view of the great extension of new enterprises, the methods are changed and food is no longer brought from distributing centres.

At the present time the system is based on a factory producing semi-manufactured articles and delivering them to a network

of dining rooms at enterprises (factories, offices, etc.), thus securing the supply of warm and tasty food.

The plan for 1932/33 foresees the construction of not less than 250 to 300 such factories with a network of 3,000 dining rooms at factories and works.

Great results have been achieved by the system since its reconstruction in 1931.

The most important industrial areas are served by a special association attached to the People's Commissariat for Supply of the USSR, called "Soyuznarpit", (Chief Department of public feeding).

This association was formed a year ago and now embraces 11 trusts. Since January 1, 1932, 1,437 enterprises were added to Soyuznarpit, in other words, the total number of enterprises increased 20.4%.

9 kitchens-factories, 427 dining rooms, 173 distributors, 701 buffets, 28 restaurants and 99 cafés and tea rooms illustrate the growth of Soyuznarpit in a very short period.

The number of consumers grows correspondingly. On January 1, 1932, Soyuznarpit catered to 3,900,000 toilers, of which 2,248,000 were industrial workers. By August this number had increased to 4,768,000.

Soyuznarpit fulfilled its yearly plan by 105%.

It is possible to differentiate these total figures. Thus, the number of students served by Soyuznarpit in 1931 was 276,000, in 1932 it is 357,000. 636,000 school children were served with meals in 1931, now — 652,000. Special dietetic meals were given last year to 20,000 persons, now to 57,000.

Public feeding of engineers and technicians was inadequate last year. At the present time special dining rooms serve meals to 168,000 engineers and technicians.

How are the industrial workers served? The first place is assigned to the chief detachment of the workers in a country which is rapidly becoming industrialised, — the machine-builders; then follow workers in building trades, coal miners, workers in ferrous metallurgy, workers in chemical trades.

The above refers only to the system of Soyuznarpit.

There is another important network of enterprises for public feeding controlled by the consumers' co-operatives, namely "Vsekoopit" (the All-Union co-operative society of public feeding).

Great success was also achieved by this association.

For example in the Northern Region where last year there were only 48 enterprises of public feeding, there are now 148. In the Western Region the corresponding figures are 152 and 317, in the Central Black-Earth region 231 and 332, in the Urals 131 and 417. This great growth of the system of public feeding of course of had its effect on the fulfilment of the economic plan of the Union, on raising the productivity of labour, on improving the material wellbeing of the toilers, on hastening the refashioning of everyday life.

It is in the national republics that the role of public feeding as a powerful lever for collectivisation in everyday life is particularly striking. Public feeding contributes to a rapid industrialisation of distant national districts and to their cultural development.

Owing to the "reconstruction" of everyday life, woman is able to become a full participant in socialist construction. In the Tadjik republic alone, where last year there were only 64 dining rooms, there are now as many as 281. In the Transcaucasian Federation the number of dining rooms increased three times. Public feeding relieves woman from petty cares in the kitchen and household, allows her to devote her time to study, so as to master the elements of culture and technique, and thereby enrolls as new labour in industries and agriculture.

The system of public feeding takes into account the specific interests and conditions of separate groups of consumers. Public feeding is extended first of all to the leading enterprises and constructions. Workers in dangerous trades are given preference. Every branch of economy is served in accordance with its industrial peculiarities. We can cite as an instance the organisation of public feeding in transport. In order to secure the efficient working of transport, especially the fulfilment of the traffic schedule, the leading groups of railwaymen, engine-drivers and repair workers, are served first.

The increase in the network of public feeding in transport — the most important of national economy — proves that this task has been successfully carried out. This year 1,460,000 transport workers are served by the system of public feeding, as against 1,140,000 in 1931.

Food departments have become an integral part of the industrial enterprises. They assist in carrying out the industrial tasks.

At a number of giant works of socialist construction, big kitchens-factories have been set up with a network of branches in departments, with hundreds of buffets spread throughout the works or construction sites.

Public feeding plays an enormous part in raising Soviet industries and in speeding up the tempo of construction.

Exceptionally interesting new forms of catering were introduced in this domain. The workers' cafés in the departments of the Kharkov Tractor Works and the Kharkov Locomotive Works, in the departments of the Ball-Bearing Plant, of "Red Proletarian", "Trekhgornaya Manufaktura" (Moscow), the workers' cafés at kitchens-factories — such are examples of the new forms of organisation for communal feeding. It is easy to perceive that this catering is of immense importance not only to industry but also as regards culture.

The task that is being pursued is to satisfy the requirements of the toilers which have become infinitely greater than they were before, to enable them to live and work under decent conditions, to enjoy the advantages of an organised rest.

The level which the Soviet Union has set itself to reach in this domain is so high, the requirements grow so rapidly, that we naturally can not be satisfied with the results obtained. In spite of considerable successes, they will appear small in the next few years when the gigantic construction of the second Five-Year Plan will be developed. However, every impartial observer is struck by what has been achieved so far.

The Belgian workers' delegation which visited the First kitchen-factory in Moscow gave the following appraisal of its work: "It was with the greatest interest that we inspected the kitchen-factory, which, we believe, is the best enterprise of the kind in the whole world."

It is natural that foreigners not only appraise but try to understand the reasons for the success of public feeding in the USSR.

Therefore, the opinion of Professor Max Seipel of Magdeburg is of special interest: "Russians were able to establish such enterprises only owing to new social conditions which further the development of new living conditions."

This is quite correct. The USSR has in fact created a new type of an enormous and

genuinely industrial enterprise of public feeding.

Thus at the above mentioned kitchen-factory 45,000 persons are served with meals. Apart from these, over 25,000 diners are served by the branches of the factory. A simple calculation will show that such a factory can fully serve a fairly large city and relieve its entire population from the kitchen smell, of pots and primuses. Such a factory consumes daily 4 tons of meat, 5 tons of fish, and over 15 tons of vegetables. 150 machines of various kinds are used in the factory.

In the evening two workers' cafés are open at the factory, which constitute genuine cultural centres of the district.

The kitchen-factory at the Kharkov Tractor Works is the largest enterprise for public feeding in the whole of the USSR. The entire equipment: electrical vegetable peelers, machines for stoning fruit, machines for cleaning fish, etc., has been manufactured in the USSR. This giant factory works on a conveyor system. An enormous system of transportation within the factory has been established: noiseless autocars, etc. 2 million rubles have already been spent on this construction.

Such giant factories will become the main factors of the whole system. Today there are dozens of them, tomorrow they will be reckoned by the hundred.

*

Special forms of public feeding are being set up specially for agricultural areas: dining places in the open fields, etc.

New cultural and everyday conditions are being created for the toilers engaged in field work.

It is interesting to note also the "voluntary" form of public feeding organisation: dining rooms at the workers settlements, at co-operative organisations, at housing co-operatives, — they all serve the same purpose.

Let us point finally to such forms of public feeding as floating dining rooms for fishermen when they are trawling, etc.

The Soviet system of public feeding is becoming more and more industrialised. The toilers become more and more aware of its part in construction work and in private life, its enormous importance for the socialist reconstruction of everyday life.



Public Education

15 YEARS OF POLITICO-EDUCATIONAL WORK RSFSR

By G. Romanov

An insignificant number of libraries, people's homes and Sunday schools for adults and a few "people's universities" — such was the heritage obtained from tsarism by the Soviet system of mass education.

After the October Revolution work among adults was entrusted to the special extra-school Department of the People's Commissariat for Education, which from the very first set itself the task of making educational work serve ideological aims and of developing it as widely as possible through the activity of the masses themselves.

Then civil war broke out. The front required live agitational cultural activity. The number of Red Army clubs grew rapidly. Propaganda leaflets and slogans were distributed in hundreds of thousands. Exhibitions and travelling orchestras were organised, the network of travelling libraries was developed and detachment after detachment of agitators and cultural workers were formed.

In cities and villages away from the front went on the process of the accumulation of new cultural values. Clubs, universities, libraries, reading rooms, musical, art and dramatic studios, schools, etc. were founded all over the country, some of them quite spontaneously. Agitational trains and steamers were created, which at one time played a very important role. Such was the origin of the politico-educational institutions of all types. After the termination of the civil war the centre of growth of educational work was shifted to study methods. The latter was centered in libraries and schools, but at the same time this did not stop the growth of clubs, reading rooms, people's homes and theatres. In one of her articles N. Krupskaya wrote: "At that time (1920—21) there were more theatres in the Yaroslavl Province alone, than in the whole of France."

The entire educational work was deepened and systematised in the years 1923—1927. If we examine the work of the congresses and conferences one would be instantly struck by the amount of attention devoted to the content and methods of work in all

fields of mass political education. N. Krupskaya in her article "On the Sixth Anniversary" wrote: "The principal task in the period of restoration has become the imbuing of the entire work by a new content, by new methods which bring it into close contact with the requirements of today."

The following plan of politico-educational work was laid down at the 10th anniversary of the October Revolution:

1. The elimination of illiteracy among the adult population — in villages of all inhabitants under 30, in towns of all under 35.

2. The creation of mass elementary schools to give reading and writing instruction to all not proficient in these.

3. The creation of mass literature: "By the 10th anniversary we must create a solid kernel of popular literature for workers and peasants".

4. The working out of a plan and methods of making books more accessible to the mass of the readers.

5. The organisation of a big network of travelling libraries.

6. The transformation of reading rooms into centres around which there should be grouped schools of literacy, primary schools for adults and travelling schools.

This plan advanced as one of the most important tasks the training of a corresponding staff.

The struggle for the quality of mass educational work, its organic connection with the current economic and political tasks meant a new and decisive advance in this sphere.

As the country became economically stronger the network of politico-educational institutions began to steadily grow. By the 10th anniversary of the October Revolution we had already: 32,560 schools for illiterates, 537 schools for adults, 213 Soviet and Party schools, 13,228 libraries, 14,188 reading rooms, 3,861 clubs, 1,213 people's homes and 25,525 "red corners".

The politico-educational work proceeded in the following directions: an explanation of all questions dealing with the interna-

tional situation, war danger and the spread of military sciences, the organisation of sanitary education, agricultural propaganda, assistance extended by reading-room huts to libraries and other cultural institutions, assistance to public organisations (voluntary societies etc.), the explaining to the broad masses of all the principal measures adopted by the Party and by the Soviet government (the industrialisation of the country, socialist construction), the winning over of farm labourers and poor and middle peasants to colhoz, co-operative and other circles. The politico-education institutions play an active part in the socio-political and economic campaigns, (elections to the Soviets, sowing campaigns, grain collections), in organising revolutionary festivals etc. One of the main tasks of this work has been and still is the struggle against antiquated ideas and habits, a struggle for new forms of life. Already on the 10th anniversary of the October Revolution very many facts in the field of economics and of everyday life were proving the efficacy of the work of political education. Suffice it to mention the growth of various politico-educational circles, the opening of new schools, of reading rooms, of people's homes, of libraries. Ever increasing masses are drawn into the activity of the politico-educational institutions.

The enormous experience gained during the first ten years after the October Revolution made it possible for the politico-educational workers to tackle the tasks of the period of reconstruction. The industrialisation of the country, the collectivisation of agriculture, made it imperative to raise the socio-political and cultural level of the broad masses of the toilers, to render them more familiar with technique. During the period of reconstruction on the basis of the decisions of the XVth Party Congress there developed a wide movement embracing millions of toilers for the carrying through of the cultural revolution, for the reconstruction of everyday life. One of the most brilliant forms of this movement was the "cultural campaigns" organised upon the initiative of the Young Communist League, which were carried out on a huge scale according to plans worked out beforehand. The results soon made themselves felt. In 1927/28 only a little over a million illiterates were taught to read and write, in 1928/29 this number increased to 2¹/₂ million and in the following years 1929/30 and 1930/31 to tens of millions (over 10 million in 1930/31 alone).

The results of the "cultural campaigns" show that during this period almost twice as many people were taught to read and write as during the whole of the preceding period following the October Revolution.

The movement extended also to other kinds of mass education. Thus the propaganda of agriculture sciences assumed the form of a mass movement of so-called "agro-campaigns". Hundreds of thousands of collective farmers entered the circles for agricultural literacy, mastered agricultural technique and applied their knowledge in the actual reconstruction of their own holdings. It is easy to grasp the importance of this movement for the socialist reconstruction of the village. The cultural army is growing with extraordinary rapidity. It consists of voluntary workers who give their free time gratis to the cause of mass political education.

Formerly only paid teachers (the so-called liquidators) were working on the anti-illiteracy front. There were only a few thousands of them. Now, since 1929/30, a body of voluntary workers has been formed who have taken up enthusiastically the work of stamping out illiteracy, and who thereby are carrying out Lenin's precept: "He who can read and write must teach one who cannot."

These enthusiasts are numbered by hundreds of thousands in various regions. In the whole Union there are 4 million such voluntary workers engaged in the various spheres of cultural construction.

Thus by the 15th anniversary an enormous body of individuals is fighting on the front of cultural revolution, fighting for the spread of general and political literacy and also for technique, culture and a new life.

By the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution we shall have about 40 thousand village reading rooms and colhoz clubs and over 20 thousand libraries in cities and villages.

The results of mass work of political education in national regions and republics are particularly striking.

The Kalmuck Region, whose population before the October Revolution numbered only .5% of literates, will on the 15th anniversary be well on the way towards a 100% literacy.

Adygea, where previous to the October Revolution literacy did not exceed 3 to 4%, has now become one of the most progressive national regions which already by the beginning of 1932 has introduced

100% literacy. In this region, which quite recently was utterly uncivilised and backward, we observe the growth of a network of schools in the sovhozes and colhozes. New libraries are being founded, the native press is growing.

In the North, in the remote regions among the most backward nationalities there is now a written language for each of them, universal instruction is being gradually introduced for children, illiteracy among adults is being eliminated, travelling politico-educational institutions are being organised. These nationalities are taking active part in the general construction of socialism.

At places where there were no schools and no libraries, big centres of socialist culture have been built, centres which serve entire regions; in a number of autonomous regions and republics some districts have been fully electrified and radios installed, the number of radio sets is growing very rapidly, new national theatres are being built, self-activity theatres, orchestras, choirs, etc. are being created. At the same time the network of special schools training the personnel of various trades from among the native collective farmers is being extended.

Summing up the results achieved on the eve of the 15th anniversary, it is possible to state: the land of the Soviets is becoming a country of all-round literacy.

The Soviet Union for the first time in the history of mankind has created a vo-

luntary cultural army consisting of 4 million fighters for culture.

In the Soviet Union a network of primary cultural institutions (red corners) has been established which extend their influence to tens of millions of toilers.

There have been also created centres of socialist culture in towns, in the national regions and republics, worker's clubs, excellently equipped, fully enabling a worker to rest, and to develop culturally.

In the columns of the district papers, on the screens of cinemas, both stationary and travelling, the culture and technique of socialism is now penetrating to the most remote corners of the land covering one sixth of the earth. There is a mighty development in the network of schools in which millions of industrial and sovhoz workers, and collective farmers without abandoning their employment are raising their qualifications and becoming highly skilled workers. The number of books published is increasing by leaps and bounds. Pamphlet written in popular style and classical authors, scientific and socio-political literature in all languages reach to the remotest corners of the Soviet Union.

And at the same time, as a result of this enormous cultural development, even the huge circulation of newspapers and books is proving inadequate. Such is the present demand for culture, such is the great thirst for learning shown by the broad masses of the toilers in the Soviet Union.

THE SYSTEM OF WORKERS' EDUCATION

By E. L i n k e v i c h

Alongside with the factory apprenticeship schools which represent the principle means of preparing industrial workers, a great importance is attached to the system of training specialists without their leaving the factory. This method has the twofold purpose:

- 1) To prepare workers of varied qualifications, to communicate to them a definite amount of polytechnical knowledge and to raise their socio-political level.
- 2) To raise the standard of technical qualification, and so develop the polytechnical, social, and political level of the technical personnel.

This system enables the worker to study his native language, mathematics, physics

and chemistry, the elementaries of Marxism and Leninism, and to better his technical abilities without leaving his job.

