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CREATING
AN ECONOMY
OF ABUNDANCE

—See story page 6

SEPTEMBER, 1960—20 Cents



USSR

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Front cover: Senior students of a Moscow school in their physics laboratory.

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VISIT of PEACE and FRIENDSHIP

FIRST ANNIVERSARY OF

NIKITA KHRUSHCHEV'S TOUR OF THE UNITED STATES

By Boris Leontiev

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Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, September 24, 1959

WITH SEPTEMBER here again, I am reminded of this month a year ago when we Soviet newspapermen accompanied the Chairman of our Council of Ministers, Nikita Khrushchev, on his tour of the United States. Those were fast-moving days that we spent in planes, trains and cars traveling across your big country. We were spectators at a momentous event—the first visit of the head of the Soviet Union to the United States.

You have many distinguished and famous visitors coming to your shores just as we do. But this visit had an altogether special significance. The world has changed in the forty years since the Soviet Union, a state with a new social system, was born. Our country, which is so unlike old czarist Russia, is living a new life. Issues that determine the world's destiny can not be solved without its participation. Nikita Khrushchev came to the United States as a representative of this new great power and as an envoy of the Soviet people.

Millions of American citizens knew very little about the Soviet Union and what they did know was not factual and was often distorted. Millions more knew nothing at all about our country. True, even before N. S. Khrushchev's arrival in the United States, most Americans had begun to suspect that their knowledge about the Soviet Union was vague and that it was actually far removed from the truth.

Sputnik was the first eye-opener. Launched in October, 1957, two years before Khrushchev's visit, this unusual celestial traveler as it passed over the United States taught hundreds of thousands of Americans their first Russian word—sputnik—which has since that day become international.

Here was the first artificial satellite flying in space, breath-taking evidence that man had broken through the limiting boundaries of earth. A great scientific accomplishment this was, and it had been done by the Soviet people. The conclusion that logically followed was that the Soviet Union must have a highly advanced science and technology.

Russians have long been known as daring thinkers who have given the world many important scientific discoveries. But in the past the country's technology was a limiting factor, not developed enough to use many of these findings. It was a good many years ago that Tsiolkovsky, the founder of jet propulsion, proved that terrestrial gravitation could be overcome and that airships could be launched into airless space. But it was only in October 1957 that his theory could be embodied in the sputnik. It needed a country with many great

factories and laboratories staffed by well-educated engineers and highly skilled workers to produce the incredibly precise instruments needed.

This was before Khrushchev's visit. Americans expected our Chairman to explain how all this could have happened, how it was possible for a backward, almost medieval, Russia to transform itself into a highly developed industrial and scientific country in a few short years.

The head of the Soviet Government gave the explanation. He told Americans how a hundred million illiterate workers and peasants had gradually become literate and how their children had become educated and highly trained scientists and engineers. He pointed out that the once great gap between an economically backward Russia and a technically advanced United States had steadily narrowed. He explained that the Soviet Union was now able to do many things that America could do and, he added, "some things we did before you."

I have a vivid recollection of Khrushchev's first public speech after his arrival. It was at the National Press Club in Washington and the audience was made up of journalists from all countries, the greater number of them Americans. "We hold that differences in world outlook," he stated, "should not impair relations between countries. Close economic and cultural contacts should be established between all countries. That will help nations and statesmen to know and understand each other better. It will facilitate the establishment of mutual trust and peaceful cooperation."

Khrushchev was the guest of the United States. He was not advertising socialism, although he made it plain that he was convinced that socialism was a better way of life. He had no intention, he emphasized repeatedly, of converting his listeners to communism any more than he himself had of becoming an admirer of capitalism.

There was one insistent theme in all the speeches he made in cities and towns across the United States before farmers and workers, students, industrial and political leaders—that although the social systems of the two countries were different, there was no reason for hostility, no insuperable barrier to friendship and cooperation.

More than this, said Khrushchev, not only is friendship useful to us but we have no right to quarrel. "Our countries are very strong. They must not quarrel." If small countries quarrel, he said, all they can do is scratch each other and the scratches can be painted out with cosmetics in a day or two. But if two powerful countries quarrel and resort to war, countries like the United States and the Soviet Union,

Visit of Peace and Friendship

the whole world is inevitably drawn into the conflict. It means incalculable destruction and suffering not only for the two nations directly involved but for the whole world.

