

GENERAL INFORMATION

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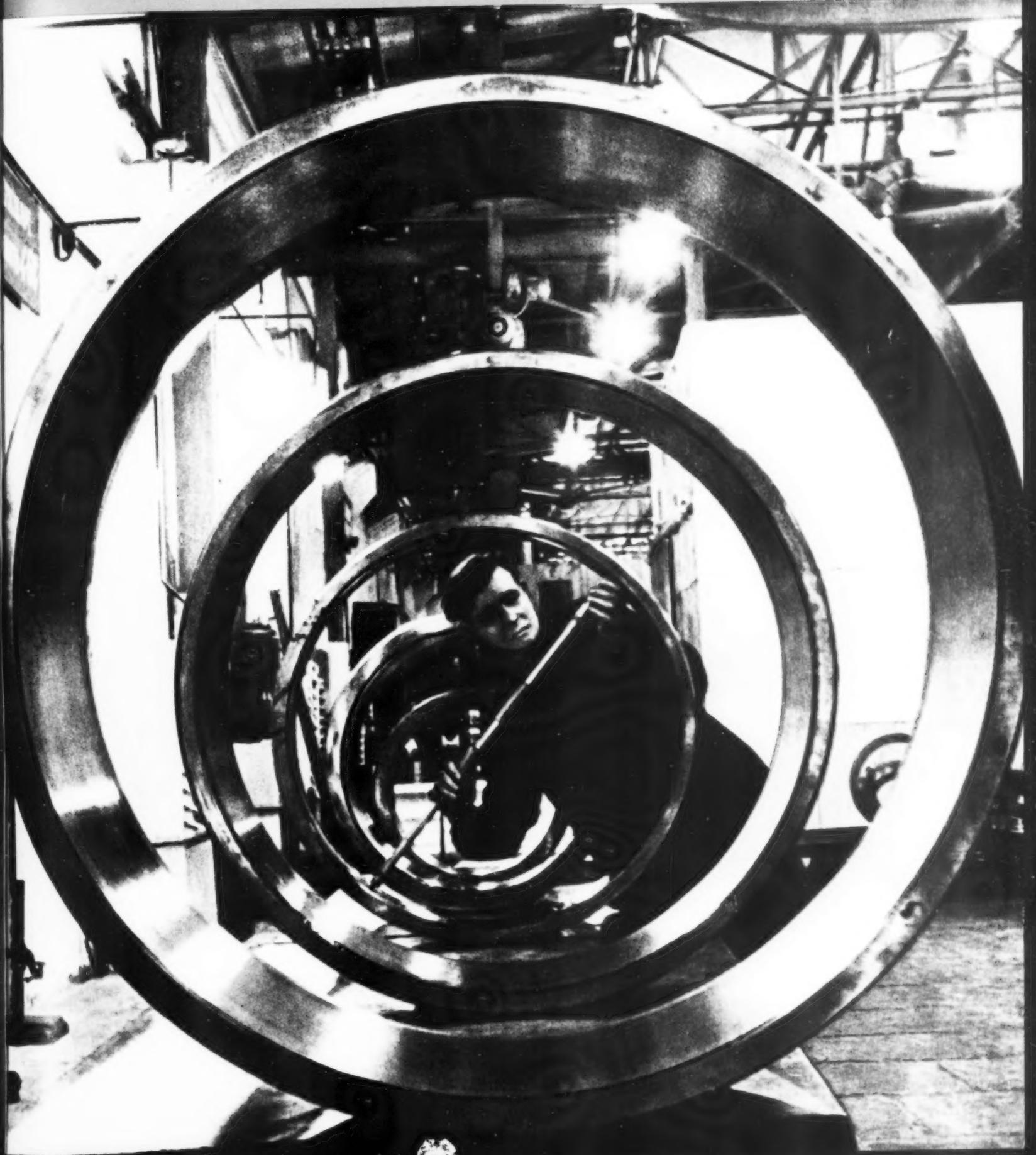
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USSR

CONSTITUTION
OF THE
SOVIET UNION

—See Page 25

No. 12 (27)—20 Cents



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THE SOVIET UNION IS ONE GIANT CONSTRUCTION SITE WITH 1958'S RECORD BUILDING OF PLANTS AND APARTMENTS.

USSR

ILLUSTRATED MONTHLY

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Front cover: Bearings of all sizes roll out in answer to industry's expanding needs.

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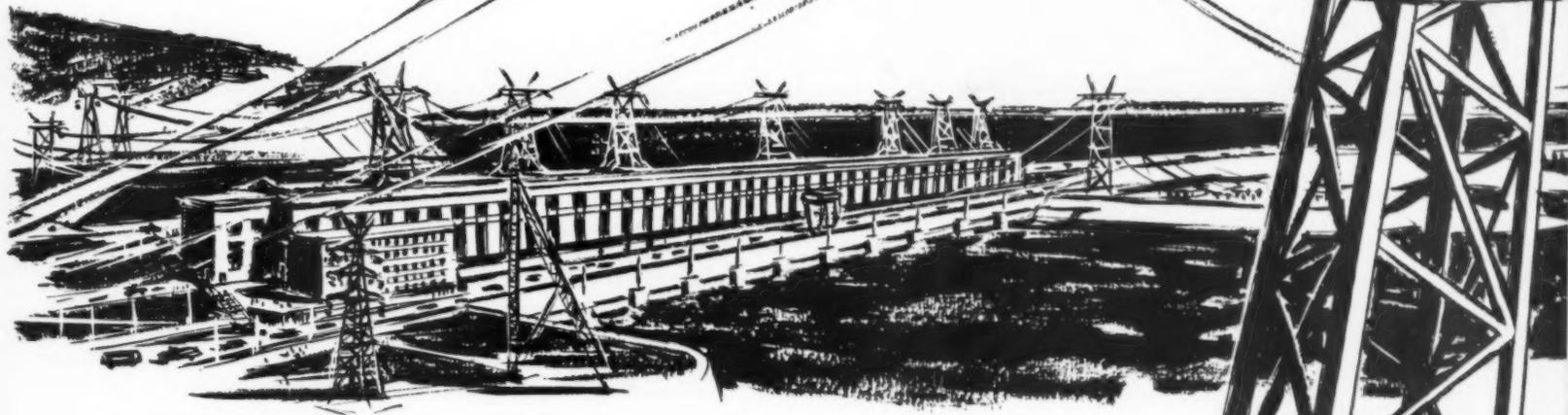
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1959

NEW HORIZONS



AS DECEMBER days march across the calendar, the Soviet people are increasingly taken up in heart and mind with the advent of the New Year, with its traditional bustle and gaiety. But while we joyfully greet the arrival of promising 1959, we do not forget to give 1958 its just due.

The past year's achievements have been many. We have seen Sputnik III, a ton and a half earth satellite, thrust up toward the stars, whirling around the globe and symbolizing the speed with which modern science and technology are breaking the barriers of time and space—a symbol, too, of the advance of Soviet economy generally.

Sputnik's voice was heard round the world—confirming that the socialist system has called into being inexhaustible creative forces, that socialism has to its credit achievements in all spheres of modern life. Its voice reminded mankind of man's dominion over nature and the possibilities for peaceful coexistence all over the world.

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While Sputnik has been tracing its orbit in outer space, everyday life down on earth is bringing our country continuous progress. Look at industry in 1958. The first half-year showed a 10.5 per cent increase over last year's comparable period and estimates point to the fact that the increase in the second half-year has been about the same.

It was only a few years ago that Soviet turbine builders were congratulated for turning out turbines of 100,000-kilowatt capacity. This past year they were working on turbines with capacities ranging from 300,000 to 600,000 kilowatts. This is just one instance which can be repeated for almost every branch of industry.

Construction in 1958, both industrial and housing, gave the country the feeling of one enormous building site. The huge Lenin Hydroelectric Station on the Volga, near the city of Kuibyshev, was finished in 1958 and is now operating. The first unit of the new atomic power plant started work last summer. Blast furnaces, mines, gas pipelines, chemical plants, machine-building factories—all newly built by the score last year.

Housing construction took a big jump forward with larger budget allocations. Every third minute around the 1958 clock another new apartment was made available for a Soviet family at rentals running no higher than 3 to 5 per cent of the worker's monthly wage.

Advancing side by side with socialist industry is socialist agriculture. Soviet farmers did very well with an excellent harvest in spite of a bad weather year. Bumper crops from the millions of acres of virgin lands upturned in recent years have generously rewarded our people for their good work and repaid the great efforts that had been expended to make them productive. All of this made for higher farm incomes and a larger choice of foodstuffs for the consumer at lower prices.

In consumer goods production, output was markedly increased over last year, but in some areas it still is insufficient to meet the constantly mounting demand. A concentration point for industry during the past year, it will receive even heavier emphasis in this year coming.

The Soviet people are now preparing for the 21st Congress of the Communist Party which will be setting goals for the country's development in the next seven years. The control figures to be set call for a veritable giant step forward in industry and farming, and by that token, in every aspect of the country's work, from sputniks and schools to ships and shoes.

The Soviet Union was 41 years old in 1958, a very short period as history counts time in which to educate millions, to build houses, farms,



factories, hospitals and theaters for a nation, to rebuild an economy that had been severely damaged during two world wars. Today with 7 per cent of the world's population, the Soviet Union accounts for nearly 20 per cent of the world's industrial output.

Statistics of this kind, however, are meaningful only if they can be translated into human terms. This one is directly translated in every Soviet home into material values and into values, although not so tangible, none the less making for a rich life.

One of the most felicitous comments to be made on the past year's progress is the striking display of creativity in so many fields. It was not long after the Socialist Revolution of 1917 that Lenin commented with prophetic insight: "At the present time we cannot even imagine exactly what rich forces are latent in the working masses . . . and will develop under a socialist system of society. Our task is merely to clear the way for these forces."

Those latent forces have blossomed richly in every area of Soviet life. The many pioneering thinkers, inventors and innovators who emerged from the people in 1958 were honored by the country for their achievements. The very great contribution made by young people in building new life was especially marked by the celebration of the 40th anniversary of the Young Communist League.

The past year brought more contact with peoples everywhere in the world, many more thousands than ever before coming to visit the Soviet Union. Undoubtedly for many it was a first sight of things Soviet, a first meeting with the Soviet people.

Guests from abroad were met hospitably and warmly, were shown through cities and villages, factories and farms, schools and research laboratories that told their own eloquent story of these difficult but vastly creative four decades of socialism. Particularly welcome were those visitors who came from the United States, exchange artists and members of exchange delegations of students, businessmen, teachers, engineers—only a sampling, the Soviet people hope, of the heavy traffic that will be flowing in 1959 between the two countries—a flow of people, ideas and commodities.

1958 has, all in all, been a good year for the Soviet Union. The plans made for it were met, the work planned out for it was done, the foundation laid for greater progress next year and the years following. So that with whatever regret we usher out the familiar old year, we look forward to the new, yet untried one, with hope and expectation for continued peace and progress. ■





The 20 pavilions of the USSR Industrial Exhibition in Moscow draw big crowds of domestic and foreign visitors to the working models of new machinery and tools for industry and agriculture. Also most popular with the public are the displays of the newest appliances and conveniences for the consumer. The first of the 1959 models of the Chaika (Seagull) automobiles were introduced here among the more than 60,000 articles of Soviet manufacture—some 10,000 more than the year before.



USSR Industrial Exhibition

WHAT'S NEW in Soviet industry? The answer to that question is on public display for seven months every year at the USSR Industrial Exhibition in Moscow. Here is a panorama of technological progress seen annually by at least ten million visitors from all parts of the Soviet Union and many foreign countries—the work done in machine building, mining, metallurgy, chemistry, power engineering, aviation, rocketry, radio-electronics, telemechanics, automation, atomic research, housing, consumer goods production and scores of other fields.

All the machines, instruments, models and samples are there to be observed, closely examined and studied. This year's display has some 60,000 exhibits of all kinds, 10,000 more than last year.

This is not merely a quantitative increase, it attests to the opening of new fields of research and to progress in the older fields. Half of last year's machines and models have been replaced with more advanced types. To cite the engineering industry as one example, 1,500 new types of most important machines were developed since last year's exhibition.

Correlated with progress in the basic industries comes greater headway in consumer



SOVIET INDUSTRY

on DISPLAY

By Andrei Ionov and Alexander Mokletsov

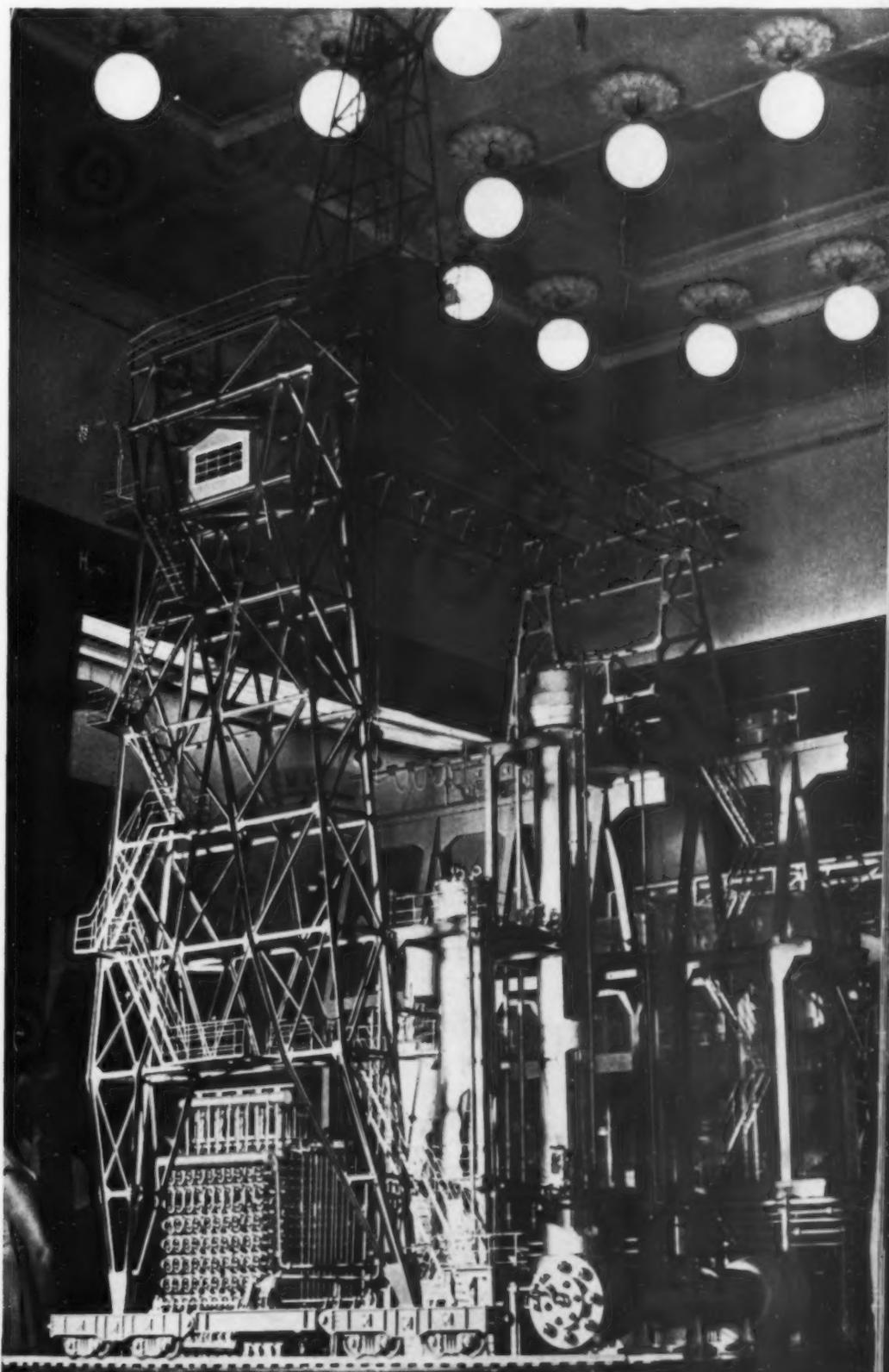
goods production. Displayed at this year's exhibition are many new natural and artificial fabrics, a multitude of new footwear, clothing, knitgoods and leathers. More than half of the 1,500 samples of cotton, woolen and silk fabrics are being shown for the first time. Some of the articles won highest prizes for quality at the Brussels Fair—silk fabrics made by the Red Rose Mill, new woolens for coats, suits and dresses, fur garments made in Kazan.

The exhibition has a comprehensive display of developments in atomic energy for peaceful uses. The exhibit of safeguards that have been devised against radiation is particularly graphic. The most dramatic device is a complex manipulator moved by remote control.

The operator working with radioactive substance looks through a hermetically sealed glass and uses a pair of mechanical hands on the other side of a thick wall to hold the miniature test tubes, to pour the exact quantity of liquid required and to screw on the cover. These remarkable hands, to display their dexterity, will also strike a match for the visitor and light his cigarette.

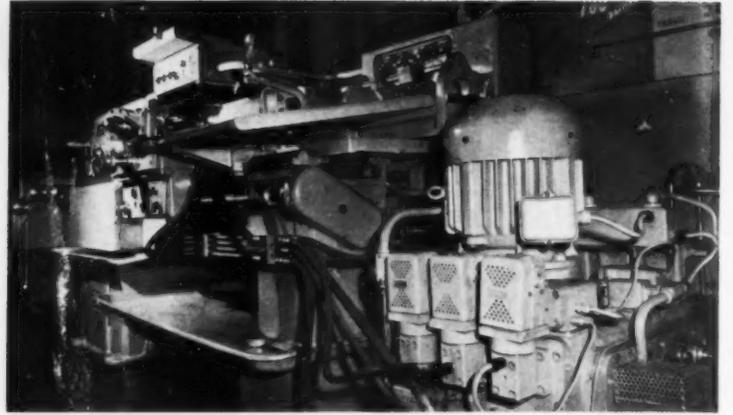
The number of chemical industry exhibits
Continued on page 10

The number of the chemical industry exhibits has been doubled within a single year. Although full sized machines and equipment comprise many of the items, necessarily some are erected in small scale working models such as the one shown here for the production of ammonia. New synthetic fabrics, now well into production, aroused the interest of women folk, while new building materials caught the eye of home builders and construction engineers at the current exhibition.

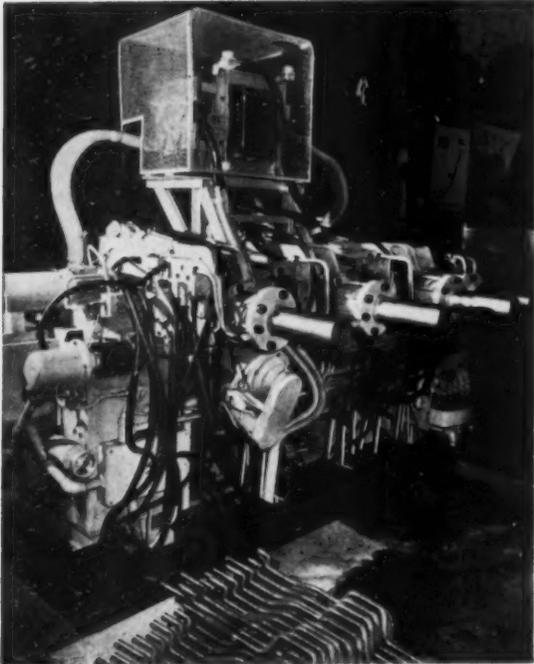




**USSR
Industrial
Exhibition**



Half of the machines shown last year were replaced by new models for the display of this year. This machine tool with program control can be easily put into automatic production lines.

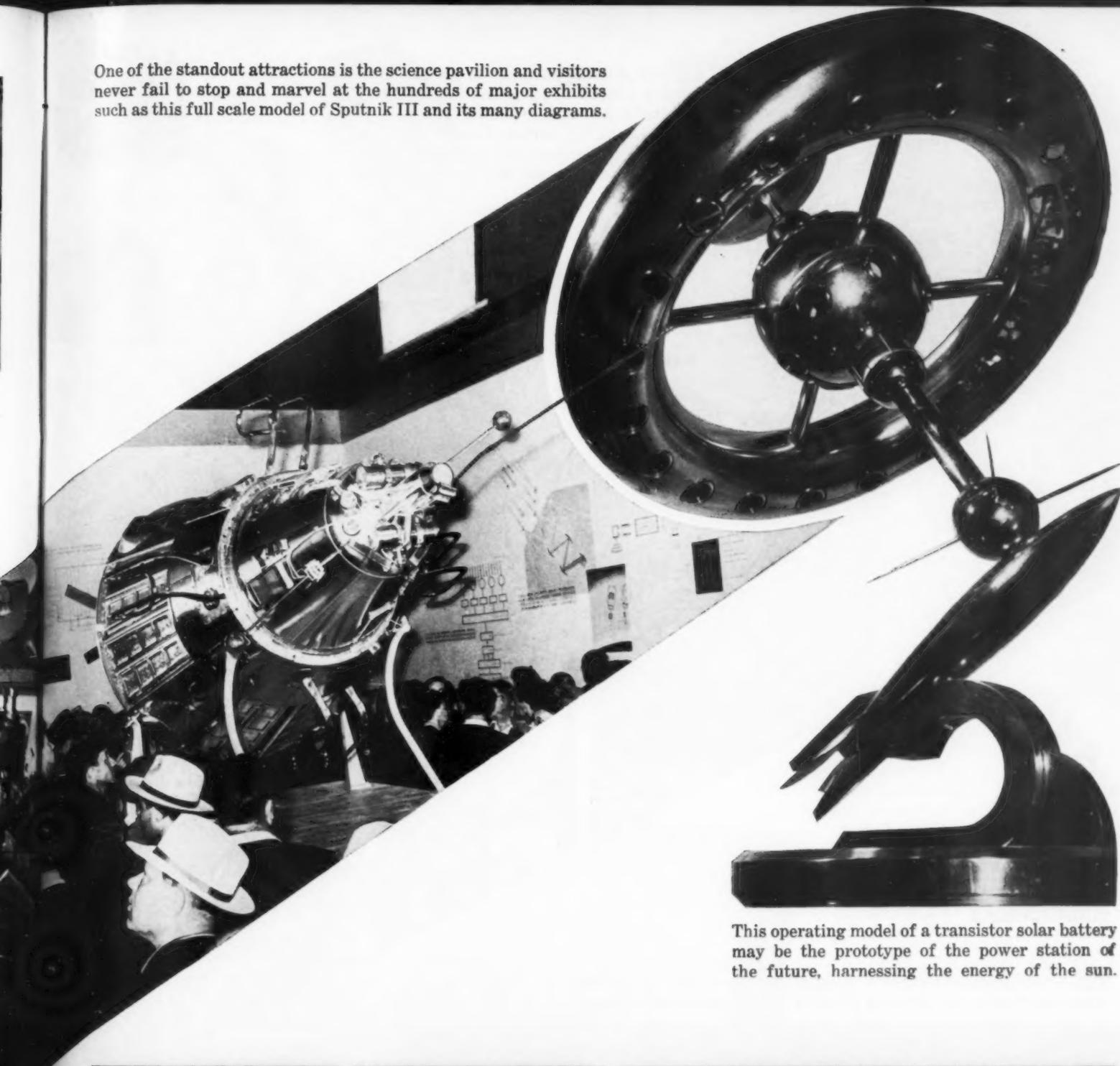


Many displays are dominated by automation and electronics. The tool shown here is designed to form six-crank shafts of different configuration.

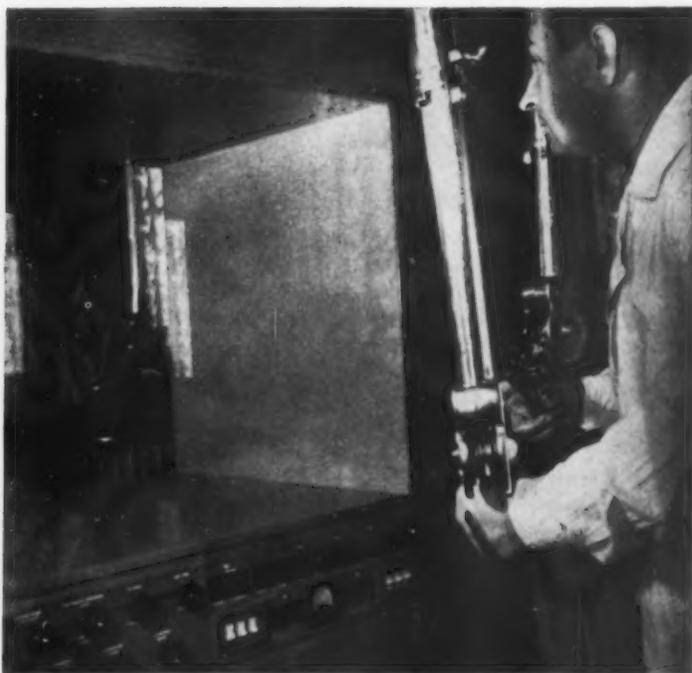
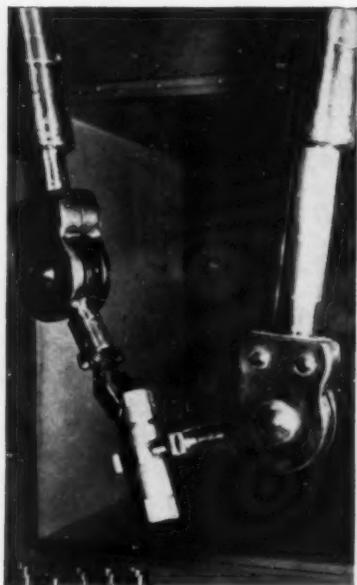


Few exhibits can outdraw these automatic lathes, recently put into production. They can center, cut and then polish and clean 13 different parts once set by an operator.

One of the standout attractions is the science pavilion and visitors never fail to stop and marvel at the hundreds of major exhibits such as this full scale model of Sputnik III and its many diagrams.