The different parts of this whole programme are linked together so as to enable the worker to raise systematically both his cultural level and his industrial qualification. Thus he may, beginning with the preparatory courses, without leaving his factory complete his education in the most advanced technical schools and eventually become an engineer.

These preparatory courses are the first link in the workers' factory educational system. They are obligatory for every factory newcomer, whether worker or employee. They initiate him into the technical,

economic, social and political life of his factory, and acquaint him with the tools and methods of production. In the classes the worker becomes familiar with the history of his factory, with the role it plays in the revolutionary movement, and with those problems that are placed before it by the general plan of socialist construction.

In conjunction with this the courses assist the worker in understanding the inner life of the factory, they further his acquaintance with the production-financial plan, the activities of shock-brigades and with social competition, and they teach him to realise his own role in the industry, the workshop and at the workbench.

The preparatory course includes from six to twenty lessons. The next step in the system comprises polytechnical courses which are designed for those workers whose general education level is below that offered by the four-year school, and for those who have no industrial qualification.

These courses are divided into three parts:

Part "A" embraces persons who can read and write but who have no industrial qualification. Its aim is to increase their practical aptitudes;

Part "B" consists of semi-literate workers who happen to be technically qualified. It liquidates the semi-illiteracy (to provide training equal to that of the four-year elementary school) and at the same time furthers the industrial qualification.

Part "C" is for qualified workers who are semi-literate. It aims to abolish semi-illiteracy (raise the cultural level).

Thus the production-polytechnical courses graduate a contingent of students rather equal as to knowledge. These are workers of mass-qualification with training on a par with that of the four-year basic school.

The next educational link built on the foundation of the workers' knowledge acquired from the industrial-polytechnical courses, is the labour polytechnic school and analogous to this the school for working youth, the latter organised where there is a large number of young people. These schools prepare the lower technical personnel: brigaders, workers who are in charge of repair work, assistant foremen and foremen. The course is from two to two-and-one-half years and offers general training equal of the seven-year school.

The highest links of the system are the following:

1) Technicum, for preparing the middle technical personnel from among highly

qualified workers and practical experts holding medium technical posts and who have a general educational rating equal to that of the seven year-school;

2) Highest school for training engineers and raising the theoretical qualification of practical workers, occupying the posts of engineers. Attached to this institution is a workers faculty for workers who require general education.

All the links of this factory-educational system constitute the so-called "educational combine".

Only two years have elapsed since the introduction of this system of training specialists without their leaving the factory.

In the work of the educational system there are many difficulties. Many of the educational combines are not adequately provided with housing facilities, nor with workshops, laboratories, necessary textbooks or paraphernalia of vital importance. This shoptage, naturally, is reflected in the quality and tempo of the instruction received. At the present time many factories are building specially equipped houses with workshops and study rooms.

That considerable progress has been made is acknowledged by factory managements, by the workers themselves and the general public.

The phenomenal growth of the student-body in all of the schools for workers may serve as sound proof that the method is successful. Thus in the school-year 1930/31 the workers' universities, schools for adults and schools for young workers throughout the RSFSR had an enrollment of 101,444 students, while in 1931/32 128,000 students were embraced in Ivanovsky District alone. In the North-Caucasian region 118,000 students took advantage of the new system, and in the city of Moscow, excluding the outlying districts, 120,000 were entered. In the Lenin District of Moscow the system of workers' education includes 25% of the workers. The Molotov factory in Leningrad boasts 50%.

In many of the industrial centres, and in factories now in the process of reconstruction, a considerable portion of the personnel (tens of thousands of workers) were trained without their leaving the factory. For example the educational combine of the Stalin motor-car factory, and "The Hammer and Sickle factory", "Dynamo", and many others.

In many factories the educational system functions on the shift system with the same

number of shifts that exist in the factory proper. Thus workers of every shift are enabled to study. Classes function 18 days each month, with four academic hours (of fifty minutes each) per day.

Thanks to this educational system the worker receives not only productive skill necessary for limited qualification, but also a Marxist-Leninist outlook and theoretical knowledge to further his study. Students make excellent progress in their factories; in the "Dinamo" factory 80% of the students have been promoted, while at the Putilov factory out of 812 workers 600 were advanced. In the textile factories of the Ivanovsky District it was possible to promote many students even before they had completed the course. Thus

they became assistants, foremen, workers in charge of repair and efficiency experts.

Lenin said: "We must endeavour to make of every factory, of every power plant — a place of education." Most of our Soviet factories have already begun the realisation of those words.

During the second Five-Year Plan the system of preparing specialists without their leaving the factory will embrace millions of workers.

The raising of the technical and cultural level of the toiling masses which facilitates the growth of new production-technical intelligentsia will create ideal conditions for a still more powerful development of the national economy and culture of the Soviet Union.

THE TEACHERS OF THE USSR FIFTEEN YEARS AFTER THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION

By A. Gilenson

"The people's teacher must be placed in our country on such a level as he has never attained in the present or past and never can attain in bourgeois society. We must work for it systematically, undeviatingly and persistently, work on his spiritual uplifting, and on his general training for his truly lofty vocation" (Lenin).

The importance of the role of a Soviet teacher is due to the enormous proportions which the cultural work among masses is assuming in the Soviet Union. If the school is the most important factor in the cultural uplifting of the country and in its socialist transformation, the teacher becomes the principal factor in scholastic life. The President of the Council of People's Commissaries of the RSFSR stated the following at the second session of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee: "The further growth of our schools and also the growth of our culture is largely dependent on the teacher. This we must note in order to place the teacher in most favourable conditions."

And indeed, throughout the fifteen years of construction in the domain of education, the teacher has always been the object of constant care on the part of the Soviet government and of all the social organisations of the USSR. From the very first years of the Revolution, a number of measures were taken to raise the authority

of the teacher, to heighten his cultural level, and to facilitate his responsible and highly grateful task: "to further work, to awaken thought, to fight against prejudices, which still persist among the masses" (Lenin).

What is the total number of teachers in the USSR? Who are these teachers? Is we take the last three years, we can judge of the increase in the number of teachers in the Soviet Union. In 1929 there were 391,000 teachers, in 1930 their number reached 479,000, and the corresponding figure for 1932 was already 652,000.

About 60% of teachers are women; the overwhelming majority of teachers are proletarians and peasants by birth.

Not only is there absolutely no unemployment among the teachers, but there is a great shortage of them, in spite of a very rapid increase in their numbers. The country lacks at least 70,000 teachers.

The teachers are trained in the numerous secondary and higher normal schools, at various courses, etc.

The following are the figures illustrating the increase in salaries of teachers during the last few years (this refers to teachers in the elementary schools only): 1928 — 51 rubles, 1929 — 58, 1931 — 71, 1932 — 90 rubles.

The salaries of the teachers in secondary schools increased from 100 rubles in 1928

to 130 rubles in 1931. The salary of a headmaster is now 170 rubles. It is necessary to bear in mind, however, that the actual earnings of a teacher are much higher, for teachers usually work simultaneously in several schools. Relatively few hours of work — 4 hours in the elementary schools and 3 hours in the secondary schools — make it possible for the teachers to work in two or more schools at the same time. In order to determine the actual earnings, it is also necessary to take into consideration other factors affecting the wellbeing of a Soviet teacher. These include bonuses from a special fund, which in all amounts to 8 million rubles, the supplying with manufactured articles and food stuffs on the same basis as the industrial workers, a wide use of the sanatoria and health resorts, both through the trade union of educational workers and the social insurance and public health departments, free medical service, etc. Thus the actual wages of a teacher are considerably higher than the nominal figures quoted above.

When mentioning the salaries of the Soviet teachers, it is necessary to bear in mind also the law on periodical increases in wages of July 11, 1927, by virtue of which teachers, in respect of every 5 years of service, obtain an increase amounting to from 60 to 150 rubles a year, in accordance with the education they received and the type of school in which they teach. According to a special scheme drawn up for this purpose teachers with a 20 years' experience will get by 1936/37 four periodic increases. In other words teachers of 20 years' standing will be in receipt of very considerable increases, — 600 rubles a year. Additional privileges have been granted to teachers working in rural districts. The law of June 10, 1930, lays down that at least once in every three years every teacher must be sent to special courses so as to improve his qualifications. He is to be paid his full salary during that period. A certain number of beds in sanatoria and health resorts are reserved for village teachers. They are given free medical aid in the nearest city. Finally they obtain at the place of their service a free apartment with light and heating.

The decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party published on August 31, 1932, deals with "the improvement of the housing conditions of teachers in elementary and secondary schools and securing them rest and cure". This decision

provides special credits for the construction of houses for teachers and confers the same privileges on the housing co-operatives of teachers as on the co-operatives in which workers form a majority. It proposes to organise by 1933 on the southern shores of the Crimea houses of rest and sanatoria exclusively for teachers and provides that the teachers are to be sent there on the same basis as the industrial workers.

Labour legislation fully applies to the teachers. A number of supplementary guarantees are laid down for them in accordance with the specific nature of their work. This refers to special rules governing the dismissal and transfer of teachers and the rules concerning their leaves of absence.

Under the law of July 15, 1929, the teacher may be transferred from one place to another only at the end of the school year. Dismissal on account of unfittedness may take place only if there is a report by a competent commission to the effect that the teacher is professionally unfit. Such a commission must include a specialist in the particular subject of the teacher. The term 'unfittedness' has been defined with the greatest precision.

The duration of leave, which usually coincides with the vacations, may not be less than two months on full pay, paid in advance, when leave is granted. The period of leave granted to pregnant school mistresses is four months — two before and two after childbirth.

We must also dwell here on the question of pensions. According to the law of April 23, 1931, 25 years' work entitles a teacher to a life pension. This period of 25 years includes not only the actual work as teacher, but also the time spent in prison or in exile for political offences prior to the October Revolution, and also the periods when the teacher is holding an elective office or is ill or unemployed. Owing to this favourable interpretation of the 25 years required for a pension, there is a very considerable number of pensioners. A pension in no way precludes a teacher from continuing his work.

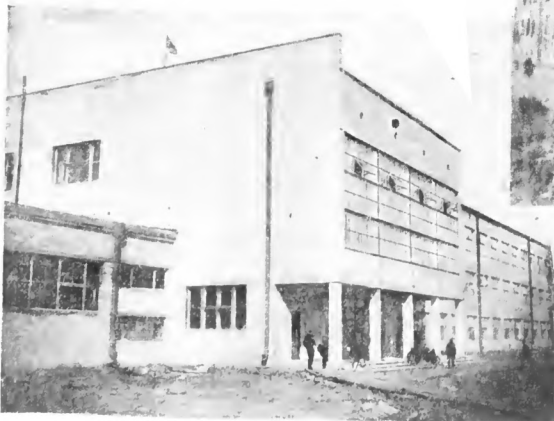
It is obvious that teachers who have become incapacitated, either through vocational conditions of work, or owing to general causes, are entitled to pensions under the general laws applicable to all the toilers.

Such are the main characteristics and the practical working of the laws which for the last 15 years have governed the

Evening courses for workers



Student of a factory university



The school-combine at the new ball-bearing plant in Moscow



Agricultural Institute in Georgia



Creche in the agricultural commune
"The Beacon of Communism" (North
Caucasus)



Top left to right: School
biologica cabinet. A new
playground. Bottom: A
Northern



Workshop at a house-commune attached to a factory (Kiev)

Children making posters for the school in Moscow. Children's room at the Moscow Railway Station





Red Army men at study



A performance at a Red Army club



A red mariner at the parade

status of teachers in the USSR. Apart from legislation and administrative measures calculated to improve the conditions of teachers, the Soviet public organisations have always taken a very keen interest in this matter. Many articles have appeared in the press, many pamphlets have been published and meetings and conferences held on the question of teachers, as the principal factors in introducing general education, people who perform their work creditably, of whom the country may be proud.

The historic decisions of the Central Committee of the Party, dated September 5, 1931, and August 25, 1932, mark a definite improvement in the organisation of primary and polytechnical schools and indicate a series of new measures for the improvement of the status of teachers in regard to daily life and rights. The decision lays stress on the ever-increasing role of the teacher as a fighter for communist education of the new generation. And, indeed, the Soviet teacher is an active citizen of the country, a class conscious participant in political and economic campaigns, a professional

educationalist, who, however, is free from those elements of formalism and scholasticism which formed the characteristic traits of the narrow-minded pedantic teachers who belonged to the old pre-revolutionary "classical" schools.

On the 15th Anniversary of the October Revolution, the teacher, in common with all the toilers of the USSR, can say with confidence: "Fifteen years of work in the field of culture and enlightenment have not been spent in vain." An incredible thirst for knowledge, an enormous growth in the network of cultural and educational institutions, the elimination of the remains of illiteracy, the final abandonment of the old ways of life by many millions — such are the successes in which the teacher occupies the foremost place of honour."

It would of course be an exaggeration to say that the enormous tasks confronting the teachers of the USSR, have been fully realised. In the future they will have to do a colossal work, both in the school itself and in its social environment, and they will also have to work as before towards the raising of their own level.

FIFTEEN YEARS OF STRUGGLE FOR CADRES

By M. B o r d u k h o v

The building of a socialist economy demanded imperatively the development of scientific and technical knowledge in the country. In the degree as industry progressed in the USSR there arose an ever growing need for education in general, for professional-technical instruction, for the training of new cadres of specialists and the raising of the qualification of the workers, already engaged in industry.

The plan for developing the people's education thus became an integral and organic part of the general plan of industrialisation.

But the rate, at which the new cadres were being prepared, was much too slow for the actual requirements of the national economy, the position becoming especially acute after the termination of the reconstruction period and the passing to the period of construction, i. e. to the fulfilment of the first Five-Year Plan.

1928—1929 marked the turning point when a carefully thought out plan for the education of new technical cadres was drawn up. The work of training cadres

was then put on an entirely new basis, and went along at a speed unheard-of until then.

Just recently — in September 1932 — the Central Executive Committee of the USSR passed a decree specially dealing with the qualitative preparation of training cadres.

This decree will no doubt have the desired effect and ensure the complete solution of the problem of cadres, which at the present time is the central problem of socialist construction.

Let us consider for a moment what had been done before the Revolution for the training of scientific and technical workers.

The number of technical schools in tsarist Russia was insignificant, being strictly limited by the general state of backwardness of the country and the weak development of industry. The technical and professional schools catered for not more than 267,000 and 125,000 students respectively. Only a very small percentage of children, belonging to the privileged

classes, sons of landlords, bourgeois, of the higher and middle State officials, and of the clergy were admitted to the higher educational institutions.

The October Revolution has brought about a complete change in the sphere of professional-technical education which is now based on strict planning and is closely linked up with the requirements of socialist construction. Industrialisation and its development called into life the most varied methods of training workers — apprentices' brigades, factory schools, courses for raising the professional standard of workers, evening classes of every kind. Politically conscious workers, the active participants in the socialist up-building of the country, are being trained in these institutions. Of great and special importance are the factory schools which are the basic channel for training skilled workers for industry.

The preparation of workers of medium qualification is taking place in technicums, in the universities and in the higher technical schools.

Even before the end of the civil war, at a special meeting on matters pertaining to public education, the question of the reorganisation of the universities and the establishment of workers' faculties was discussed.

The workers' faculties, attached to the universities, have become the basic channel for preparing young workers and peasants for the higher educational institutions. This form of preparatory work, which is carried on inside the university, has become extremely popular. On September 15, 1919, the Commissariat for Education issued a decree ordering the establishment of workers' faculties in all universities and higher technical schools.

The re-organisation of professional-technical education in accordance with the basic tasks of socialist construction necessarily led to a radical re-organisation of the educational plans, methods of instruction, of the whole structure of technicum and university education.

As a result of the reconstruction, the number both of technical schools and of their students has considerably increased. In 1920, for instance, in the whole of the Soviet Union the number of technicum did not exceed 585 with a total of 70,000 students, whereas in 1927/28 the respective figures were 1,038 and 185,000. A considerable increase is also to be noted in the number of universities. Prior to the Revolu-

tion there were 91 universities with 125,000 students; in 1927/28 there were 129 universities with 158,000 students. The network of institutions for the mass training of cadres embraced by that time 4,954 schools catering for 448,000 students. But even this rate of development did not correspond in any way with the tremendous pace of economic construction, the resulting difference causing a considerable disproportion between the requirements of national economy on available skilled labour capable of satisfying them.