At a luncheon given in his honor at New York's Commodore Hotel by the city's Mayor, Khrushchev made this appeal to Americans: "Let us speak of what ought to unite us, rather than magnify what might disunite us. Let us compete peacefully and let the peoples judge which system is better, which offers greater scope for development of productive forces, which better provides for man's well-being."

In his address before the General Assembly of the UN, Khrushchev submitted a proposal on general, complete and controlled disarmament that heartened the people the world over. In language plain enough for anyone to understand he said that if all armies were disbanded, barracks shut down and armaments destroyed, control to insure that no country rearms on the quiet would be simple and easy to establish. Any nation would then readily open its doors to as many foreign inspectors as cared to come.

I recall Khrushchev's speech before the municipal authorities of Los Angeles and the World Affairs Council. This very interesting meeting took place in the huge hall of the Ambassador Hotel. It came at the end of a tiring trip over the roads around this southern California city. From my vantage point I had a good view of the people of Los Angeles. I saw the friendly response to Khrushchev's speech, their agreement with what he said, their enthusiastic applause.

I had plenty of other occasions to see that Americans liked what Khrushchev said—that his appeal for peace and friendship between the two nations struck a responsive chord. People of all walks of life stopped me and other Soviet newspapermen to talk.

At the hotel in Des Moines, just as Khrushchev's face appeared on the TV screen in the lobby, I was approached by a couple who had come from Alabama especially to see the head of the Soviet Government. They were plain people, unfamiliar with the intricacies of politics. A Soviet journalist was something unknown to them, something altogether new. They were glad to find that I was a person like themselves, pleased to answer any questions they wanted to ask—and they asked many.

The great number of letters sent to Khrushchev by American citizens bears witness to the impression he made. People told the Soviet Chairman about themselves, invited him to visit them, almost all of them thanked him for his untiring efforts in behalf of world peace.

These letters and the talks that Khrushchev himself and the members of his party had with hundreds of people are indicative of a fact which is most welcome to us—the American people want peace, they understand just as well as we do the crucial importance of friendship between the United States and the Soviet Union.

I am not likely to forget the Iowans who were so eager to talk with us, the greetings of the Mesta Machinery Company workers in Pittsburgh, the cheers of the college students in Ames and the huge poster with which they welcomed us. It was lettered in Russian "Chairman Khrushchev, God Bless You. Thank You for Your Disarmament Proposal."

Now that a year has passed, we can all see that Khrushchev's visit helped many Americans to "discover" the Soviet Union, to acquire a better knowledge of its policy, its peace-loving intentions, to understand how much the Soviet people are devoted to the cause of world peace. We Soviet guests, too, had the chance to learn more about the United States, to get a better understanding of your country and people. We were impressed by the achievements of the United States in science and industry, in commerce, by the services provided for the population. The United States is a rich country where nature has been bountiful; its people have created much that is good. There is a good deal that other countries can learn from Americans. There are also a good many things that Americans can learn from other countries.

However, the thing that was most important to us was not the outer appearance of the country's life. It was getting to know the people, understanding their thoughts, learning about their innermost feelings. And we saw that the American people want peace, that they are sin-

cerely interested in friendship with the Soviet Union, that they want to compete along peaceful lines to build, and not to destroy, to compete in areas that will make life better for all people. And this, in essence, is the substance of our Chairman's appeal.

Khrushchev's trip to the United States was a visit of historic consequence, and its beneficial effects remain, they can not be obliterated. Whatever the character of the events that followed, they can not alter the fact that the American people have received their information about the aspirations and intentions of the Soviet people from the primary source. What Khrushchev said a year ago holds true for today.

After his trip to the United States he paid similar visits to several Asian countries—India, Indonesia, Burma and Afghanistan—and to France and Austria. In all these countries he met not only with statesmen and government leaders, but with all sorts of plain people. And this is really what matters most. We are living in a period when politics are not only the diplomats' province, but everyone's. The people are exerting an increasingly greater influence upon international developments. They have already decided for the only possible alternative to war—peaceful coexistence of all states regardless of social and political systems.