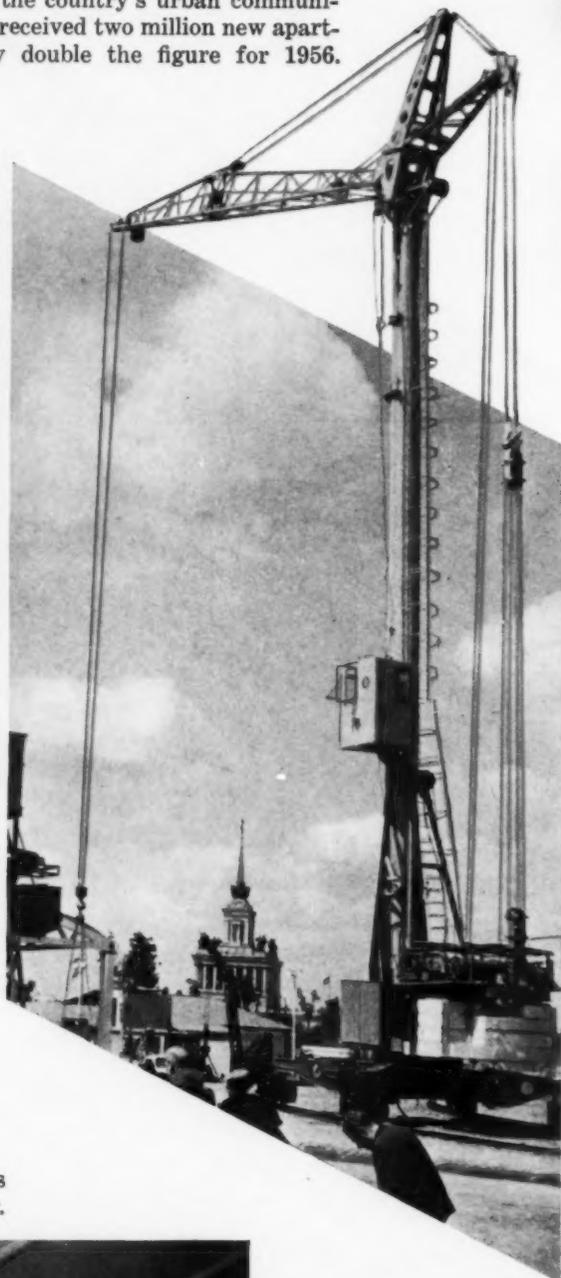


This operating model of a transistor solar battery may be the prototype of the power station of the future, harnessing the energy of the sun.



This pair of mechanical hands operated by remote control can bottle and then cap the "hot stuff" of atomic research or just as capably strike a match and light a visitor's cigarette.

Exhibits showing advances in pre-fabricated housing and in building machinery attract the attention of many visitors. This year the population of the country's urban communities alone has received two million new apartments—nearly double the figure for 1956.

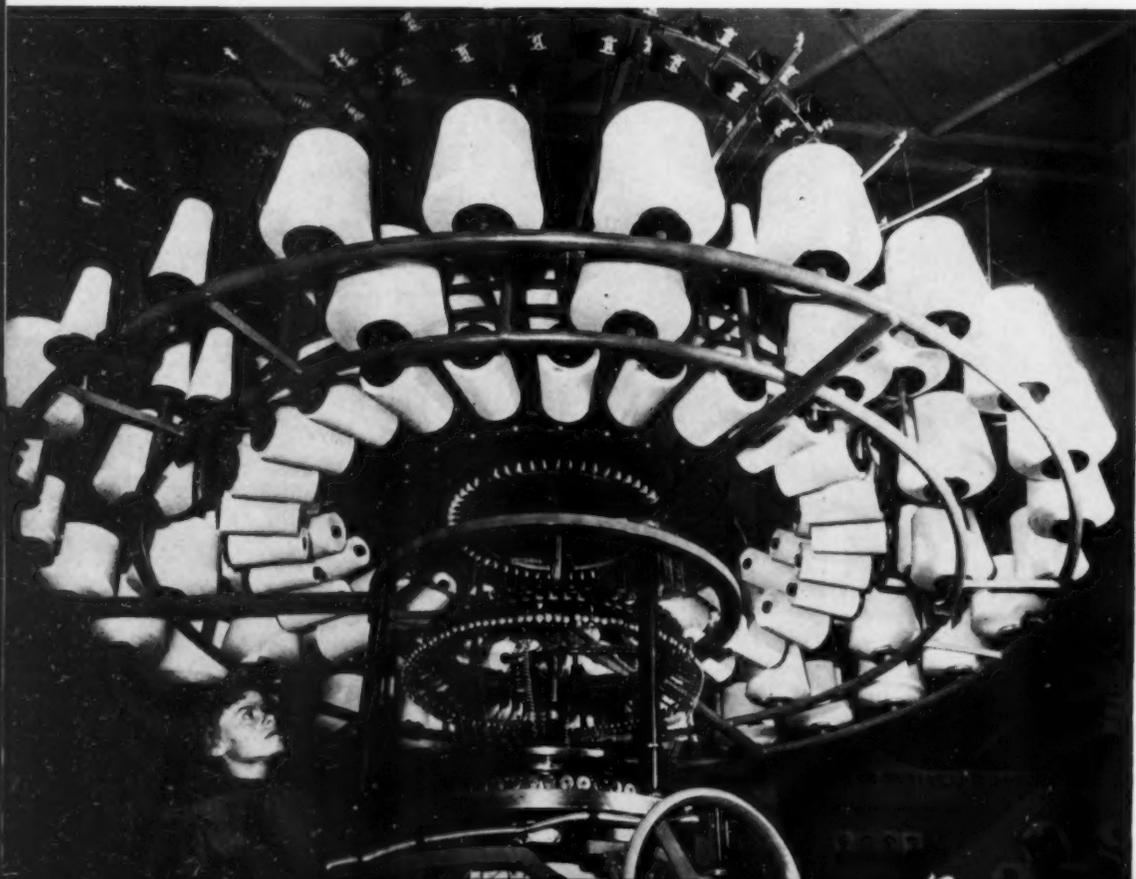


Soviet
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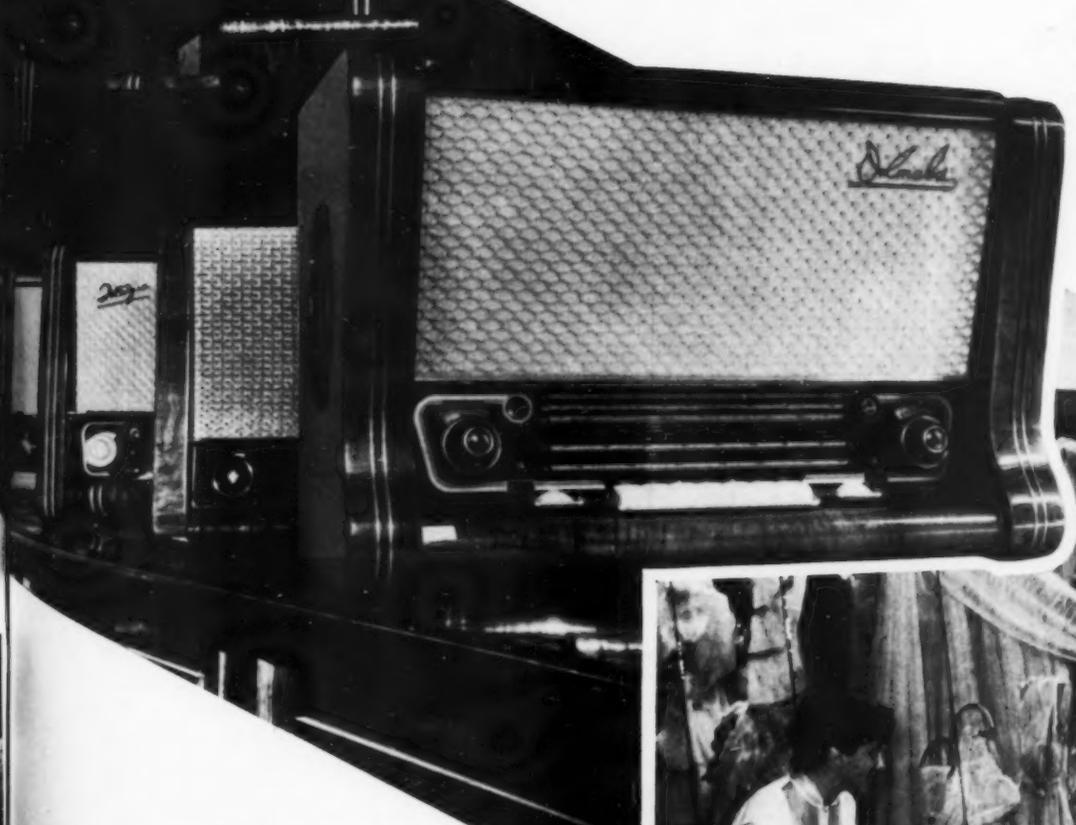
This newly designed automatic knitting machine runs 112 bobbins with each thread controlled by an independent electric self-stopper.



Soviet cameras are produced in a wide variety of types to meet the needs of both amateur and professional photographers. There is also a good choice of other photo equipment and supplies.



Here are just a few of the latest models of TV and radio sets, phonographs and tape recorders. Their designs incorporate all new features developed in recent years. Among the attractions for housewives are new automatic sewing machines.



The newest in women's wear made from artificial and synthetic fibers.



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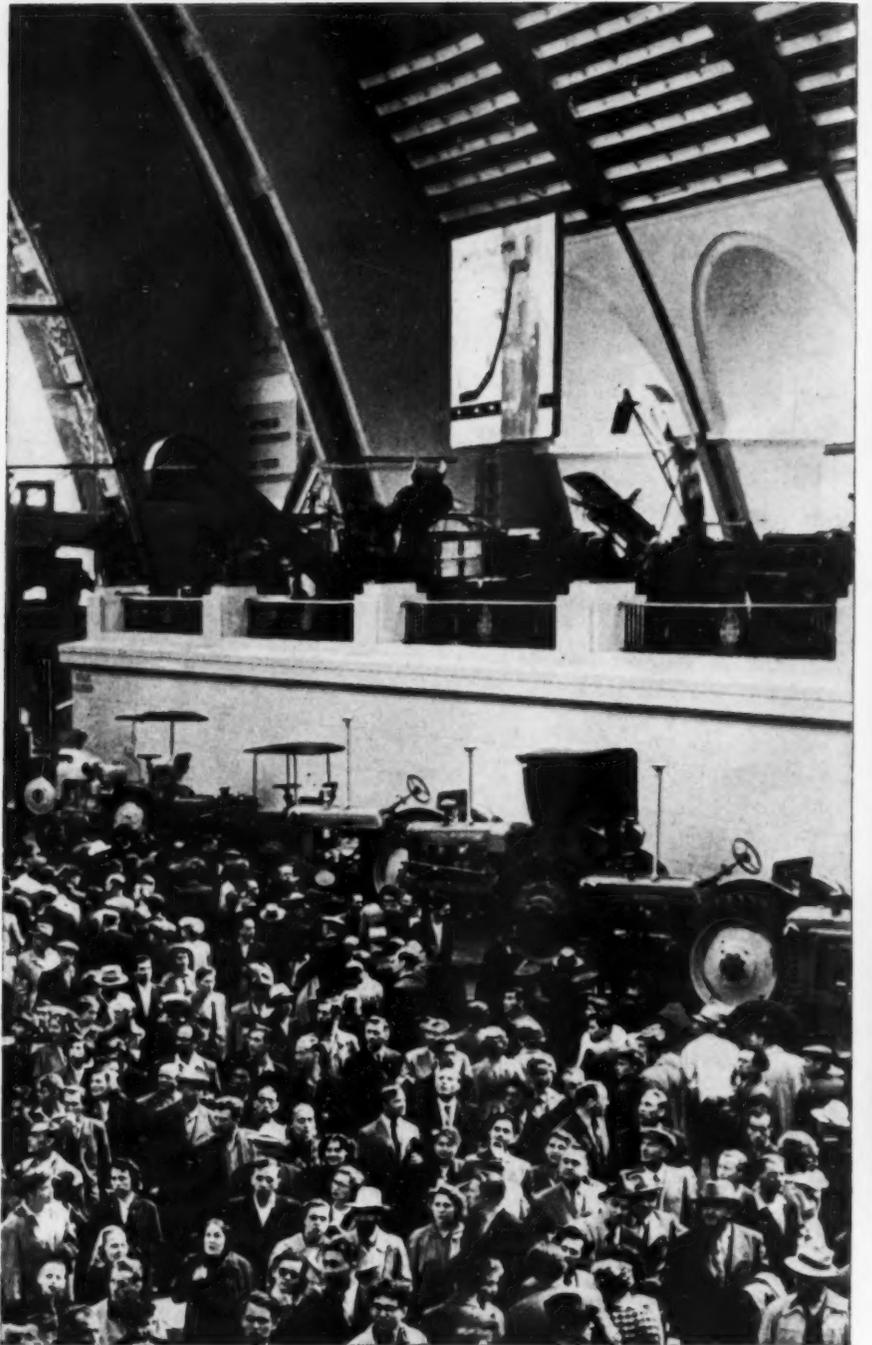
SOVIET INDUSTRY on DISPLAY

Continued from page 5

displayed this year is double that of last year. The diagrams tell the story of rapid expansion of artificial and synthetic fiber production in the Soviet Union. In the next few years there are to be 11 additional large plants built for the production of fabrics for clothing, 20 for silk fabrics and 28 for knitted fabrics.

Chemists working in the field of synthetics are very close students of these exhibits. Construction engineers visit the exhibition to observe the new types of building materials developed to facilitate and speed up housing construction. Furniture designers come to check on new products of the furniture industry, which is constantly growing to keep pace with the housing program.

The exhibition has come to be known as "a school of technical progress and advanced experience." The guides can barely manage to answer the flow of questions. Many visitors gather in the exhibition halls to listen to lectures by scientists, engineers, and eminent workers sharing their findings. The latest achievements in technology were the subject of discussion at 500 conferences held at the exhibition during the past year. ■

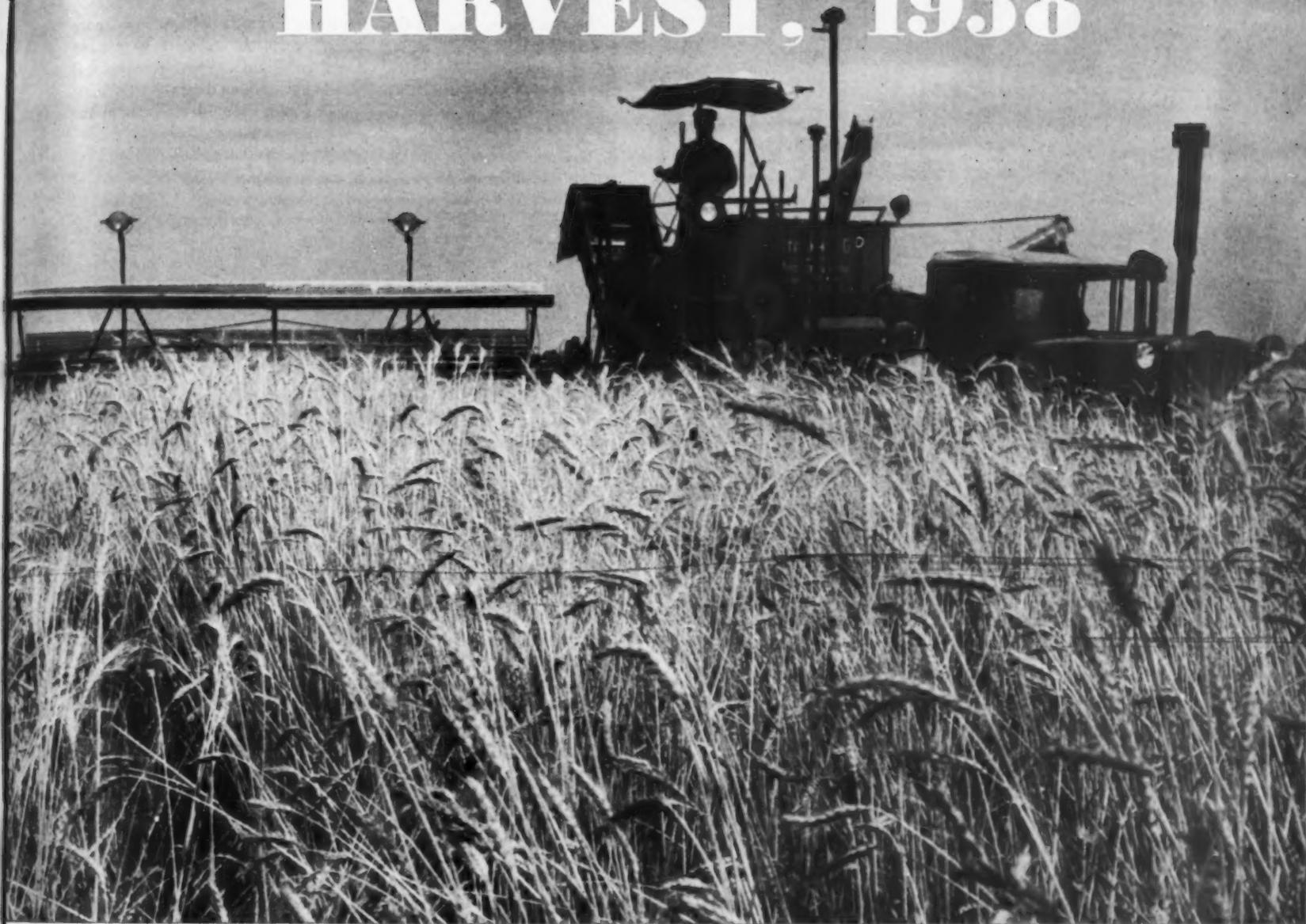


Big crowds pack the agricultural pavilion to view the huge new tractors and combines, while similar throngs inspect turbo-drills and earth-moving giants put on exhibit by the Soviet machine-building industry.



The versatility of the agile caterpillar tractor has made it the backbone of both construction and large scale farming.

HARVEST, 1958



By Yevgeni Chekmenyov

Deputy USSR Minister of Agriculture

THIS has been a good year for Soviet farmers, with bumper yields reported from almost every region. The crop is the biggest the country has ever harvested, the acreage the largest it has ever sown.

In the past five years our cultivated farm land has been enlarged by 95 million acres, most of it in the east, in the Volga steppes and in Siberian and Kazakhstan lands never before turned by a plow. This enormous stretch of arable land which now runs upward of 480 million acres returned a yield in many cases as high as a ton and a half of wheat and more per acre.

Before the virgin lands were cultivated, the trans-Ural, Siberia and Kazakhstan could be expected to give a maximum 11 million tons of marketable grain. This year's crop runs better than 36 million. Impressive, too, are reports from the Volga regions, where farmers have to cope with drought year in and year out. The Saratov region is a case in point. This region's collective and state farms, as a result of an additional 2.5 million acres of new land sown in these past five years and improved cultivation, were able to sell 2.9 million tons of grain this year as compared with 900,000 tons in 1953 and 1.8 million in 1956.

Although it is early at this writing to do more than estimate the total harvest, the partial figures presently available speak for themselves: by October 10, the collective and state farms had sold close to 27

million more tons of grain than they had sold by this time in 1953. Sugar beet producers reported equally good yields, with crops larger than last year's by five to six million tons. The same good tidings arrived from growers of cotton, sunflower seeds, tea, vegetables and fruit.

More Machines—Bigger Harvest

In a country the size of ours, it is very rare that growing weather will be favorable everywhere. This year, as a matter of fact, it was especially unfavorable. Spring came late, stayed cold and unsettled and delayed sowing. Summer in the Volga, the trans-Ural and other eastern regions was dry and too hot. Harvesting in Kazakhstan and Siberia was hindered by rains of torrent dimensions, in some places by snow storms. In spite of weather, the bigger crops were nevertheless gathered earlier than last year.

To account for this bumper harvest gathered in record time one would have to list all the many factors which have contributed to the country's growth since 1917. But one factor is most clearly and most directly responsible—the over-all mechanization of Soviet farming and the greater numbers of diesel tractors, pendant farm imple-

Continued on next page

1958



ELEVATORS THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY GROAN, FILLED TO THE BRIM WITH GRAIN.

HARVEST, 1958

ments and machines for technical crops and two-stage harvesting available to state and collective farms this year.

Most of the bigger machines were bought from the machine and tractor stations which were reorganized this spring. Before then the collective farms were serviced by the stations on a contract arrangement. This concentration of machinery by state-operated stations was economically necessary at the time and was a carefully calculated national policy dictated by the fact that the newly organized collective farms had neither the money to buy machines nor the skilled men to operate and service them. To wait until the farms could buy the machines and train the operators would have been to delay mechanization for years. The government therefore took the job over, allocated the funds necessary and set up a nationwide network of machine and tractor stations.

In the interim, the collective farms have grown and prospered and a host of operators and mechanics have been trained. The time was appropriate for a change and the stations were converted into repair and sales agencies and their machines sold to the collective farms.

With machinery of all types directly to hand this year, the collective farms were able to organize work more expeditiously and to save time lost by inclement weather. To cite the Saratov region again, as example, very hot weather set in just before the harvest, with every indication that scorching winds could be expected to blow in from the Central Asian deserts that would burn up the crops.

The collective and state farms, with every available man and machine at work, finished reaping in a matter of days. When the murderous winds did come, the grain lay already cut and all the combines had to do was to move along the rows for threshing. Had the Saratov farmers been delayed by lack of adequate numbers of machines, the crops would have burnt up.

An old Russian saying has it, "It's not the earth that grows grain, but good hands." Soviet farmers would amend it to read "... good hands running good farm machines."

Continuous Growth

Another factor that worked toward this year's harvest was more scientific cultivation. The agricultural research institutes have been doing most valuable research in land cultivation. They have assisted the collective farms in making up soil charts which determine the most productive methods of fertilization and cultivation in the light of the peculiar physical and chemical properties of the regional soils.

The big harvest is attributable also to the nature and breadth of training of farm specialists. There are more than 370,000 graduates of agricultural schools working on Soviet farms now, and many millions of farmers who each year add to their knowledge of farm practice with courses offered at all collective farms.

In our informal competition with American farmers, we are moving ahead rapidly in a number of directions. In the production of some crops we lead the United States—we produce two and a half times as much wheat, three times as much sugar beet, and two and a half times as much wool. In other areas, we are still behind but making large strides forward.

During the first six months of the year, Soviet stockbreeders increased their herds by some 16 million heads as compared with a 13-million-head increase for the same period last year. Milk yield in the period went up 6 per cent and meat production 16 per cent. With this year's bumper harvest, Soviet stockbreeders and dairymen have feed to spare. This forecasts a large increase in meat, milk and butter production. By October 10, some 155 million tons of silage had been stored as compared with 35 million tons for all of 1953.

This harvest year may be regarded as the target result of the ambitious farm plan for the country adopted in 1953. In accord with the plan certain measures were undertaken to stimulate production—wider mechanization, larger sums for farm buildings and machinery, reduction in farm taxes, rise in prices for staple farm crops.

The results are evident in the average annual growth of farm output these past four years—the figure reached was 7.1 per cent as compared with 1.6 per cent for the four years preceding the plan's adoption.

Bumper Crop and Consumer

A bumper crop is front page news in Soviet papers, featured in magazine articles and played up on radio and television. It is big news because of the interrelation of farm to factory, of producer to consumer that is characteristic of a socialist country where all productive forces are geared to meet the needs of the worker-consumer population. Were it not for industrial progress, agriculture would have remained at the miserably low productive level it had been for centuries before. Conversely, the present production peak of Soviet farming is responsible for a rising standard for the whole country. The more food grown, the more food at lower prices is available for the nation's table.

THIS GRAIN HARVESTER TEAM REAPED 247 ACRES PER DAY ON A SIBERIAN FARM.





ENDLESS STREAMS OF TRUCKS TAKE COTTON TO A GIN IN THE TADJIK REPUBLIC.

Retail prices during the past 10 years have dropped 2.3 times, with even larger cuts in prices of bread, meat, butter and other staples. At the same time the income of industrial and office workers has steadily risen. Only as a result of wage increases for lower-paid groups, higher pensions and other measures at the expense of the national budget, the general income of the population in 1957 increased by about 41 billion rubles over 1955 and by another 60 billion in 1958.

Along with higher income comes increased purchasing power and a greater demand for the better and more costly foodstuffs. This is generally reflected most immediately in amounts of foodstuffs sold. If we compare the year 1957 with 1932, we find that the sale of meat increased by nearly 3.5 times, butter by 9.5 times, milk and dairy products 11 times, sugar 5 times. In the first six months of this year sales of these foods mounted another 14 to 18 per cent.

This ever-growing demand guarantees the continuous development of the Soviet farm. Here is a market which is continually expanding through purchasing power which is continually growing. There is no problem here of surplus farm products.

Farmer's Income

The collective farms sell the bulk of their crops to government purchasing agencies and the remainder to the cooperatives or at the public markets. The prices paid by the government, which tend to fix cooperative and market prices also, are regulated by such factors as collective farm overhead, allowance for capital expansion and individual collective farmer's income.

In the past five years larger output and higher government crop purchase prices have raised collective farm income by 66 billion rubles. It amounted in 1957 to more than 97 billion rubles. The individual collective farmer's payment for his work trebled during this same period while his taxes were lowered. As for taxes, it is noteworthy that prior to the Revolution, taxes, assessments and levies accounted for about 20 per cent of the individual farmer's income; today all this comes to no more than 4 per cent of his income.

High collective farm income has made money available for capital construction—outbuildings, utilities, recreation centers and housing. In 1957 collective farms invested close to 24 billion rubles in construction, 13 billion more than in 1952. Farm people during the last year alone built 770,000 homes, mostly financed out of personal savings. Since the war literally tens of thousands of villages have been rebuilt and modernized.

Designed to further stimulate production a new system of government procurements and farm prices was adopted by the national legislature earlier this year. It has already proved its merit, if one is to judge by the reaction of farm people and the size of the year's harvest.

Farming is not only a profitable occupation in the Soviet Union, it is one which commands public respect. In the past few years more than 210,000 farmers have been honored with medals and awards for their

work in one or another farm specialty. For outstanding achievement, 1,100 farmers have won the title Hero of Socialist Labor—the highest award in the Soviet Union.

Planning for 1959-1965

Soviet farmers did well this year. They will do even better next year and the years after. On January 27 the Twenty-first Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union will open its deliberations in Moscow to consider target figures for the further expansion of the economy. The plan will cover the seven-year period between 1959 and 1965 and will set goals for agriculture as well as all other segments of Soviet production.

Where up to now the major farm emphasis has been toward expanding cultivated acreage and the animal husbandry program, the new plan will concentrate on better use of land and on increasing yield per land and per livestock unit.