The socialist reconstruction of the country imposed upon the whole system of professional-technical education entirely new tasks and demands.

In 1928, the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union considered the question of the complete re-organisation of the universities, higher technical schools and workers' faculties on to specialised branches of study, and their transfer to the various People's Commissariats and respective industrial bodies, subject to a unified programme and administration. The question of cadres was discussed in detail at the XVIIth Congress of the Party and at the XVIIth Party Conference. In its resolutions on the second Five-Year Plan, the XVIIth Party Conference pointed out that the realisation of the tasks for the complete technical reconstruction of national economy demanded of our industrial cadres the mastery of technique, it furthermore demanded the creation of large cadres of our own technical intelligentsia from among the workers and peasants, and also the raising of the cultural standard of the broad masses of workers.

In the very significant resolutions of the Central Committee of the Communist Party on primary and secondary schools, special attention is paid to the question of cadres. Of no less importance are the decisions on the question of cadres contained in a number of recent documents: the decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of August 25, 1932, on educational programmes and on the regime in elementary and secondary schools, and the decision of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR of September 19th on educational programmes and the regime in the universities and technicums¹.

¹ A special article on this question will be printed in an early issue of our review.

It is pointed out in the latter decision that as a result of certain measures "the training of specialists has reached the standard required by the ever growing socialist economy". In the higher technical schools the number of students in 1929 was 166,000, in 1931—394,000, in 1932—548,000. In the technicums for the same years: 303,000, 855,000 and 970,000. In the workers' faculties there were 229,000 students in 1930, 325,000 in 1931, 450,000 in 1932. In the factory schools during same years: 514,000, 1,099,000 and the 1,680,000.

In comparison with 1928 the number of students in the universities and higher technical schools has risen more than threefold, and in the technicums more than fourfold. The total number of students in the universities and higher technical schools in 1932 exceeds 1,500,000.

The number of specialists in the national economy of the USSR has increased to a very appreciable extent. In 1929 the Soviet Union counted 57,000 specialists whose professional education was fully completed, and 55,000 who had not yet completed their education, while in 1932 there are already 216,000 and 288,000 such specialists respectively. The composition of the students in the higher schools and in the technicums has drastically changed: in the industrial higher technical schools the number of worker-students reaches 70%, and in some instances even 90%. The universities, higher technical schools, technicums and workers' faculties are attended by many thousands of the best Party workers, young communists, and trade-union workers.

Of great importance for the training of economic workers are the industrial academies and the courses for factory and works directors. At the present time there are 14 of these academies, and in addition 8 academies are attached to the various State departments, with a total attendance of 5,955 in 1931, and 10,130 in 1932.

Worthy of mention is last year's re-organisation of the State universities for the training of scientific and pedagogical workers in mathematics and natural sciences. This re-organisation, as pointed out in the resolution of the plenum of the university section of the State Pedagogical Council, "is directly called for by the great interest towards scientific thought caused by the general technical reconstruction of the whole of our national economy".

"The re-organised universities"—we read further in the resolution—"by training scientific cadres on a mass scale are standing in the first ranks of the fighters for the rebuilding of science, for the technical revolution. Their work should consist in deep theoretical analyses and scientific experiments in order to find ways and means for the technical reconstruction of socialist industry, agriculture and the defence of the country. The work of the universities is directly connected with, and dependent on the training of cadres, which should possess a wide and all-embracing scientific outlook and an university education."

By their re-organisation, the universities have ceased to be many-faculty institutes, they are no longer separated from industry, no longer are they bereft of a unified guiding principle. The universities have been converted into higher educational institutions for the training of scientific research workers and university teachers of the highest qualification, along strictly specialised lines in a given industry.

The basic difference between the new universities and the higher technical schools lies in the fact that whereas specialisation in the latter is founded on the study of a given technical branch, specialisation in the former rests on the study of the main scientific problems connected with the essential demands of technique. Apart from this, specialisation in the higher technical schools is chiefly obtained in factory shops and factory laboratories, in the universities it is obtained, in scientific-research laboratories. The higher technical schools train technical managers and organisers of industry, the universities—research workers of the highest qualification.

The quantitative growth of the network of educational institutions and the increase in the number of students is naturally accompanied by corresponding qualitative changes.

The higher technical institutions are closely linked up with industry.

The brilliant successes of socialist construction have led to a decisive change in the attitude of the large professorial circles of specialists towards active participation in the grandiose creative work of the Soviet Union.

The solution of the problem of cadres proceeds not only along increased attendances. The rapid growth of the number of workers engaged in industry (21 mill. in 1932 as against 18.6 mill. in 1931) has

called into life new forms for raising the qualifications of the workers. A real mass movement for mastering technique is developing. In this connection great stress must be laid on the so-called "workers' educational combines", where students are trained without being taken away from industry. These schools are organised in large factories and works and provide all phases of education, from the elementary to special departments which train highly qualified specialists in definite branches of industry.

In a number of large factories almost all the workers are engaged in some form or other of study, mostly of a technical nature.

7 million industrial workers and 10 million collective farmers are studying technique in the USSR, be it in schools, correspondence courses, special circles, etc. A powerful incentive to this movement has been given by J. Stalin at the first All-Union conference of industrial workers, when he said: "The bolsheviks must master technique". This slogan addressed by J. Stalin to the vanguard of the toiling masses has been enthusiastically taken up in the USSR by many millions of workers, collective farmers, young people, the new Soviet intelligentsia.

The USSR is the land of such masterpieces of contemporary technique as Dneprestroy, Kuznetskstroy, Magnitostroy and other giants of socialist construction. The USSR is the land which is creating a "Magnitostroy of Art", the land which is striving toward the unlimited development of all the spheres of human creative endeavour.

By educating new cadres, the Soviet Union is educating new men and women, the conscious builders of a classless society.

The type of a Soviet specialist is determined not only by the knowledge he has acquired, but also by his active participation in the social and political life of the country, by the application in his work of the new socialist forms of labour (socialist competition, shock brigades).

• Work imbued with ideas, planning, width and clearness of perspective, characterises the activities of the Soviet specialists, not only of the younger ones, but also of those, who belong to the older generation.

Such then are the conditions in which new cadres are formed in the Soviet Union.

The history of the struggle for socialism during the last 15 years has attracted the deep interest of the whole world. And the pages of that history, relating to the struggle for cadres, are, undoubtedly, among the most interesting and instructive.



Masses Building Socialist Culture

AUTHORS FROM THE FACTORY BENCH

By P. B a n k o v

One of the most striking indications of the cultural growth of the working class is the participation of the industrial workers in literature, a phenomenon which hitherto has not been observed in any other country, and which has become possible only under conditions of Soviet life.

1930 will go down in the history of proletarian literature as a year in which, for the first time, numerous books appeared written by authors direct from the factory benches.

This date is not accidental. The rapid development of socialist competition and of shock-brigades was reflected likewise in the sphere of literature. Socialist construction demanded and demands a wide exchange of experience between its builders. In a country where socialism is being built up, in which private property in the means of production and the attendant competition and industrial secrets have been abolished, the exhibition of the best examples of work by the greatest heroes of labour assumes a colossal importance.

The first books by worker authors originated as an expression of the desire of the exemplary workers to share their experience with others, to help them to master the most rational and productive methods of work.

"This pamphlet is my first creative effort on the front of proletarian literature. In writing it I set myself the task of passing on to the workers of the Soviet Union the experience of the shock-workers of the Communist Department of the 'Krasny Putilovets' Works". This is how the fitter Naumov in the preface to his first book "The Heart of the mill" describes the motives which prompted him to enter the field of literature. A similar explanation is given by other worker authors who are grouped around the Publishing Department of the All-Union Council of the Trade Unions, the initiator of the appeal to shock-brigaders to take up literature.

The task of overtaking and outstripping countries which are more progressive in point of technique and economics, the appeal of J. Stalin, the leader of the work-

ing masses of the USSR, to master technique urged the industrial workers of the USSR to give more thought to technique. The increase in the workers' proposals for the improvement of socialist production, the greater activity of the production conferences at various works, the increase in the workers inventions, the wide development of mass organisations for technical education were all portrayed in literature by these worker authors.

The old and skilled industrial workers are helping to train new strata. Not only do they train new workers in the process of work, but they sum up their experience and pass it on, through their pamphlets, to thousands of workers in the Soviet Union.

A worker-inventor who is living and working in the Soviet Union makes no secret of his invention. On the contrary, after testing it at his enterprise, at the production conference, he hastens to pass it on to all the workers in his trade, he writes a book about it in order to make his achievements the common property of the entire mass of workers, technicians and specialists.

Cement-layer Kashkin, on the basis of his personal experience, gives in his book a description of the best methods of cement work.

The foreman of the "Dvigatel" works, Malygin, and a moulder in the same factory Alexandrov, have written a book on moulding for workers of medium qualification. In the preface to his book, Malygin writes as follows: "With the development of our industry, many more moulders will be required and it will be useful for them to learn the methods of their trade. I tried to expound as clearly as possible, in the simple language of a worker, the most essential problems of my speciality, so important in our trade. I hope that the items of information supplied by me will prove useful for the growing generation of workers and will contribute to raising their qualification."

These words aptly describe the tasks which the workers, the authors of technical books, have set themselves.

The first books of worker authors served as an impetus to a mass movement of the workers not only in the field of technical but also art literature.

Thousands of worker authors are entering the field of Soviet literature. Their creative efforts summarise the revolutionary experience and the industrial achievements of the best workers. Their works have an enormous stirring effect on the masses.

Metal workers, founders, engine-drivers, miners, shepherds, are taking up the pen. There arises a new type of author hitherto unknown in the history of literature. A worker author, a shock-brigader, is above all an active participant in the everyday world struggle for the victories of the working class. Mikhailov, the author of the book "In the Fight for Metal", paper-layer at the "Hammer and Sickle" works; Orovetsky, carpenter of the Panyutinsky railway-carriage repair works, the author of "By Force of Example"; Kotenko, worker of "Selmash", author of "The Brigader of the Hot Department"; the poet Biryukov, concrete worker of "Selmashstroy"; Vodolazko, tractor-driver, author of "Meat Factories", and thousands of others are shock-workers, i. e. most active and progressive workers. They are members of the best brigades, they are in the front ranks of socialist competition, and shock work. All their writings are clinched with hammer blows, every line is born of the enthusiasm of free labour.

The success of the worker authors is the most striking proof that in the course of socialist construction boundaries between mental and physical work are swept away. The live incarnation of these changes is the Soviet worker, the worker author, he who after a hard day's work at his factory begins to write a technical book, fiction or poem.

A worker author is not a lonely individual afraid of competition, he is above all a member of the collective. The habits of collective work, which he acquires at the works, he transfers to his literary productions. None of the worker writers and poets dispense with the discussion of their work with their mates and fellow-members of the literary circle. They all read their manuscripts at general meetings of their mates.

*

What do these worker authors write about? Where do they take their theme, their subjects?

The new worker writer, the new poet has introduced new subjects and new themes.

The freed and joyous labour which has now become "a matter of honour, of glory, of valour, and of heroism" (J. Stalin), such is the "leitmotif" in the works of the new writers.

New socialist relations between individuals, the newly created psychology, which prompts people to solve the vital problems in a new way, such is the main content of these books.

This is shown even by their titles: "Rebirth" by Alfejev, turner of the "Bolshevik" works in Leningrad; "The Fight for Metal" and "Steel, Brand M" by Mikhailov, of the "Hammer and Sickle" works in Moscow; "We are catching up" by Tarassevich, worker at the Moscow Stalin works; "A Matter of Honour" by a locksmith in the combine assembly shop of the "Selmash"; "Foreman of Coal Barge No. 69" by Sagaidak, worker in a metallurgical works; "Every Oil Gusher taken in Battle" by Zinin, worker of the Grozny oil-fields, and others.

While actively taking part in their social organisation and keeping up their connection with industry, these new authors are persistently working on the improvement of their literary productions. Mikhailov has already published three books ("The Fight for Metal", "The Seventh Battery" and "Steel, Brand M"), of which the first named ran into three editions, with a total circulation of 300,000. Ryezchikov, a worker of the "Kauchuk" factory, has published a whole collection of poems.

The worker authors are gradually passing from small sketches and poems to big novels and long poems. It stands to reason that most of the shock-brigaders who have entered the field of art literature are still in the process of formation as artists. The overwhelming majority of them are beginners who must go through a long period of training. The common defects of many productions by worker-writers and poets is the addiction to standardised forms, inability to handle the material. The Soviet Publishing Houses pursue the task of raising the political and literary qualification of these young authors, to help them master literary technique.

Many Publishing Houses have set up literary consultations or bureaux of worker authors. The beginner may obtain there the advice of a specialist, a trained writer or poet, he can also obtain special liter-

ature which will help him to work on a definite theme. The literary bureaux organise various courses, seminars, evenings, group consultations for authors, special stationary and travelling exhibitions, showing to the worker author how to draw up the plan of his book, how to gather material, how to work out a theme, etc.

Literary evenings, held once in ten days, specially for the worker authors, are of great importance in training the new authors. The reading of manuscripts in literary circles, at the meetings of the worker editors of Publishing Houses make the authors more critical and train them to evaluate more justly their own and other people's production.

The shock-brigaders who are authors of fiction are most of them connected with the Association of Soviet Authors. At all the important enterprises of the USSR there exist literary circles consisting of worker writers and poets. These circles guided by the social organisations of the factory, and assisted by the Association of Authors, organise systematic courses for the new authors, helping them to improve their work, to connect it with the entire cycle of tasks of socialist construction, to enrol their creative efforts for the solution of tasks confronting the given enterprise, as well as the entire working class. The creative efforts of our worker writers are indissolubly connected with the life of their respective factories: the slogans,

poems, satire, are all mobilised in the struggle for the Plan, for the tempo and for the quality of work.

The large publishing houses possess their own staffs of writers from among the workers. Thus the Publishing Department of the All-Union Council of the Trade-Unions ("Profizdat") attracts worker authors and essay writers, the Association of Worker-Authors of Technical Literature ("Marat") is closely connected with the Technical Publishing House and Red Army authors are connected with the Literary Association of the Red Army and Navy ("Lokaf").

In spite of its youth, the mass literary movement has already drawn to itself several thousand writers and poets. Thus more than 800 authors are connected with the "Profizdat".

It is difficult to estimate the enormous number of publications put out by worker writers and poets, spread over thousands of local factory papers and wall-newspapers, in the pages of the numerous magazines for literature, art and technics.

Fifteen years of Soviet rule have transformed a backward country into a country of powerful industry and the biggest agricultural production in the world. From ruin to Magnitostroy — such has been the path of socialist reconstruction in our country. From illiteracy to the Magnitostroys of literature — such is the path of the cultural revolution.

THE WORKERS ARE WRITING THE HISTORY OF THEIR FACTORIES AND WORKS

By P. Novliansky

The compilation of the "History of Factories and Works", which has been started all over the Soviet Union on the initiative of Maxim Gorky, is regarded as one of the most striking manifestations of the cultural revolution. Its significance lies in the fact that it is being written not only by scholars, writers or individual participants in the various events, but by the broad masses themselves.

The compilation of that "History" as a mass movement of the toilers began at the end of 1931, when the Central Editorial Board of the "History of Factories and Works" was appointed under the editorship of Maxim Gorky. This board compri-

ses, along with the most prominent men in politics, literature and science, also the representatives of the biggest Soviet factories and works.

The appeal to the workers issued by Maxim Gorky and the Editorial Board found immediately a ready response, which shows that there existed already a desire among the masses to use the events familiar to them as material for writing the history of the revolutionary movement and of the struggle for socialism in the USSR.

In the course of the first few months editorial boards were formed at more than a hundred big enterprises of the USSR. They drew to themselves writers from

among the workers, contributors to the factory newspapers, members of literary circles. Tens of thousands of old and young workers started to write the history of their works, of their lives, of their revolutionary struggle, of their participation in the construction of socialism.