During the past few years the Soviet Union has welcomed representative parliamentary delegations as well as distinguished statesmen of many countries. Among others, President Prasad of India, President Schaefer of Austria, President Gronchi of Italy, President Touré of Guinea, Prime Minister Djuanda Kartawidjaja of the Republic of Indonesia have visited the Soviet Union. There can be no question but that the time will come when we shall welcome with due respect the head of the United States as well. We look forward to this day because we sincerely believe that personal contacts between statesmen are of tremendous importance in achieving world peace and mutual understanding between countries, in fostering friendship and establishing businesslike cooperation.

Now, when a year has elapsed, I see that events which clouded the international situation this summer did not diminish the good will which the Soviet people feel toward Americans, though they did leave a bitter taste. The many visitors from the United States this year—the past few months included—invariably met with a cordial and friendly welcome. Wherever an American tourist chooses to visit—at the home of a Soviet citizen, a theater, a university, a factory—he finds more than a courteous welcome. He finds a ready interest, a desire for frank and friendly talk. I heard the same from Soviet people who went to the United States these past few months.

No matter what difficulties might arise in international relations, we Soviet people remain optimistic for we believe in the good sense of nations, that good sense which must conclude that there is only one way to resolve the problems that split the world—peaceful coexistence.

Khrushchev convincingly put it this way during his recent tour of Austria: "All of mankind," he said, "lives on this old planet of ours. To a certain extent the way we live and coexist can be compared to the Biblical legends about Noah's Ark. Noah built an ark and took into it seven pairs of clean and two pairs of unclean beasts. Though they did not respect each other they kept their peace in Noah's Ark because they understood that if they did not behave themselves the ark would break up and they would all drown.

"To a certain extent we resemble the inhabitants of Noah's Ark. Our planet is small. In a few score hours one can circle it in a plane; rockets and sputniks can make several revolutions around the earth in a day. If on this earth we are not able to get along as the living things put on Noah's Ark, and if we start a war to settle disputes between states—between those that don't like socialism and those that don't like capitalism—we shall destroy our Noah's Ark, the earth. Tens of millions of people will be wiped out and the health of millions upon millions will be undermined because of radioactive fallout. One must understand all this well and live in peace."

The mutual interest of the peoples of our two great countries in maintaining peace is a reliable guarantee against the sinister threat of war. When we Soviet people meet the thousands of Americans who come to our country, we see the peaceable nature of the American people. The same can be said about the meetings of our people and Americans in the United States. Khrushchev's visit to the United States in many ways promoted the creation of favorable conditions for our present and future contacts and businesslike cooperation.





PEACEFUL COEXISTENCE IN ACTION

N. S. KHRUSHCHEV'S VISIT TO AUSTRIA
By Oleg Salkovsky



The crowds of Austrians who greeted the Soviet Chairman in every town and city he visited were moved by a common and deeply-felt sentiment regardless of differing political views—they were all for peace and friendship. (Top and center left) Cheers and applause from the people of Vienna; (right) a warm handshake as the train pulls into the station at Bad-Gastein; (bottom) "Welcome Nikita," "Greetings Soviet People," read banners carried by the citizens of Graz waiting for Khrushchev's arrival.



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IT IS ONLY a short time since the head of the Soviet Government, N. S. Khrushchev, returned from his visit to Austria last July. Today, looking back on this noteworthy international event, we can say that the journey was successful in every respect.

Austrians of all shades of opinion and political persuasion received Chairman Khrushchev cordially. The innumerable banners and streamers carried by factory workers in Vienna and Linz, farmers in Styria and Carinthia, tradesmen in Graz and Klagenfurt bespoke their common sentiment: "Welcome, Nikita Khrushchev. For Peace and Friendship."

In city streets and on country highways crowds of people met the Soviet emissary of peace with flowers. Socialists, Communists and members of the People's Party; Catholics, Protestants and Austrians of no religious affiliation; industrial workers, farmers and businessmen—all regarded the visit as an important step toward better international relations.

From the Chairman's television speeches, his press conferences, his meetings with trade union and industrial leaders, the Austrian people learned about the Soviet Union—the undeviating peace policy of its government and the striving of its people for an economy of abundance.