The new seven-year plan foresees more productivity through more effective mechanization, universal application of advanced agricultural practice, the general use of high-yield grades of seed and breeds of livestock, and larger production of mineral fertilizers.

New irrigation systems will carry more water to Central Asia and the Transcaucasus and drain the swamps of Byelorussia and the Baltic regions. In the droughty steppes forest belts will be planted to shelter the fields from the hot dry winds so that new orchards and vineyards, citrus groves and tea plantations can be grown.

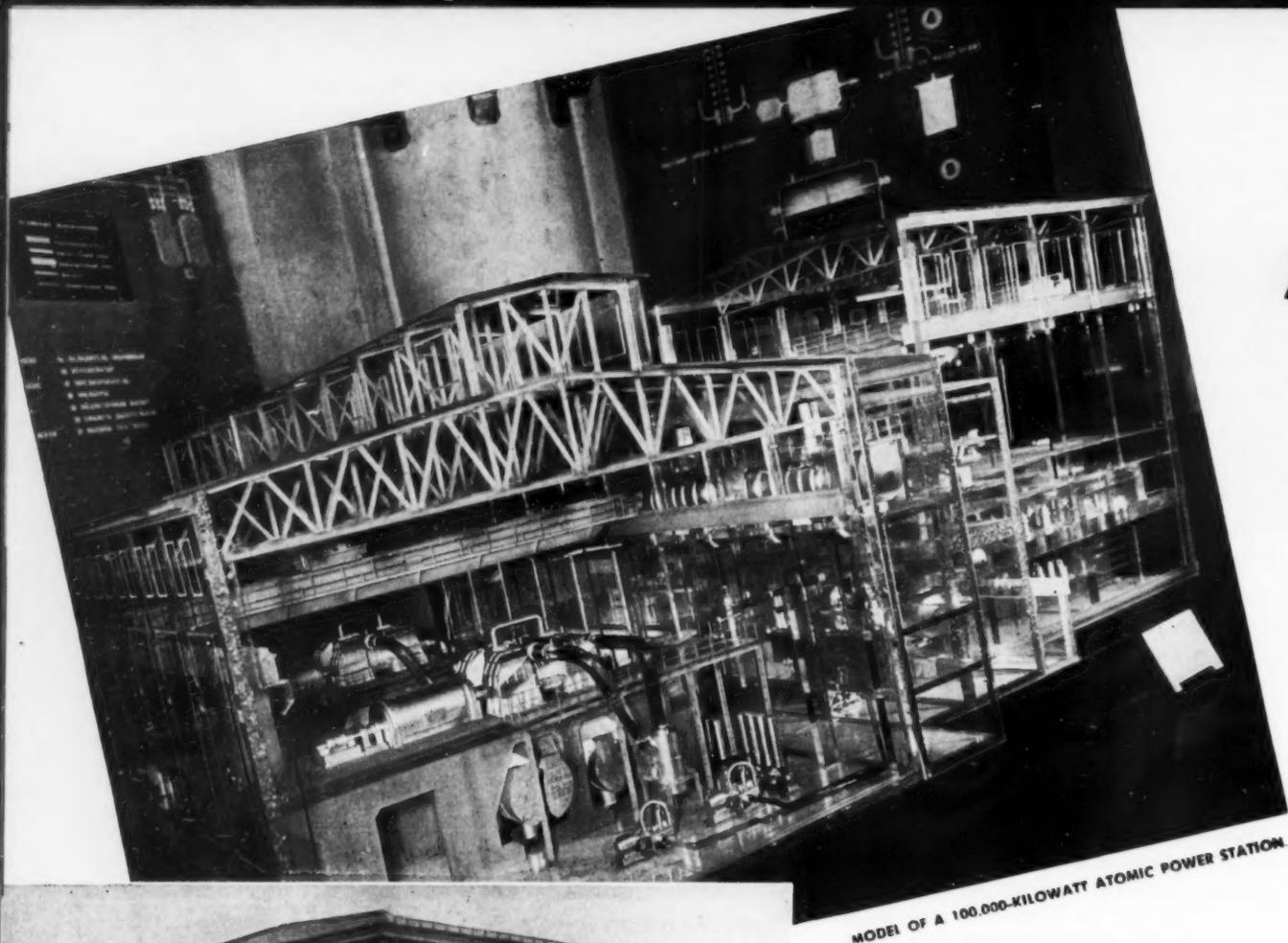
Soviet farmers have not been waiting for this ambitious and wide-ranging plan to be legislated, they have already begun to carry it out by sowing the winter crop and readying their fields for the next bumper harvest. It will come, they say, next fall. ■

FLUID MILK VOLUME HITS WORLD RECORD LEVELS AS SOVIET CONSUMPTION SOARS.



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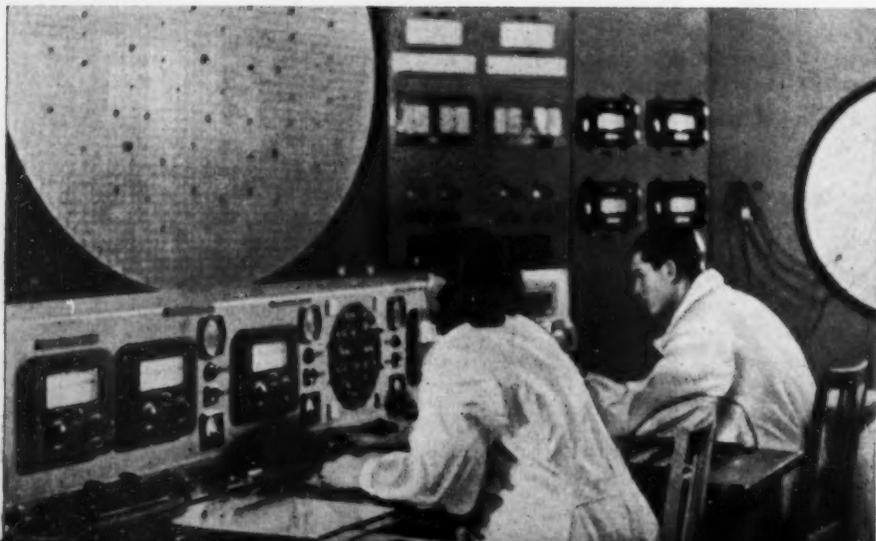


MODEL OF A 100,000-KILOWATT ATOMIC POWER STATION



HOUSED HERE IS THE REACTOR OF THE SECOND SOVIET ATOMIC POWER STATION

THE COMPLEX CONTROL PANEL IS OPERATED AT A CONSIDERABLE DISTANCE FROM THE NUCLEAR REACTOR.



THE SOVIET UNION'S—and the world's—first atomic power station is now in its fifth year of operation. The importance of this experimental station is far larger than its actual capacity for generating electricity, a comparatively low 5,000 kilowatts. It represents four years of working proof that nuclear energy can be successfully harnessed for power production.

A new atomic station with a far greater peak capacity—600,000 kilowatts—is now being built. The initial section producing 100,000 kilowatts was placed in operation this year. Built into the reactor, the turbine and the panels of instruments is the invaluable experience gathered by physicists, engineers and builders with the experimental station.

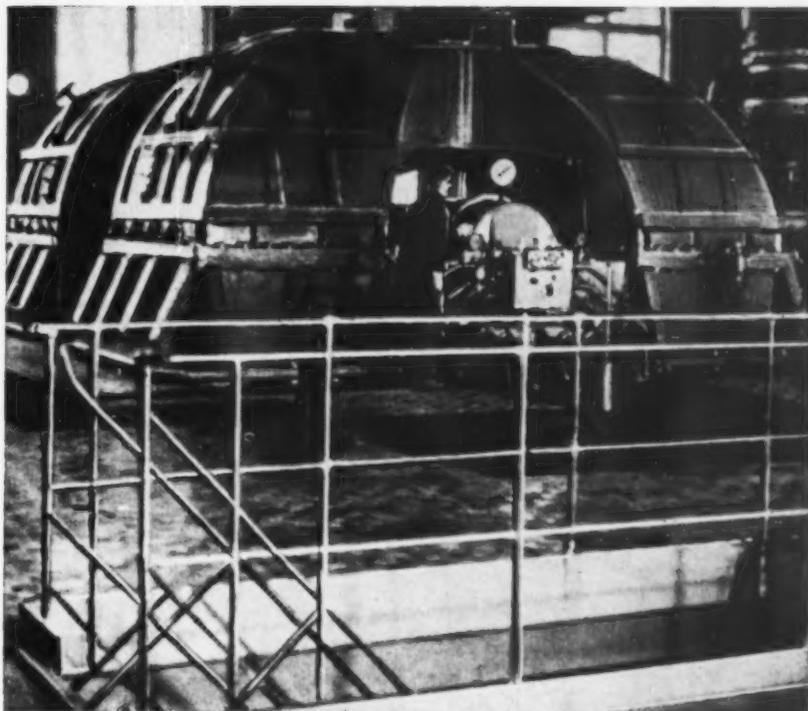
Here is a complex of equipment, of automatic devices and remote control mechanisms which direct the process by which nuclear energy is transformed into electrical energy.

The reactor, the heart of the power station, is housed in a building of special design. Control is from an instrument panel a considerable distance removed. In the central section of the reactor are the rods which carry the heat generating elements of natural uranium. The reactor operates on thermal neutrons with a graphite retarder, ordinary water acting as heat conductor.

Water in the reactor is heated to a temperature of 350°—425° or more. The hot radioactive water, adequately shielded to prevent radiation hazards, passes through the com-

M-GENERATED ELECTRIC POWER

By Isif Olgin



THE STATION'S DOUBLE-FLOW TURBOGENERATOR WORKING ON STEAM SUPERHEATED TO 365°

municators and equipment of the first closed circuit of the station's water system. In the steam generators, its heat is imparted to water in a second circuit which is already free from radioactivity. Here the water is heated and evaporated and the steam is superheated.

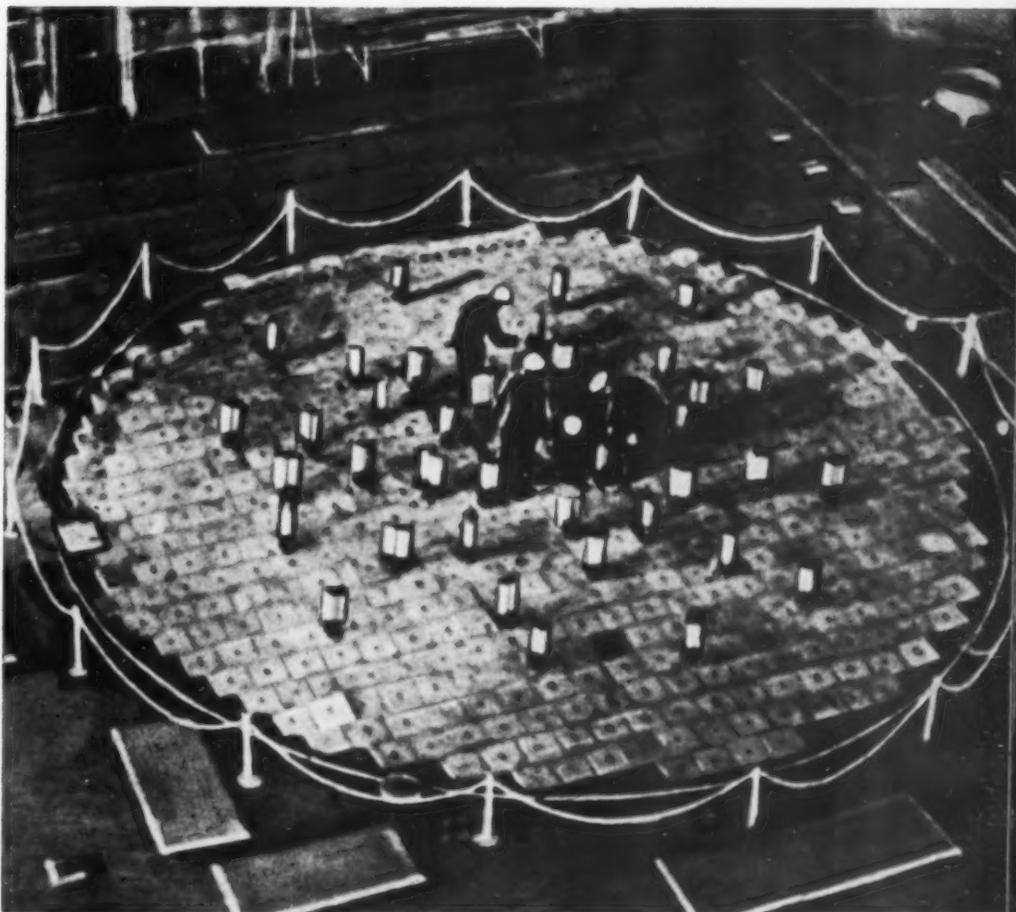
This steam superheated to 365° is carried from the steam generators to the station's turbine building. There it passes into the double-flow steam turbogenerators. There are three of these for the single reactor of the station's first section. The heat generated in the reactor pile is here transformed into electricity.

The new atomic power station is one of a number now being built. Like the original experimental station, most of them are equipped with reactors using ordinary water as heat conductors. Other types of reactors are being experimented with—one using heavy water and uranium in the form of a solution, another with molten sodium as heat conductor.

The first reactors working on fast neutrons were built in 1955. One experimental reactor of this type with a capacity of 5,000 kilowatts began to operate last summer. At present a 50,000-kilowatt fast neutron reactor is under construction on the Volga.

The new station and the others being built forecast nuclear generated power development on a large scale, particularly for those regions which do not have abundant local fuel resources. Along with hydropower and thermal power stations, the atomic power plants will fill out the country's power sources. ■

TOP VIEW OF THE REACTOR. IT USES WATER HEATED BY THERMAL NEUTRONS WITH A GRAPHITE RETARDER.



THE UNITED EFFORTS OF



ASSEMBLED at the Tenth International Astronomical Congress held in Moscow recently were scientists of many countries meeting to compare astronomical data they had gathered by telescope, radio instruments and artificial satellites in their explorations of the stellar universe. The papers presented at the many symposia covered a wide range of problems which astronomers the world over have been working to solve.

That celestial body, the sun, source of our planet's heat and light, was the pivotal subject of many of the papers read. Soviet astronomers reported the results of spectroscopic observations made at the Crimean Astrophysical and the Pulkovo observatories, their observations of the sun's corona from mountain stations constructed for that purpose, and those made with various types of radio installations during periods of normal

LEO GOLDBERG (USA), Vice President of the International Astronomical Union (in the photo at the right): American astronomers waited impatiently for the Moscow congress. Many of us studied Russian so that we could

JAN OORT (Holland), President of the International Astronomical Union: We leave the astronomers, Moscow and the Soviet Union with a feeling of sadness. The 10th International Astronomical Congress again

BORIS KUKARKIN (Soviet Union), Vice President of the International Astronomical Union: The Moscow congress of astronomers of the world helped to establish still closer ties among the scientists of the East and West.

HARLOW SHAPLEY (USA), Director Emeritus of Harvard University Observatory: The Moscow congress was very important because of the problems of radioastronomy and the evolution of the stars and the galaxies

WALTER O. ROBERTS (USA), Director of the High Altitude Observatory: The work of the Crimean Astrophysics Observatory and other Soviet observatories is very impressive. I am certain that not only my American col-

THE WORLD'S ASTRONOMERS

By Alexander Mikhailov

Chairman, Astronomical Council, USSR Academy of Sciences
(Abridged from the magazine Science and Life)

solar activity and at times of solar eclipse.

These observations confirmed the critical effect of the sun's activity on the circulation of the masses of air in the earth's atmosphere upon which depend our climate and weather and the governing relationship of solar activity to the earth's waters.

Important studies on solar emanations and the so-called "splashes"—the large increases in the intensity of the radio emanations which accompany outbreaks of solar activity—were presented by E. Mustel, a Soviet astronomer, and P. Herlofson, a Swedish scientist. Professor A. Severny of the Soviet Union described the observations made of the sun's magnetic field at the Crimean Astrophysical Observatory. Dr. Walter Orr Roberts, director of the High Altitude Observatory at Boulder, Colo., reported on the recently discovered flashes in the solar corona.

These papers, although significant theoretical contributions, also have decided practical value for improving weather forecasting and for predicting future climate and water level conditions.

Research by Sputnik

Professor Fred Whipple of the United States chaired the session of the Congress devoted to artificial satellites. These artificial moons have contributed invaluable data on the terrestrial atmosphere and the sun's activity. Preliminary studies made with the sputniks of cosmic rays, corpuscular emanations and meteoric particles were reported by a number of Soviet scientists, among them A. Chudakov, V. Krasovsky, T. Nazarova and A. Alpert. They evoked considerable discussion from the floor.

In his paper on the origin of the sun's corpuscular streams, V. Krasovsky proposed the theory that they were composed of electrons produced in the external atmosphere and the lower layers of the ionosphere by action of the magnetic fields connected with the corpuscular streams emanating from the sun. These electrons, he thought, like those emanating directly from the sun, may increase the ionization of the upper layers of the atmosphere.

The Exact Time

A symposium titled "Rotation of the Earth and Atomic Standards of Time" was devoted to a consideration of this question: How can astronomically exact time be determined? The answer is dependent on study of the earth's
Continued on next page

establish closer personal contacts with the Soviet astronomers. And the meeting surpassed our expectations. A foundation has been laid for continuing contacts between the American and Soviet astronomers.

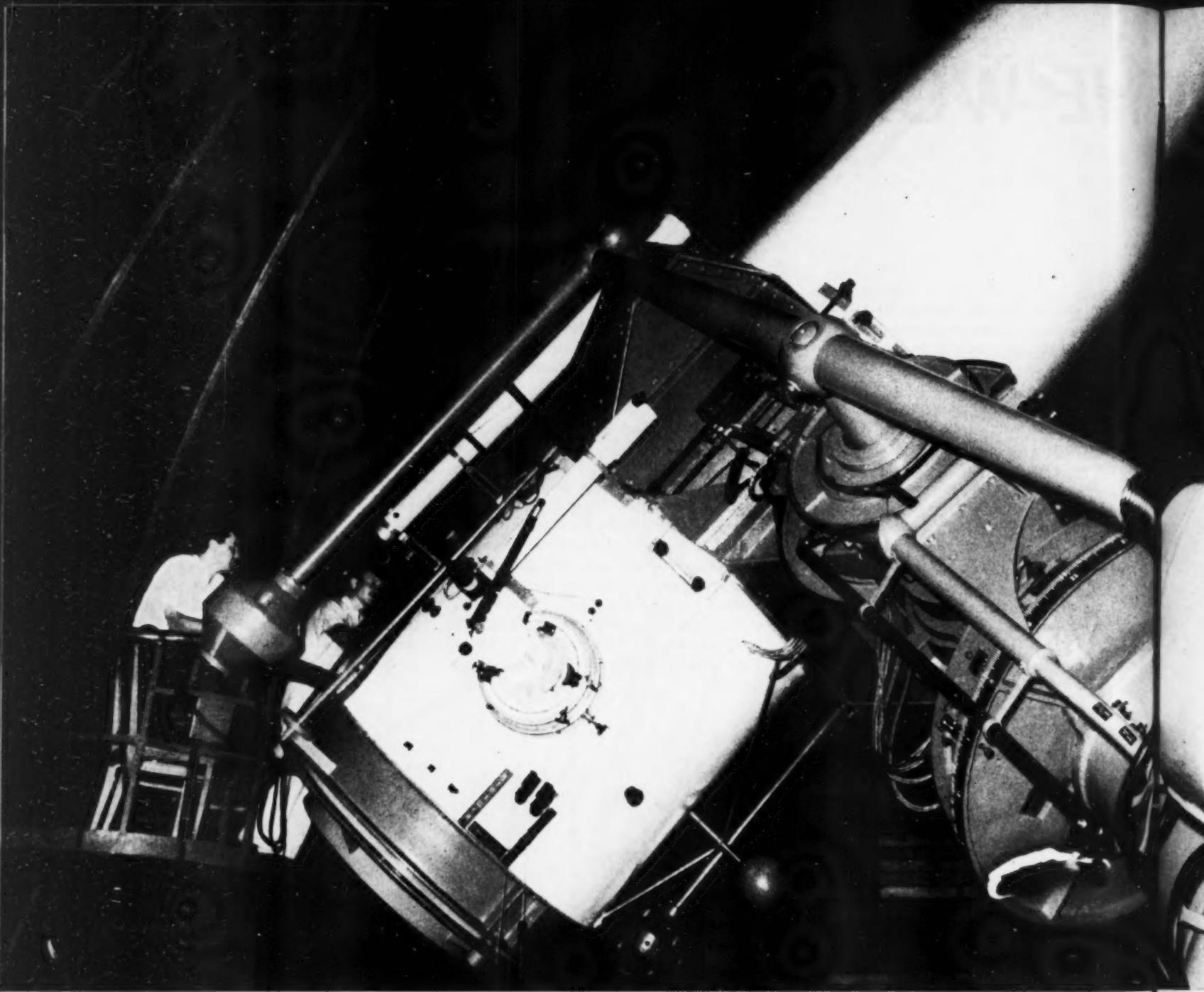
showed us that the flower of mutual understanding is now blossoming in all parts of the world. We look forward to resuming the friendly ties made in Moscow at the 11th Congress to be held in the USA in three years.

This is extremely important, for there are innumerable problems and questions concerning the universe that can be solved only by the joint efforts of the astronomers of many countries.

that were discussed. But special interest was unquestionably aroused by the data received by the representatives of a new science whose foundation was laid by Soviet scientists on October 4, 1957. I would name it *Sputnikia*.

leagues but all the solar physicists will concur when I say that the meetings of the astronomers in Moscow will stimulate our further joint efforts for solving problems still facing us.





DIVERSIFIED SOLAR RESEARCH AND A STUDY OF THE CHEMICAL COMPOSITION OF THE STARS IS CONDUCTED SUCCESSFULLY AT THE CRIMEAN ASTROPHYSICS LABORATORY.

THE UNITED EFFORTS OF THE WORLD'S ASTRONOMERS *Continued*

rotation. Papers presented by Y. Fedorov of the Soviet Union and the English astronomer G. Jeffrie substantiated and further developed the theory of rotation of the earth with a liquid core, advanced originally by the Russian scientists F. Sludsky and N. Zhukovsky.

Starting with the assumption that the usual method of measuring time by the period of rotation of the globe was inaccurate, astronomers have been using another method—the orbital movements of certain bodies in the solar system, principally the moon. New instruments are now available for these studies—quartz and atomic clocks in which quartz crystals or the atoms which make up an ammonia molecule or electrons inside a cesium atom vibrate under the influence of an alternating current charge.

The new clock is so highly accurate that it reverses the previous order of things. Now

it is no longer the clock that is checked by the rotation time of the earth but, on the contrary, the irregularities in the earth's rotation are revealed by help of the clock. At the symposium the latest researches with these instruments were reported and basic measurements of the units of time were defined more precisely.

Invisible Satellite

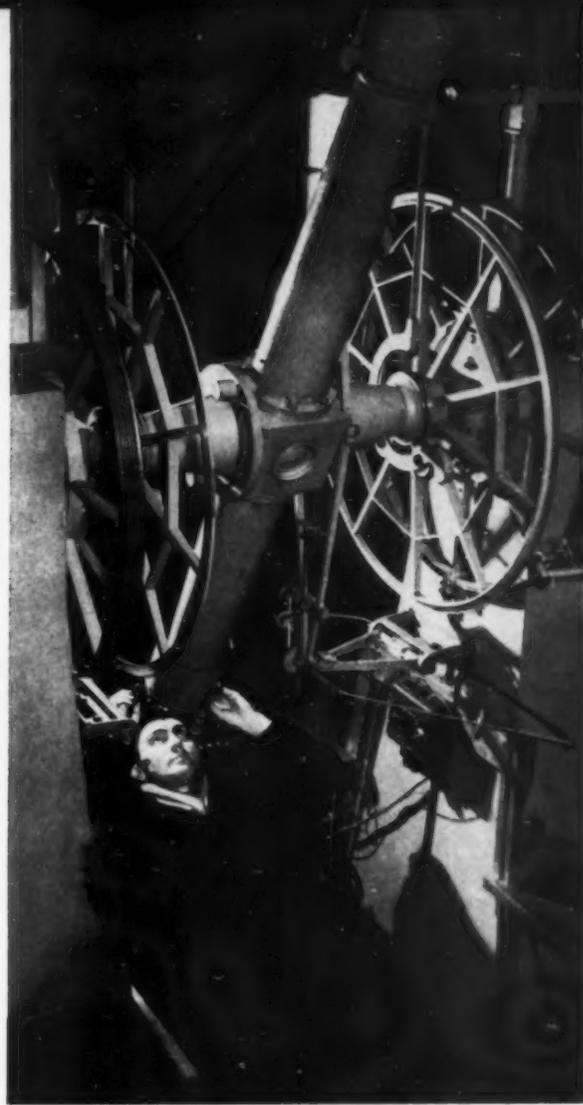
Star "61" received considerable attention at the Congress. This binary star in the constellation of the Swan is actually two stars rotating around one another. As early as 1943 the American astronomer Strand noticed that these stars moved in a way that suggested they were being influenced by some invisible third body.

After the Second World War Strand and

the Soviet astronomer A. Deich both confirmed the existence of this invisible satellite and calculated its mass to be equal to that of nine Jupiters.

The Soviet astronomer continued his studies of "61" to ascertain around which of the two stars the satellite rotated, research which demanded extraordinarily delicate measurements. Deich proved that the satellite planet belonged to another sun located an approximate ten light years from the earth. Thus research begun by an American was continued by a Soviet astronomer, a by no means rare instance of the cooperative nature of scientific research.

This international collaboration was particularly apparent in the papers read on the cepheids or pulsating stars, with astronomers from a number of countries reporting their findings.



Prof. V. Podobed of Moscow's Sternberg Astronomical Institute takes observations with a meridian circle for the IGY program.



Mrs. Whipple of the USA (right) with Masevich and Friedlyander of the Soviet group.

Astronomers of Holland, the United Arab Republic, India, the Soviet Union and the United States get together for informal discussions following a session.

H. Weaver, an American astronomer, suggested that current theories of the rotation of the galaxies be reviewed in the light of new studies of the movements of the cepheids. Y. Pavlovskaya and Y. Pskovsky described their work at the Sternberg Astronomical Institute in Moscow on the luminosity of the cepheids and Professor O. Melnikov's paper pointed out the need for using methods to determine the brightness of the cepheids that would not be affected by light coming to us from the stars.