This movement is daily extending to new and most diverse enterprises — works, factories, power stations, mines, railways. The work is assisted by historians, writers, economists, engineers, journalists, artists. Plans of books are being worked out, enormous archives are being examined. The workers taking part in the compilation of this "History" converse with the old bolsheviks, study the material in the museums, the pre-revolutionary press, etc. At the "Red Putilovets" works in Leningrad, a society has been founded to assist the compilation of the "History". It comprises three hundred of the oldest workers, whose average period of work in industry is twenty five years. A Moscow Society of old Putilov workers has also been founded; similar societies exist at other enterprises (the Moscow "Trekhgornaya Manufaktur", the Izhora Works, etc.). At the Lenin Works in Leningrad, a cell of the society of Marxian historians has been set up and the workers are working out in a seminar the material referring to the various periods in the history of their works.

At a large number of enterprises (the Dzerzhinsky works in the Ukraine, the Liubertsy and Izhora works, the "Trekhgornaya Manufaktur" in Moscow and others) an exhibition of historical documents has been organised, as well as consultations on questions of the history of the labour movement, the Communist Party and of the given works. Mass excursions are being organised to those places where militant gatherings of workers took place in the pre-October period ("Electrozavod", "Trekhgornaya Manufaktur"). An historical section was founded at the Cabinet of Party Work in the "Hammer and Sickle" factory in Kharkov. At the Moscow "Hammer and Sickle" a special "Victorina"¹ was organised. A collection of diaries, letters and photos referring to the history of the works and of the labour movement, to the everyday life of the workers etc., was arranged.

¹ "Victorina" is a game in which the participants have to reply to a series of different questions. In the present instance the theme of the "Victorina" was the history of the "Hammer and Sickle".

Many works practice talks with the workers and their families at home, make lists of old workers, collect proposals on the questions of methods of compiling the history of the works.

Finally, socialist competition was inaugurated for the composition of the best volume on the history of the works. Entire factories are competing, as well as the brigades working on the "History" and the individual workers writing their memoirs.

Such are the diverse forms assumed by the mass movement for the creation of the "History of Factories and Works". This has now become the concern of the whole working class and is particularly well expressed in the letter of the Nadezhdinsky workers (in the Urals) addressed to Maxim Gorky:

"Today at the Nadezhdinsk works hundred oldest workers gathered at a family evening organised in connection with the task of compiling a history of our works. Our total age is 5,237 years and we have a total of 3,117 years of trade experience. Our oldest member is 80; thirty six are over 60. Many of us came here to the Northern Urals at the end of last century, when the place occupied now by the works was all covered with woods and bogs and thousands of men lived in huts dug in the earth, when thousands of them died of scurvy, various epidemics, and underfeeding. The greater part of our lives were spent under conditions of capitalist oppression, of humiliation of human dignity, of monstrous exploitation. Many of us fought, rifle in hand, in the field of revolutionary battles. We remember our comrades, killed in the struggle, tortured to death in the torture chambers of the tsar and Kolchak. We are happy that many of those gathered here to-night continue to work at the mill, holding the most important posts at the blast furnaces, open hearth furnaces, and rolling benches, at a time when these aggregates work for socialism, for a happy future of mankind... At the present time we are all of us working together on the compilation of the history of our works. We are all of us taking active part in this work, pensioners as well as members of the Young Communist League. Let the new generations of the working class know how the working class has grown in size and strength, how the Bolshevik Party was growing, how the edifice of capitalism was broken into pieces."

Many other facts illustrate the activity of the workers, their enthusiastic response

to the appeal to write the history of the works. Thus 220 of the oldest workers of the Moscow "Hammer and Sickle" factory took an active part in gathering recollections of 1905; 300 old workers of the "Red Putilovetz" are working on the 2nd volume of the history of their works. Along with old men, young workers and above all Young Communists are enthusiastically participating in this work.

The task of writing the "History of Factories and Works" has thus become a method of study which trains the new generation of workers-intellectuals, the future sociologists, writers, historians.

"The 'History of Works' gives a political education to new strata of the working class" (M. Gorky).

"The History of Works" is not a dull academic chronicle of events, treated independently of the tasks of socialist construction and of contemporary life. The creation of this "History mobilises the masses for a further struggle for socialism, serving "the cause of the development of the revolutionary class-consciousness of the proletariat, the cause of helping the masses to assimilate the ideas of Marx and Lenin" (M. Gorky).

The masses of the workers have found concrete forms of work linking up their participation in the writing of the "History" with the industrial and cultural life of the works. Thus the history of the Moscow Tool factory is written under the slogan of mastering technique. "Our principal aim is to show how the bolsheviks master technique." With this purpose in view social evenings are organised at the works in order to acquaint the young workers with the industrial methods of the old evenings devoted to the development of technique at the works in the past and at the present time. At the Trekhgornaya Manufaktura the general meetings of the workers investigated the material of the archives and other material describing the role of labour discipline in the factory at various historical periods—this will help the new workers, unacquainted with the conditions of the pre-revolutionary factory regime, to grasp the importance, from the point of view of class, of labour discipline at a socialist enterprise, in a country where work has become a "matter of honour".

The main idea underlying the history of the Moscow "Elektrozavod" is "the factory as the initiator". The Zinc Works in Rostov-on-Don, in connection with the

history of the works, has announced a campaign for overfulfilment of the production-financial plan.

An important part is played by the meetings of the workers dealing with the history of the works. These meetings take place under the sign of the assimilation by the younger generation of bolshevik traditions and the revolutionary experience of the old workers.

Already at the present time reminiscences of the workers have been put down in writing and the historical material has been collected and classified. This means that the period of organisation is over, and that the creative work on books has begun. The following manuscripts have already been finished, and sent to the Central Editorial Board: the history of the Lenin (Neva) machine building works (about 200,000 words); the history of the Moscow-Kazan railway (about 200,000 words); the history of the Kolomna works in 1905 (about 100,000 words); the second volume of the history of the "Red Putilovets" works, under the general heading "Putilovets in three revolutions" (200,000 words); the history of the Volodarsky sewing factory in Leningrad (40,000 words). Moreover, material has been gathered for separate chapters, and some of them have already been written on the history of the Moscow "Hammer and Sickle" factory; of the "Trekhgornaya Manufaktura": of the Izhora works; of "Krasny T eugolnik" (The Red Triangle); of the Nadezhdinsk works in the Urals; of the Moscow tool works; of the "Skorokhod" factory; of the Kharkov "Hammer and Sickle" works; of the Kharkov locomotive building works; of Stalingrad tractor works; and also a collection of articles on the history of the Lena goldfields.

The first history of the series—the history of the Lenin (Neva) machine building works, will be printed on the 15th Anniversary of the October Revolution.

The present progress of work of the Editorial Board allows us to expect that three more volumes will appear in the near future; the history of the Moscow Kazan railway, of the Stalingrad tractor works, and the Volodarsky sewing factory.

What will the history of each individual enterprise look like? The resolution of the Central Editorial Board states the following on this score:

"The gist of the programme must be a comparison and a concrete juxtaposition of the two systems—the capitalist and the socialist."

The fundamental themes of the history of each works are the social-economic and the industrial-technical description of the works: the history of the labour and revolutionary movement at the works and the history of the Bolshevik Party; the questions of culture and of daily-life conditions.

The section referring to the last named question must show up those conditions in which the factory workers were forced to live before the October Revolution and also the life and customs of their masters — the capitalists.

In the post-October history of the works, there will be a detailed description of the cultural revolution, of the growth of the working class, of the creation of the workers' intelligentsia in the course of the

elimination of the contrasts between physical and brain work, new forms of everyday and family life, new forms of social relations, the physical culture movement, the elimination of illiteracy, the linking up of factories and schools.

The "History" will describe the organisation and the reconstruction of the works on new socialist principles, new forms of administration and control, workers' inventions, the growth of the communist forms of work (shock-brigades, socialist competition), the heroes of labour, the participation of the masses in planning.

The abundant and colourful material makes it possible to render the narrative of the "History" both exhaustive in point of substance and accomplished in point of literary style.

HOW THE HISTORY OF CIVIL WAR IS BEING WRITTEN

By I. DANILOV

The Civil War through which the Soviet Union went in the years 1917—1922 is a great period in the history of the heroic defence of the conquests of October from foreign and domestic foes. It settled the historic destinies of the country. The working class and all the toilers of the Soviet Union acquired in the Civil War enormous political, strategical and operative experience.

The study of the Civil War, its investigation from the point of view of science and art, the summing up of its experience, and the transmission of the latter to new generations of the toilers of the USSR is therefore of extremely great importance. The publication of the "History of the Civil War" which was undertaken simultaneously with the "History of Factories and Works" and likewise on the initiative of Maxim Gorky — is attempting to solve this problem.

The "History" covers all the most important events of Civil War from the February Revolution 1917 down to the suppression of the last uprisings against the Soviet government in 1922. The plan of publication published in the periodical press and in a separate pamphlet shows how fully and thoroughly the events will be covered.

It embraces the following volumes: October; the first stage of Civil War; the first steps of the intervention and the break-up of the "respite" period; the Cossack Vendée; Civil War in the Ukraine and in Crimea;

Kolchak; Denikin; the fight for Petrograd and the intervention in the North; war on the western frontiers; Wrangel; Civil War in Transcaucasus; Civil War in Central Asia; Civil War in the Far East; Anti-Soviet uprisings and mutinies towards the end of the Civil War; Intervention and its international importance; the Party in the Civil War.

The above mentioned 16 main volumes of the "History" will give a comprehensive, a strictly scholarly and consistent exposition and description of the armed struggle against the background of economic and political events. The foremost historians and economists will work on these volumes.

Though the exposition will be strictly scientific, these volumes will be written in popular style intelligible to the broadest masses of readers.

In addition to the basic volumes the editors will publish a series under the general title "Collections of material on the history of Civil War". The collections will consist of documents and manuscripts by the immediate participants in the Civil War (diaries, memoirs, chronicles, sketches etc.) which in very large numbers were delivered to the editors by former Red Guards, by guerilla fighters, Red Army men, commanders, political functionaries of the Red Army and of the works of the best Soviet authors dealing with Civil War. Just as in the basic volumes of the "History" the material

published in the collections will be arranged according to periods, regions, fronts; their publication will proceed simultaneously with that of the main volumes.

It is proposed to supply the "History" with abundant illustrations, photographs (100 ordinary and 8 colored illustrations in each volume), schedules and maps. Each volume will contain an index of subjects, names and geographical places as well as a list of books dealing with the events described in the volume. Fine-grade paper and binding, clear type, convenient form — all this will render "History" highly accomplished from a technical standpoint. Moreover, the price for the whole "History" will be so low that it will be within easy reach of every worker and peasant.

The great social importance of this publication, the fact that it can easily be acquired by the broad masses and the enormous interest shown to the "History of Civil War" by the whole of the Soviet public forced the editors to issue it in an enormous number of copies (half a million copies of each of the main volumes).

The publication of the "History" evoked a lively response in the whole country. Workers, collective farmers, intellectuals declare their willingness to take active part in the creation of the history of the heroic struggle of the workers and are sending in a large number of manuscripts, etc.

All these facts enable us to assert that the publication of the "History of Civil War" will be an outstanding event in the scientific and art literature of the USSR.

The first volumes of the "History" will appear in 1933 and it will be completed in 1937.

At the present time a large amount of preparatory work is being completed.

The greatest event was the elaboration of the plan of work. This plan will not only form the foundation of all the work in connection with the "History" but is in itself most important as a document, which establishes the methodological principles of the study of Civil War, its division into periods, etc. The plan thereby assists most materially the work of investigation and education dealing with the Civil War subjects.

The "History" will be a work on a level with present-day Marxian-Leninist theoretical thought. Everyone of the numerous authors in working out his theme or chapter must include in the scope of

his investigation the entire literature available — art, science, history — books and periodicals on the subject of the Civil War. For this purpose, an annotated bibliographical index of Soviet and foreign literature on Civil War is being compiled as one of the forms of preliminary work. Not only well known capital works are being carefully taken note of in the index, but also the various publications which are in various regions, districts, national republics and separate military units. Thanks to this the authors of the "History" will be able to investigate everything contained in literature dealing with the themes they are investigating.

The enormous wealth of information contained in the archives both central and local will be worked out and used for the purpose of writing the "History". In the archives the material dealing with Civil War is examined and revised; documents are being selected which are of interest to the "History" and a card index is being compiled so as to fit in with the plan.

Copies of some of the documents of the archives will be sent to the editors to be used for the "History". However, the bulk of the documents will be studied in the archives personally by the members of the staff and the authors contributing to the "History", where they will be able to use the card index and documents referring to separate volumes and chapters. Under the terms of an agreement between the Central Archives Department and the Secretariat of the Editorial Board the archives have already started their preliminary work which is now drawing to a close.

Finally the participants in and witnesses of Civil War are invited to take part in the preliminary work for the "History". They write their memoirs, historical novels and sketches, chronicles and supply separate items of information, describing certain events. Oral tales of Civil War are also being recorded. The editors are likewise collecting such works as diaries, documents, photographs which are in possession of individual persons. At the present time nearly 2,000 such manuscripts have been collected. They have all been examined and have been given a preliminary scientific historical appraisal. The authors of the manuscripts are mainly redguards, guerilla fighters, Red Army men, commanders, political workers. Their works abound with most interesting political military, psychological and other facts,

characterising life in those days. Some of these, after being worked up by the editors, will be published separately¹, many will form one of the series of literature and art magazines, the remaining sections will be used as material in working up the "History".

[A very important task is to select a numerous and capable staff of authors. Nearly every chapter and every big theme in the "History" demand investigation by an

individual scholar. The authors for the first three volumes have in the main been selected. Conferences are already being held of authors working on the same volume, a division of labour is planned between them, also the connection between various themes and chapters, and the order in which they are to follow. The methods of individual and collective work of the authors writing in the same volume are being drawn up.

In the nearest future the authors will start work on the "History" itself.

The "History of Civil War" will be not only an outstanding production of science, history and art literature, but also a specimen of collective authorship. And indeed it is being written by the very masses, who have made history.

¹ The editors of the "History of Civil War" propose to publish by the XVth anniversary of the October Revolution one of these mss. in book form: "Against Wrangel" — a collection of letters written by Red Army men who took part in the taking of Perekop, selected by the political chief of the regiment.



Press and Book in the USSR

BOOK PUBLISHING DURING THE PAST 15 YEARS

By A. Kolbanovsky

The high aims pursued by the press in the Soviet Union secure an unparalleled development for the publication of books.

The Soviet Union inherited from the bourgeois landlord regime few printing works, a poor paper industry and a book-production industry reduced to one half of the pre-war level (13,144 titles in 1913).

26,069 books published in 1913 were registered in the "Book Annals", with 99,879,000 copies. The pre-war books were chauvinistic in content, full of the great-nation obsession; out of the 26,069 books only 2,154 were in languages other than Russian (Church-Slavonic, Arabic, Hebrew and others) and even these were chiefly monarchist propaganda and reactionary.

The victorious proletariat, from the very first days, made it its task to familiarise the workers and peasants with literature and culture. However, the existing conditions rendered it very difficult to carry out this task for which is needed considerable publishing activity. This was the time of economic ruin, of civil war, of intervention; the ravages of the world war was still evident. In spite of the efforts of the workers' State the absence of metals, of fuel, of paper, etc. greatly hampered the development of publishing activities.

Printing shops had to reduce their work and each year turned out a smaller and smaller number of books: in 1918 — 6,052 books, 77.7 million copies; 1919 — 3,730 and 54.6 million; 1920 — 3,326 and 28.3 million 1921 — 4,130 and 28.3 million.

However, though in the grip of civil war, under the attacks of international intervention, the Soviet State published the works of Russian and world classics, text-books and literature of a popular scientific character, social-political literature etc.

Publishing Houses were established for Party, Soviet and co-operative publications. The publication of classical authors was regularised by the decree nationalising the works of classical authors. A State institution for furthering the circulation of printed works ("Tsentropechat") has been created,

In 1919 was founded the State Publishing House of the RSFSR ("Gosizdat"). It was entrusted not only with publication activities, but also with distribution of paper, regulating of the publishing activities of the various Peoples Commissariats etc.