At a meeting with Austrian labor leaders, Khrushchev spoke of the May session of the Supreme Soviet and the laws it passed to abolish the income tax and to cut the workday.

"It should be noted," said Chairman Khrushchev, "that the shortening of the work-

day and the abolition of taxes does not result in wage cuts. On the contrary, in a number of cases wages are rising."

The Soviet leader told these Austrian labor representatives of the active part the 55 million Soviet trade unionists play in the nation's life. He noted that functions previously exercised by government agencies have now been turned over to the trade unions.

In a television broadcast Khrushchev described the rise in the Soviet living standards, the country's progress in science and technology. "Would anyone have thought it possible 42 years ago," he asked, "for the Soviet Union to be first to put its national emblem on the moon, the first to reach outer space, to build an atomic icebreaker? That it would annually produce hundreds of thousands of tractors and automobiles, tens of thousands of the most modern machine tools? That Soviet jet airliners would be the first in the world to fly international airways? And now the Soviet Union stands first in Europe and second in the world in industrial output. Moreover, the time is not far off when our country will outproduce the United States and climb into first place."

In a speech Khrushchev made at the Vienna Automobile Plant, he paid tribute to the class that produces the world's goods. "Mankind," he said, "has not yet erected a grand monument to the worker, the real creator. But the worker has erected his own monument in the factories, power stations, roads, houses, theaters, cities and villages he has built. There is no grander or nobler monument on earth, nor can there be."

The Chairman, in simple and lucid terms,

presented the foreign policy aims of the Soviet Union at a press conference in Vienna on July 8. "The Soviet Government sees as its main foreign policy objective a continuing and unceasing effort to relax international tensions and develop economic and cultural relations with all countries based on the principles of peaceful coexistence."

The present friendly relations between Austria and the Soviet Union demonstrate an example of the application of the principles of peaceful coexistence. Austria is a capitalist country, the Soviet Union a socialist country, but that has not been an insuperable obstacle to friendship and mutual understanding.

The viability of this basic principle of Soviet foreign policy was proved once again by the fact that Nikita Khrushchev, head of a communist state, could reach an agreement with Julius Raab, Chancellor of Austria—a man who declares himself unequivocally a capitalist—on the most crucial question of our time, the preservation of peace. Their fruitful meetings show that mutual good will produces mutual understanding.

At a press conference in Vienna the Chairman expressed gratification that the talks with the leaders of the Austrian Republic once again proved graphically the possibility and the necessity for coexistence and mutual understanding between countries with different social and economic systems.

The idea of the coexistence of states on a peaceful basis, without wars, was also expressed in the joint communique published at the conclusion of the talks. "Both sides unanimously state," it read, "that Soviet-Austrian relations, based on the recognition of

With Austrian Chancellor Julius Raab. Both statesmen noted that friendly Austro-Soviet relations were based on the principle of peaceful coexistence.

The Cattle Breeding Institute of Wels presenting a pedigreed bull-calf to Nikita Khrushchev—a friendly gift to the farmers of a friendly country.

the principles of peaceful coexistence of countries, irrespective of differences in social systems and ideological views, have developed satisfactorily on both sides, on the basis of mutual esteem and noninterference in each other's domestic affairs. There are no unsettled political problems between the two countries."

"The two sides are agreed that general, complete and controlled disarmament is the most important and urgent problem of our time. They will take all measures in their power to bring about a positive settlement of the disarmament problem in keeping with the resolution of the UN General Assembly of November 20, 1959, which would help eliminate the threat of war and relieve the peoples of the burdens that derive from the arms race. Both sides are convinced that agreement on the prohibition of nuclear tests would be an important step toward the solution of the disarmament problem."

The document carries the signatures of three men of different political beliefs: N. Khrushchev, Communist; J. Raab, member of the Catholic Party; B. Pittermann, Socialist.

As was true of his visits to the United States, France and the Asian countries, Khrushchev's Austrian trip was a decidedly helpful factor in improving the international climate. Prospects for increasingly favorable Austro-Soviet relations are forecast by the agreement of both countries to conclude a new, mutually advantageous five-year contract for reciprocal goods deliveries.

The joint communiqué also expresses the desire of both countries to expand their cultural, scientific and technical exchanges and to promote meetings between their scientific and cultural workers.