Discussion at the Congress sessions more than once emphasized the pleasure of the scientists at the cooperative exchanges. If it were customary for scientific meetings to coin slogans, an appropriate one for this Congress of astronomers might well have been: Science must not be fenced in by national or political frontiers. ■



THE ever growing advances in all spheres of Soviet economy and culture have been greatly promoted by the progress of education. The milestones of this continuous progress can be traced from the elimination of the age-old illiteracy in the early thirties through the present system of training specialists equipped to solve the most complicated problems of science and technology.

Continuous progress implies continuous re-evaluation, a never-ending search for educational goals that will develop the individual's capacities so that he can best serve himself and society. As science and technology change the character of our life, new requirements constantly arise which the educators must meet. There are always new tasks confronting the country's economy and culture which necessitate periodic reappraisals of what and how we teach in our schools and colleges.

Have our teenagers had actual contact with work situations so that they can more wisely choose the trade or profession they wish to train for? Are our schools and colleges closely enough related to today's living and the needs of the time? Is our present curriculum sufficient to give students the best grounding for this new age of scientific and technological exploration?

These are among the questions which are now being debated by Soviet educators, parents and government officials. Upon the answers to these crucial questions depend, to a large degree, the present and future of the Soviet Union—its economic well being, its progress in science and technology, and its cultural growth.

Out of the nationwide discussion, certain general directions have evolved. They have been particularized in Nikita Khrushchev's memorandum approved by the Presidium of the Communist Party's Central Committee. Reflecting the thinking of educators and lay people, their searchings and findings, the memorandum emphasizes an urgent need of strengthening the ties of the school with life as the main prerequisite for the further progress of the country's system of education.

Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow

Until the recent period, the memorandum points out, the Soviet Union had a certain shortage of young people with a complete ten-year school education required for admission to the colleges and universities. At the same time the country badly needed specialists with higher education.

The statistic shows that even as late as in 1950 only 290,000 boys and girls were enrolled in the tenth grade of the secondary schools, while the number of students admitted to the freshman classes of the colleges and universities was 349,000. Since the secondary schools were unable to supply the colleges and universities with the number of students the country needed, the gap had to be bridged by extra-school instruction.

With the expansion of secondary education during the recent years the situation has radically changed. In 1958 the number of young people who graduated from the secondary schools reached 1,600,000, while the colleges and universities admitted 440,000.

Speaking of today's educational policy,

SCHOOL AND L

Nationwide Discussion on the
of Soviet Edu

Issues No. 8 (23) and No. 9 (24) of *USSR* magazine carried articles on the school curriculum as related to the requirements of industry and agriculture and on the vocational training offered to graduates. In issue No. 10 (25) a series of more detailed articles was started on various aspects of the country's system of education. Thus far the public schools and colleges were described. In this issue our series is continued with an article covering the discussions now under way in the country on how to better adapt the system of education to the changing needs of modern life.

In the next issue we intend to describe graduate courses and the facilities available to those students who wish to work toward their master's and doctor's degrees.

THE FUTURE OF SOVIET EDUCATION IS DISCUSSED BY TEACHERS ALL OVER THE COUNTRY.



D LIFE

on the Future
Education



THESE OLDER PUPILS ARE AS MUCH INTERESTED IN THE PROPOSED CHANGES IN SCHOOLING AS THEIR PARENTS.



Nikita Khrushchev points out in his memorandum: "We are striving to have our entire youth, millions of boys and girls, go through the ten-year school. Naturally enough, they cannot all be absorbed by the specialized secondary schools and colleges."

Under the present conditions the colleges can admit to their freshman classes approximately 450,000 students a year. Of this number a little more than one-half will be admitted to evening and correspondence courses for after work study. At the same time the number of boys and girls to graduate from the secondary schools is expected to reach an annual total of 2,000,000 or even more.

The vast majority of these young people will take jobs in industry or agriculture right after graduation. But most of the present secondary schools provide them only with a good general education in preparation for college entrance and do not prepare them for life.

New Approach to Secondary Education

Voicing the general opinion, Nikita Khrushchev observes in his memorandum that preparation for physical labor and vocational training, with all their character-building values, are no less important elements in the education of a young citizen. The general feeling is that it is necessary to break down the false and damaging separation between

mental and physical work, between cultural and production occupations.

The task of the Soviet school must be to instill in the child a respect for labor, to educate young people who are not only grounded in the fundamentals of sciences and the humanities but also equipped to work at jobs producing values needed by society.

This approach will not be reducing the scope of the secondary education. A most comprehensive program for perfecting the school curriculum now being discussed in the country envisages safeguarding the opportunities afforded every citizen to acquire a full general education provided by the present ten-year schools. At the same time this program sets a new goal aimed to perfect vocational training in the secondary schools so that young industrial workers and collective farmers entering independent life after graduation would have a combined general and specialized education.

More specifically the proposed change will mean, to quote from the memorandum, that "all students without exception should be required to do some socially-useful work in a factory, a collective farm or some comparable area after completing the seventh or eighth year of secondary school. In town and country alike all school graduates should go to work, and there should be no exemptions. In the

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SCHOOL AND LIFE

Continued

first place, this will be democratic since the same conditions will hold for all citizens—neither the parents' position nor their special appeals should release anyone from doing productive labor. In the second place, it will serve as excellent schooling for all our young people in the spirit of the heroic traditions of the working class and the collective-farm peasantry."

The seven- or eight-year school could then be thought of as a first stage of secondary education. The second stage would be a two- or three-year course in evening or correspondence school to be pursued while the student works at a job. There could be new legislation to lengthen the course of such study and to release these students from their jobs for two or three days a week without reduction in pay.

For those gifted children who early show special ability in any particular field—mathematics, physics, biology, music, art—there would be appropriate secondary schools which would prepare them for the corresponding colleges and professional schools.

New Approach to College Education

The new approach must, of course, carry over also to college education. As the memorandum suggests, the college curriculum is to be linked much more closely than heretofore to job activity.

A considerable number of Soviet students already have some years to their credit as industrial workers and collective farmers. As the secondary schools move toward a closer relationship with production, an increasingly larger number of students entering college will have acquired the experience and the maturity that comes from working at a job. As a consequence, they will be able to make a wiser choice for their future specialties.

In reorientating the program of the higher education to adapt it to the new needs, the memorandum suggests that the colleges and universities, particularly the technical institutes, should emphasize the development of evening and correspondence courses.

"It seems advisable," the memorandum continues, "that most schools of higher education offer the first two or three years of instruction so that young people combine their studies with a job. This would make it possible to select from among the great number of young people who want to go on with their education, those who have demonstrated that this desire was not a passing fancy, that they really had a thirst for learning and the patience and industry to pursue it. Only then, beginning with the third year, could the privileges be granted—the students could be released from their work for three days a week. During the last two years of study it may be found advisable to free students altogether from work, except for the time required to do practical work as part of the college curriculum."

Combined work-study is no new develop-



DOMESTIC SCIENCE CLASSES PREPARE SCHOOLGIRLS FOR THEIR FUTURE DUTIES AS MOTHERS AND WIVES.

ment in Soviet education. There are engineers, agronomists, and scientists working at almost every plant, farm or research center of any size who have done their studying from secondary or vocational school all the way through college and graduate school while holding down a full-time job. Many of them have moved ahead from unskilled jobs to the most responsible posts in their fields. People of this potential caliber are eagerly sought after and are in every possible way encouraged to acquire a higher education.

Exchange of Opinions

Considering one or another phase of secondary and higher education, the memorandum evaluates various ways to solve the problems that face the country's schools and calls for a detailed discussion of the experience already gained by educators in strengthening the ties between study and work. There is no doubt that the widest exchange of opinions on different proposals and possible alternatives will result in the further progress of the whole system of education.

With this in mind, nearly everyone in the country talks about the future of the schools, and Nikita Khrushchev's memorandum is being debated at meetings of parents and teachers, at shop and farm meetings, and at professional conferences of all kinds.

There is no essential disagreement on the major point that a gap does exist between the school and practical work which must be bridged. There is concern, however, that the

practical work aspect may be overemphasized at the expense of theoretical study.

In an article in the newspaper *Pravda*, one of many which the press has been running, V. Krotov, the director of the Urals Heavy Machinery Works in Sverdlovsk, suggests that "students of the day technical colleges should not, as a rule, hold a job, especially during the first three years, when the theoretical subjects are studied."

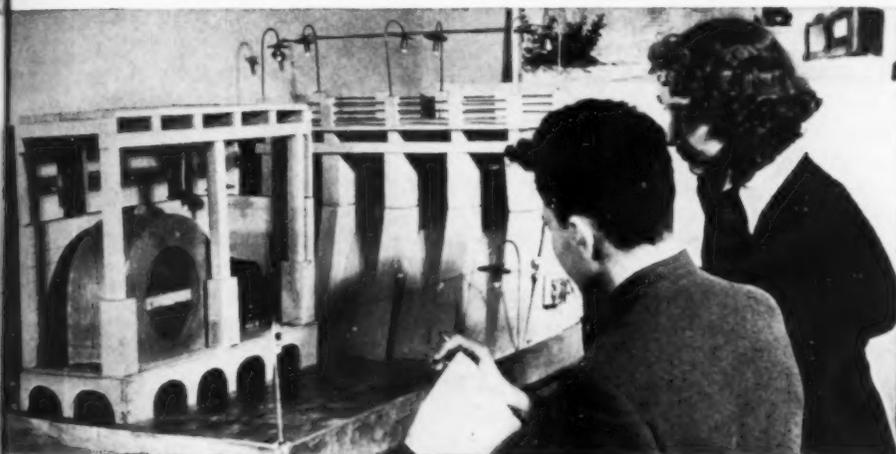
What are the prospects for the study of the humanities in our age of scientific and technological progress with its resulting stress on vocational training? The fact that vocational training must be an integral part of school education, asserts I. Kairov, the president of the Academy of the Pedagogical Sciences, "should by no means lead to diminishing the role and importance of the humanities. In fact, their importance becomes even greater since without a rounded cultural background the polytechnical studies can only be superficially learned."

Characteristic of the letters from readers that have been sent to newspapers is this one in *Izvestia* written by A. Abzalov, chairman of an Uzbek collective farm. Every year 30 to 35 young people leave his village for college. That, he says, is fine. But the letter continues: "Although we parents are happy when our son easily solves an intricate problem in trigonometry, we are not nearly so pleased when he cannot figure the number of cotton plants growing on an acre and estimate what the crop will be." It is farmer Abzalov's feeling that "it is a very sound proposal that



THE CURRICULUM OF SOME HIGH SCHOOLS INCLUDES VOCATIONAL TRAINING AT FACTORIES TO PROVIDE GRADUATING STUDENTS WITH VARIOUS INDUSTRIAL SKILLS.

AMBITIOUS STUDENTS SUPPLEMENT THEIR CLASSROOM KNOWLEDGE IN AFTER-SCHOOL CLUBS.



RURAL SCHOOLS HAVE CLASSES IN FARM METHODS.



schooling should be closely linked with work training, and at a certain age it should be directly combined with work."

Engineer I. Kuzminykh of the Punane RET Factory in Tallinn, writes in the same vein in his letter to the newspaper *Sovietskaya Estonia*. "In the past three years our factory took on more than a hundred young people who graduated from secondary schools. Our engineers had no easy job giving these young people a sense of the dignity of physical labor and to teach them their trades." Engineer Kuzminykh is all for vocational training.

There are, however, people who do not go along with engineer Kuzminykh and farmer Abzalov. They are apprehensive that the emphasis on labor is likely to have an adverse effect on studies.

V. Boykov, a teacher from Leningrad writes in to answer this objection. He cites his own experience in a school where this work-study program was introduced some years ago.

"It makes," he says, "for considerably greater progress in study and character building." His views are shared by teachers from many other parts of the country where this program has been experimented with over a period of years.

Experimenting with Work-Study Programs

There has been a good deal of experimentation with polytechnical and vocational education in the Soviet schools in recent years aimed to bring school and job closer together. Nikita Khrushchev's memorandum is in a sense a summary of conclusions resulting from these experiments with school workshops and farm plots, courses in mechanics and electrotechnics, excursions to neighboring factories and farms—all employed to familiarize children with the ways in which things are grown and manufactured.

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Worker Ivan Kilombot will soon get his engineering diploma from a correspondence institute.

SCHOOL AND LIFE

Continued

In the same sense the memorandum summarizes the results of a number of years of direct experimentation in combining general education of upper-grade students with work in neighboring factories. Six schools in the Ukrainian Republic have been carrying through this kind of experiment since 1954. These schools added to their regular 30 hours of instruction weekly an additional six hours a week of production theory and practice to provide vocational training.

The experiment proved successful. As a result of the vocational training, students acquired a better grasp of science fundamentals and a broader understanding of polytechnical concepts. Many of them became highly qualified workers when they entered industry. The Ukrainian Republic has now introduced industrial training in the upper grades of 3,500 schools.

Other Soviet Republics have also been introducing vocational training at levels which conform to regional conditions. The Russian Federative Republic, for example, used an experimental curriculum in 50 of its schools last year, this year it is being used in 200. These are eleven-year schools in which upper-grade students spend three days a week in

class studying general educational subjects, the other three days they work in an industry they have chosen. Upon graduating these students get certificates attesting to their level of skill in a particular trade besides their regular diplomas.

In the Lithuanian Republic, upper-grade students have since 1956 spent two or three weeks each year working on local collective or state farms. In other republics there are school teams made up of eighth, ninth and tenth grade students who do year-round work in assigned sections of collective farms. The work helps the young farmers learn to apply in practice the knowledge gained in school.

Work-study farms were set up early this year in some of the country's stock-breeding regions. Collective farms provide these school farms with animals and sheds, the pupils are taught to feed and care for the animals in addition to their regular class studies.

Schools in some towns have set up their own work-study shops. In these shops students fill orders they get from neighboring factories for metal articles and tools, build furniture for local sale or sew clothing for children at nurseries and kindergartens.

Work-study experimentation is also being done beginning with the lower grades. This fall the Ukrainian Republic introduced an eight-year experimental work-study program in 28 schools. Besides work training the curriculum covers the fundamentals of physics, chemistry, biology, mathematics, geography, history and law, the study of the Ukrainian and Russian languages and literature, a foreign language and literature, aesthetics and physical education.

Graduates of these eight-year schools will have done work in the technology of materials, electrotechnics and the fundamentals of agriculture, and will have learned to use tools and farm implements. Starting with the fifth grade, girls will be given domestic science as a regular subject. Each of these schools has workshops and farm plots.

Careful Examination

The experiments of the recent years have brought forth different versions of combining study with work. A multitude of other proposals sprout from the debates that have swept the country. The suggested ways of the further development of the secondary and higher education reflect specific national, economic and cultural features of each Soviet Republic and take into account the particular needs of various regions.

All suggestions must be carefully examined before any large-scale changes are instituted, says Nikita Khrushchev's memorandum. The more suggestions that are forwarded the sounder will be the guarantee for correct answers to the questions at stake.

It is only after these nationwide discussions, concludes the memorandum, that a session of the USSR Supreme Soviet—the country's legislature—is to be convened to draft and approve the general approach to be taken. The final legislation with all definitive details will then be worked out by the Supreme Soviets of each of the Union Republics. ■

Next issue: *Obtaining a Graduate Degree*

Each year about two million students graduate from high school and most of them go directly to work. They have every opportunity to earn their degrees at evening schools.



The **FUNDAMENTAL LAW** of the **LAND** of **SOCIALISM**

By **Mikhail Tarasov**

Vice-President of the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet

DECEMBER 5 is celebrated as Constitution Day in our country, commemorating the adoption of the basic code of law by which the people of the Soviet Union govern themselves. On that day in 1936 the present Constitution was ratified at the Extraordinary Eighth Congress of Soviets.

But the fundamental principles which the Constitution defines had been the law of the land since those early morning hours of October 26 (November 8 by the new calendar), 1917, when the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets made this historic declaration: "Backed by the will of the overwhelming majority of the workers, soldiers and peasants, backed by the victorious uprising of the workers and garrison in Petrograd, this Congress takes power into its own hands."

Once in power after the October Socialist Revolution the people, through their elected representatives in the Soviets, thoroughly recast the country's social structure, its economy, governmental organization, and its domestic and foreign policy. These transformations were enacted into legislation known as the "October Decrees" that carried constitutional significance because of their prime import for the whole of the nation's life.

The "October Decrees" declared the new state a "republic of Soviets of workers', soldiers', and peasants' deputies" and gave full and complete equality to the minority nationalities that had for so long been oppressed and discriminated against under czarist rule.

Among the key documents of the revolutionary period was the "Declaration of Rights of the Toiling and Exploited People" adopted by the Third All-Russian Congress of Soviets in January 1918. The new socialist state was determined, it said, to stamp out every vestige of that social, national and political persecution to which the old regime had condemned the working people. It called for a democratic peace on the basis of self-determination of all nations, and denounced all forms of colonialism.

The First Constitution

The "October Decrees," which wrote into law the changes made by the people's government during the first months of its existence, served as the foundation for the first Soviet Constitution, drafted by the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, the largest of the republics that were formed as a result of the Revolution. Adopted by the Fifth All-Russian Congress of Soviets on July 10, 1918, it served as the model for the constitutions of the other republics.

The Constitution of the Russian Federation proceeded from the premise that power was now in the hands of the working people, exercised through their elected legislative bodies, the Soviets of Working People's Deputies. It reaffirmed the laws adopted immediately after the Revolution which had abolished the private ownership of land; had declared the forests, mineral resources and waters national property; and had given the workers control of industrial establishments, railways and banks as preliminary to the nationalization of the means of production.

In a statement to the nation in the earliest days of the Revolution Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, the founder of the Soviet state, had defined the new power in these terms: "Comrade Working People! Remember that *you yourselves* are now governing the state. No one will help you if you do not unite and take *all the work* of governing the state into *your own hands*."

With this as principle, the Constitution invested all the working people with democratic rights without exception or reservation. It provided guarantees that these rights would be implemented. It confirmed the representative character of all legal bodies and their subordination to the will of the people. It provided the means by which millions of citizens would be drawn into the management of the country's political and economic life.

Drawn up and ratified at a time when the Civil War was at its height and when the nation was fighting off the attacks of the interventionist armies of fourteen foreign countries, the Constitution deprived of electoral rights those who had enjoyed a privileged position under the old regime and now were in active opposition to the new social order the Revolution had brought—former owners of landed estates, factories and plants, all those who employed hired labor and lived on unearned income, former employees and agents of the czarist police and gendarmery.

These restrictions in civil rights did not stem from the nature of Soviet power. They were defensive measures and affected only those relatively small groups in the population that had in effect relinquished their civil rights by attempts to destroy the socialist republic the people had established.

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics Is Formed

In exercise of the right of nations to self-determination the peoples of the former Russian Empire established a number of sovereign Soviet Socialist Republics.

The Russian Federative Republic was founded on October 25, 1917. It united a large group of the country's nationalities. The Ukrainian Republic was established on December 25, 1917; the Byelorussian Republic on January 1, 1919; the Azerbaijan Republic on April 28, 1920; the Armenian Republic on November 29, 1920; and the Georgian Republic on February 25, 1921. The last three republics formed a federation. *Continued on next page*

The USSR Supreme Soviet, composed of two equal chambers, is the country's highest legislative body. All deputies are elected to four-year terms.



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Weaver Serafima Kotova is a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Federative Republic, one of the 15 Republics comprising the Soviet Union.

The FUNDAMENTAL LAW of the LAND of SOCIALISM

Continued

From the outset the republics worked together, bound by a common goal and by formal treaties. They joined against the interventionist armies and acted together in international affairs; they worked unitedly to rebuild the economy almost totally destroyed by the war. Toward the end of 1922 they voluntarily combined into a single state, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

The first Constitution of the USSR, ratified in 1924, guaranteed the sovereign rights of the republics which had united. It confirmed the right of each republic to secede from the Union, declared that no changes could be made in the territorial integrity of a republic without its own consent and outlawed discrimination against national minorities.

The New Constitution Drafted

With the Civil War ended and the foreign invaders driven off the Soviet land, reconstruction could take precedence. Within an unbelievably short span of years the nation pulled itself out of age-old economic and cultural backwardness. Large industrial centers were built, farming was mechanized, an educational system was evolved which produced trained people for every kind of endeavor, unemployment was ended and a steady rise in the standard of living began to be evident.

This was the beginning of a new period in the history of the Soviet Union—the period of socialism.

New times require new approaches modeled to fit the goals that lie ahead. And in this spirit the national legislature adopted a resolution to draw up a new constitution.

The draft of this new constitution was presented to the citizenry for consideration five months before it was to be acted upon by the national legislature. It was discussed by millions of people at factory, farm and office meetings, at public gatherings and in letters to the press. Some two and a half million changes, amendments and additions were proposed.

The Constitution, as finally adopted by the Extraordinary Congress of Soviets on December 5, 1936, was a product of the thinking not of the Congress delegates alone but of all the people of the country.

Rights of the Citizen

The political foundation of the USSR, the 1936 Constitution declares, is the Soviets of Working People's Deputies. It is through the Soviets that all sections of the population take a real part in governing the country.

Every organ of power, from the highest to the lowest, is formed through elections. The 1936 Constitution gives the right to vote to all citizens who reach the age of eighteen, regardless of race or nationality, sex, religion, education, domicile, social origin, property status or past activity.

Direct elections replace elections by several stages that had obtained previously, and voting by show of hands is replaced by secret ballot. The universal, direct and secret balloting is combined with a democratic order in the nomination of candidates for office. The right to nominate candidates is secured to all public organizations. They include the Communist Party, the trade unions, cooperatives, youth organizations and cultural associations.

The Constitution further stipulates that an elected official who does not justify the trust placed in him may be recalled and his office filled at a by-election.

Ensured by the Constitution to Soviet citizens are those freedoms which are inherent in a democratic society, among them freedom of speech, of the press, of assembly. But the Constitution does more than list these rights. It guarantees them by placing at the disposal of the working people and their organizations printing presses and stocks of paper, public buildings for meetings, the streets for parades and demonstrations, radio and television for communication and such other tangible and material requisites without which these rights cannot be exercised.

The Constitution ensures to all citizens freedom of conscience—freedom to worship according to their religious beliefs and the freedom, if they so choose, to express their anti-religious beliefs.

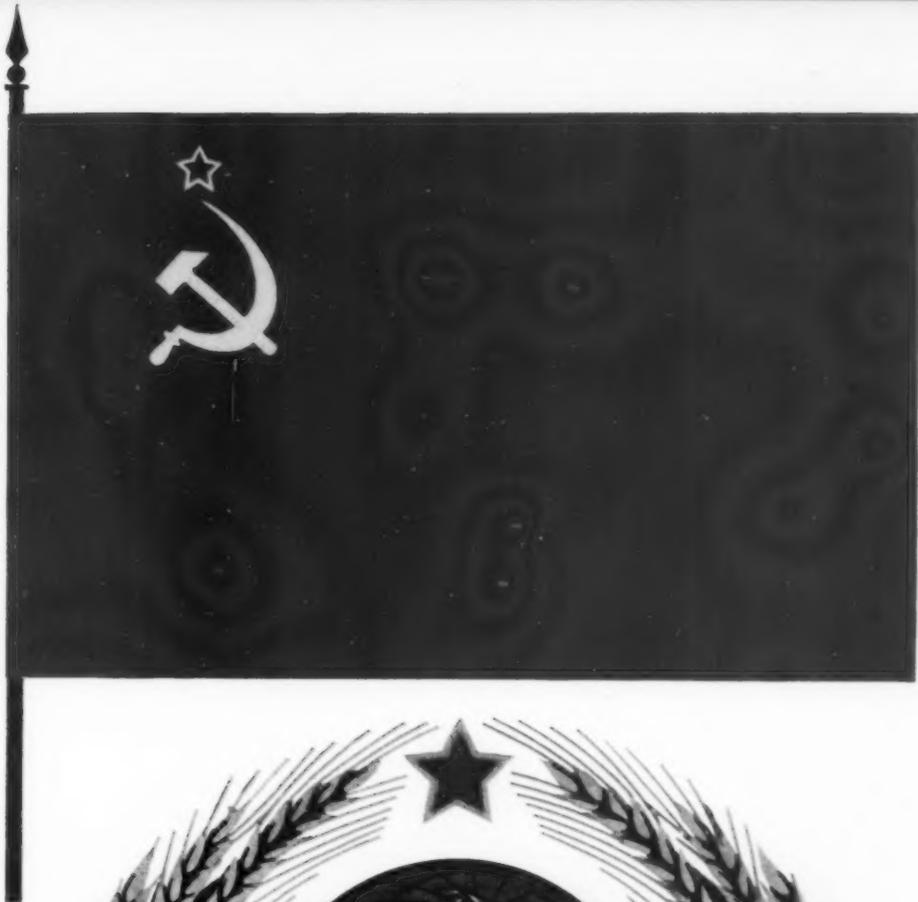
The Communist Party

The Constitution asserts that the Communist Party "is the vanguard of the working people in their struggle to build a communist society and is the leading core of all organizations of working people, both public and state."

Continued on page 39

Women have equal rights with men in every field of endeavor. Frequently they hold responsible posts of leadership in enterprises and government.





CONSTITUTION

(FUNDAMENTAL LAW)

OF THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

As Added to and Amended up to the Ninth Session
of the USSR Supreme Soviet, Fourth Convocation

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RUSSIAN SOVIET FEDERATIVE
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



UKRAINIAN SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



BYELORUSSIAN SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Chapter I

THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE

ARTICLE 1

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is a socialist state of workers and peasants.

ARTICLE 2

The political foundation of the USSR is the Soviets of Working People's Deputies, which grew and became strong as a result of the overthrow of the power of the landlords and capitalists and the conquest of the dictatorship of the proletariat.

ARTICLE 3

All power in the USSR belongs to the working people of town and country as represented by the Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

ARTICLE 4

The economic foundation of the USSR is the socialist system of economy and the socialist ownership of the instruments and means of production, firmly established as a result of the liquidation of the capitalist system of economy, the abolition of private ownership of the instruments and means of production, and the elimination of the exploitation of man by man.

ARTICLE 5

Socialist property in the USSR exists either in the form of state property (belonging to the whole people) or in the form of cooperative and collective-farm property (property of collective farms, property of cooperative societies).