The first Director of the Gosizdat was a tried revolutionary and distinguished man of letters — V. Vorovsky (murdered in Lausanne in 1922, while representing the Soviet Union in a diplomatic capacity).

At this period the prevailing type of literature was propaganda publications, leaflets, agitational posters. They struck at the principal enemy, the white bandits, the kulaks and the counter-revolutionaries.

The Soviet book, along with the rifle and machine-gun, served the cause of the working class, the defence of the country from counter-revolution and intervention.

The period of restoration

The victories of the Red Army over the interventionists and the white-guardist counter-revolution enabled the USSR to turn to peaceful economic and cultural construction. The rapid economic restoration of the country, the consistent national policy, the energetic measures for the raising of the cultural level of the nations of the USSR — all this gave an impetus to the exceptionally rapid tempo of development of book publishing.

	Number of books	Number of copies	Percentage of copies compared with 1913 ¹
1922	7,843	37.9 million	37.9
1923	10,810	67.0	69.1
1924	13,126	110.0	110.1
1925	26,320	278.0	278.2
1926	28,400	206.0	206.3
1927	32,664	221.0	221.2

¹ We take for 1913 99,879,000 copies, although this figure is exaggerated if taken for purposes of comparison with the data supplied by the book chambers; we should have deducted from it all the numerous calendars, music and plans, which are not registered by the Soviet "Book Annals".

If we bear in mind that in 1921 only 1,130 titles were published, we will observe that in 6 years the book publication in the USSR has increased almost 8 times.

The pre-war level of circulations was exceeded already in 1924. This is explained by the fact that Soviet books are adapted to the needs of the masses and do not appeal only to the elect. However, even in point of the number of titles the Soviet book has rapidly exceeded the pre-war figures. In 1925 the pre-war level was surpassed with regard to variety and from 1926 both the circulation and the number of titles have been steadily increasing. There is a greater variety in themes and a greater differentiation in the demand for books on the part of the millioned readers.

During that period the book trade developed along two lines. On the one hand the State publishing houses (Gosizdats) of the individual republics rapidly developed especially those of the RSFSR (which represents 45—50% of the total number) and of the Ukrainian Republic. On the other hand we observe a deeper intensification of work on the part of special State publishing organisations serving special branches of science, culture and economics. Of these special publishing houses the following are of particular importance: the State Technical Publishing House (putting out books on all branches of technics and economics), the State Publishing House of Agricultural Literature, the Publishing House of the People's Commissariat of Public Health (medical literature), the Law Publishing House (books on the theory and practice of Soviet law). "Transpechat" (books on questions referring to all kinds of transport) and a number of other publishing houses.

Of the other big publishing houses the following are of special importance: "Moskovsky Rabochy" ("The Moscow Worker"), "Priboy" (Leningrad) and "Proletary" (Ukraine). These publishing enterprises issue not only social and political literature but also popular books on science, fiction and special literature for children.

Important work is also done by the "Young Guard" Publishing House. It puts out text books, the current political and art literature for youth, popular literature on natural science, technics and agriculture and also books for children.

Of the public organisations engaged in book publication we may cite the trade-union publishing departments, the most

important of them being "The Education-alist" ("Rabotnik Prosveshchenia"), which issues a considerable number of school and pedagogical literature.

The Publishing House "Down with Illiteracy", attached to the society of the same name, is doing splendid work in the elimination of illiteracy.

The Publishing House "Land and Factory" has specialised mainly in the publication of fiction and is increasing its production of books both by Soviet and foreign authors.

During this period there existed also co-operative and private publishing houses. The co-operative and some of the other publishing houses specialised in fiction and literature of a highly technical character. As the State publishing houses grew in strength and number, the private firms were gradually ousted from the book market.

The leading role in the RSFSR is played by Gosizdat. Gosizdat issues the bulk of the school books, also literature covering all branches of science, classics and contemporary writers, fiction, books for children, socio-political literature etc. In 1927 Gosizdat published 549 titles for a total amount of 108.8 million rubles. Gosizdat is also the biggest publisher of magazines (44 magazines in 1927 for a total value of 9.6 million rubles).

Gosizdat already at this period published an enormous amount of works by the most important representatives of socio-political thought and art. In 1929 it published 13 million copies of Lenin's works, 3.8 million copies of Stalin's works, 700,000 copies of the works of Marx and Engels, etc. The works of classical authors of fiction are published in millions of copies: Pushkin, Tolstoy (1 million copies), Chekhov, Korolenko, Saltykov-Shchedrin, Gogol, Nekrassov, Gorky (4 million copies) and the latest authors.

Mass literature was published by Gosizdat in an enormous number of copies (as much as 70% of the entire production including text books). At the same time books on science by the most important Soviet and world scientists and scholars were published with great care. A series of art monographs on the problems of art was also published by Gosizdat.

The transition to the New Economic Policy caused the reconstruction of the entire book trade. In place of an organ of distribution ("Tsentrepechat") commercial sections were set up in the publishing

houses and co-operatives began to engage in book distribution.

The Soviet book trade had almost no foundation in the past because the old book trade was entirely ruined in 1917. During the war the book business ceased to be a paying concern and this had its effect on the number of bookshops even prior the Revolution.

Gosizdat played the principal role in setting up a system of bookshops. In 1924 the USSR already possessed 871 bookshops, in 1925 their number increased to 1,590, and in 1927 there were about 1,700 of them (not counting book-stands). Before the Revolution, in 1913, there were 1,183 shops or 69% of those that existed in 1927. The qualitative advantages of the Soviet book business are still more important. Instead of the former concentration of the book business in big centres, there is a tendency to develop the network of bookshops in the villages, many book-stands were constructed at factories and works, which makes the books more accessible, to the new reader, one who is of greater importance from the social standpoint.

The first Five-Year Plan in the book trade of the USSR

The fulfilling of the enormous tasks of the Five-Year Plan required a corresponding tempo of development of the book trade. The demand for books grew enormously. Even the rapidly increasing book production proved inadequate. It became necessary to reconstruct the book trade which no longer satisfied the new requirements either from the point of view of organisation or of technique.

1927	1929			1930			1931		
	Plan	Fulfilment	%	Plan	Fulfilment	%	Plan	Fulfilment	%
1,450	1,800	1,853.2	103	2,230	3,640.0	136.3	2,750	3,447.6	125.4%

Thus the rate of development of book production has exceeded the figures laid down by the Five-Year Plan. However, even though the Plan has been exceeded, still the demand for books in the USSR exceeds the supply.

In 1931 to ensure greater efficiency two publishing houses were made independent of the OGIZ of the RSFSR — the Association of Scientific-Technical Publishing Houses and the Party Publishing House.

Books are sold in the Soviet Union with unprecedented rapidity. The circulation of books is considerably greater than

The growth of the book production is characterised by the following figures:

	Number of titles	Number of copies
1928	34 165	366.4 million
1929	40 871	395.9 "
1930	49,218	853.4 "
1931	53,848	845.1 "

Such an enormous increase in production entailed an increase in the number of bookshops. By 1931 there were 1,705 bookshops (four times as many as in 1913) and 37,302 book-stands at factories, works and collective farms (three times as many as in 1927).

The very structure of the publishing trade has changed. In 1930 in place of separate publishing houses an United Publishing House of the RSFSR (OGIZ) was founded, 20 publishing shops were turned over to this new concern divided into a number of publishing sections. In place of separate commercial enterprises a single centre of book distribution — "Knigo-tsentr" — was set up. A similar system of the book trade was introduced in the Ukraine and in the other republics.

The new structure enabled us to improve the mass organisational work on the books as well as to organise the training of the personnel: an Editorial-Publishing Institute, the educational-publishing technicum, courses and circles to improve the efficiency of the workers have been established.

As regards the commercial end of the book trade there exist a number of technicums, schools for apprentices, a correspondence technicum and many courses and circles.

The carrying through of the Five-Year Plan in regard to books is illustrated by the following table (in millions of copies):

in 1927, yet does not meet the demand. Text books for universities which used to be printed in 3 to 4 thousand copies are now sold in tens of thousands of copies. Books on agriculture are distributed in hundreds of thousands of copies. Books on technics have a circulation two to three times greater than in 1927 and covering separate problems (metallurgy, machine building, mining and geological literature). A circulation of 15 to 25 thousand copies are usually sold out in a very short space of time.

The enormous growth of book publication is particularly noticeable in the nation-

al republics and regions of the USSR. The extension of book publishing activities in languages other than Russian is as follows:

	Number of languages	Number of titles	Number of copies
1913	—	—	6,144,500
1927	59	7,598	31,995,900
1931	81	19,530	191,427,700

New publishing centres have arisen.

In place of jingoistic and chauvinistic literature the toilers of each nation are now turning out in their own languages text-books, books on science and art, popular books and books for children, all of which serve as a means of the international education of the masses.

*

The programme of the second Five-Year Plan, which aims at the construction of a classless society in the USSR, presents to the book trade of the USSR a task of immense importance.

It is to turn out at least three times as many books, since the demand is at least for five times the number produced at the present time.

In order not to lag behind any longer in point of material technique we have also been given the task during the next few years to produce our own machines for the press and the paper industry.

The first successes have already been achieved: Soviet printing presses, Soviet linotype machines, Soviet binding machines and Soviet rotary presses are already in use.

Thus Soviet books are being turned out at the rate which is required by the needs of the cultural revolution.

Literature and press of the nations of the USSR

Literature in the native tongues of the nations in the USSR is the offspring of the October Revolution.

The publishing of literature in the national languages was originally done by the Western and Eastern Publishing Houses, established at the People's Commissariat for Nationalities under the guidance of J. Stalin. At the beginning of 1924 both these publishing houses were merged under the name of Centroizdat (Central Publishing House).

Centroizdat was the leading organisation of its kind, the output of books published by this house in different native languages comprising approximately 60-70% of all those published in the entire RSFSR. By the nature of its work and its content Centroizdat was perhaps the only one of its kind existing that dealt with such a great variety of subjects in diverse languages. The existence of such an organisation is possible only under the conditions arising from Lenin's national policy as practiced in the USSR.

Until 1932 Centroizdat published literature in 68 different languages:

1. Adygeian, 2. Arabian, 3. Armenian, 4. Assyrian, 5. Bashkirian, 6. Bulgarian, 7. Buriat-Mongolian, 8. Chechen, 9. Cherkes, 10. Chinese, 11. Chuvashian, 12. Czech-Slovakian, 13. Darghinian, 14. Digorian, 15. English, 16. Esthonian, 17. Finnish, 18. German, 19. Gipsy (Romany), 20. Greek, 21. Hindustani, 22. Hungarian, 23. Ingush, 24. Iranian, 25. Jewish, 26. Kabardinian, 27. Kalmukian, 28. Karachaian, 29. Karakalpakian, 30. Karelian, 31. Kazakian, 32. Khakassian, 33. Kirghizian, 34. Komi-Permiakian, 35. Komi-Zyrianian, 36. Korean, 37. Kumykian, 38. Latgallic, 39. Latvian, 40. Lithuanian, 41. Mari (Mountain dialect), 42. Mari (Prairie dialect), 43. Mongolian, 44. Mordovian-erzia, 45. Mordovian-moksha, 46. Nagaiakian, 47. Nenian, 48. Nogaian, 49. Oirotian, 50. Ossetin, 51. Persian, 52. Polish, 53. Russian, 54. Shorian, 55. Tadjikian, 56. Tartar, 57. Talian, 58. Tungus, 59. Turk, 60. Turkish, 61. Turkmenian, 62. Tuvin, 63. Udmurtian, 64. Uigurian, 65. Ukrainian, 66. Uzbek, 67. White-Russian, 68. Yakut.

Besides Centroizdat literature was also published locally, so altogether about a hundred different nationalities were covered in this vast publishing activity.

From 1932, with the reorganisation of the publishing system the national press was further developed. It was proposed to embrace the most backward nations.

To be able to judge the depth and dimensions of this work it will be necessary to take into consideration all the difficulties which must be met. Chief of these are: absence and imperfection of scripts among a number of nationalities and absence of established orthography.

Together with the creating of scripts it is important to pay attention to the introducing of the latin alphabet among the many millions of the USSR population speaking Turkic-Tartar languages.

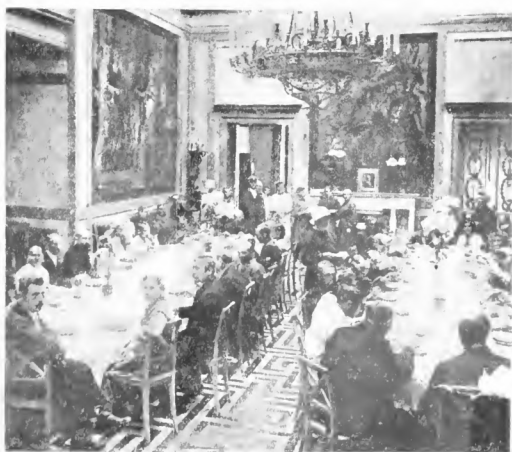
Rest home for workers in a former
monastery



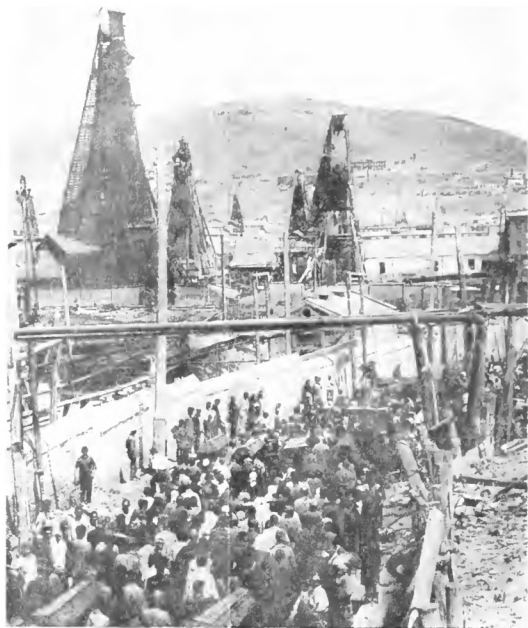
Physical-culture
parading on the
Square



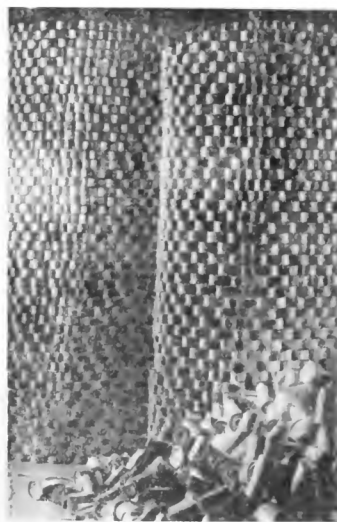
Gymnasium in Dnepropetrovsk (Ukraine)



Rest home for workers in a former landowner's estate



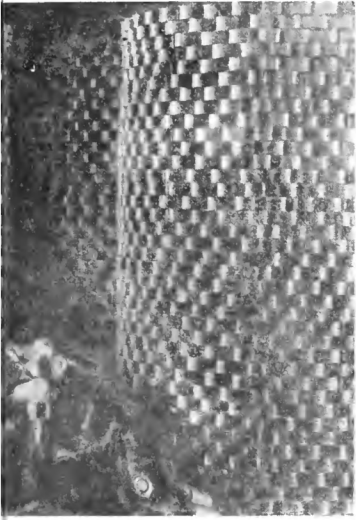
The film "Kikos".
Director: Barkhudarian



The film "Th"
Director:



The film "The Woman", Director: Dzigan



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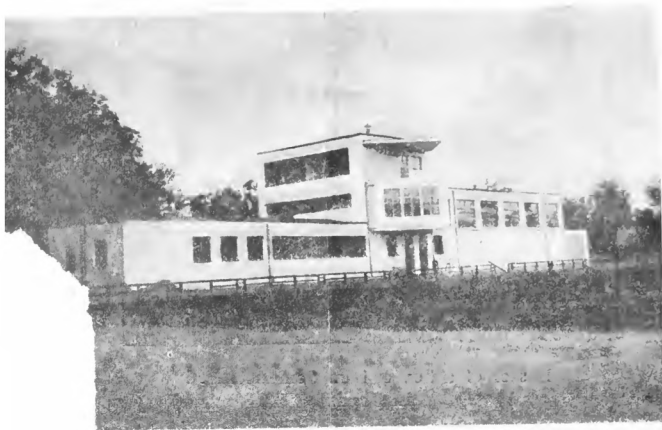
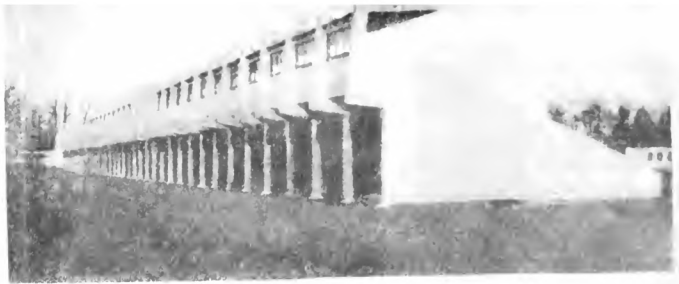


Poster of a Soviet film demonstrated
in Japan



A working moment of the film: "The trial must continue". Director: Dzigan

stadien of metal trades
workers in Leningrad



Building of the Sport club of
the stadium of metal workers
in Leningrad



Palace of Culture
in Leningrad

Inauguration of German
architecture exhibition
in Moscow



At present the literature in the Turkic-
artar languages is published only in latin
haracters. In 1932/33 it is proposed to
adopt the latin alphabet for publishing
purposes likewise for the other groups
of nationalities.