Those who want peace cannot help but rejoice at the results of the visit of the head of the Soviet Government to Austria. For this visit proves once more that world peace is altogether possible and that capitalist countries and the countries of socialism can co-exist in peace and work fruitfully together.



A grim reminder of the war against fascism—former concentration camp at Mauthausen. The joint communiqué declared that both sides were agreed on the urgent need to end the arms race.



CREATING AN ECONOMY OF

ABUNDANCE

THE SOCIALIST REVOLUTION of 1917 gave birth to a new type of society whose ultimate goal is an abundance of material and cultural values for every one of its citizens. Much has been done by our people in these past forty-three years to build an economy of abundance, but even bolder projects are under way now.

By 1965, the end of our current seven-year plan, the most highly developed countries of Western Europe will be trailing us in per capita consumption of many major consumer goods. By 1970 we plan to catch up with the United States in per capita consumption of consumer goods and then surpass it.

These targets are not wishful thinking but the reality of our plans substantiated by a high rate of economic development year after year. The time is fast approaching when the Soviet people will have the highest standard of living in the world.

Good Dividends

In a single day now our industry produces as much as it did in a month before the Revolution. To reach this level of production the Soviet Union had to overcome the backwardness we inherited from czarist Russia, and we also had to rebuild our economy out of the destruction of two world wars.

The measure of an economy's viability and strength lies in its advancing technology and its growing production potential. It is these factors that make it possible to create an abundance of consumer goods. And we had to make unmeasured sacrifices to build up a large-scale heavy industry so that our country would be in a position to produce its own machines and assure its economic and technological progress.

All our sacrifices and hardships of the early period of industrialization are being repaid now with very good dividends indeed. The living standard of the country today is not only far higher than it was in czarist times, it is also higher than it was in the prewar year of 1940.

The seven-year plan, like any of the previous plans, provides for an over-all expansion of our national economy with a more accelerated development of heavy industry, which ensures the growth of every other branch.

Production of consumer items is scheduled to increase by approximately 65 per cent. This means that in 1965 the Soviet Union is to produce 23 times more goods for the population than in any of the peak years before the Revolution.

There was a time when it was necessary for us to invest less in consumer industries so that we would have more for heavy industry. But now our country is much wealthier than ever before, and our planned economy reveals new possibilities and potentials with every new stride it takes. We now can spend much more on the development of our food and light industries without skimping on heavy industry.

The seven-year plan originally allocated 80 to 85 billion rubles on expanding consumer items production. Even this is twice the sum spent during the preceding seven years, but last May the USSR Supreme Soviet, our country's parliament, decided to invest an additional 25 to 30 billion rubles over and above the original allocations. These investments will go chiefly to the textile and shoe industries and their raw material sources.

The Soviet Union's systematic reduction of its armed forces and defense allocations creates an additional reserve of funds and manpower for expanding the consumer goods industries. From 19.9 per cent of the national budget five years ago, defense expenditure has dropped to 12.9 per cent in the 1960 budget.

The rate of economic progress in the Soviet Union is steady, high and uninterrupted by crises or recessions. It has long been the rule for Soviet workers to exceed the targets set by plans. They are the only masters of all national wealth, and by producing more they improve their own living standards, so that it is only natural for them to seek out and find additional means and reserves for greater output.

The economic plans are their own, conceived by them and carried out by them. The fruits are also theirs. It is in this proprietary spirit that the Soviet people have tackled the current seven-year plan. The results can already be seen and measured.

Industrial output has been growing at an annual rate of 11 per cent, or 3 to 4 per cent

more than the average increase scheduled for each of the seven years. This means that the Soviet Union will produce almost as much in the first two years of the plan as it should have in three. Embodied in every additional per cent are ever increasing quantities of new machines for our factories and ever increasing quantities of goods for the population.

There has been significant accompanying progress in our farming. In the past six years the yield of grain, milk, meat, sugar, vegetables and other foodstuffs has increased markedly. More and more high-grade foods are appearing on our dinner table.

Rising Living Standards

As the output of manufactured goods and farm produce increases and their cost of production drops, retail prices go down. On the other hand, there is a constant rise in purchasing power. Far from lagging behind output, demand in many cases runs far ahead.