ARTICLE 6

The land, its mineral wealth, waters, forests, mills, factories, mines, rail, water and air transport, banks, communications, large state-organized agricultural enterprises (state farms, machine and tractor stations and the like), as well as municipal enterprises and the bulk of the dwelling houses in the cities and industrial localities, are state property, that is, belong to the whole people.

ARTICLE 7

The common enterprises of collective farms and cooperative organizations, with their livestock and implements, the

products of the collective farms and cooperative organizations, as well as their common buildings, constitute the common, socialist property of the collective farms and cooperative organizations.

Every household in a collective farm, in addition to its basic income from the common collective-farm enterprise, has for its personal use a small plot of household land and, as its personal property, a subsidiary husbandry on the plot, a dwelling house, livestock, poultry and minor agricultural implements—in accordance with the rules of the agricultural artel.

ARTICLE 8

The land occupied by collective farms is secured to them for their use free of charge and for an unlimited time, that is, in perpetuity.

ARTICLE 9

Alongside the socialist system of economy, which is the predominant form of economy in the USSR, the law permits the small private economy of individual peasants and handicraftsmen based on their own labor and precluding the exploitation of the labor of others.

ARTICLE 10

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

ARTICLE 11

The economic life of the USSR is determined and directed by the state national-economic plan, with the aim of increasing the public wealth, of steadily raising the material and cultural standards of the working people, of consolidating the independence of the USSR and strengthening its defensive capacity.

ARTICLE 12

Work in the USSR is a duty and a matter of honor for every able-bodied citizen, in accordance with the principle: "He who does not work, neither shall he eat."

The principle applied in the USSR is that of socialism: "From each according to his ability, to each according to his work."

Chapter II

THE STATE STRUCTURE

ARTICLE 13

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is a federal state, formed on the basis of a voluntary union of equal Soviet Socialist Republics, namely:

The Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic

The Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic

The Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic

The Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic

The Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic

The Georgian Soviet Socialist Republic

The Azerbaijan Soviet Socialist Republic

The Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic

The Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic

The Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic

The Kirghiz Soviet Socialist Republic

The Tajik Soviet Socialist Republic

The Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic

The Turkmen Soviet Socialist Republic

The Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic

ARTICLE 14

The jurisdiction of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, as represented by its higher organs of state power and organs of state administration, embraces:

a) Representation of the USSR in international relations; conclusion, ratification and denunciation of treaties of the USSR with other states; establishment of general procedure governing the relations of Union Republics with foreign states;

b) Questions of war and peace;

c) Admission of new republics into the USSR;

d) Control over the observance of the Constitution of the USSR, and ensuring conformity of the Constitutions of the Union Republics with the Constitution of the USSR;

e) Confirmation of alterations of boundaries between Union Republics;

f) Confirmation of the formation of new Autonomous Republics and Autonomous Regions within Union Republics;

g) Organization of the defense of the USSR, direction of all the Armed Forces of the USSR, determination of directing principles governing the organization of the military formations of the Union Republics;

h) Foreign trade on the basis of state monopoly;

i) Safeguarding the security of the state;

j) Determination of the national-economic plans of the USSR;

k) Approval of the consolidated state budget of the USSR and of the report on its fulfillment; determination of the taxes and revenues which go to the Union, the Republican and the local budgets;

l) Administration of the banks, industrial and agricultural institutions and enterprises and trading enterprises of all-Union jurisdiction; general guidance of industry and construction under Union-Republican jurisdiction;

m) Administration of transport and communications of all-Union importance;

n) Direction of the monetary and credit system;

o) Organization of state insurance;

p) Contracting and granting of loans;

q) Determination of the basic principles of land tenure and of the use of mineral wealth, forests and waters;

r) Determination of the basic principles in the spheres of education and public health;

s) Organization of a uniform system of national-economic statistics;

t) Determination of the principles of labor legislation;

u) Determination of the principles of legislation concerning the judicial system and judicial procedure and of the principles of criminal and civil codes;

v) Legislation concerning Union citizenship; legislation concerning rights of foreigners;

w) Determination of the principles of legislation concerning marriage and the family;

x) Issuing of all-Union acts of amnesty.

ARTICLE 15

The sovereignty of the Union Republics is limited only in the spheres defined in Article 14 of the Constitution of the USSR. Outside of these spheres each Union Republic exercises state authority independently. The USSR protects the sovereign rights of the Union Republics.

ARTICLE 16

Each Union Republic has its own Constitution, which takes account of the specific features of the Republic and is drawn up in full conformity with the Constitution of the USSR.

ARTICLE 17

The right freely to secede from the

USSR is reserved to every Union Republic.

ARTICLE 18

The territory of a Union Republic may not be altered without its consent.

ARTICLE 18-a

Each Union Republic has the right to enter into direct relations with foreign states and to conclude agreements and exchange diplomatic and consular representatives with them.

ARTICLE 18-b

Each Union Republic has its own Republican military formations.

ARTICLE 19

The laws of the USSR have the same force within the territory of every Union Republic.

ARTICLE 20

In the event of divergence between a law of a Union Republic and a law of the Union, the Union law prevails.

ARTICLE 21

Uniform Union citizenship is established for citizens of the USSR. Every citizen of a Union Republic is a citizen of the USSR.

ARTICLE 22

The Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic includes the Bashkirian, Buryat-Mongolian, Daghestan, Kabardinian-Balkar, Karelian, Komi, Mari, Mordovian, North Ossetian, Tatar, Udmurt, Checheno-Ingush, Chuvash and Yakut Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republics; and the Adygei, Gorny Altai, Jewish, Kalmyk, Karachayevo-Cherkess, Tuva and Khakass Autonomous Regions.

ARTICLE 23

Repealed.

ARTICLE 24

The Azerbaijan Soviet Socialist Republic includes the Nakhichevan Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic and the Nagorny Karabakh Autonomous Region.

ARTICLE 25

The Georgian Soviet Socialist Republic includes the Abkhazian and Ajarian



UZBEK SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



KAZAKH SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



GEORGIAN SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republics and the South Ossetian Autonomous Region.

ARTICLE 26

The Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic includes the Kara-Kalpak Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic.

ARTICLE 27

The Tajik Soviet Socialist Republic includes the Gorny Badakhshan Autonomous Region.

ARTICLE 28

The solution of problems pertaining to the administrative-territorial structure of the regions and territories of the Union Republics comes within the jurisdiction of the Union Republics.

ARTICLE 29

Repealed.

CHAPTER III

THE HIGHER ORGANS
OF STATE POWER
IN THE UNION OF SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

ARTICLE 30

The highest organ of state power in the USSR is the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 31

The Supreme Soviet of the USSR exercises all rights vested in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in accordance with Article 14 of the Constitution, insofar as they do not, by virtue of the Constitution, come within the jurisdiction of organs of the USSR that are accountable to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, that is, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, the Council of Ministers of the USSR, and the Ministries of the USSR.

ARTICLE 32

The legislative power of the USSR is exercised exclusively by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 33

The Supreme Soviet of the USSR consists of two Chambers: the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities.

ARTICLE 34

The Soviet of the Union is elected by the citizens of the USSR voting by election districts on the basis of one deputy for every 300,000 of the population.

ARTICLE 35

The Soviet of Nationalities is elected by the citizens of the USSR voting by Union Republics, Autonomous Republics, Autonomous Regions, and National Areas on the basis of 25 deputies from each Union Republic, 11 deputies from each Autonomous Republic, 5 deputies from each Autonomous Region and one deputy from each National Area.

ARTICLE 36

The Supreme Soviet of the USSR is elected for a term of four years.

ARTICLE 37

The two Chambers of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities, have equal rights.

ARTICLE 38

The Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities have equal powers to initiate legislation.

ARTICLE 39

A law is considered adopted if passed by both Chambers of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR by a simple majority vote in each.

ARTICLE 40

Laws passed by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR are published in the languages of the Union Republics over the signatures of the President and Secretary of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 41

Sessions of the Soviet of the Union and of the Soviet of Nationalities begin and terminate simultaneously.

ARTICLE 42

The Soviet of the Union elects a Chairman of the Soviet of the Union and four Vice-Chairmen.

ARTICLE 43

The Soviet of Nationalities elects a Chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities and four Vice-Chairmen.

ARTICLE 44

The Chairmen of the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities preside at the meetings of the respective Chambers and have charge of the conduct of their business and proceedings.

ARTICLE 45

Joint meetings of the two Chambers of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR are presided over alternately by the Chairman of the Soviet of the Union and the Chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities.

ARTICLE 46

Sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR are convened by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR twice a year.

Extraordinary sessions are convened by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR at its discretion or on the demand of one of the Union Republics.

ARTICLE 47

In the event of disagreement between the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities, the question is referred for settlement to a conciliation commission formed by the Chambers on a parity basis. If the conciliation commission fails to arrive at an agreement or if its decision fails to satisfy one of the Chambers, the question is considered for a second time by the Chambers. Failing agreement between the two Chambers, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR dissolves the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and orders new elections.

ARTICLE 48

The Supreme Soviet of the USSR at a joint meeting of the two Chambers elects the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, consisting of a President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, sixteen Vice-Presidents, a Secretary of the Presidium and fifteen members of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is accountable to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for all its activities.

ARTICLE 49

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR:

- a) Convenes the sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR;
- b) Issues decrees;
- c) Gives interpretations of the laws of the USSR in operation;
- d) Dissolves the Supreme Soviet of

the USSR in conformity with Article 47 of the Constitution of the USSR and orders new elections;

e) Conducts nationwide polls (referendums) on its own initiative or on the demand of one of the Union Republics;

f) Annuls decisions and orders of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and of the Councils of Ministers of the Union Republics if they do not conform to law;

g) In the intervals between sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, releases and appoints Ministers of the USSR on the recommendation of the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, subject to subsequent confirmation by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR;

h) Institutes decorations (Orders and Medals) and titles of honor of the USSR;

i) Awards Orders and Medals and confers titles of honor of the USSR;

j) Exercises the right of pardon;

k) Institutes military titles, diplomatic ranks and other special titles;

l) Appoints and removes the high command of the Armed Forces of the USSR;

m) In the intervals between sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, proclaims a state of war in the event of military attack on the USSR, or when necessary to fulfill international treaty obligations concerning mutual defense against aggression;

n) Orders general or partial mobilization;

o) Ratifies and denounces international treaties of the USSR;

p) Appoints and recalls plenipotentiary representatives of the USSR to foreign states;

q) Receives the letters of credence and recall of diplomatic representatives accredited to it by foreign states;

r) Proclaims martial law in separate localities or throughout the USSR in the interests of the defense of the USSR or of the maintenance of public order and the security of the state.

ARTICLE 50

The Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities elect Credentials Commissions to verify the credentials of the members of the respective Chambers.

On the report of the Credentials Commissions, the Chambers decide whether to recognize the credentials of deputies or to annul their election.

ARTICLE 51

The Supreme Soviet of the USSR, when it deems necessary, appoints com-

missions of investigation and audit on any matter.

It is the duty of all institutions and officials to comply with the demands of such commissions and to submit to them all necessary materials and documents.

ARTICLE 52

A member of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR may not be prosecuted or arrested without the consent of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, or, when the Supreme Soviet of the USSR is not in session, without the consent of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 53

On the expiration of the term of office of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, or on its dissolution prior to the expiration of its term of office, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR retains its powers until the newly-elected Supreme Soviet of the USSR shall have formed a new Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 54

On the expiration of the term of office of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, or in the event of its dissolution prior to the expiration of its term of office, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR orders new elections to be held within a period not exceeding two months from the date of expiration of the term of office or dissolution of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 55

The newly-elected Supreme Soviet of the USSR is convened by the outgoing Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR not later than three months after the elections.

ARTICLE 56

The Supreme Soviet of the USSR, at a joint meeting of the two Chambers, appoints the Government of the USSR, namely, the Council of Ministers of the USSR.

Chapter IV

THE HIGHER ORGANS OF STATE POWER IN THE UNION REPUBLICS

ARTICLE 57

The highest organ of state power in a



AZERBAIJAN SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



LITHUANIAN SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



MOLDAVIAN SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

Union Republic is the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic.

ARTICLE 58

The Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic is elected by the citizens of the Republic for a term of four years.

The basis of representation is established by the Constitution of the Union Republic.

ARTICLE 59

The Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic is the sole legislative organ of the Republic.

ARTICLE 60

The Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic:

a) Adopts the Constitution of the Republic and amends it in conformity with Article 16 of the Constitution of the USSR;

b) Confirms the Constitutions of the Autonomous Republics forming part of it and defines the boundaries of their territories;

c) Approves the national-economic plan and the budget of the Republic and forms economic administration areas;

d) Exercises the right of amnesty and pardon of citizens sentenced by the judicial organs of the Union Republic;

e) Decides questions of representation of the Union Republic in its international relations;

f) Determines the manner of organizing the Republic's military formations.

ARTICLE 61

The Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic elects the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic, consisting of a President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic, Vice-Presidents, a Secretary of the Presidium and members of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic.

The powers of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic are defined by the Constitution of the Union Republic.

ARTICLE 62

The Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic elects a Chairman and Vice-Chairmen to conduct its meetings.

ARTICLE 63

The Supreme Soviet of a Union Republic appoints the Government of the Union Republic, namely, the Council of Ministers of the Union Republic.

Chapter V

THE ORGANS
OF STATE ADMINISTRATION
OF THE UNION OF SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

ARTICLE 64

The highest executive and administrative organ of the state power of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is the Council of Ministers of the USSR.

ARTICLE 65

The Council of Ministers of the USSR is responsible and accountable to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, or, in the intervals between sessions of the Supreme Soviet, to the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 66

The Council of Ministers of the USSR issues decisions and orders on the basis and in pursuance of the laws in operation, and verifies their execution.

ARTICLE 67

Decisions and orders of the Council of Ministers of the USSR are binding throughout the territory of the USSR.

ARTICLE 68

The Council of Ministers of the USSR:

a) Coordinates and directs the work of the all-Union and Union-Republican Ministries of the USSR and of other institutions under its jurisdiction, exercises guidance of the Economic Councils of the economic administration areas through the Councils of Ministers of the Union Republics;

b) Adopts measures to carry out the national-economic plan and the state budget, and to strengthen the credit and monetary system;

c) Adopts measures for the maintenance of public order, for the protection of the interests of the state, and for the safeguarding of the rights of citizens;

d) Exercises general guidance in the sphere of relations with foreign states;

e) Fixes the annual contingent of citizens to be called up for military service and directs the general organization of the Armed Forces of the country;

f) Sets up, whenever necessary, special committees and central administrations under the Council of Ministers of the USSR for economic and cultural affairs and defense.

ARTICLE 69

The Council of Ministers of the USSR has the right, in respect of those

branches of administration and economy which come within the jurisdiction of the USSR, to suspend decisions and orders of the Councils of Ministers of the Union Republics and of the Economic Councils of the economic administration areas and to annul orders and instructions of Ministers of the USSR.

ARTICLE 70

The Council of Ministers of the USSR is appointed by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and consists of:

The Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR;

The First Vice-Chairmen of the Council of Ministers of the USSR;

The Vice-Chairmen of the Council of Ministers of the USSR;

The Ministers of the USSR;

The Chairman of the State Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on Planning;

The Chairman of the Commission of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on Soviet Control;

The Chairman of the State Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on Labor and Wages;

The Chairman of the State Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on Science and Technology;

The Chairman of the State Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on Aircraft Technology;

The Chairman of the State Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on Defense Technology;

The Chairman of the State Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on Radioelectronics;

The Chairman of the State Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on Shipbuilding;

The Chairman of the State Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on Construction;

The Chairman of the State Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on Foreign Economic Relations;

The Chairman of the Committee on the Security of the State under the Council of Ministers of the USSR;

The Chairman of the Administrative Board of the State Bank of the USSR;
The Chief of the Central Statistical Board under the Council of Ministers of the USSR.

The Council of Ministers of the USSR includes the Chairmen of the Councils of Ministers of the Union Republics by virtue of their office.

ARTICLE 71

The Government of the USSR or a Minister of the USSR to whom a question of a member of the Supreme Soviet

of the USSR is addressed must give a verbal or written reply in the respective Chamber within a period not exceeding three days.

ARTICLE 72

The Ministers of the USSR direct the branches of state administration which come within the jurisdiction of the USSR.

ARTICLE 73

The Ministers of the USSR, within the limits of the jurisdiction of their respective Ministries, issue orders and instructions on the basis and in pursuance of the laws in operation, and also of decisions and orders of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, and verify their execution.

ARTICLE 74

The Ministries of the USSR are either all-Union or Union-Republican Ministries.

ARTICLE 75

Each all-Union Ministry directs the branch of state administration entrusted to it throughout the territory of the USSR either directly or through bodies appointed by it.

ARTICLE 76

The Union-Republican Ministries, as a rule, direct the branches of state administration entrusted to them through corresponding Ministries of the Union Republics; they administer directly only a definite and limited number of enterprises according to a list confirmed by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

ARTICLE 77

The following Ministries are all-Union Ministries:

The Ministry of Foreign Trade;

The Ministry of Merchant Marine;

The Ministry of Railways;

The Ministry of the Medium Machine-Building Industry;

The Ministry of Transport Construction;

The Ministry of the Chemical Industry;

The Ministry of Electric Power Stations.

ARTICLE 78

The following Ministries are Union-Republican Ministries:

The Ministry of Internal Affairs;

The Ministry of Higher Education;

The Ministry of Geological Survey

and Conservation of Mineral Resources;

The Ministry of Public Health;

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs;

The Ministry of Culture;

The Ministry of Defense;

The Ministry of Communications;

The Ministry of Agriculture;

The Ministry of Trade;

The Ministry of Finance;

The Ministry of Grain Stocks.

Chapter VI

THE ORGANS OF STATE ADMINISTRATION OF THE UNION REPUBLICS

ARTICLE 79

The highest executive and administrative organ of the state power of a Union Republic is the Council of Ministers of the Union Republic.

ARTICLE 80

The Council of Ministers of a Union Republic is responsible and accountable to the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic, or, in the intervals between sessions of the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic, to the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic.

ARTICLE 81

The Council of Ministers of a Union Republic issues decisions and orders on the basis and in pursuance of the laws in operation of the USSR and of the Union Republic, and of the decisions and orders of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, and verifies their execution.

ARTICLE 82

The Council of Ministers of a Union Republic has the right to suspend decisions and orders of the Councils of Ministers of its Autonomous Republics, and to annul decisions and orders of the Executive Committees of the Soviets of Working People's Deputies of its Territories, Regions and Autonomous Regions, as well as decisions and orders of the Economic Councils of the economic administration areas.

ARTICLE 83

The Council of Ministers of a Union Republic is appointed by the Supreme Soviet of the Union Republic and consists of:

The Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Union Republic;

The First Vice-Chairmen of the Council of Ministers;

The Vice-Chairmen of the Council of Ministers;

The Ministers;



LATVIAN SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



KIRGHIZ SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



TAJIK SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

The Chairman of the State Commission on Planning;

The Chairman of the State Committee of the Council of Ministers of the Union Republic on Construction and Architecture;

The Chairman of the Committee on the Security of the State under the Council of Ministers of the Union Republic.

ARTICLE 84

The Ministers of a Union Republic direct the branches of state administration which come within the jurisdiction of the Union Republic.

ARTICLE 85

The Ministers of a Union Republic, within the limits of the jurisdiction of their respective Ministries, issue orders and instructions on the basis and in pursuance of the laws of the USSR and of the Union Republic, of the decisions and orders of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Council of Ministers of the Union Republic, and of the orders and instructions of the Union-Republican Ministries of the USSR.

ARTICLE 86

The Ministries of a Union Republic are either Union-Republican or Republican Ministries.

ARTICLE 87

Each Union-Republican Ministry directs the branch of state administration entrusted to it, and is subordinate both to the Council of Ministers of the Union Republic and to the corresponding Union-Republican Ministry of the USSR.

ARTICLE 88

Each Republican Ministry directs the branch of state administration entrusted to it and is directly subordinate to the Council of Ministers of the Union Republic.

ARTICLE 88-a

The Economic Councils of the economic administration areas direct the branches of economic activity entrusted to them, and are directly subordinate to the Council of Ministers of the Union Republic.

The Economic Councils of the economic administration areas issue within their jurisdiction decisions and orders on the basis and in pursuance of the laws of the USSR and the Union Republic and decisions and orders of the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Council of Ministers of the Union Republic.

Chapter VII

THE HIGHER ORGANS OF STATE POWER IN THE AUTONOMOUS SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

ARTICLE 89

The highest organ of state power in an Autonomous Republic is the Supreme Soviet of the Autonomous Republic.

ARTICLE 90

The Supreme Soviet of an Autonomous Republic is elected by the citizens of the Republic for a term of four years on a basis of representation established by the Constitution of the Autonomous Republic.

ARTICLE 91

The Supreme Soviet of an Autonomous Republic is the sole legislative organ of the Autonomous Republic.

ARTICLE 92

Each Autonomous Republic has its own Constitution, which takes account of the specific features of the Autonomous Republic and is drawn up in full conformity with the Constitution of the Union Republic.

ARTICLE 93

The Supreme Soviet of an Autonomous Republic elects the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Autonomous Republic and appoints the Council of Ministers of the Autonomous Republic, in accordance with its Constitution.

Chapter VIII

THE LOCAL ORGANS OF STATE POWER

ARTICLE 94

The organs of state power in Territories, Regions, Autonomous Regions, Areas, Districts, cities and rural localities (stanitsas, villages, hamlets, kishlaks, auls) are the Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

ARTICLE 95

The Soviets of Working People's Deputies of Territories, Regions, Autonomous Regions, Areas, Districts, cities and rural localities (stanitsas, villages, hamlets, kishlaks, auls) are elected by the working people of the respective Territories, Regions, Autonomous Regions, Areas, Districts, cities, and rural localities for a term of two years.

ARTICLE 96

The basis of representation for Soviets of Working People's Deputies is determined by the Constitutions of the Union Republics.

ARTICLE 97

The Soviets of Working People's Deputies direct the work of the organs of administration subordinate to them, ensure the maintenance of public order, the observance of the laws and the protection of the rights of citizens, direct local economic and cultural affairs and draw up the local budgets.

ARTICLE 98

The Soviets of Working People's Deputies adopt decisions and issue orders within the limits of the powers vested in them by the laws of the USSR and of the Union Republic.

ARTICLE 99

The executive and administrative organ of the Soviet of Working People's Deputies of a Territory, Region, Autonomous Region, Area, District, city or rural locality is the Executive Committee elected by it, consisting of a Chairman, Vice-Chairmen, a Secretary and members.

ARTICLE 100

The executive and administrative organ of the Soviet of Working People's Deputies in a small locality, in accordance with the Constitution of the Union Republic, is the Chairman, the Vice-Chairman and the Secretary elected by the Soviet of Working People's Deputies.

ARTICLE 101

The executive organs of the Soviets of Working People's Deputies are directly accountable both to the Soviets of Working People's Deputies which elected them and to the executive organ of the superior Soviet of Working People's Deputies.

Chapter IX

THE COURTS AND THE PROCURATOR'S OFFICE

ARTICLE 102

In the USSR justice is administered by the Supreme Court of the USSR, the Supreme Courts of the Union Republics, the Courts of the Territories, Regions,

Autonomous Republics, Autonomous Regions and Areas, the Special Courts of the USSR established by decision of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, and the People's Courts.

ARTICLE 103

In all Courts cases are tried with the participation of people's assessors, except in cases specially provided for by law.

ARTICLE 104

The Supreme Court of the USSR is the highest judicial organ. The Supreme Court of the USSR is charged with the supervision of the judicial activities of all the judicial organs of the USSR and of the Union Republics within the limits established by law.

ARTICLE 105

The Supreme Court of the USSR is elected by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for a term of five years.

The Supreme Court of the USSR includes the Chairmen of the Supreme Courts of the Union Republics by virtue of their office.

ARTICLE 106

The Supreme Courts of the Union Republics are elected by the Supreme Soviets of the Union Republics for a term of five years.

ARTICLE 107

The Supreme Courts of the Autonomous Republics are elected by the Supreme Soviets of the Autonomous Republics for a term of five years.

ARTICLE 108

The Courts of Territories, Regions, Autonomous Regions and Areas are elected by the Soviets of Working People's Deputies of the respective Territories, Regions, Autonomous Regions or Areas for a term of five years.

ARTICLE 109

People's Courts are elected by the citizens of the districts on the basis of universal, direct and equal suffrage by secret ballot for a term of three years.

ARTICLE 110

Judicial proceedings are conducted in the language of the Union Republic, Autonomous Republic or Autonomous Region, persons not knowing this language being guaranteed the oppor-

tunity of fully acquainting themselves with the material of the case through an interpreter and likewise the right to use their own language in court.

ARTICLE 111

In all Courts of the USSR cases are heard in public, unless otherwise provided for by law, and the accused is guaranteed the right to defense.

ARTICLE 112

Judges are independent and subject only to the law.

ARTICLE 113

Supreme supervisory power to ensure the strict observance of the law by all Ministries and institutions subordinated to them, as well as by officials and citizens of the USSR generally, is vested in the Procurator-General of the USSR.

ARTICLE 114

The Procurator-General of the USSR is appointed by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR for a term of seven years.

ARTICLE 115

Procurators of Republics, Territories, Regions, Autonomous Republics and Autonomous Regions are appointed by the Procurator-General of the USSR for a term of five years.

ARTICLE 116

Area, district and city procurators are appointed by the Procurators of the Union Republics, subject to the approval of the Procurator-General of the USSR, for a term of five years.

ARTICLE 117

The organs of the Procurator's Office perform their functions independently of any local organs whatsoever, being subordinate solely to the Procurator-General of the USSR.

Chapter X

FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF CITIZENS

ARTICLE 118

Citizens of the USSR have the right to work, that is, the right to guaranteed employment and payment for their work in accordance with its quantity and quality.

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ARMENIAN SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



TURKMEN SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC



ESTONIAN SOVIET
SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

The right to work is ensured by the socialist organization of the national economy, the steady growth of the productive forces of Soviet society, the elimination of the possibility of economic crises, and the abolition of unemployment.

ARTICLE 119

Citizens of the USSR have the right to rest and leisure.