The development of the local printing
industry together with the general growth
and stabilisation of the national publishing
houses, have increased the scope for further
development of publishing work which the
result that today we have in the USSR
up to 40 national publishing houses.

The rapidly growing demand for native
literature well portrays the growth of the
national press. During the existence of
Centroizdat 7,738 titles were published
with a total of 51 million copies and 258 mil-
lion impressions. The annual publication
of this huge output during the past 9 years
is shown by the following table :

	Number of titles (in units)	Number of printed fo- lios (in units)	Number of copies (in thousands)	Number of impressions (in thousands)
1923	31	121	97	389
1924	59	397	301	1,612
1925	335	1,419	1,299	6,173
1926	567	2,296	2,796	11,235
1927	633	3,008	2,665	15,172
1928	683	3,515	3,147	19,374
1929	699	3,199	3,922	24,256
1930	2,458	8,041	17,824	88,500
1931 ¹	2,243	8,639	18,878	91,245
Total	7,738	30,635	50,932	257,956

The above figures illustrate the rate
of growth in books written in native

languages, published by the Central Pub-
lishing Houses.

Particularly characteristic is the fact
that in 1930 the book output was greater
than that of the combined preceding
years.

The editorial and publishing plan for
1932 provides for a considerable increase
of many hundreds percent in comparison
with 1931. In the publishing centre (Mos-
cow) the following growth in 1932 is anti-
cipated: titles — 424%, printed folios — 249%
copies — 267% and impressions — 149%.
The general national press is expected to
show a growth of 69.2%. With regard to the
type of books the plan for 1932 estimates
the growth of text-books for schools to
reach 79.2%, agriculture — 70%, technical—
100%, communistic literature and social
economics — over 79%.

The national publishing industry has
far exceeded the task and tempo set it
by the Five-Year Plan. But even this is
not satisfying the ever growing cultural
demands.

In working out those main lines which
go to make up the essence of the second
Five-Year Plan, the task is set whereby
through the steady growth of the national
press in the earliest possible period to do
away with the differences existing between
the cultural levels of nationalities of the
Soviet Union.

During the second Five-Year Plan pub-
lishing work must embrace the language
of all the nationalities of the USSR. This
task is truly immense.

LATINISATION AND UNIFICATION OF ALPHABETS IN THE USSR

By N. Y a k o v l e v

In point of the number of nationalities,
and the variety of its ethnical composition
the USSR occupies one of the first places
among all the countries of the world. The
number of languages spoken by these na-
tionalities is equally large. The inhabitants
of the Soviet Union speak no fewer than

150 different languages. A considerable
proportion of these nationalities inhabit
the Soviet territory, living as permanent
settlers. This applies to most Turko-Tartar
languages and nationalities, to most Ugro-
Finnish, Japhetic (in the Caucasus), Tungus-
Manchu and pale-asatic languages and
nationalities. On the other hand, some
of the nationalities which inhabit the
USSR in large numbers, especially in the
republics adjoining foreign States, live

¹ The figures for 1931 are given only
for the Head Office of Centroizdat; with
all branches included, these figures would
be much bigger (approximately 40—50%).

likewise in those adjoining States and speak either the same or similar languages. Such for instance is the case with the Azerbaijdjanians, Percians and Assyrians in Persia, Kurds, Lazes and Turks in Turkey, Arabs, Kurds and Assyrians in Irak, Tadjiks, Beludjes and a number of small Iranian and Tiurkie-Tartar tribes in Afghanistan, Kal-mucks, Uigurs, and Dungans in Western China; Kal-mucks and Mongols in Mongolia; Chinese and Koreans in China and Korea; Aleuts and Esquimaux in the United States (Alaska, Aleutian Islands), Lapps in Norway, Karelians and Finns in Finland. We do not mention here such western nationalities as Esthonians, Letts, Poles, Germans and others.

The variety in nationality and language which prevail in the USSR is intensified by the diverse historical, socio-economical and living conditions under which these nationalities lived before the Revolution. This variety in socio-economic conditions was naturally reflected on the state of culture of each individual nationality and in particular was apt to hamper the development of its alphabet and written language.

Prior to the Revolution all the eastern nationalities which inhabited the present territory of the USSR, apart from a few exceptions, had practically no written languages of their own and in fact there were very few people among them who could read and write in their own language. It is true, many of them possessed the rudiments of missionary religious literature, based on the Russian alphabet, the rudiments of Mahomedan literature in Arabic script, Lamaist literature in Mongolian script, etc. However, missionary literature, which was forcibly planted among these nations, had on the whole no success and met with a violent resistance on the part of the masses. Literature in Arabic and other complicated scripts, owing to its difficulty, usually remained the privilege of the clergy, bureaucracy and the bourgeois intelligentsia. Prior to the Revolution the masses of the people and the national proletariat were illiterate. In order to illustrate this state of things suffice it to recall that most of the small nationalities of North Caucasus and Daghestan not only had no written language but only 1 or 2% of them could read and write in Russian. Such a numerous-populated nationality as Azerbaijdjanians, which already before the Revolution possessed their own national literature, had approximately 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ % of

the population that could read and write in their own language. Most of the Tiurkie-Tartar nations were either in a similar or in a worse position: there were less than 1% literates among the Karakalpakhs, .85% among the Turk-mens, and none at all among the Kazaks, Bashkirs, and Kirghizes. The Uzbeks were in a somewhat better position, but even among them the average number of people who could read and write did not exceed 3%. The average level of literacy both in their own and in the Russian languages among the national minorities of pre-revolutionary Russia, which are now inhabiting the Soviet East, probably did not exceed 3 to 4%.

Today the USSR is probably the only country in the world in which every nationality, irrespective of its size or cultural level, enjoys an indisputable right to develop its written language and literature and schools in its own language. Unlike other States, the nationalities of the USSR enjoy not only an abstract right, but the real possibility to be taught in their own language and to cultivate a national literature, and what is more with the political and financial assistance of the State. Thanks to the Revolution, for the first time in history there has arisen in the USSR a mighty movement of the national masses of the toilers for the creation of national literary languages. "The socialist Revolution did not diminish but increased the number of languages", says J. Stalin (attacking Kautsky's theory concerning "the creation of a single language common to all humanity, the others dying off during the period of socialism"), "for this Revolution, shaking up the profoundest depths of humanity and thrusting them on to the political arena, calls to life a large number of new nationalities which formerly were either little or unknown. Who could have imagined that old tsarist Russia consisted of more than 50 nationalities and ethnographic groups? However the October Revolution, having broken the old chains and thrust to the fore a large number of forgotten nations and nationalities, gave them new life and new development" (J. Stalin, "Questions of Leninism")¹.

Thus the development of literary languages among the nationalities of the Soviet

¹ The figure of 50 nationalities refers to the year 1925. With the growth of national construction, new national groups have been developed. At present, the total number of such nationalities has reached 150.

Union is one of the proofs of the general success of the Revolution and of socialist construction.

At the present time we are able to quote facts and figures which are still more striking. In 1931 out of a total of 131 Eastern nationalities of the USSR 84 nationalities possessed their own written language and schools. Of these one half for the first time acquired a written language only after the October Revolution. The remaining 47 nationalities, mostly small ones used the written language of the more progressive of their neighbours who were most akin to them both in culture and language. However, even these nations are gradually obtaining a written language of their own. Thus in 1932 the following nationalities have acquired or are acquiring their own written language: the Tabassanians in Daghestan, the Abazinians in North Caucasus, the Beludjis in Turkmenia, Kumandinians in Western Siberia, Yepsians and Izhorians in the Leningrad region and others.

There is no doubt that before the end of the second Five-Year Plan all the nations of the Soviet Union will possess written language of their own.

In order to obtain a clear idea of the successes achieved by the national policy in the USSR, especially as regards the creation of written language, it is necessary to compare the conditions of the minorities in the Soviet Union with that of the national minorities in the progressive countries of Western Europe and in their colonies.

In Central Africa, on an enormous tract of land occupied by the so-called Sudanese Negroes, the population numbers 45 to 50 million and speaks 435 different languages. Of this enormous number of languages only 5 or 6 have a more or less fixed written language. Thus the Sudanese nationalities which on an average number 100,000 in each tribe, possess a written language of more than 1.38% of the total number of nationalities and languages.

For purposes of comparison it should be added that 26 nationalities of the Soviet North, who speak the dialects of twenty languages and live on a territory which is not smaller than the one inhabited by the Sudanese Negroes, and whose total number is 135,237 (i. e. on an average of more than 6 to 7 thousand for each nation and language), already possess a written language for 16 of these nations. Thus the nations of the North, formerly

one of the most backward and exploited colonies of Russian imperialism, now possess written languages to the extent of 80%. This achievement of the October Revolution is all the more significant, when we take into consideration the fact that the USSR obtained as a legacy from tsarist Russia the smallest and most oppressed and backward nations, which possessed no written language at all and spoke a variety of languages almost unknown to the scholars of olden days.

If we take Soviet Central Asia, we find that there are 41 nationalities, of whom 30 have a written language and only 11 without it (the latter include several Iranian dialects, which can easily be served by the Persian literary language and script).

In India 87% of the nationalities possess no written language of their own. In Soviet Central Asia we find the opposite: $\frac{3}{4}$ of the minorities possess their own written language. It is necessary to add that this situation in Soviet Central Asia is rapidly bettering — more and more nations are creating their own written language (for instance this year the Beludjes, Kurds, Vakhnians and others). Soon all nations inhabiting Soviet Central Asia will have their own written language.

These successes in the USSR have proved possible only owing to the existence of the Soviet regime and to the introduction of latinisation and unification. Only latinisation, which is closely linked up with the unification of the alphabets in the Soviet East, supplied the backward nationalities with a technical instrument fully adapted for national mass education.

Therefore the success of the movement for latinisation and the unification of alphabets is most important in bringing about the introduction of national written languages and national literacy. That is why Lenin described latinisation as the great Revolution in the East.

The movement for latinisation in the USSR began immediately after the October Revolution. In Yakutia already in 1917 the question was raised of replacing the alphabet based on the Russian script which was used prior to the Revolution and which served mainly as a weapon of the missionary, of russification propaganda, by the latin script. The Yakut latinised alphabet was only definitely introduced, however, in 1922, after the final consolidation of Soviet rule in this region. This alphabet was not yet unified and was a mere adaptation to the Yakut language

by means of international phonetic transcription. In 1921 work was started for the adaptation simultaneously of the latin alphabet for Ingushes, Ossetians, and Kabardinians in North Caucasus, and for Azerbaidjanians in the Azerbaidjian Republic. The Ossetians adopted the latin alphabet, discarding the Russian script (despite the fact that as a result of missionary propaganda the Ossetian written language in Russian characters was widely used before the Revolution), and in Azerbaidjan the latin script became a weapon wherewith to combat the reactionary Mahomedan literature written in the Arabic script. In 1923 was held the first educational conference of the mountain tribes of North Caucasus, which approved a project for introducing the latin alphabet for the afore-mentioned three nations and also for the Karachais. From that year onward latin script began to be used by a section of the mountain tribes inhabiting the North Caucasus. Finally in 1925, the Abkhazian alphabet based on the Russian script and introduced by the tsarist government for missionary and colonising purposes, was upon the initiative of the Abkhazians themselves replaced by a script, which in the main was based on latin, and is called japhetidological script (or the so-called analytical alphabet) worked out by the Academician N. Marr.

At this first stage of development of national written languages in the USSR, latinisation, as we observe, used to be introduced sporadically and among relatively few nationalities. The question of unification was not discussed fully. The latin alphabet in its various forms which practically have not yet been thoroughly tested (the international transcription, the japhetidological one, the alphabets of the mountain tribes, the original project of the Azerbaidjan alphabet) served mostly for the purpose of creating a written language for nations which lacked it altogether (the Ingushes, Kabardinians) and at the same time served as a tool for combatting the missionary activities as represented by the Russian script. It is only among the Azerbaidjans that the latin alphabet was for the first time used as a weapon for combatting the more or less established Arabic script. The experience gained in the struggle by Azerbaidjan against the reactionary Mahomedan script and schools became subsequently a great factor in the struggle for the development of national culture among the nations of

the Soviet East. That is why Azerbaidjan is justly regarded as the pioneer of latinisation in the USSR.

The example of Azerbaidjan rapidly had its effect on other nationalities which had hitherto used Arabic script. In 1923/1924 work was started for the introduction of the latin alphabet among Turkic-Tartar nations with a weakly developed national literature (the Kazaks, the Kazan Tartars, the Bashkirs, the Uzbeks and others). At the same time preparatory work was being carried on for the holding of the All-Union Congress for latinisation which later on was called the first All-Union Turkological Congress. In the North Caucasus the second educational conference of mountain tribes held in 1925 at Rostov-on-Don finally introduced latinisation among a number of these tribes. The latinisation of the minority languages inhabiting the former Mountaineers' Republic was ir the main completed by 1926.

The first Turkological Congress met in the city of Baku (Azerbaidjan) in February—March 1926. It was attended by representatives of all the most important Turkic Tartar minorities of the Soviet Union, and likewise by many those of North Caucasus Daghestan, and Transeucasus (Kurds)

The Congress passed a resolution recommending to the representatives of all the republics of the Soviet East to take into consideration the experiments in latinisation of Azerbaidjan. As a result of this Congress there was formed a voluntary society for the spreading of latinisation consisting of representatives of the various nationalities of the USSR. This society was called the All-Union Central Committee of the new Turkic alphabet. It first met a Plenum at Baku in February—March 1927. Here, the latinised alphabets of the Turkic-Tartar nations were for the first time actually unified. Thus the year 1926—1927 mark the second stage of latinisation. At this period, unlike the sporadic attempts made by the various republics during the first years, latinisation becomes a wide international movement among nations, particularly the Turkic Tartar ones, which used the Arabic alphabet and which had served as a battle-ground and of age-long propaganda by reactionary Mahomedan mullahs. The unification of alphabets means the international graphical and phonetic unification of national alphabets. The movement for latinisation becomes a revolutionary struggle by the masses of toilers of Eastern nationalities

for enlightenment and science against the mediaeval obscurantism of the Mohamedan reactionaries, the clergy, the local feudal lords and the bourgeoisie. The class and educational nature of this struggle becomes strikingly manifest. The latinised script, as a popular weapon of mass literacy of the toilers, replaces the caste literacy of small privileged sections of the population.