The expansion of the domestic market cannot help but stimulate greater production. The factories that produce consumer goods operate at full capacity all the time, and the country's retail stores are never overstocked. In the past seven years the annual volume of purchases made by the population has gone up at an average annual rate of 11 per cent.

If we assume 100 to be the index figure for 1940's volume of trade in state and cooperative stores, the corresponding figure for last year is 296, for 1960 it is expected to be 322, and for 1965 it is estimated at 443.

Soviet families have been buying more and more of the expensive kinds of consumer goods. Last year, for example, they bought four times more woolen fabrics than they did in the prewar year 1940 and nearly ten times more silks. Sales of refrigerators, vacuum cleaners, washing machines, automobiles, motor scooters, radio and TV sets, wrist watches and cameras have increased many times over.

With millions of families moving into new and more spacious apartments, there is a very large demand for furniture. In 1959 more than 2.2 million new apartments were built in the cities and 850 thousand houses in the rural areas.

The Soviet Union has sufficient stocks of

By Mark Postolovsky
Economist

ANCE

goods to meet general consumer demand. There are some items, however, for which demand outruns supply.

Partly responsible for this disparity is the changing nature of the countryside. Like the city dweller, the rural inhabitant is now in the market for TV's, radios, electrical appliances, musical instruments. The character of urban consumer demand is also changing substantially. City people are now buying more expensive goods rather than the cheaper items.

There is installment buying in the Soviet Union but most people prefer to pay cash since they have the wherewithal. The evidence is in the growing amounts of savings bank deposits. In 1940 the national savings bank total was 7.3 billion rubles, and in 1959 it was 100.5 billion. Consider what these contrasting figures imply in rising living standards.

It is not only the material needs that must be satisfied, there are also the demands of the spirit. We in our country have an enormous and ever-growing call for books, musical instruments, art materials and the like. Book production has multiplied 2.5 times as against 1940, and last year alone more than four billion rubles' worth of books were sold. Although we have more than 500 professional theaters, everyone who has toured our country knows how hard it is to get a seat for a good play or concert, the demand is so great.