The right to rest and leisure is ensured by the establishment of an eight-hour day for industrial, office, and professional workers, the reduction of the working day to seven or six hours for arduous trades and to four hours in shops where conditions of work are particularly arduous; by the institution of annual vacations with full pay for industrial, office, and professional workers, and by the provision of a wide network of sanatoria, holiday homes, and clubs for the accommodation of the working people.

ARTICLE 120

Citizens of the USSR have the right to maintenance in old age and also in case of sickness or disability.

This right is ensured by the extensive development of social insurance of industrial, office, and professional workers at state expense, free medical service for the working people, and the provision of a wide network of health resorts for the use of the working people.

ARTICLE 121

Citizens of the USSR have the right to education.

This right is ensured by universal compulsory seven-year education; by extensive development of secondary education; by free education in all schools, higher as well as secondary; by a system of state grants for students of schools of higher education who excel in their studies; by instruction in schools being conducted in the native language; and by the organization in the factories, state farms, machine and tractor stations, and collective farms of free vocational, technical and agronomic training for the working people.

ARTICLE 122

Women in the USSR are accorded equal rights with men in all spheres of economic, government, cultural, political and other public activity.

The possibility of exercising these rights is ensured by women being accorded an equal right with men to work, payment for work, rest and leisure, social insurance and education, and by state protection of the interests of mother and

child, state aid to mothers of large families and unmarried mothers, maternity leave with full pay, and the provision of a wide network of maternity homes, nurseries and kindergartens.

ARTICLE 123

Equality of rights of citizens of the USSR, irrespective of their nationality or race, in all spheres of economic, government, cultural, political and other public activity, is an indefeasible law.

Any direct or indirect restriction of the rights of, or, conversely, the establishment of any direct or indirect privileges for, citizens on account of their race or nationality, as well as any advocacy of racial or national exclusiveness or hatred and contempt, are punishable by law.

ARTICLE 124

In order to ensure to citizens freedom of conscience, the church in the USSR is separated from the state, and the school from the church. Freedom of religious worship and freedom of anti-religious propaganda is recognized for all citizens.

ARTICLE 125

In conformity with the interests of the working people, and in order to strengthen the socialist system, the citizens of the USSR are guaranteed by law:

- a) freedom of speech;
- b) freedom of the press;
- c) freedom of assembly, including the holding of mass meetings;
- d) freedom of street processions and demonstrations.

These civil rights are ensured by placing at the disposal of the working people and their organizations printing presses, stocks of paper, public buildings, the streets, communications facilities and other material requisites for the exercise of these rights.

ARTICLE 126

In conformity with the interests of the working people, and in order to develop the organizational initiative and political activity of the masses of the people, citizens of the USSR are guaranteed the right to unite in public organizations: trade unions, cooperative societies, youth organizations, sport and defense organizations, cultural, technical and scientific societies; and the most active and politically-conscious citizens in the ranks of the working class, working peasants and working intelligentsia voluntarily unite in the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, which is the

vanguard of the working people in their struggle to build a communist society and is the leading core of all organizations of the working people, both public and state.

ARTICLE 127

Citizens of the USSR are guaranteed inviolability of the person.

No person may be placed under arrest except by decision of a court or with the sanction of a procurator.

ARTICLE 128

The inviolability of the homes of citizens and privacy of correspondence are protected by law.

ARTICLE 129

The USSR affords the right of asylum to foreign citizens persecuted for defending the interests of the working people, or for scientific activities, or for struggling for national liberation.

ARTICLE 130

It is the duty of every citizen of the USSR to abide by the Constitution of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, to observe the laws, to maintain labor discipline, honestly to perform public duties, and to respect the rules of socialist intercourse.

ARTICLE 131

It is the duty of every citizen of the USSR to safeguard and fortify public, socialist property as the sacred and inviolable foundation of the Soviet system, as the source of the wealth and might of the country, as the source of the prosperity and culture of all the working people.

Persons committing offenses against public, socialist property are enemies of the people.

ARTICLE 132

Universal military service is the law. Military service in the Armed Forces of the USSR is an honorable duty of the citizens of the USSR.

ARTICLE 133

To defend the country is the sacred duty of every citizen of the USSR. Treason to the Motherland—violation of the oath of allegiance, desertion to the enemy, impairing the military power of the state, espionage—is punishable with all the severity of the law as the most heinous of crimes.

Chapter XI

THE ELECTORAL SYSTEM

ARTICLE 134

Members of all Soviets of Working People's Deputies—of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, the Supreme Soviets of the Union Republics, the Soviets of Working People's Deputies of the Territories and Regions, the Supreme Soviets of the Autonomous Republics, the Soviets of Working People's Deputies of the Autonomous Regions, and the Area, District, city and rural (stanitsa, village, hamlet, kishlak, aul) Soviets of Working People's Deputies—are chosen by the electors on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

ARTICLE 135

Elections of deputies are universal: all citizens of the USSR who have reached the age of eighteen, irrespective of race or nationality, sex, religion, education, domicile, social origin, property status or past activities, have the right to vote in the election of deputies, with the exception of insane persons and persons who have been convicted by a court of law and whose sentences include deprivation of electoral rights.

Every citizen of the USSR who has reached the age of twenty-three is eligible for election to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, irrespective of race or nationality, sex, religion, education, domicile, social origin, property status or past activities.

ARTICLE 136

Elections of deputies are equal: each citizen has one vote; all citizens participate in elections on an equal footing.

ARTICLE 137

Women have the right to elect and be elected on equal terms with men.

ARTICLE 138

Citizens serving in the Armed Forces of the USSR have the right to elect and be elected on equal terms with all other citizens.

ARTICLE 139

Elections of deputies are direct: all Soviets of Working People's Deputies, from rural and city Soviets of Working People's Deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, are elected by the citizens by direct vote.

ARTICLE 140

Voting at elections of deputies is secret.

ARTICLE 141

Candidates are nominated by election districts.

The right to nominate candidates is secured to public organizations and societies of the working people: Communist Party organizations, trade unions, cooperatives, youth organizations and cultural societies.

ARTICLE 142

It is the duty of every deputy to report to his electors on his work and on the work of his Soviet of Working People's Deputies, and he may be recalled at any time upon decision of a majority of the electors in the manner established by law.

Chapter XII

ARMS, FLAG, CAPITAL

ARTICLE 143

The arms of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics are a sickle and hammer against a globe depicted in the rays of the sun and surrounded by ears of grain, with the inscription "Workers of All Countries, Unite!" in the languages of the Union Republics. At the top of the arms is a five-pointed star.

ARTICLE 144

The state flag of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is of red cloth with the sickle and hammer depicted in gold in the upper corner near the staff and above them a five-pointed red star bordered in gold. The ratio of the width to the length is 1:2.

ARTICLE 145

The Capital of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is the City of Moscow.

Chapter XIII

PROCEDURE FOR AMENDING THE CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE 146

The Constitution of the USSR may be amended only by decision of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR adopted by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the votes in each of its Chambers.



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The FUNDAMENTAL LAW of the LAND of SOCIALISM

Continued from page 26

This role of the Communist Party in the nation's life has deep historical roots and stems from the entire course of social development of our country since the turn of the century.

In old Russia, there were a large number of political parties. With the exception of the Communist Party all were so badly compromised that they lost whatever influence they had managed to win. One after another they wasted away and passed from the scene. Only the Communist Party emerged with honor from the grim tests of revolution, civil war and reconstruction, carrying the general esteem of the public because of the integrity and clarity of its program reflecting the interests of the country and its people.

All of the Soviet Union's achievements, whether in the field of industry or agriculture, science or technology, education or living standards, were scored under the guidance of the Communist Party. These achievements boosted the once undeveloped country to its present eminence among the world's powers. For the years ahead the policy of the Communist Party is directed at the achievement of yet higher goals in the national economy and the well-being of the population.

The victory of socialism in our country has resulted in a moral and political unity of the people. Soviet society has no antagonistic classes. It is composed of two friendly classes, the workers and the peasants, and the intellectuals sprung from them. All sections of the population are united by common interests, aims and aspirations. All peoples of the multi-national Soviet Union are bound by fraternal friendship and cooperation in every field of life.

Under these circumstances there is no ground for the existence of rival parties. The Communist Party embodies the interests of every section of Soviet society and represents a voluntary and potent alliance of the most socially aware citizens among the workers, peasants and intellectuals. Its strength lies in its unlimited support by the widest masses of the people.

The Communist Party uses its mandate of leadership to develop the initiative and creative energies of all the people in the building of a new life. During elections, as in all its activities, the Communist Party does not act alone. It acts in concert with all other public organizations, reflecting general needs and working for the common good.

The Citizen's Rights Implemented

No less important than political rights are the material rights the Constitution ensures to every citizen. The most significant of these is the right to a gainful job. There is no unemployment in our country



Help wanted ads underscore the wide choice of jobs. Every citizen is guaranteed a job with equal pay for equal effort, and paid vacations.

nor is there possibility of economic crisis. They have been eliminated by socialist planning and national ownership of land, factories and natural resources.

Available to every citizen is a choice of work that will use his ability and skills, his knowledge and experience. He is guaranteed equal pay for equal work, with wages commensurate with the quality and quantity of his production.

The Constitution further guarantees citizens the right to rest and leisure by setting limits to the working time—a four-, six-, seven- or eight-hour day, depending upon the type of work; by annual vacations with full pay and by providing health and vacation resorts, and all kinds of recreation facilities.

The Constitution guarantees the Soviet people the right to maintenance in old age and in case of illness or disability.

Old-age pensions from the national fund are paid industrial, clerical and professional workers when they reach the retirement age of 60 for men and 55 for women. Maintenance in case of illness is provided for by the national system of free medical and hospital care and by social insurance benefits which pay up to 90 per cent of wages during the period of illness or disability. The social insurance fund is made up entirely of payments by factories, offices and other places of employment, and the worker is not required to contribute any portion of his earnings.

Continued on next page

THE COUNTRY HAS A WIDE NETWORK OF HEALTH AND VACATION RESORTS OFFERING THEIR ACCOMMODATIONS EITHER FREE OR AT SHARPLY REDUCED RATES FOR ALL WORKERS.



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A multitude of newspapers and magazines in many languages afford the public a forum for voicing the opinions of individuals and of groups.

The FUNDAMENTAL LAW of the LAND of SOCIALISM

Continued

The right of assembly and discussion is fully exercised at all levels and these mass opinions have weight in influencing legislative action.



All citizens are ensured the right to an education. This means the opportunity to obtain secondary and college education, and vocational training without the need to pay any fees. Not only is education through the university level free everywhere in the Soviet Union, but college students are given monthly stipends for their maintenance.

Women in our country by constitutional proviso are accorded equal rights with men in all spheres of activity. They exercise that equality in choice of work, payment for work, education, social insurance and in all other areas. The Constitution provides for paid maternity leave, government assistance to mothers of large families and to unmarried mothers and in other ways takes care of the special needs of mothers and children.

Socialist and Personal Property

All those rights and freedoms guaranteed to the Soviet citizen by the Constitution rest on the strong foundation of a socialist economy shaped and directed by an over-all national plan.

The basis of the economy of our country is socialist ownership of the means and instruments of production. All industry, transport and banks, the land and its wealth, state-operated agricultural enterprises and the bulk of urban housing is national property—owned by the whole of the people. Since the consolidation of the collective farm system in the early thirties, the principle of public property has been dominant in agriculture.

These are the two forms of socialist property defined by the Constitution—one nationally owned and the other owned by collective farms and cooperative societies. This socialist ownership of the country's property accounts for the growth of the Soviet economy, as well as the steady rise in the material well-being and cultural standards of the people.

Life's experience has demonstrated to the Soviet people that what benefits the country as a whole benefits each of its citizens individually. From the viewpoint of both civic duty and self interest, it therefore behooves every citizen to safeguard the socialist property—it is his property he is protecting.

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

Thus, in a totality of ways, the Constitution and laws of the Soviet Union guard the interests of the individual citizen. This concern with the individual is reflected in such other guarantees as inviolability of person, inviolability of the citizen's home, privacy of correspondence, the right to legal defense.

But more fundamentally, that concern with the individual is manifest in the concrete assurances provided by the Constitution that each citizen, regardless of race, nationality, sex, property status or social origin, will have the same opportunity to develop his abilities and to use them gainfully on his own behalf and for the public good.

Amendments and Additions

As the life of the country keeps progressing, so does the Constitution grow and develop as a democratic instrument. In the past few years a number of amendments and additions were made, designed to enlarge the role of the Union Republics. These new constitutional provisions give larger legislative power to the republics and correspondingly limit the legislative powers of the national government.

The law on the decentralization of industrial management passed in 1957 at the May session of the USSR Supreme Soviet considerably enlarged the powers of the republics in the administration of their economies. By virtue of this law, now reflected in the Constitution, the major part of the country's industrial establishments are administered by the republics and not by the national government, as previously.

Characteristic, too, of the interrelation between the country's economic and political development is the fact that as the economy has grown and larger material potentials have opened up, those rights stipulated by the Constitution have been further instrumented. In the postwar period, for example, free education has been extended by the Constitution through the university and professional school.

As the country grows, so will its Constitution reflect that growth. It is no static and unchanging document. It mirrors the will, the needs and the progress of the country and the people. ■



THE OLDEST AND THE YOUNGEST IN THE 159-MEMBER FAMILY OF AZERBAIJAN FARMER MAHMUD EIVAZOV.

MAHMUD EIVAZOV, who recently celebrated his 150th birthday, is an honored and respected man in his native village of Pirassura, high in the Talysh Mountains of Azerbaijan. He is also well known far beyond it, although there are more than 4,000 Soviet citizens today who have passed the 100-year mark.

The Azerbaijan Methuselah won his renown by his unusual activity and untiring industry. It was only recently that he agreed, rather reluctantly, to retire on a pension upon the insistent demands of his kinsmen. Up until that time Eivazov worked as a collective farm team leader, raising corn, vegetables and fruit. Now, even after his retirement, he continues to tend his own orchard.

"I can't do without work. My hands itch to do something and I am still strong enough," the gray-bearded patriarch declares.

Eivazov's work on the collective farm was so appreciated that the Executive Committee of the USSR Agricultural Exhibition in Moscow decorated him with three gold medals, while the Soviet Government bestowed the Order of the Red Banner of Labor upon the old peasant from Pirassura.

In 1956 the USSR Ministry of Communications issued a postage stamp with a portrait of Eivazov. When this yellow-green stamp, in

a 40-kopek denomination, arrived in Azerbaijan, the old man's countrymen found an error. Instead of "Mahmud," his name was spelled "Muhammed."

To rectify its mistake, the Ministry issued another stamp with Eivazov's name spelled correctly. This time the stamp was bright green. Philatelists are continually searching for these two rare stamps and it seems that the second version of it is more rare than the first.

Mahmud Eivazov has 23 children, the eldest of whom is 122 years old. Counting children, grandchildren, great grandchildren and their offspring, there were 159 in the family the last count.

Not long ago Mahmud Eivazov paid a visit to Moscow at the invitation of the Executive Committee of the USSR Agricultural Exhibition and instantly took a liking to the large and noisy city.

The patriarch's keen eye and sensitive heart, tuned to man's needs through his long and busy life, quickly caught the throbbing stream of city life in a characteristic note when he named Moscow "the city of kind and industrious people." And he added that "such people ought to live long."

Mahmud Eivazov is quite correct. Within the past 40 years man's life span in the Soviet Union has more than doubled. ■

HE IS 150 YEARS OLD



Now retired, mainly through insistence of relatives, Eivazov manages to work his own orchard.

Arrows show the difference in "Eivazov" stamps. The one at the left misspells his first name.





TRAVELING COMPANIONS

Yuri Rytkeu is the first writer of fiction to come from the Chukchi, an Eskimo people who had no written language before the 1917 Revolution. He was born in Chukotka in 1930, the son of a hunter. In his native settlement he graduated from the seven-year school, then went to study to a teacher's college at Anadyr, a regional center in the Far North, and from there to the University of Leningrad.

His first stories were published in 1950. He wrote about the changed life of his people, their eager awakening to education, their grasp of the opportunities open to them as free and equal citizens of the Soviet Union. His characters are the people he grew up among in the hunters' cooperative—the old hunter Memyt, his young daughter Tegryne, the university student Gheyuteghin who figures in this autobiographical sketch.

Beside fiction Rytkeu has translated into his native language the poems of Pushkin, the novel *Chukotka* by the Russian writer Syomushkin, and a number of Russian textbooks used by Chukchi school children.

By Yuri Rytkeu

I WOKE up at daybreak and pulling the curtain a little aside looked out of the window. The train was crossing a bridge. It must have been the sudden change in the sound of the wheels that had awakened me.

The river beyond flowed peacefully. I thought it was the Viatka, but I couldn't tell for certain and there was nobody awake to ask. Gheyuteghin was lying with only a sheet over him, sound asleep. His blanket lay crumpled at his feet, part of it trailing over the side and swinging in time with the carriage as it rocked. Our fellow-passengers in the lower berths were also asleep.

It was quite dark in the train since the light barely came through the heavy curtains. Between the girders of the bridge I could see an expanse of water reflecting the morning sky. I lay propped on my elbows and eagerly took in the pink and gold of the clouds mirrored in the tranquil surface of the water. Then the river flashed out of view, but the girders kept filing by. That bridge seemed twice as long across as the river itself—probably, I ventured to guess, it was built so because the river widened so much during the spring floods.

We went by the last of the girders. A small birch copse floated past the window, then some vegetable patches, a sprinkling of cottages and a level crossing. The barrier was down; drawn up in front of it were three trucks, a Pobeda car and a couple of cyclists. The trucks were loaded with sacks of grain—of the new crop, I imagined—and strips of red bunting with slogans painted on them ran along the sides. The level crossing receded and then came more vegetable gardens and more cottages—but the train was going much slower now.

We pulled up at a station. I could not catch its name since our car was one of the last. All I could see was a one-story brick building with "Luggage" written across its front. I decided I would look out for the name of the station when the train got moving again and our car pulled by the station building.

Meanwhile, I turned on my side and shutting my eyes mused on a story I had begun to write a week before we left. Then I dozed off and when I opened my eyes again it was ten o'clock—I had slept through the whole morning.

The curtains had been drawn back, and the bright sunshine was streaming in. Gheyuteghin's bed had been neatly made up and he was now talking to our two fellow-passengers in the berths below.

Our traveling companions spoke Russian haltingly. We had noticed that the day before when they boarded the train. Gheyuteghin, I, and the others who had come to see us off had arrived at the station half an hour before the train was due to start. We had flung our things up on our berths and gone back to the platform to talk with our friends. Gradually the car filled up. A couple came up to the conductor; the man was about fifty and the woman perhaps forty and very attractive. The man showed their tickets and asked if this car was the right one.

We had noticed the passenger's accent, the cut of his suit and the lady's gray traveling cloak, the bright patchwork of labels on the luggage carried by their porter.

"They must be foreigners," said Gheyuteghin.

Our own platform party waiting to see us off were friends of Gheyuteghin, students at Moscow University. He had made their acquaintance during the winter holidays when they all had gone skiing on the Karelian Isthmus. On the morning of our arrival from Leningrad Gheyuteghin had phoned his Moscow friends and so we met at the station.

We stood chatting on the platform till the last moment and continued a shouted conversation from the train. As it gathered speed, we waved our hats. And it was not until we went into our compartment that we saw the couple with the label-plastered luggage. Then it turned out that we were going to be traveling companions as far as Khabarovsk.

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Gheyuteghin was right—they were foreign tourists, a professor of philology from Liège, and his wife, an artist. She made mistakes in her Russian while he spoke it a little better, but too carefully and with a clearly perceptible foreign accent. He, too, made a good many mistakes, but he took obvious relish in correcting his wife.

For some reason, they were very much astonished to learn that Gheyuteghin and I were Chukchi students going home to Chukotka for the summer. By the way they spoke to us, you would think we were Martians starting on our way back to Mars.

They were very tactful, though, and tried not to be over-inquisitive, and not to hurt our feelings.

The professor had kindly, intelligent eyes and a pleasant smile. He

and his wife were easy and natural with us, and on the whole we liked them. But almost every glance and every question they asked betrayed astonishment coupled with disbelief. At first it had amused us; later it began to get on our nerves, and we went off to the dining car. When we returned they were asleep.

A new day came. Below the conversation was going on again. And again, of course, the same thing as yesterday—about the natives of the Far North, their very quaint customs, their very extraordinary characteristics and the very charming primitiveness of their art. I pretended to be asleep.

"Our interest," the professor was saying, "must seem too naive to you, and even—er, how should I say? . . . too persistent. Please don't be offended, though. For us this encounter with you is—er . . . I might say, a very lucky occasion. We both took real delight in reading that novel, about Chukotka . . . Oh, how was it called?"

"*Alitet Goes to the Hills*," suggested Gheyuteghin.

"Yes, that's it. Alitet. Merci. And in general we are so . . . it is all so interesting to us! My wife even has a whole collection . . . You know, those figurines—reindeer, walruses, polar bears . . . And then she had those others . . . you know them, on that long kind of sledge . . ."

"Narti?"

"Yes, yes, on those narti. It is all like a fairy tale. And all beyond the Arctic circle! Br-rr-rr! And now this meeting, so unexpected. We meet real, live Chukchis."

The professor began to chuckle. His wife laughed. I could not see Gheyuteghin's face. He was sitting on the berth below mine.

"Oh, no offense," he said. "On the contrary, I am very glad you are interested. We have quite a lot of things worth your interest. And I must confess," he parried in the same tone the professor had used, "that I've never before in my life met real, live Belgians."

"Oh!" exclaimed the professor's wife. "I did not know that Chukchis could be so . . . er . . . sarcastic."

"Sarcastic, Claudine, sarcastic," corrected her husband.

"Yes, so sarcastic and so live . . ."

"Lively, you mean," the professor prompted her again.

"Yes, yes, so lively."

"I'm afraid you give us too much credit, Madame. We have neither the liveliness of Southerners nor their wit. Your earlier opinion of us was more accurate. Instead of blood we have ice cold water in our veins and, of course, we live exclusively on ice-cream."

"Don't mock us, Monsieur Gheyuteghin. Surely you can't deny that different nations have different national characteristics?"

"Not at all, Monsieur Leerlinck. What we do deny though, is that such distinctions are determined by geography. And what is more, we do not consider these characteristics immutable. Under certain conditions even nations believed to be nearly extinct may acquire new strength and new vitality."

"It seems you intend to talk politics instead of ethnography."

"And you prefer misinterpreting ethnography rather than talking politics, don't you?"

I decided it was time for me to break in, and, pretending I was just waking up, I said, "Good morning, everybody."

The Belgians wished me "good morning" while Gheyuteghin, who was always correct, responded with a "good day."

Under some pretense or other, the Belgians went out into the corridor—evidently to spare me the discomfort of dressing under my blanket. I jumped down from my berth and, getting into my clothes, asked Gheyuteghin: "Well, how is Monsieur Gheyuteghin feeling this morning?"

"Not too good. About the same, in fact, as a wax doll on display at an anthropology museum."

"Well then, if a museum doll could feel anything, I suppose it would be proud of the visitors' attention and of the chance to teach them something. And besides, it seems to me that a doll wouldn't get into arguments with the visitors."

"Was I rude?" asked Gheyuteghin anxiously. "I don't want to hurt them, you know. They're decent enough old people."

"Come, come! You can hardly call Claudine old."

"And neither is Maurice."

"So he's Maurice, is he?"

"Yes. They aren't bad traveling companions. If only they didn't think us such curiosities! You know, I've got the feeling that all the while we were talking they wanted to touch us to see if we are real. They seem to think we're a kind of exotic Polar creature, or something

like that. Whatever they talk about, they can't forget for a moment that we are Chukchis, and that we've somehow swindled them by wearing lounge suits rather than deerskins."

"Oh well, let them have their fun. Be more tolerant. After all, you've got to remember where they come from."

"I remember it perfectly well," sighed Gheyuteghin. "And I see we'll have to devote the ten days of our journey to this professor and his wife, and give them some idea of what socialism means."

"Listen," I said, weakening. "What if we ask the porter to change our compartment. I heard that two passengers in the next-door compartment are getting off at Sverdlovsk."

Gheyuteghin thought for a minute.

"No, we can't do that. It wouldn't be polite."

"I don't mean sneaking off. We'll tell them we don't want to be in their way."

"That won't do. They're bound to put somebody else in here. No, we don't want to forget that we are the hosts and they are the guests here. That puts us under obligation. On the train we're just plain passengers, on an equal footing, but in our country . . . See what I mean? Guests are guests, and these guests of ours are nice people."

"All right. I withdraw the motion," I said and throwing a towel across my shoulder went off to wash.

* * *

Day followed day. Perm, Sverdlovsk, Omsk, Novosibirsk. Plains gave place to mountains, mountains to lowlands and boggy brushwood. We were crossing the West-Siberian plain.

Our traveling companions took a lively interest in everything: in the natural divide between Europe and Asia, the change from one time belt to another, an elderly collective farm woman in the next compartment, a Heroine of Socialist Labor, the problem of reversing the courses of Siberian rivers. We told them everything we knew, introduced them to the Heroine of Socialist Labor, showed them on a map how the waters of the Irtysh could be made to run southward to the deserts of Kazakhstan.

Professor Leerlinck and his wife were very attentive, unprejudiced listeners. The country's dimensions were a constant wonder to them. "One time belt is plenty for Belgium," the professor chuckled. They were still more impressed by the immense scope of construction going on everywhere, and by the plans for remaking nature.

It was a pleasure for us to acquaint them with our country, the more so because the professor kept a diary which he meant to publish on his return to Belgium.

The one thing that kept embarrassing us was that we, too, had become permanent objects for study. With never-failing interest Professor Leerlinck plied us with questions about Chukotka. He would hear us out and then say something like this: "Of course, modern houses instead of yarangas and electric light instead of . . . er . . . wick lamps are unquestionably progress. But with all that isn't the North losing its character, its romance and poetry?"

At such moments, watching the professor, I wondered how his eyes could still keep their intelligent look. As for Gheyuteghin, what he would say would be, "Thank you very much. We can get on nicely without poetry." Then after a pause he would add, "Without that kind of poetry, at any rate."

The Leerlincks felt sorry, too, about our fisheries being mechanized, and even at the disappearance of the shamans from the Chukchi settlements. Not that they were enemies of progress. No, they were convinced that they were people with advanced ideas. Yet they kept admiring every remaining vestige of backwardness, which for them—so far removed—held a certain poetic charm. And us, who were only too glad to be rid of all this loathsome backwardness, they looked on as queer young people altogether unable to see "how shockingly prosaic was the effect of civilization on life."