By the end of this period the unified latin alphabet (which was then called the new Turkic alphabet) was already being used by 17 Turkic-Tartar, 10 Japhetic, 7 Iranian, 2 Mongolian, and 1 Chinese (Dungane) nations, 37 in all, inhabiting the Soviet Union (1930). Of this number 28 nationalities passed on to the new unified Turkic alphabet (as it was then called) and 9 nations (including Azerbaidjan) preserved for the time being their separate non-unified latin alphabet. This latter number, as we shall see later on, became gradually reduced with the progress of unification.

The third and last stage of latinisation in the USSR began in 1930. The latinisation and unification of alphabets used by the Turkic-Tartar nationalities, as well as of alphabets of other nations, formerly using the Arabic script, may in the main be regarded as technically complete in 1930.

At that time the overwhelming majority of Turkic-Tartar nationalities, as well as of other nations inhabiting the USSR, which formerly used the Arabic script, passed on to the latin alphabet. Subsequent work in the domain of latinisation consists in developing the literary language, in laying down the rules of orthography and settling the questions of terminology. At the same time latinisation is advancing further and covering new fronts.

Nationalities using other forms of alphabets which are mediaeval and backward in technique and reactionary in content (the Syrian and Mongolian scripts, the Chinese hieroglyphics) and also those using scripts based on the Russian alphabet introduced by the missionaries, are now beginning to join the movement for latinisation. This applies to Mongolian, Semitic, Ugro-Finnish, Chinese and other nations. However, a specially important feature is that latin script is used by nations which formerly had no written language at all, and who therefore could only write in a language foreign to them. Latinisation in the second stage was a struggle against mediaeval backwardness and for a script

and printed language accessible to the broad masses. In its third stage latinisation is becoming also a struggle for education and the development of literature of the small nations.

In 1928—1929 the following nationalities obtained for the first time a written language: Dungane (Western Chinese — Mahomedans), Nogays, Talyshes, Khakasses; in 1931—Tabassaranians (Daghestan), Southern Karelians, Vepsians, Izhorians, and 16 nationalities of the Soviet North (Aleutians, Voguls, Golds, Gilyaks, Intelmens, Kamchadals, Kets, Koryaks, Lamuts, Lapps, Samoyeds, Ostyak-Samoyeds, Ostyaks, Tunguses, Udeys, Chukchi, Esquimaux. In 1932 the alphabets for the following nationalities are being worked out: Beludjes, Abazes (North Caucasus), Uds (Azerbaidjan), Kurds (for the Central-Asiatic Kurds), Kumands (Western Siberia). The question is likewise being raised of creating a special written languages for the small Iranian peoples of Tadjikistan (the Vakhanians, Yazgulyamians, Yagnobians), for the tribes inhabiting Daghestan and Azerbaidjan (the Aukhovians, Kaitagians, Tsakhurians, and others), and finally for the backward peoples of the North — Yukagirians, Yenisey-Samoyeds, Tavgians and Karagases.

The unified alphabet consists of 33 basic letters (to the 25 letters of the latin alphabet 8 more are added which are modified latin letters). Apart from these there are also the so-called additional letters representing sounds peculiar to each language. In all there are 58 such letters for all nations using the new alphabet. No doubt the further work of unification will reduce their number to the minimum of 45—46 letters. However even now the 91 letters (in all) contained in the new alphabet constitute only a small proportion of the total number of the very complicated letters of all alphabets, which are now replaced by the new one. The alphabet, with which we are most familiar — the Abkhasian — has 52 letters, the smallest alphabet of all, — the Kazak alphabet, — consists of 29 letters.

All the additional letters are based on latin script.

The degree of literacy as regards persons using the new alphabet proves that it is widely used. In 6 republics — the Tartar, Turkmen, Azerbaidjan, Uzbek, Kazak, and Tadjik republics — the total number of persons who can read and write (between the ages of 8 and 65) has been 8,500,000 in 1931, of which 5,696,000 use the new alphabet, when writing in their own lan-

guage. For the first time in history the masses of Eastern nations began to read and to write.

The success of the latinised and unified alphabet is entirely due to those social and political conditions in which the new system of alphabet is being introduced in the Soviet Union.

The spread of literacy among all the nations of the USSR, even the most backward ones, the founding of schools where they teach in vernacular, the development of native publishing houses, of the native press, fiction and poetry, render the new alphabet a mighty factor in the greatest cultural revolution.

The success of latinisation in the USSR could not fail to have its effect outside the

Soviet Union. The Eastern States adjoining the USSR, especially those which by arms had to defend their independence against the attacks of the imperialists, quickly grasped that latinisation is one of the means of strengthening and developing cultural independence. In view of the success of latinisation and the educational strides in Soviet Azerbaidjan and in other Turkic-Tartar republics the Turkish Republic officially adopted the latin script in 1928. The Tuvi Republic which had no script of its own adopted the unified latin alphabet in 1929 and in 1930 the Mongolian Republic followed suit discarding its Mongolian script and adopting the latin one. The question of latinisation has since 1928 — 1929 also been discussed in Persia.

THE ORGANISATION OF LIBRARIES IN THE USSR

By P. Gurov

The organisation of libraries in pre-war Russia was the most backward section of national education. The tsarist government employed the most varied means — direct prohibition, a complicated system of permits for opening libraries, limitation in the choice of books, war against politically ‘unreliable’ librarians — to hamper the existence of these cultural centres.

All the libraries were divided into two categories: free ‘national’ libraries, and the so-called ‘public’ subscription libraries. In the case of the latter the subscription fee prevented the workers, particularly manual labourers, from having access to them. All books published in Russia were admitted into the ‘public’ libraries with the exception of those which had been put on a special list. The selection of books for the free libraries was controlled even more severely.

Free national libraries conducted by organs of local self-government, voluntary societies, etc., could be opened only with the permission of the district governor, and were subjected to the vigilant supervision of a special official who not only censored the choice of books, but also saw to it that the library did not become a centre for any social work or the place for social gatherings.

Among the books permitted in reading libraries — this especially in the case of free national libraries — the majority were works of a religious nature, patriotic his-

tories, geography, and a large proportion of fiction. Scientific books constituted only 1%, books on logic, psychology, pedagogics — 1,5%.

Only occasionally, thanks, apparently, to the ignorance of the librarian, were works of a progressive nature included, but they were swallowed up in a sea of reactionary and jingoist rubbish recommended by the catalogue.

And yet there were libraries where social and political work was carried on although on a small scale. The librarians in touch with underground revolutionary organisations selected the best of political and sociological-scientific literature, and sometimes even distributed illegal books. Of course the number of these libraries was small, and this sort of work was exceptional.

The Revolution of 1905 somewhat altered the state of things. Free libraries were put on an equal status with ‘public’. All books on sale began to be admitted into the library. But after 1905 an unheard-of number of books were prohibited, confiscated, and burnt by tsarist officials.

As before, the government took up an antagonistic position towards these public institutions of cultural and political work.

One must note, as a characteristic feature of pre-war libraries, that all attention was concentrated on the dominant nationality; national minorities were hardly taken into account.

The October Revolution posed the problems of mastering the cultural heritage and the fundamentals of science and technique. Hence the exceptional attention which the Soviet authorities gave and give to the organisation of libraries.

The decisions of the congresses on extra-school education and political education, and the decrees of the Council of People's Commissaries gave concrete instructions as to the content, direction and methods of work in libraries.

After the Revolution the libraries began to grow with fabulous rapidity, three kinds of library being founded simultaneously: those connected with the bodies of people's education, with the trade unions, and with the Red Army. This threefold development of libraries continues up to the present. On the first of January, 1920, the number of libraries conducted by the People's Commissariat for Education amounted to more than 50,000; those conducted by the trade unions to more than 10,000, those by the Red Army — 10,000.

By 1930 there were already 30,000 public libraries in the USSR; reckoning travelling libraries and book centres — about 144,000. The number of books in them by 1930 amounted to 105 millions as compared with 57 million in 1926, and 50 million in 1920.

The average book fund of a library in 1930 was about 3,500 volumes. Whereas in tsarist Russia the number of books was increased very slowly, in the Soviet Union we witness the doubling of catalogues over a period of five years.

The disposition of books in Soviet libraries for 1930 was as follows (in %): fiction — 28.7, anti-religious — 2.2, sociology — 19.5, history and geography — 6.5, natural sciences — 4.6, applied sciences — 6.2, agriculture — 5.1, miscellaneous — 27.2.

Much attention is paid in the USSR to the training of library workers. Before the Revolution librarians (from 1913) received only a short training at the national Shanyavsky university in Moscow, or at short courses attached to the zemstvos. Now a network of institutions for the training of library workers has been developed.

The institutes of library science prepare teachers for the higher schools of librarianship, and highly-qualified specialists for the leading libraries. Higher schools for librarians, — that is librarianship institutes, librarianship sections in pedago-

gical institutes and the pedagogical faculties of the universities, — prepare organisers for district libraries, and for the libraries of important industrial centres, and also teachers for technical schools of librarianship. The high schools for librarians (technicums), and special departments in pedagogical technicums, prepare librarians for the vast network of libraries for the masses. The huge majority of library workers have passed either through correspondence courses of the higher schools, or through technicums attached to libraries or else through courses for improving the qualification of librarians (courses lasting one, three, or six months, with or without exemption from work in the factory).

Library workers are paid at the same rate as teachers. The following statistics apply to library workers: 76.3% with high school or university education, 51% who have been librarians for more than three years. This shows that serious attention is paid to the preparation of librarians.

Around the libraries are grouped a mass of organised readers already amounting to hundreds of thousands. This mass consists of teachers, workers, students, actively participating in library work.

The distinctive features of Soviet organisation of libraries are: 1) a definite political standpoint — libraries to serve socialist construction, the cultural revolution and the dictatorship of the proletariat; 2) a definite plan as the main principle of library work; 3) the conducting of work amongst the masses.

The new theory of library work is based on the teaching of Marx and Lenin, in particular on Lenin's teaching on the press and culture.

The ordered planning, which is the principle underlying the organisation of all work in the USSR, is to be found also in the organisation of libraries. The work of every individual library is carefully planned. The plan regulates for the organisation of acquisitions for the current year, the organisation of readers — what groups and how many — a library service — travelling libraries and book-hawker centres; the amount of book lending; work among the masses.

The libraries draw up their working plan taking at their basis established norms of labour (special processes of library work are being subjected to detailed study), budget allowances, the decrees, plans, and

work of the Soviets, colхозes, trade unions, and other organisations, also taking into consideration the work of preceding years. The plan which reflects the possibilities of the library, the concrete demands of the organs of Soviet government, and also those of the trade unions, factories, colхозes, etc., constitutes a detailed programme for the year's work. Experience has shown that it is possible to plan not only work among the masses and the acquisition of books, but also the growth and composition of readers and the lending of books.

The plan, in its fundamentals, is frequently over-fulfilled. The actuality of the plan is due to the comprehensive work of the libraries in recruiting readers and distributing books.

The libraries work among the masses is new for the USSR. The libraries are concerned not only with the popularisation of books in definite branches of knowledge, but also strive to connect the distribution of books with definite decrees of the Party, the government and the trade unions (the fulfilment of the production and financial plan on the enterprise; the furtherance of political education; the sowing and harvest campaigns; the election of Soviets, etc.).

The methods of work among the masses are extremely varied; readings and discussions, lectures, addresses, literary soirées, literary trials, evenings devoted to special books such as anti-religious, military, political, and those devoted to factory production. There are also competitions for the best study of a book, reference work, the popularisation of definite books and placards in connection with the various political, cultural, and agricultural campaigns within the country.

Work among the masses is carried on not only within the walls of the library; on the contrary, chiefly outside them — in factories, colхозes, in the fields during work, at meetings. Libraries help in electing the Soviets and factory committees, help to compose the mandates etc., and take part in socialist competition and shock-brigade work. Libraries organise disputes, exhibitions, propagandise books and give necessary reference material. We must note the growing use of wireless by the libraries.

A vast number of documents, decrees of town Soviets, of district committees and colхозes bear testimony to the direct participation of the libraries in socialist construction. But in their effort to satisfy

current cultural and economic interests the libraries do not forget the fundamental problem of communist education, the re-fashioning of the workers psychology, the education of conscious builders of socialism. The popularisation of books on questions of theory is one of the chief problems of the libraries' work. Work for current campaigns is closely connected with the basic problems of communist education.

A characteristic feature of the work of Soviet libraries is that they serve all nationalities. Statistics show the tempestuous growth of libraries in the Ukraine, White Russia and the Asiatic republics, where formerly there were practically no libraries.

For example let us look at the organisation of libraries in the Turkoman republic. In the past Turkmenistan had not a single library for the masses. Nobody knows what libraries existed there formerly apart from those attached to different officers clubs and similar institutions. Now there is a comparatively well developed network of libraries. There is a central book fund conducted by the Commissariat for Education, 48 trade-union libraries, 15 district libraries. In 1930 there were 292 travelling libraries.

A lasting foundation has been laid for the organisation of libraries in the national minority republics. Library work is already a definite factor helping to build socialism in formerly backward districts.

The growth in the number of readers, the necessity for making the most of the books, make exchange between the libraries an urgent necessity. As yet only the first steps have been taken in this direction. This is one of the weak points of our library work.

At the present time, as distinct from the pre-revolutionary period, library work is distinguished by carefully planned organisation firmly based on a government budget and partly on that of the trade unions.

Library work in the USSR is undoubtedly developing and accomplishing a great work. But it still lags behind the speed of economic reconstruction. To rival this demands greater effort, a more comprehensive mobilisation of all forces and possibilities. The activity of the libraries should go hand in hand with the growing cultural demands of the masses, for in the USSR, more than anywhere, are conditions secured for the progress of cultural work among the toiling masses.

October and the Art

VOICE OF THE SOVIET ARTISTS

LEONID LEONOV

Soviet writer, author of many works of considerable importance as for instance "The Badgers", "The Thief", "River Sol" and a new novel "Skutarevsky"

Soviet literature is mustered for a parade. Its achievements seem especially considerable if we bear in mind the situation of some years ago, when many old writers had left the country and new ones had not yet appeared. It was a time when reactionary and petty-bourgeois tendencies tried to hold sway in literature.



And yet, within the short period of 15 years an entirely new literature has been created, whose achievements are widely known throughout the entire world, whose works are being translated into all languages. What are the reasons of such success?

First and foremost the Revolution has stirred up new vast strata of people, from among which new and remarkable writers have come. Secondly, contemporary life places at the disposal of the writer a lot of rich material from which he can draw the content of his work. A third factor

that helped Soviet literature to surmount its many difficulties was its attention to the best part of the legacy left by the old literature.

Western literature — with the exception of a few names — is living through a period of decay. The struggle with the general scantiness of ideas — this it is that gives birth to literature in capitalist States. Whereas in the USSR literature is inspired by the great work of construction and the abundance of ideas. It would be only just to say that Soviet literature has every chance of becoming the leading power in world literature.

N. OGNEV

Soviet writer, author of the "Diary of Kolia Riabtsev" and other novels

During 15 years Soviet literature has created many works of world-wide fame. This relates not only to Russian literature, but also to the literatures of national minorities. No doubt, the time is soon to come when the national writers of the peoples of the USSR will give us chefs-d'oeuvre on a still greater scale. One must bear in mind that in some of the republics the written language as well as the free press first were introduced with the Revolution, i. e. no more than 15 years ago.

Why then such a confidence in chefs-d'oeuvre? The reasons are simple. The liberated peoples forming part of the Soviet Union have now an opportunity to realise their dearest ideals; powerful national sources flow into a single united stream, from which new forces are drawn; the purpose of creative work is clear and near; the different cultures are responsible for the variety of creative forms united by one common idea. Hence the tremendous growth of the national theatres we have been witnessing in the USSR; similar achievements in the field of national literature will, no doubt, follow in the nearest future.

The very conditions of life in the Soviet Union are most favourable for creative

development. This is not a hyperbole, but a fact. If a writer stops in his artistic progress, the masses come to help him. Stagnancy, inertia are made impossible by the intense process of growth going on throughout the country.



Unlike Western Europe or U.S.A. the Soviet Union takes great care of the welfare and material conditions of its writers: special houses are being built for them, as well as new sanatoria and rest houses.

I mention it here because I personally have experienced it. Though 44 years old I still see great perspectives opened up before me as a writer.

I have just finished the novel "Three dimensions" exposing the individualism of the old Russian intelligentsia and showing its collapse. Now I am working on a big novel which I am calling "Inventors". The majority of inventors portrayed in the novel comes from among the working youth. Their inventions are limited not only to technical devices, but cover likewise the creation of new forms of life in all its manifestations. The subject is treated in several aspects (combination of different schemes, and creation of human documents are the favourite methods of my literary technique). One aspect shows the modern Soviet school in its turn towards polytechnisation in our, Soviet meaning of the word. The other aspect is connected with the school abroad. Finally a part of the novel is devoted to Soviet tourism.

I made it my purpose to make the two worlds — old and new — clash and to observe the results of it. And I see already that the old world is stagnant, inert, dull and unable to develop. Whereas in this country, alongside with difficulties connected with growth, we witness creative victories in all corners of life.

P. PAVLENKO

Soviet writer, author of "Turkmenistan" and other works. Vice-president of the organisational committee of the Union of Soviet writers

The high level of revolutionary consciousness of the Soviet writer, and the organic fusion of our literature with life of the country is responsible for the fact that now we are making preparations for the October anniversary with so passionate a zeal, as if we'd staked our life on it.

The tournament of ideas and creative efforts which already has begun amongst us writers, and will assume a final shape during the October days, is an event that cannot be reckoned in mere monetary units and consequently could only be possible under Soviet conditions. It never was before.



We started a gigantic roll-call of talents in order to check and evaluate our cadres in the light of the tremendous growth of the USSR, in the light of all difficulties

it had coped with, and on the eve of the creation of a classless society.

The books which are to appear at the October days will bear witness to the fact that we have grown without confining ourselves to the narrow limits of our problems, that we have found a new approach to history, examining the methods and means of capitalism, observing the changes undergone by Westerns living in the USSR and noting the exciting events that shake the East.

We are perfectly aware of the war clouds which are becoming ever denser here and there over the world. We never forget that our mother country reaches beyond its geographical boundaries, and that all those who wish to repeat our social experiment in any corner of the world are our countrymen. We want to make all the 15th anniversary of our Revolution a literary feast as well.

All my work during this year was carried on in view of preparation for this October feast. I wrote a novel of the Paris Commune linking up the success of October with the revolutionary heritage left us by history. I tried to trace and to describe the development of class struggle in the past.

My next book will deal with the influence of our mode of life upon people from the West, who in some way or other get in touch with socialist construction in the USSR.

ANNA KARAVAYEVA

Soviet writer, author of "Sawmill", "Courtyard", "Steeple Tread" etc.

For us Soviet writers the 15th anniversary of the October Revolution is not merely the date of a national jubilee. Each writer of the Soviet Union is closely connected with October in his creative work. Many representatives of the old pre-revolutionary literature having joined the proletarian Revolution entered upon a higher and entirely new stage of their creative development. But for the new generation of writers to which I belong, to the writers of our proletarian land building up socialism, the role of the October Revolution is especially important. Every line we have written is due to October, — the October Revolution gave birth to this literature as well as to all of us. Haven't we a great many

writers, especially from amongst the petty-bourgeois intellectuals, who first began to write under the influence of the turbulent upheaval that shook the wearisome dullness of pre-revolutionary days? The changing world, the crash of the age old exploitation system, the evolving of a new socialist culture — all this has stirred up thoughts and feelings and stimulated action. The joyful shock suffered by our conscience when grasping suddenly the real meaning of things — this it is that made writers of many of us.



Soviet literature has still many difficult problems to solve. We have to overcome with in ourselves the elements of old individualistic tendencies in art, elements of formalism, of bourgeois estheticism which has nothing in common with the proletarian notion of beauty.

The decision of the Central Committee of the Union Communist Party on the reorganisation of all art bodies begins a new historic stage in the development of literature and art in the USSR, opening up wide perspectives to all writers who sincerely wish to participate in socialist construction.

There is not a single writer who could forget about the war danger threatening the Soviet Union. The greater the hatred that inspires our enemies, the deeper our love for our country, the steadier our belief in the justness of our chosen way, and in the importance of our class work for the whole of toiling and exploited humanity. And all of us writers will if needed come

to the defence of our country, the only State of free socialist labour, free thought and tremendous, unheard-of constructive energy.

S. EISENSTEIN

Producer of "Potemkin", "October", "The General Line"

Since the October Revolution — fifteen years, my work as an artist — twelve.

Family traditions, upbringing and education prepared me for quite a different career.

I was destined to be an engineer.

But a subconscious and unformed striving towards art led me, even in engineering, not towards its mechanical and technical aspects but towards that which bordered most closely on the arts, towards architecture.



However it needed the whirlwind onslaught of the Revolution to set me free from the inertia of a set course of action and to follow an inclination which by itself would never have struggled to the surface.

This is my first debt to the Revolution.

It needed the shattering of all foundations, a complete revolution in the outlook and principles of society, and, finally, two years of technical engineering on the northern and western red fronts, to enable a timid student to cast off the shackles of a plan marked out for him from the cradle by devoted parents, and sacrifice an almost completed education and assured future

in order to throw himself into the uncharted seas of the arts.

From the front I return not to my unfinished career in Petrograd, but to Moscow to begin a new one.

And, although already the first distant thunders of approaching revolutionary art are raging all around, I, having wrenched myself free for art, am completely taken up by art "in general".

At first my tie with the Revolution is purely external. But, armed with technical methods, I try with avidity to penetrate deeper and deeper into the first principles of art and creation, where I instinctively anticipate the same sphere of exact sciences for which my short apprenticeship as an engineer had given me so ardent an inclination.

The teachings of Pavlov, Freud, a season with Meyerhold, a disorderly and feverish filling up of the gaps in my knowledge in this new sphere, excessive reading and the first steps of independent "decorative" work as a regisseur in the theatre of the "Proletkult", — such is my struggle with the windmills of mysticism constructed by sycophants on the threshold of a technical mastery of art for those who wish to master the secrets of its laws by common sense.

The attack is less don-quixotic than it seemed at first. The arms of the windmill soon break, and gradually I begin to feel even in this mysterious region the one true dialectic, that of materialism.

I had long been a materialist in my natural bent.

At this stage something in common suddenly arises between what had been absorbing me in the process of analytical work and what is going on all around.

My pupils, not a little to my astonishment, call my attention to the fact that in expounding the arts I use the same methods as the teacher of political principles is using next door in expounding political and sociological problems.

This outward spur resulted in the aestheticians on my work-table being replaced by the dialecticians of materialism.

Warring 1922. A decade ago.

By means of philosophical study of the basic principles of Marxism, the experience acquired in individual experimental-creative work in a particular sphere of human activity is united with the experience of the human race in all aspects of its social activity.

But it does'nt end there. The Revolution, in the precepts of its inspired teachers,

already permeates my work in a different manner. The tie with the Revolution becomes a blood tie and organic.

In creative work this is reflected in a transition from the completely rationalised but almost abstract theatrical eccentricities of "The Sage" — an adaptation of Ostrovsky's play "Every wise man is something of a fool" — through the propaganda placard-plays "Do you hear, Moscow?" and "Gas-masks", to the revolutionary film epics "Strikes" and "Potemkin".

The striving towards a closer contact with the Revolution brings with it a tendency towards a still more profound inculcation of the methods of militant dialectical materialism into the arts.

The following films as well as responding to immediate social problems are attempts at practical experiment in "giving immediate actuality to the secrets of the creative process and the possibilities of the cinema." This is the path necessary for mastering the most effective methods in revolutionary art, and for equipping with knowledge the generation of young bolsheviks destined to replace the film producers of the first five-years periods of the Revolution.

The centre of gravity of my films "October" and "The General Line" is in their experimental-research work.

With individual creation there is continuously interwoven practical work, mathematical, scientific, and pedagogical (the State institute of cinematography).

I am also writing a theoretical work on the fundamental principles of cinema art.

My outlook on life may be considered as formed. The Revolution is accepted. My activity is devoted entirely to its interests.

At this stage I went abroad.

The outside world is the supreme test to which a Soviet citizen can be subjected by his biography. The test of free choice.

The outside world is the supreme test for a man in the sense of being a conscious verification of what he is for and against.

The outside world is the supreme test for a creative worker: can he, in general, create apart from the Revolution and continue to exist apart from it.

Face to face with the golden mountains of Hollywood I too was subjected to this test. And I underwent it not in an attitude of haughty refusal of wordly delights and benefits, but by the modest organic refusal of my creative and constructive faculties to create in the conditions of a different

social organisation and in the interests of a different class.

In the impossibility of creating on the other side of the demarcation line dividing the classes was all the mighty strength and force of the proletarian Revolution, like a whirlwind annihilating all those who oppose it, and like an even more powerful whirlwind dominating those who once choose to throw their lot in with it.

So acts, feels, and thinks every member of the pleiad of Soviet artists: many of us coming through Revolution to art, and all of us calling through art to Revolution.

NATALIE SATZ

Director and Art Supervisor of the Moscow Children's Theatre

The October Revolution has opened up before the workers of art new horizons, wonderful in their grandiosity. Art which before the Revolution was accessible only



to the chosen few, now called to the wide masses of the people. New peculiar flowers of creative genius grew on the new soil tilled by the October.

If formerly the artist's initiative often had to struggle against insurmountable obstacles, then now every constructive manifestation of such initiative met with full support on the part of the State.

I remember how 14 years ago as a girl I took passionately to the idea of creating

a new theatre, a theatre especially for children. There never had been such a theatre before. Sometimes, on holidays, performances for children were given, but these as a rule were rare and very poor. There were also theatrical companies, the enterprising managers of which exploited young child-artists. But one does not even want to mention all this when one comes to think about real art.

My idea was to create a special theatre which would carry great art to its little spectators, a theatre where the best playwrights, musicians and artists would create a new art — an art for children.

The performances in this theatre would be given daily and the young audience would come to it as to its new home — a home of joy.

And what at first seemed an unrealisable dream has come true. The opening of the Moscow Children's Theatre was soon followed by the organisation of similar theatres in other cities of the Soviet Union. And now these theatres have become so tightly interwoven with the life of Soviet children that in the near future there will be not a single big city in the USSR without its own theatre for children.

One must bear in mind that these theatres require not only moral but also the material support of the State, as children pay only 40 copeks for a seat and part of the tickets are distributed free. Where, except the Soviet Union, could such a scale of organisation be possible?

I should also like to dwell upon the opportunities which the October Revolution has given to us women. There is now no field of activity, no leading post where a capable woman could not work as an equal of man.

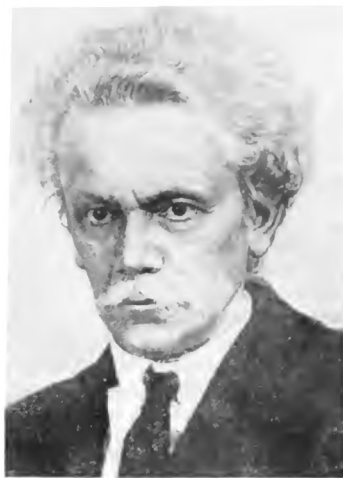
I was not even fifteen, when the October Revolution enabled me to work on my favourite job. And now if I am the director, art supervisor and producer of the theatre I have created, could I ever separate all this from the soil which made my work possible?

A. GOLDENVEISER,

Professor of music at the Moscow Conservatory, Honourary Worker of Art

The art of music, one of the most powerful means for uniting the working masses, which can so easily do away with national and racial frontiers, has up to the present

day served almost exclusively the privileged classes of society, and still remains inaccessible to the wide worker and peasant masses.



Only in the USSR has there been set before us musicians the task to acquaint the labouring masses with the finest examples of the musical heritage, and above all to create such music and to train such musicians and pedagogues who would be able to serve not only a small privileged group, but all the toilers both in the USSR and in the whole world.

A. KRAVCHENKO

Painter

In my studio, among easels and tools, I make pictures, woodcuts, engravings portraying revolutionary struggle and construction work, agitating for definite political ideas.

I think and feel sure that in my own way with paint-brush and chisel — I help to build up socialism in the Soviet Union.

The tasks of Soviet art, tremendous as they are in their scope, demand from me first and foremost a true representation of contemporary life; therefore I must go personally to the building sites in order to witness everything with my own eyes and to become imbued by the real enthusiasm and greatness of the construction.

I went to Dnieprostroy (a large series of my woodcuts are devoted to this huge project), visited many factories, and now I am thinking of spending some time in the Red Navy. Everywhere I find new themes, wonderful in their sharpness and artistic pathos.

I recall how the October days and the civil war inspired us artists. The Revolution poured new life into the senescent, formally-esthetic art of old Russia.

The Revolution gave entirely new themes to plastic arts. The enthusiasm, the pathos of struggle and construction proved a real source of inspiration for artists. Instead of pandering to the desires of the aristocracy and the bourgeoisie, the painter's work can now satisfy the demands of the working masses. We receive numerous orders from the Red Army, from our national galleries and museums, worker clubs, rest homes etc.

If in capitalist countries art is dying under pressure of the crisis, in the Soviet Union art lives an extremely intense and vigorous life. The artist fully realises his responsibility before the country and gives of his best in order to create works of the highest quality, with regard both to theme and technique.

We are not isolated from life. We stand in its very core. Ours is a militant art organisation and we are wholly confident



that our work is as necessary for the Soviet Union as any other in the front of cultural revolution.

The opening of Dnieproges

J. STALIN'S MESSAGE

To the chief of Dnieprostroy construction — Comrade Winter.

To the secretary of the Kichkas District Party Committee — Comrade Leibenson.

To the chairman of the District Committee of the Builders Union — Comrade Brovko.

I am sorry I could not comply with your request to be present at the opening of the Dnieper station. I could not possibly

leave Moscow, on account of pressing business.

I warmly greet and congratulate the workers and the administration of Dnieprostroy on their successful completion of this great historical edifice.

I firmly shake hands with the shock-brigaders of Dnieprostroy, the glorious heroes of socialist construction.

J. Stalin.

GREETING FROM THE CENTRAL COMMITTEE OF THE COMMUNIST PARTY OF THE UKRAINE TO THE BUILDERS OF THE DNEIPER POWER STATION

By their shock work the proletarians of Dnieprostroy under the guidance of the Party ensured the bolshevist tempo of construction of the largest hydro-electric station in the world and made the greatest contribution towards the realisation of the Leninist plan of electrification of the USSR.

The staff of workers and the guiding staff, the bolshevik and young communist organisations of Dnieprostroy furnished brilliant examples of the struggle for industrialis-

ation and for the establishment of a new electric base for the socialist industries. The Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Ukraine heartily welcomes the advance detachment of the army of socialist builders — the workers, technicians, engineers, communists and young communists of Dnieprostroy — on the day the world giant power station is set into operation.

The Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Ukraine.

DNEIPROGES — THE LENIN DNEIPER HYDRO-ELECTRIC STATION — IS OPERATING

(From the report of the builders of Dnieprostroy)

Dnieproges has been started. The Leninist plan of electrification, the plan of a genius, is now embodied in the gigantic constructions on the Dnieper. The offspring of the first Five-Year Plan — Dnieproges — is driving along the high-voltage transmission line — 450,000 H. P. — the cheapest electric power in the world. The greatest dam in the world — 760 metres long, 60 metres high, containing 720,000 cubic metres of concrete — has now cut across the powerful Dnieper.

Today the electric smelter for high-grade steel and the mechanical repair works “Zaporozhstal” are being set into operation.

The current has been turned on. Dnieper is now working for socialism. We are con-

fronted with the task of erecting the socialist works of the Dnieper industrial combine within the period fixed by the Party and the Government. Our task is to give the country in the nearest future cast iron, high-grade steel, rolled steel and Soviet aluminium. We shall complete the construction of the giant works of the Dnieper combine at the same speed as Dnieprostroy was erected, taking advantage of the experience gained in its construction.

Long live the Party of the bolsheviks and its Leninist militant Central Committee!

Long live Comrade Stalin, the leader of the Party and of the working class!

Head of the combined Dnieper construction *A. V. Winter.*