"But you must understand, professor," said Gheyuteghin as calmly as he could, "the life that our people have finished with was actually not life at all, but a slow death. And not so very slow, either, if you want to be precise about it. That's why we hate this primitiveness. And as for romance and poetry, we see that in altogether different things. We see it in our fight against nature's cruelties, and against primitiveness itself. We see it in the way our people are being reborn, in the electricity that lights up our houses . . ."

"Electric power and poetry are different things, Monsieur Gheyu-

Continued on next page

TRAVELING COMPANIONS

Continued

teghin. Completely different things," the professor interrupted my friend.

"But from our point of view these different things, as you call them, are tied far closer together than what you call poetry and the Chukhis' old life, a curse on it."

Now, that was the very subject the professor had been trying so hard to avoid. But Gheyuteghin, forgetting his resolution not to get worked up, went on: "The whole trouble, as I see it, is that there are people who believe themselves friends of all nations, but what they admire in a nation like ours is not its strong points but its past weaknesses, or even characteristics that have been falsely attributed to it."

The professor smiled and raised his hands in mock surrender, and the whole argument ended in a laugh. By way of consolation, I told our companions that Gheyuteghin and I, when we graduate and go back home, will still have to drive the "poetic" dog-sleigh more often than the "prosaic" motor car.

★ ★ ★

The train was nearing Krasnoyarsk. I stood in the corridor looking out of a window, when Gheyuteghin came up to me and said: "Tell me, why do those Belgians speak French to one another?"

"Because they're from the southern part of Belgium."

"What does that have to do with it?"

"Everybody speaks French in the south of Belgium. And there is no such language as Belgian."

"Are you sure?"

"Ask them yourself if you don't believe me. There are two languages in Belgium. In the south they speak French, and in the north Flemish."

"Flemish?"

"Yes, it's a language like Dutch."

"No, they spoke French."

"Then it means they're from southern Belgium. Liège is in the south, if I remember right."

Gheyuteghin chuckled. "I understood nearly all they said. The fact is, they were speaking about us. I even felt embarrassed, you know."

"It's for them to feel embarrassed, not you. After all, we don't speak Chukchi when they're present."

"Oh no, I don't mean that. I felt embarrassed because they complimented us."

"Really? What was it they were saying? Are they surprised to find that Chukchis are like other people?"

"No, not that. They weren't making that much concession. They merely said what fine fellows we were. The professor even said he would gladly trade many of his own students back in Liège for us."

"Is that so?"

"Yes, something like that, if I'm not mistaken. Their way of pronouncing isn't a bit like our French teacher's. By the way, what have you been telling them about our Northern Faculty?"

"Nothing, only that I'm a student there. What of it?"

"Well, you see, he still supposes . . . or better, he believes that the requirements at the Northern are different than for the rest of the University. He said, 'There must be a special curriculum for it,' meaning much easier, of course."

"Aha! And what did you say to that?"

"Didn't I tell you they were talking between themselves? I wasn't going to let them know I understood."

"Oh yes, I forgot that. It's a wonder how you managed to control yourself. It wasn't very fair to you, was it?"

The fact is, Gheyuteghin did not belong to the Northern Faculty at all; he was a student at the regular faculty of mathematics. What it amounted to was that our friends assumed the Chukchis were unable to cope with the courses of the "real" faculties, and therefore Chukchis and other northern people had a special faculty set up for them, much easier and simpler.

Talking to them that day, we didn't bring up that subject. But the

next day I asked the professor about the University in Liège and took the opportunity to tell him a few things about the one in Leningrad. I told him that our faculty included not only natives of the Far North, but students from other parts of the country as well—everyone interested in northern philology. I also said incidentally that sometimes the reverse was true—many Northerners joined other faculties, if they happened to have chosen a different field. "For instance, Gheyuteghin here is studying at the faculty of mathematics."

"Oh!" The professor looked at Gheyuteghin with new respect. "You have—er—risen very much in my opinion. I myself was always very weak in mathematics. It is—er—how would you say?—it's my heel of Achilles—have I put it properly? You hear, Claudine, Monsieur Gheyuteghin, it seems, is a mathematician. Well, then, young man, let us see your class reports."

It was partly a joke, of course, but at the same time it was obvious that the professor wanted to make sure that I was telling the truth. Gheyuteghin took out his student's book and Professor Leerlinck began to turn the pages and read the marks to his wife: "Excellent! Excellent! Good! Another Excellent!"

That same evening we happened to be talking about Khabarovsk. I recalled that the Khabarovsk museum had several pieces of work by Ghemaughe, a Chukchi from my native settlement who was a famous ivory-carver. The professor's wife started putting down his name—she wanted to see his work—but the name was hard to transliterate into French and she got mixed up. Gheyuteghin, who was sitting beside her, volunteered to help her out of the difficulty by spelling it out for her letter by letter. He gave her each of the letters in French. Madame Leerlinck finished writing and asked quietly: "So you know French, then?"

"Oh, no," he said, "only a little."

"No need to be so modest," said the professor. "I saw it in your student's book: 'French—excellent.'"

Madame Leerlinck blushed and bit her lip in an effort to restrain her laughter. But she laughed, anyhow, and so did we, the best way out of an awkward situation. The professor was the last to join in, at first he couldn't see the joke. But when he finally did he kept laughing and repeating. "Oh, dear me! And we've been saying things right before your faces, as if we were all alone!"

★ ★ ★

The Baikal won our companions completely with its fairy-tale beauty. And we ourselves, although it wasn't our first trip along the lake shore, could not tear ourselves away from the windows. Mountain spurs cut through by tunnels in countless places, blue water playing in the summer breeze, sailing boats riding the waves, summits towering far in the distance—it was very beautiful to see. The lake came right up to the railway embankment. At one of the stations a young army officer from the next compartment asked the porter for a pail and ran down the embankment to fill it with Baikal water. Everybody in the carriage had a taste of it and every now and then someone would break into the famous old song "The sacred Baikal rolls its glorious waves . . ."

Professor Leerlinck joined the rest of us in drinking the water. He got off the train to buy smoked omul from a Buryat fisherman. He wrote down the words of the song in his notebook. When the singers came to the word *bargusin*—it means a kind of wind—he asked who that fellow Bargusin had been, taking it for the name of a person because so many Russian names end with *in*. All the while Madame Leerlinck gazed out of the window and sighed: "Dear, if only I could bring my paints and easel here for a summer!"

The distance to Khabarovsk was dwindling, and our ten-day companionship was nearing its end. The professor asked us to sit for his wife; they wanted to have at least a pencil drawing of each of us as a souvenir. We hadn't any reason to refuse, but the prospect of joining her collection of curios along with carvings of walrus and reindeer was not enticing either.

So Gheyuteghin said: "Very well, but on condition that we have your photos as souvenirs."

He got his FED camera out of his suitcase and snapped their pictures in the garden of a station by the queer name of "Yerofei Pavlovich."

Then we sat for Madame Leerlinck. For a long forty minutes both of us in turn had to stay stiff as dummies. While I sat, Gheyuteghin gave a running presentation of Madame Leerlinck showing our pictures to her friends in Liège. He accompanied the show with the tales she would tell—about the reindeer she had ridden and the polar bears she had hunted.

"But all our friends," she laughed back, "know perfectly well we aren't going out beyond the Arctic Circle! The most northernly point of our tour is supposed to be Leningrad."

"That doesn't matter. Couldn't you have changed your plans—persuaded, say, by two young Chukchis whose acquaintance you made in the train. And then," he added quite seriously, "one of the Chukchis made you a present of a pet seal."

"But in that case we'd be asked to show the seal. And where shall we ever get one?"

"Oh, just say it got homesick on the way to Belgium and fell ill and died. So you had to make a sealskin jacket of it. And that you can easily buy at Khabarovsk to show it off before your guests. Only don't forget to remove the factory label."

Gheyuteghin by now was completely at home with our companions. He went on cracking jokes, just as if he were back with his fellow-students in the Leningrad dorm. He amused us all very much, but whenever I began to laugh, Madame Leerlinck would declare that my laughter would ruin the portrait . . . But the portraits did come out, after all, and we thought they were quite good.

★ ★ ★

On our last day, just before we reached Khabarovsk, the professor and Gheyuteghin slipped into another argument—this time about the practice of group marriage. The professor insisted that the custom, which had not disappeared until the very time socialism had come to Chukotka, could have been abolished only formally, "on paper," so to speak.

"Changes are never brought about so rapidly. Especially in a sphere like this. It takes many generations . . . Children . . . How do you say it . . . 'Children never fall far from their apple tree' (he had mixed up the Russian proverb, 'The apple does not fall far from the tree'). It would need a completely new idea of love, and that couldn't come in so short a time. I refuse to believe it—you may put a legal ban on group marriage, but you can't teach people to have feelings."

Gheyuteghin patiently assured the professor that Chukchis were capable of "feelings" and that their conception of love was the same as everybody else's. He tried to make the professor understand that group marriage had died out as a natural result of wholly changed social conditions and that marriage forms are very well recognized to be closely tied up with the whole life of the community. In other words, he had to acquaint the professor with some rather elementary truths. But the professor kept repeating: "No, no, such things do not change all of a sudden. Not half so fast."

"But who knows better, Monsieur Professor, you, who have been no farther north than Leningrad, or we, who grew up in Chukotka and know that the custom has disappeared just as countless other characters of the tribal system have disappeared? You say that the change has come about 'too quickly'? But that's just it! It was our good fortune that it happened so quickly. Yes, professor, that's the very point, that from the darkness of primeval savagery we passed straight into socialism, skipping all the intermediate, less advanced social systems, including the one under which you still live."

I have no idea how the argument would have ended if Madame Leerlinck had not decided to take part in it. She admitted she knew nothing of such matters as social evolution but love being mentioned, she was ready to act as judge. "Only women," she declared, "know what love is."

She said that the custom of group marriage was incompatible with true love. To this we unanimously agreed. She declared further that the custom in Chukotka had come to be because the feelings of Northerners are in general less warm than those of people born in the South.

"Don't be cross with me," she said with a sweet smile, "don't be offended, please. When you're living so far away with all that cold and barren ice all around you, you cannot feel the warmth of love. It needs another kind of heart to understand love." And because Chukotka was still as far north as ever, said Madame Leerlinck: "Maurice is right, you can't do away with such a custom." This conclusion came as a surprise even to the professor.

"No, Claudine," he said, "I will have to decline that kind of support. The North has nothing to do with it. Group marriage was the custom even in the tropics at one time. I was talking of an entirely different thing."

And here Gheyuteghin, for some reason looking very pleased, put in: "Since you've robbed us of the right to judge in matters of love, I wish to bring in the evidence of two young ladies. One of them saw my



friend off in Leningrad, and the other is going to meet me at Anadyr. I assure you, Madame, they would never share your views in regard to the feelings of Northerners."

I believe that was the last argument we had—already we glimpsed the dark waters of the Amur, and some of the passengers were moving toward the exit past the door of our compartment. The time had come to say good-by. Our companions paid us loads of compliments which were quite sincere. We answered in the same spirit. Before locking my suitcase I took out a Chukchi book and presented it to the professor and his wife as a souvenir. It was my own translation of a book of poems by Pushkin. They were very pleased with the gift.

"I imagine," said the professor, "this will be the first book in the Chukchi language to come to Belgium."

"And with the author's inscription, too," exclaimed his wife.

"No," I corrected her, "only the translator's."

Gheyuteghin and I picked up our suitcases and once again shook hands with our fellow travelers. We went out into the passage, promising to send them a porter.

We did that and walked down the station platform.

"There you are," said Gheyuteghin, "and you wanted to get away to another compartment. Remember?"

"But are you so sure they understood all you've been trying to explain to them these ten days?"

"I think so. A good deal of it, at any rate."

At that moment I caught sight of our friends again. They were getting into a taxi, headed for the Hotel Amur. We waved to them. They planned to spend three days sightseeing in Khabarovsk, then fly back to Moscow, and from there on to their home in Liège.

As for us, we went straight to the booking office, to have the tickets we had bought in Leningrad for Vladivostok punched. After the journey by rail we still had ahead of us a voyage of some days across the Okhotsk and Bering Seas. Gheyuteghin was going to Anadyr. I was headed there, too, and the first chance that came up, I would be going still farther north, to my native settlement, to the home of my father and the homes of the old hunter Memy, the carver GHEMAUGHE, the mechanic Kelevghi; to the homes of Inryn, Keniri, Ghemalkot and all the rest.

In my thoughts I was already with them; I could see myself walking down the street of our settlement, our teacher Valentina Alexeyevna sitting near the open window and my little dark-eyed sister beside her studying her lessons. Through the next window I would see my old friend and teacher Eines writing something on the blackboard. And there, by the very shore, where the waves wash pebbles on to the beach, would be three young seal hunters—Unpener, Rintuvghi, and someone else rigging out a motorboat for a hunting trip. ■



DR. KASYM NIGMATULLIN (CENTER), SUPERVISES SURGEONS OPERATING ON PROF. BROWN IN HOSPITAL AT FRUNZE.



July 22, 1958

I can never thank you enough for everything you have done for me at the Republican Clinical Hospital for Emergency Surgery. The prompt and very skillful surgery and care of Dr. Nigmatullin and the constant care and attention of Dr. Abdurakhmanov and the many other Doctors, Nurses, and Technicians have restored me from near death to long life.

Mrs. Brown and I thank all of you from the bottom of our hearts and we shall cherish your friendship forever. May God bring us ever closer together in peace and happiness throughout the world.

IT happened in Frunze, capital of the Kirghiz Republic, last summer. Professor of sociology Francis J. Brown, director of the American Council on Education, was touring the Soviet Union with a delegation of American scientists when he suddenly became ill and lost consciousness.

An ambulance was summoned at once, and he was taken to the Republican Clinical Hospital for Emergency Surgery. Dr. Abdulakhai Abdurakhmanov, the physician on duty, examined him and diagnosed the condition as critical.

Specialists were called in for confirmation, as is usual in these cases. The three consultants—Professor Kasym Nigmatullin, head of the surgical division, Professor Friedman and Docent Shubladez, together with Dr. Moon,

a member of the American delegation, confirmed the diagnosis and agreed on immediate surgery.

The difficult operation was successful and was followed by the prescribed postoperative treatment with blood transfusions, antibiotics and other things. When Mrs. Brown arrived in Frunze from the United States on the tenth day after the operation, Professor Brown was able to sit up in bed. And a little less than two weeks after that he was able to leave for home. In the Visitors' Book at the hospital he wrote:

"I can never thank you enough for everything you have done for me at the Republican Clinical Hospital for Emergency Surgery. The prompt and very skillful surgery and care of Dr. Nigmatullin and the constant care and at-

KIRGHIZ DOCTORS

By Mark Uralov



GRADUATED MEDICAL STUDENTS ARE CONGRATULATED BY DR. NIGMATULLIN.

THIS BOY UNDERWENT VERY DIFFICULT SURGERY.



tention of Dr. Abdurakhmanov and the many other doctors, nurses, and technicians have restored me from near death to long life.

"Mrs. Brown and I thank all of you from the bottom of our hearts and we shall cherish your friendship forever. May God bring us ever closer together in Peace and Happiness throughout the world."

Shortly afterward, Llewellyn E. Thompson, the American Ambassador to the Soviet Union, wrote to Dr. Nigmatullin:

"Professor Francis Brown, member of a delegation of American professors, is flying home from Moscow this evening. It is hard to believe that only three weeks have passed since the serious operation you performed on Professor Brown in your clinic. I want to take advantage of the stay in Moscow of

your colleague, Dr. Abdurakhmanov, to convey to you through him our gratitude for saving the life of our countryman. We anxiously followed the course of Professor Brown's illness, and it is not easy to find words to express how touched we were by all the attention and care shown by you, Dr. Abdurakhmanov and the entire personnel of your clinic."

So happily concluded the American sociologist's very personal experience with present-day Frunze medical practice.

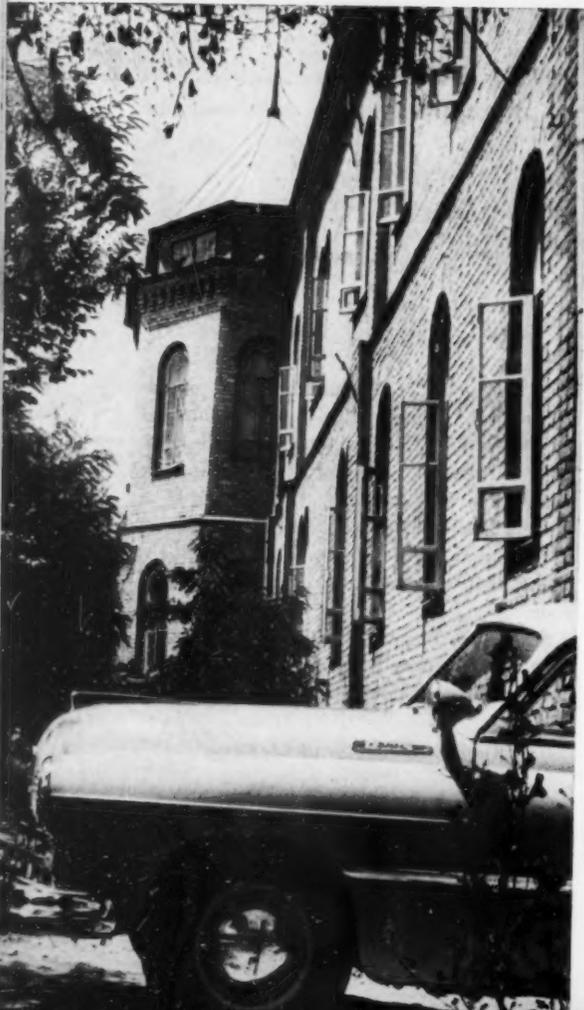
Kirghiz—Professor of Medicine

The operation on Professor Brown was performed by Professor Nigmatullin. Thirty
Continued on next page



DR. NIGMATULLIN, ONE OF KIRGHIZIA'S TOP PHYSICIANS, CHECKS THE DIAGNOSIS OF A DIFFICULT CASE.

PARKED AND READY THE AMBULANCE AWAITS CALLS.



KIRGHIZ DOCTORS

Continued

years ago he was one of the first young men in Soviet Asia to go through medical school and become a surgeon. The number of Kirghiz doctors then could be counted on the fingers of very few hands.

Now, at 55, Nigmatullin has seen scores of his own pupils through medical school—the Kirghiz Medical College. By far the greater number are Kirghiz, but there are graduates who are Russian, Ukrainian, Jewish. “No nationality has a monopoly on talent,” says Professor Nigmatullin.

His own talent as surgeon has won Nigmatullin his Republic's award of Honored Physician and the position as head of surgery in the Republican Hospital.

After surgery Professor Brown was under

the care of Dr. Abdulkhai Abdurakhmanov, the son of a Kirghizian peasant. He is 37 years old, served as a medical orderly in the Second World War and then went through medical school.

This was the profession he had chosen for himself when he was a boy at school. It would have been a fantastic, altogether visionary choice for a peasant's son before the 1917 Socialist Revolution.

One Doctor for Every 870 People

Kirghizia is a small Central Asian Republic of the Soviet Union with a population of two million. Under the old regime it was a backward, illiterate region.

An index to a country's general progress, both social and cultural, most people will concede, is the quantity and quality of medical service available to the population. The case of Professor Brown illustrates better than pages of comparative statistics what has been happening in Soviet Kirghizia.

Older people in Frunze still remember what medical practice was like before the 1917 Revolution. Frunze was a small town then, called Pishpek, and had three doctors who fought each other bitterly for the patronage of the town's very few affluent citizens. There are hundreds of experienced physicians in Frunze now. It has its own research institutes of epidemiology, microbiology and hygiene and its own medical schools.

The hospital at which Professor Brown was treated is one of many in Kirghizia. There is one doctor for every 870 people now, as compared with one for every 100,000 before the Revolution. As part of the widespread program of preventive medicine, periodic check-ups of the population are made by rural and urban clinics. The widespread chronic diseases and the periodic epidemics that were so much a part of pre-revolutionary Kirghizian life have been eliminated.

3,871 Medical Establishments

Some four decades ago there were scarcely a hundred hospital beds for all of Kirghizia and only sixteen doctors. The czarist government allocated a mere 0.3 rubles per capita annually for public health. Last year the allocations of the Kirghiz Republic on public health averaged 133.7 rubles per capita.

Kirghizia now has 3,871 hospitals, polyclinics, maternity centers, child consultation centers and other medical establishments. The Republic's own medical schools have already trained 1,700 specialists, chiefly of Kirghiz and other local nationalities.

When Professor Brown left Frunze hospital, the next patient to occupy his bed was five-year-old Alymkul Sadynbekov, the son of a garment worker. He was brought to the emergency division with a jagged wound in his abdomen, the result of an accident. He also was treated by Dr. Abdurakhmanov with the same favorable conclusion.

This is medical practice in Kirghizia today. Its standards are high and available to everyone at no cost. Its achievement lies in this simple figure—in the period since 1940 alone, the republic's mortality rate has dropped by 65 per cent. ■

HAPPY 1959 NEW YEAR!



THE CENTER OF INTEREST AT THE TRADITIONAL SOVIET NEW YEAR'S BALL OR PARTY IS FOCUSED ON THE FIGURES OF GRANDFATHER FROST AND THE PRETTY SNOW MAIDEN.

THERE'S MUSIC, SONG AND AN AMBULATING PUPPETEER.

OF ALL THE CELEBRANTS, THE DAY MEANS MOST TO THE KINDERGARTEN SET.

EVERYONE GETS SPECIAL GIFTS.



THE NEW YEAR is a most hopeful holiday all over the world. When we bid the old year farewell with all its fine features, we dismiss the bad. Then we peer ahead for a hint of what the coming year holds for man's peace and happiness. That is the theme of New Year's parties in our country with all of their gaiety and fun-making you'll find in our photo story.

Continued on next page

HAPPY NEW YEAR!



A FAMILY'S HOLIDAY BEGINS WITH PICKING OUT A TREE.



WITH A TREE SELECTED, DECORATIONS ARE BOUGHT AND THEN FOLLOWS THE FUN OF PUTTING THEM ON.



ORNAMEN



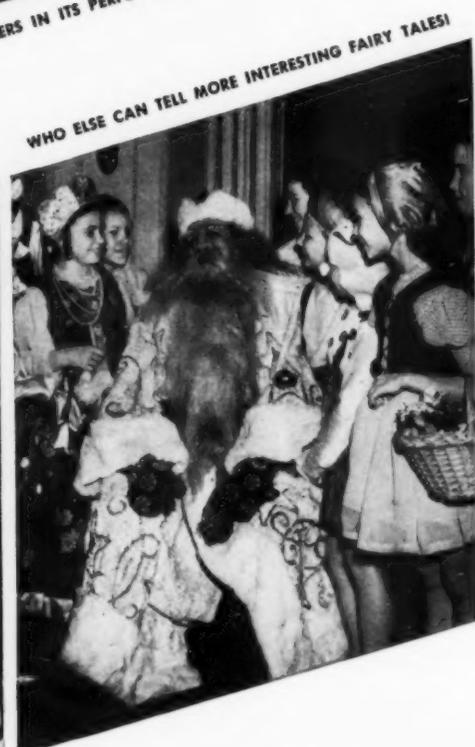
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HOLIDAY BALL FOR CHILDREN IN THE KREMLIN. MERRY-GO-ROUND IN A MOSCOW PARK.



SLIDING DOWN HILLS IS NO LESS FUN FOR ADULTS THAN FOR CHILDREN.



COLLEGE STUDENTS FIND THE HOLIDAY CELEBRATION CLIMAXED BY A GRAND BALL.

1958

Valería
and
Veronika





102/82



Two Young Troupers

By Adolf Antonov

ALTHOUGH Valeria and Veronika Zelenkaya, two young variety theater singers, started on their promising stage careers in a rather unorthodox fashion, the rest of it since has been typical enough—made up of study and work and then more study and work. Ask them, however, whether they've ever been sorry about the choice they made and they'll give you an emphatic, "Of course not. We love it."

The two girls were walking down one of Moscow's old streets. It started to rain and they took shelter in the nearest doorway. It happened to be that of the State Institute of Theatrical Art. They looked in at the bustle inside. It was the day that examinations were being given to entering students by an omnipotent board of examiners.

What mad impulse took hold of them to try their luck without an iota of preparation they don't know to this day, but they came through the very trying examination with flying colors. They explain it by the fact that they hadn't time to be nervous.

Then followed four years of hard study and almost constant reading. Acting, they found, meant more than classes in dramatics, it meant studying the classical dance, the history of art, literature and painting besides the

background courses in the natural and the social sciences.

Their first stage appearance was prefaced by more hard study and practice under the guidance of instructors. But it was all repaid more than amply when the audience broke into wild applause and called them back for encores again and again. That, they say, was worth all the years of hard work.

Although young—Valeria is 21 and Veronika 20—the sisters have done a good deal of trouping already. They have played in most parts of the country. Vaudeville is immensely popular in the Soviet Union.

They do a popular song turn and accompany themselves on the accordion. At first the sisters worked with the jazz orchestra directed by Leonid Utyosov, probably the best in the country, but they felt themselves cramped in a framework of jazz alone.

So they worked out their own act which they presented at the World Youth Festival held in Moscow. It was so warmly received there that they kept the format for a tour of Germany, the Transcarpathian Ukraine and Kazakhstan. Their tours are arranged by the Guest Performers Association.

Their one ambition? To be famous. And they're well on the way to achieving it. ■



THE GIRLS REHEARSE A NEW NUMBER AT HOME.



A VARIETY ARTIST MUST ALSO LEARN TO ACT.



VERONIKA AT A LESSON IN THE CLASSICAL DANCE.



VALERIA SAYS SHE PREFERS THE SAMBA.



AFTER A TALK IN THE OFFICE, PREMIER NIKITA KHRUSHCHEV CONDUCTED HIS AMERICAN GUEST, CYRUS EATON, ON A TOUR OF THE SPACIOUS GROUNDS OF THE KREMLIN.

THE EATONS GREETED WORKERS OF THE BIG KIROV ELECTRICAL PLANT.



A GOOD JOKE WOUND UP THE VISIT TO THE HOUSE OF RAILWAY TECHNOLOGY.

AMERICAN INDUSTRIALIST VISITS THE SOVIET UNION





A BOY WHO INTERESTED THE COUPLE STOPPED TO SHOW MRS. EATON THE BOOKS HE STUDIES.



THE OHIOAN CHATS WITH A FARMER'S WIFE AT HOME.

CYRUS EATON'S impressions on his recent visit to the Soviet Union can be summed up in the comment he made more than once during his tour—the United States and the Soviet Union, he declared, have a great deal to learn from each other.

The Cleveland industrialist was invited to visit the Soviet Union by the USSR Ministries of Agriculture and of Railways. During his stay he talked with officials, scientists, factory workers and farmers and made the rounds of several plants, a collective farm and scientific institutions. He spent some time at the Central House of Railway Technology in Moscow and was much interested in the advances Soviet transport engineering was making in railway automation.

Commenting to newspapermen on the two cities he found time to visit—Moscow and Leningrad—Mr. Eaton thought Moscow one of the major world capitals today, not alone as government center but as center for world trade. He had been impressed, he said, with the architectural beauty of Leningrad and its museum collections.

After a talk with Nikita Khrushchev, Mr. Eaton said that he had been much struck with the Soviet premier's frank and unequivocal wish and hope for friendly and cooperative relations between the two countries. Premier Khrushchev reflected, he felt, the very sincere wishes of Soviet people generally for East-West friendship.

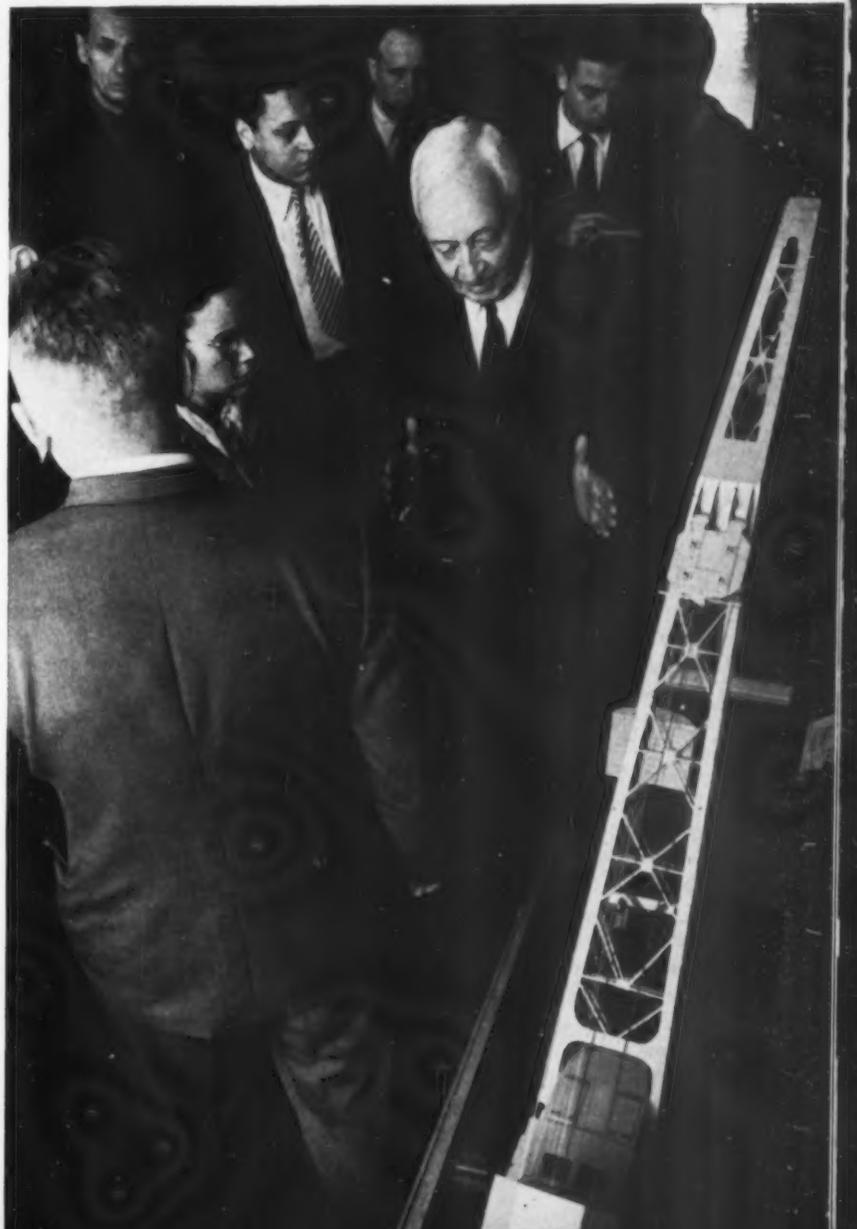
Mr. Eaton thought there were many of his fellow countrymen eager to know more about what was going on in Soviet education, science and industry. This required much more frequent visiting, many more meetings between Americans and Russians. He wished to do whatever possible to further that exchange of visits. He proposed, on his return, to work toward the end that more American business and trade union leaders influential in the lives of their communities visit the Soviet Union.

Mr. Eaton was received by Alexander Nesmeyanov, President of the USSR Academy of Sciences; Vladimir Matskevich, Minister of Agriculture; and Nina Popova, Chairman of the Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries. He talked with Foreign Minister Gromyko, Deputy Minister of Foreign Trade Borisov and President Korovushkin of the USSR State Bank. The recurrent theme was cooperation of the two countries in joint scientific undertakings, in wider cultural exchange, in the revival of large-scale American-Soviet trade.

On his departure Mr. Eaton was presented by Minister Matskevich with the gift of a Russian *troika* drawn by a thoroughbred team of three horses. Mr. Eaton said that he wished to reciprocate with a gift of five pedigreed calves and a steer to be shipped as soon as he returned home.

In a statement before he left, Mr. Eaton again adverted to the need for friendlier relations between the United States and the Soviet Union, for more exchange of information and visiting delegations. His aim, he declared, would be to find ways and means of bringing the two countries closer together by bringing their peoples together. ■

AS A TRUNK LINE EXECUTIVE, EATON LIKED THE MODELS OF RAILWAY EQUIPMENT.





THE HERALD TRIBUNE'S DAN DOWLING AND HIS GUESTS SKETCH THE WELL-KNOWN COIFFURE OF VAN CLIBURN.

IVAN SEMIONOV AND VITALI GORIA-YEV, staff cartoonists of *Krokodil*, the leading Soviet satirical and humorist magazine, spent twenty-four days in the United States last spring at the invitation of Dan Dowling of *The New York Herald Tribune*, President of the American Association of Editorial Cartoonists. Dowling's invitation expressed his organization's desire to "be in close contact with cartoonists all over the world."

The Soviet pair visited New York, Washington, Indianapolis and Boston. The artists met many people, saw some of the American way of life, and were able to sketch and draw at will.

In New York their visit was highlighted by a stop at the Wall Street Stock Exchange, where they caught the action on the floor and the operation of the Big Board. They also met members of the National Cartoonists' Association.

While in the metropolis the Soviet cartoonists lived as New Yorkers, keeping the hours

and schedule of the art and theatrical colony there.

Dropping down to Washington, they had the relatively rare experience for foreign visitors of being invited to President Eisenhower's press conference, plus a friendly dinner with Herbert L. Block (Herblock) of *The Washington Post and Times Herald*. They also toured the National and Mellon art galleries and sketched major historical monuments around the capital.

Semionov and Goriayev stopped at Indianapolis for the convention of the American Association of Editorial Cartoonists which wound up its session by electing them to honorary membership.

The Soviet visitors were somewhat puzzled by the failure of their American colleagues to exchange creative ideas during the convention. Instead, it was purely business and entertainment.

Another attraction was attending the famous Indianapolis 500-mile automobile race. The visitors saw American fans and captured



the excitement and color of the spectacle on many pages in their sketch books.

The next stop was Boston, where they visited Harvard University and then toured the many historic spots of the city under the experienced guidance of Lawrence Winship, editor-in-chief of the *Boston Globe*. Later they discussed cartoon art with Al Capp and exchanged opinions on his comic strips.

Throughout the tour Semionov and Goriayev put the impressions down in the form of cartoons and sketches for reproduction upon their return to Moscow. Some of them are published on these pages.

Soviet Cartoonists Tour America

Manhattan's narrow streets and traffic snarls amazed us. So did parking until we were told fines for tickets are less than garage fees.



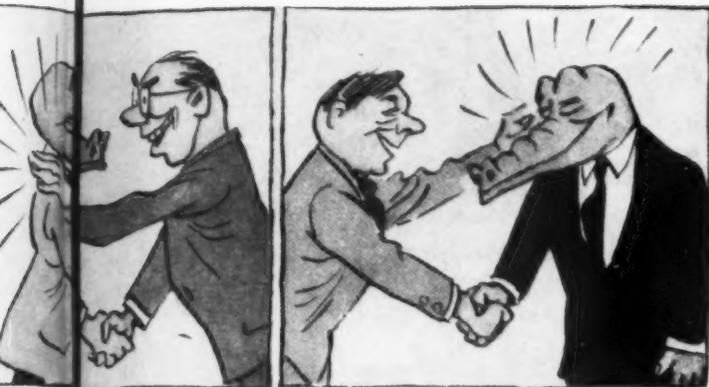
Fearful we'd miss something, we started sketching America from our plane. But we were wrong. We saw everything we could and went so many places we got dizzy!

American cocktails are potent but much too cold for us. Though the drinks got us hotter inside, we dreamed of a pair of warm gloves.



The customs inspector thought the dolls were Russian dancers until we reassured him they were gifts for American cartoonists.





Asked to President Eisenhower's press conference, we listened quietly. When it ended we were amazed as the correspondents raced from the room like a lot of steeplechase riders in their rush to phone in the story. Fortunately we escaped the crush.



We thought Americans must spend half their lives in drug stores sipping coffee, munching hot dogs or hamburgers and arranging that night's heavy date.



VISITING THE INDIANAPOLIS 500-MILE RACE, WE FOUND MANY SUBJECTS FOR SKETCHES.

WE DEVOTED ALL OUR TIME TO DRAWING THE AMERICAN PEOPLE AND THEIR WAY OF LIFE.



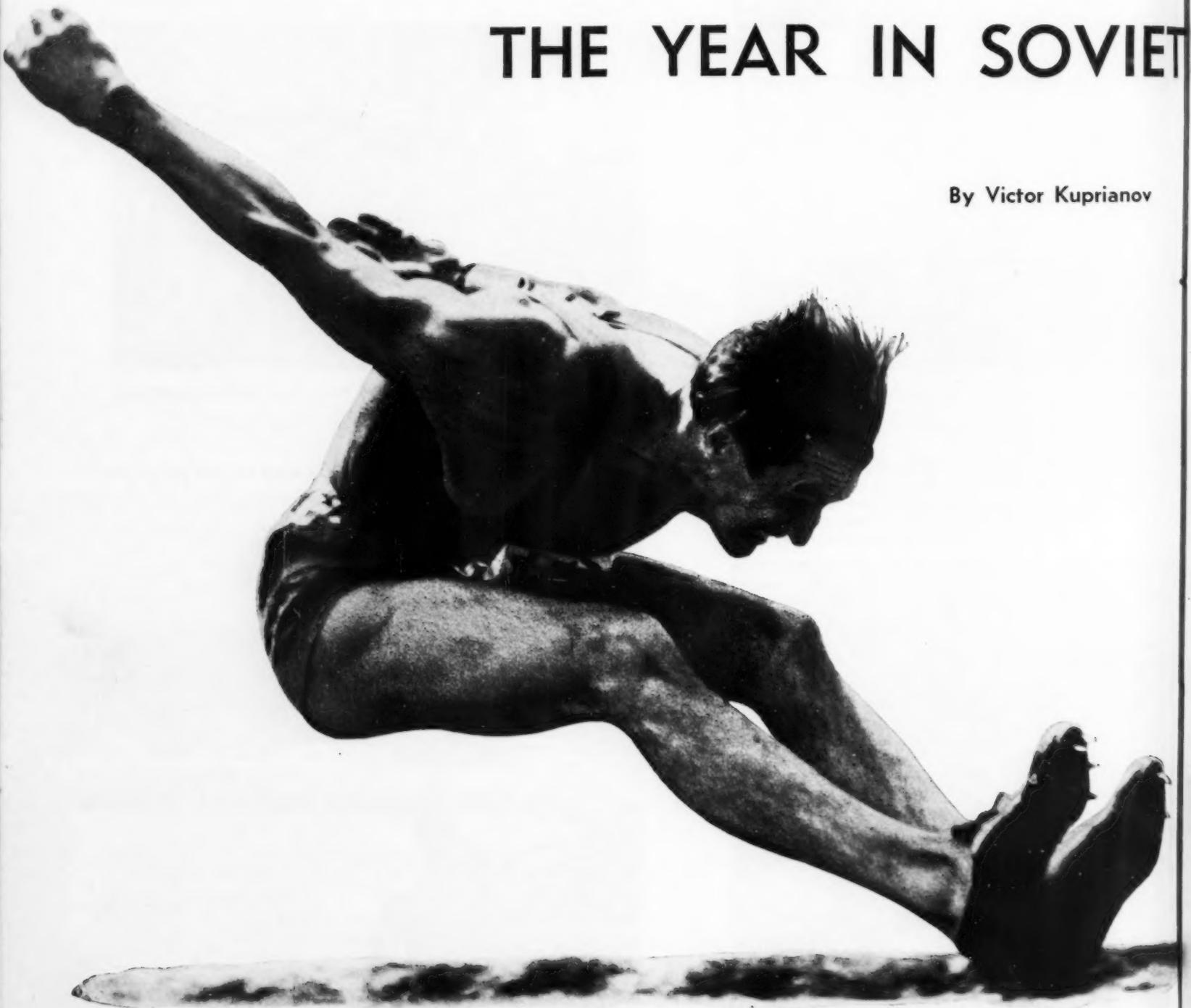
1958



THE ANNUAL TRUD CROSS-COUNTRY RACE RATES HIGH IN POPULARITY. CHAMPION VLADIMIR ENGIBARYAN (USSR) BEATS GEORGE STONE (BRITAIN) IN A BAKU CONTEST.

THE YEAR IN SOVIETS

By Victor Kuprianov



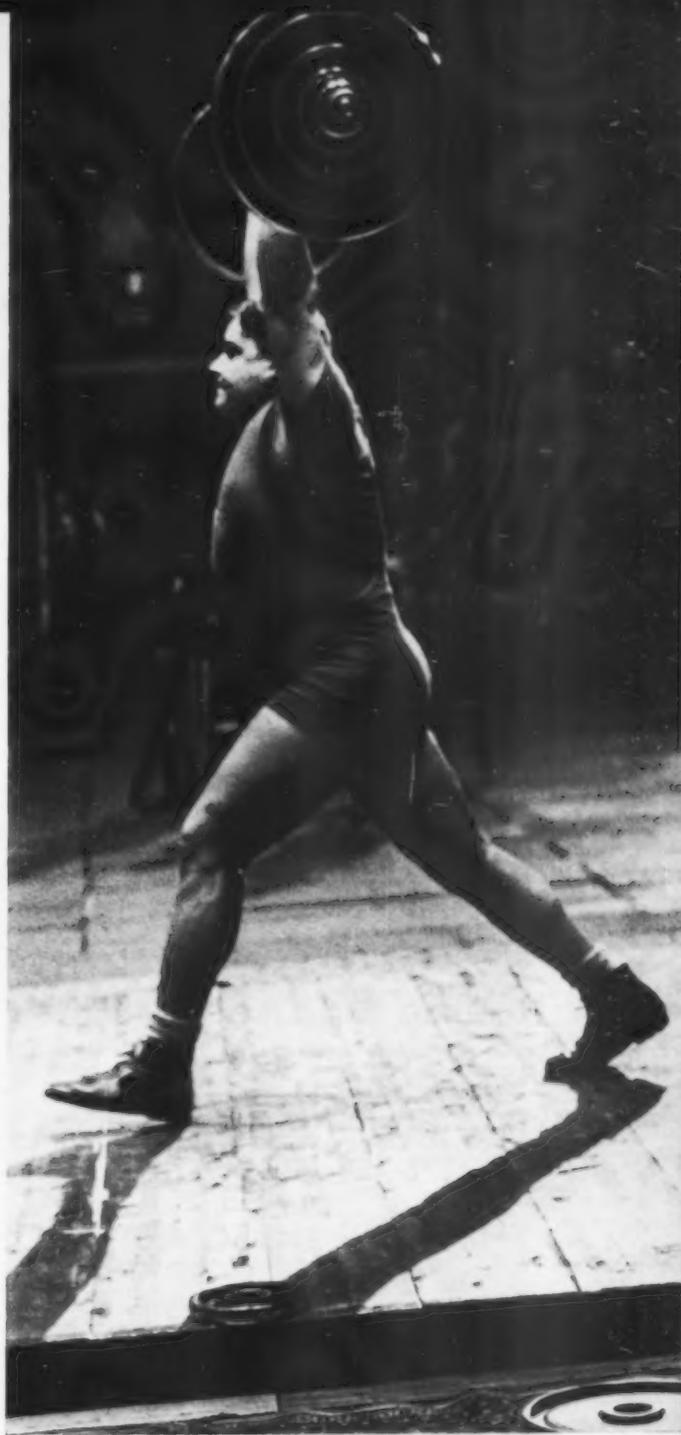


EXCITEMENT DURING THE USSR MOTORCYCLE CHAMPIONSHIP—HOW TO AVOID SLOWING DOWN ON TURNS.

SPORTS



SERGEI ANDREYEV IS THE 1958 USSR TENNIS CHAMPION.



ALEXEI MEDVEDEV LIFTED 414.4 LBS. IN THE TWO-HAND JERK.

DECEMBER being generally a month for inventories, let's have a look-back at the year's athletics and athletes.

The sports season got off to a good start for Soviet athletes last winter. World honors in speed skating went to two Muscovites, Oleg Goncharenko and Inga Artamonova. Oleg is one athlete who can honestly say: "I owe it all to my mother." She was a Ukrainian figure skater of high caliber, and it was she who got him started.

The men's title is awarded for the best over-all showing in four events: 500-, 1,500-, 5,000- and 10,000-meter races. Goncharenko scored first only in the 1,500-meter race, but good showings in the other races gave him the highest point rating.

The runner-up was Vladimir Shilikovsky, also USSR, who documents the proposition that a fine athlete doesn't have to look like one, he just has to be one. Shilikovsky has only one arm, but he's one of the speediest skaters in the country.

Inga Artamonova, who took honors in the women's division, is in a class by herself. She is tall, muscular, has speed and style—what coach-

es call a natural born skater. Predictions are she'll be wearing most of the available medals in the very near future.

In skiing, Soviet women won world honors. Alevtina Kolchina won the 10-kilometer run, and the women's team (Yeroshina, Kozyreva and Kolchina) carried the day in the relay. But the men didn't place. After the good Olympic showing the men had made, this started a lot of deep thinking and chin rubbing.

Ice Hockey

In ice hockey the world crown went to Canada. The USSR upset came in the final game of the tournament. There was some consolation, but only for the future, in being called Europe's best. Although the veterans who won the crown in past years for the USSR are all gone, the 11 new men on the squad are coming along magnificently, and there's a good deal of hopeful talk about the next World Championship.

The Soviet team was captained by defense-man Nikolai Tregubov,

Continued on next page



FOR THOSE WHO LIKE THEIR THRILLS HIGH-FLUNG, THERE'S ALWAYS PARACHUTING.

THE YEAR IN SOVIET SPORTS

Continued

who won best player award. Tregubov is one of the older generation of players. He's 30 but a remarkably young 30 as soon as he hits the ice. The fans aren't worried about him; what they're worried about is that there is no other defense-man around of his proportions who can be relied on to trigger off a scoring attack at the slightest opportunity.

One of the high spots of the season was the visit of the American team to Moscow which inaugurated a home-to-home series of games. The United States team won Muscovites with their hockey and their sportsmanship both.

Basketball and Soccer

With spring, the very much looked forward to American-Soviet sports exchange got under way. Soviet wrestlers and weightlifters went to the United States and came back talking about how nice Americans were. Moscow basketball players and court fans said the same thing when the American team played here, in spite of the home team's four-in-a-row defeat which ended all prospects for a Soviet world crown in the immediate future. Some consolation here too, however, with the victory of the USSR women's team, with everyone wondering why their showing in previous major international tourneys had been so erratic.

Another ball game that all but monopolized sport headlines was soccer. Soccer to the Soviet fan is very much like baseball or football to American spectators, and the Spartak—Dynamo games generate the same heat, excitement and, of course, partisanship as the World Series does.

The Soviet Union made its debut in World Championship soccer this year. There was much premature optimism on account of the gold medal

the team had won in the 1956 Olympics. But what fans overlooked was the fact that the Olympic games are strictly amateur, while the World Cup Tournament asks no questions about amateur or professional standing.

The USSR was tripped up in the quarter finals by Sweden, and fans were jolted into a look at the calendar, which said it was two years ago that the Soviet team had won the Olympics and none of the players had gotten any younger since. Result: a campaign under way to bring in the youngsters. More on this subject next season.

World cups in free-style wrestling in June and Greco-Roman wrestling in July helped brighten the scene a little.

Wimbledon and the Henley Regatta

Tennis and rowing were two sports that made for a good deal of post-mortem talk. Tennis is a new game in the Soviet Union and is played on hard courts. Anna Dmitrieva and Andrei Potanin, who were the USSR hopefuls in the Wimbledon Juniors, had literally never played tennis on a soft court. So that for them to reach the finals in lawn tennis was a considerable and very heartwarming achievement. Soviet tennis players are being developed at a fast clip, and there is talk here of possible Davis Cup participation.

Our rowers learned a lot from the Henley Regatta, among them, say some people, things they should have known before. However . . . the Trud eight from Leningrad outrowed a field that included the University of Washington eight to win the much coveted prize. The Washington Huskies retaliated by coming to Moscow and beating the Trud crew. Incidentally, the Washington coxswain is the first American racing shell man extant to get a ducking in the Moscow River.

The Soviet singles sculler Vyacheslav Ivanov, who came out of athletic obscurity to win the Olympic gold medal in 1956, has been unable to beat his Henley opponents since then. That has been true, unfortunately, for Yuri Tyukalov also, who won the single sculls in the 1952 Olympics. But Tyukalov hasn't given up the ghost by a long shot. He's still going strong and adding to his collection of cups and medals by pairing up with Alexander Berkutov, a Moscow engineer and singles hopeful.

Later in the season gymnastics took top billing. At the Olympic

FANS PACK THE GRANDSTANDS FOR THE STEEPCHASE EVENTS WITH CRACK RIDERS.



Games it was a very close bout with Japan for top honors. With champion Victor Chukarin on the retired list, it looked like Japan might have that thin edge that means victory. Competition couldn't have been keener but the final tally put Boris Shakhlin and Larisa Latynina at the top. USSR made the best showing with a large haul of 40 medals.

USA-USSR Track and Field Meet

Generally acclaimed as the event of the year was the USA-USSR track and field meet. Sports writers and commentators here called it "the match of the century" and "a meeting of titans." It was all of that, with 60,000 fans defying the elements to cheer the contestants. And the athletes supplied plenty to cheer about.

Oleg Ryakhovsky surprised everybody with a new world high in the hop, step and jump. Mrs. Earlene Brown, of discus and shotput fame, also topped a national record as did her team-mates in the 4 x 100-meter relay. The U.S. men's relay quartet came a tenth of a second under the world mark for the 400-meter distance.

Then Yuri Stepanov outjumped Charles Dumas, and the following month Stepanov was officially credited with the world record in the high jump, thereby putting an end, we hope, to the story whispered around about mystery shoes. Finally, Rafer Johnson made athletic history by regaining the world title for the decathlon. Vasili Kuznetsov had surpassed Johnson's previous high in May.

Rafer Johnson said afterward that he was grateful to Vasili Kuznetsov and Yuri Kutenko for the stiff competition, it spurred him on.

Fencing—Swimming—Skindiving

For other sports—Soviet fencers won first place at the World Championships in Philadelphia and took seven medals at the World Canoeing tourney. Two world records set by Soviet swimmers, the 100-meter breast stroke for Minashkin and the 400-meter medley for Strijanov, were officially recognized.

Swimming has been emerging as one of the big-time sports here as a result of the showing of Soviet watermen at European meets. Although not of world record caliber as yet, it's on the way.

Continued on next page



YOUNG GYMNASTS GOING THROUGH EXERCISES IN MOSCOW'S DYNAMO STADIUM.



ONE OF THE OLDEST OF SPORTS, FENCING, BUILDS GRACE OF MOTION AND SPEED.



SOVIET MARKSMAN YASINSKY CONGRATULATES NELSON N. LINCOLN OF THE U.S.



THE YEAR IN SOVIET SPORTS

Continued

At the World Shooting Championships there were enough medals to go round for almost everyone. While opinion was pretty general that our men's team would carry the day on over-all points, everyone was pleased at the not altogether expected show that the women and juniors made in walking off with top honors.

This, incidentally, isn't a solitary phenomenon. A run up and down the whole year's results shows that the women made the better record. That was so for the USA-USSR track and field meet, too. The over-all figures were: USA-170, USSR-172. For the men: USA-126, USSR-109. For the women: USA-44, USSR-63.

From the Black Sea comes news of a new sport for Soviet athletes—skindiving. Comment there is that the beaches look empty nowadays, everybody's under water. You've got to come early if you want a spot on the bottom.

One of the signposts—perhaps—for the future was the turn toward young contestants. The pretty obvious conclusion is that the coaches were thinking not only of the year's meets, but had an eye cast toward the Rome Olympics in 1960, about which there has been considerable talk going on for some considerable time.

This too is important sports news. As gratifying as gold medals and world records are, more important is the fact that general participation in competitive sports, now at the 19 million mark in the Soviet Union, grows with every new sport added to the present sizable list. ■



OLEG RYAKHOVSKY SET A WORLD RECORD IN THE HOP, STEP AND JUMP WITH 53' 5".



WITH MILLIONS OF FANS AND 16,000 TEAMS, SOCCER IS THE NATION'S TOP SPORT.



THE NEW RACER ZVEZDA-6 DID 113.5 MPH WITH ALEXEI ABROSEKOV AT THE WHEEL.

A TENSE MOMENT AT THE USSR-USA BASKETBALL MATCH IN MOSCOW LAST SPRING.



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