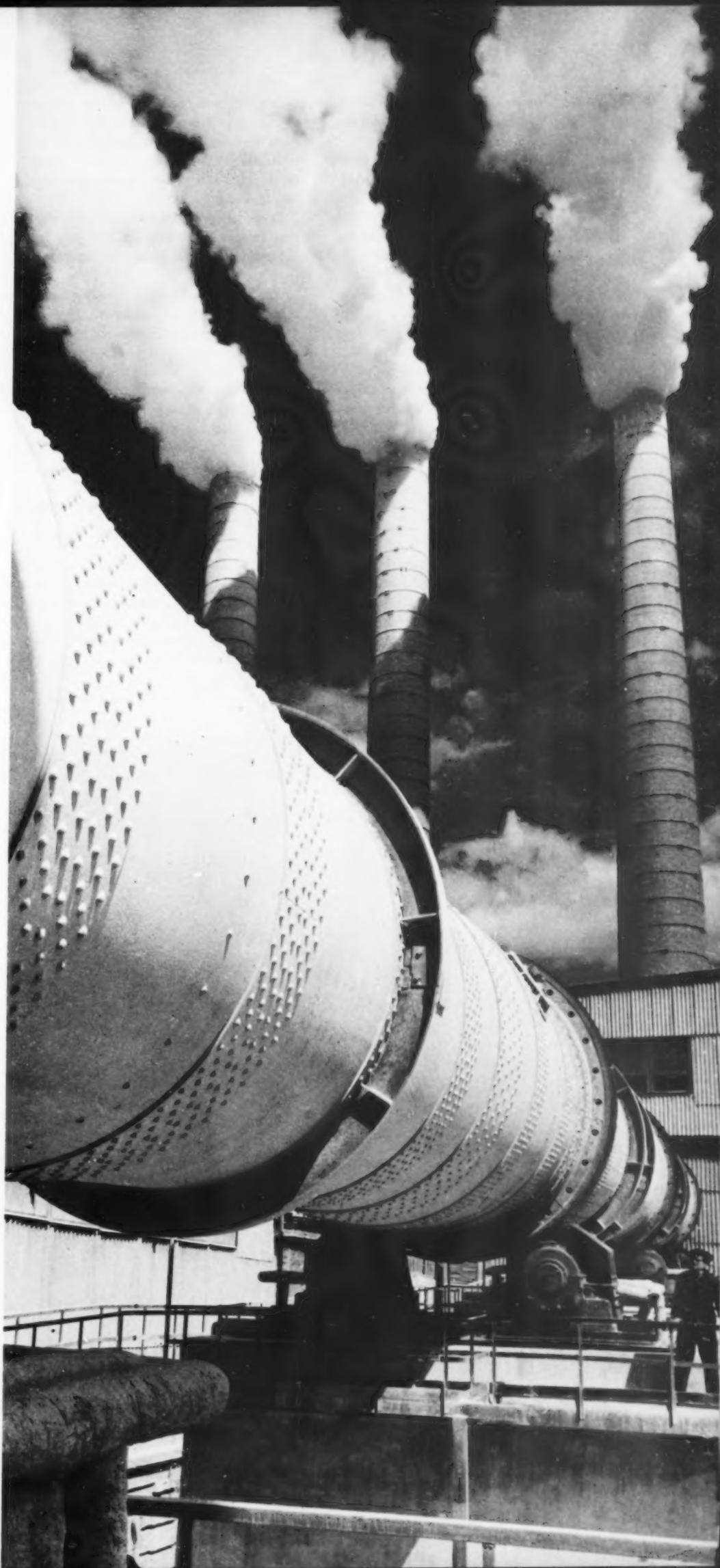
Purchasing Power Grows

Where does the greater purchasing power of the Soviet consumer come from?

The whole of the national income in our country remains the property of those who create it, the working people. Three quarters of the total comes back to the worker directly in wages and services. The rest of the national income goes to expand production, to build houses, schools, hospitals and to provide for other national needs.

Earnings of industrial, office and professional workers are rising steadily. They are now twice what they were in 1940. The income of the collective farmer during this period has gone up 120 per cent. Under the seven-year plan real income is scheduled for a rise of better than 40 per cent.

As earnings grow, people buy more goods.



This is the formula of socialist economics—expanding output equals greater purchasing power.

But the worker's wage is not the only yardstick by which to measure his rising purchasing power. Other factors operate in the Soviet Union. Our government follows a systematic policy of cutting retail prices, so that the buyer now gets more for every ruble he spends. In the past twelve years the consumer has saved several hundred billion rubles this way.

In 1959 and early 1960 retail prices were cut on fats, canned goods, silk fabrics, cameras, clocks and watches, bicycles, haberdashery and other items. These cuts ran from 5 to 30 per cent and in the case of many drugs, to 40 per cent or more. The consumer saves 11 billion rubles by these price reductions.

There are also other factors that help explain a constant growth of purchasing power. Last May the USSR Supreme Soviet passed a law on the abolition of the income tax. The law provides that tax cuts will begin this year and by 1965 no one will any longer be paying a tax on earnings.

Since taxes in our country are not high, some commentators say that tax abolition will not add an appreciable sum to the citizen's income. But that is not so at all. A good many people presently pay as much as a whole

month's wages in taxes during the course of the year. It is also fairly common for two or three members of a family to be earning income. For taxpayers in these categories, tax savings will add a substantial sum to the family budget.

Beginning with 1966 some 74 billion rubles that people previously paid to the national budget in annual taxes will stay in their pockets.

The shorter workday is another factor that makes for growing purchasing power. This year the changeover from an eight- to a seven- and six-hour day will be completed and in 1964 the country will start the shift to a six- and five-hour day.

The objection may be raised that a cut in working time does not by itself necessarily mean a rise in wages. And that, of course, is true. But in a socialist country a cut in the working day is not confined to a mere time reduction. It is accompanied by improvements in the wage setup.

Wages of lower-bracket earners in the Soviet Union are now being brought up to the level of medium wage earners. In a number of occupations, a direct wage rise is under way. The seven-year plan allocates some 100 billion rubles for measures connected with the reduction of the working day and various wage adjustments.

Millions of workers in many industries have

already benefited from these measures. Iron and steel workers, for instance, are now making an average of 1,500 rubles more a year than they did before the working day was cut; workers in the chemical industry are making 1,200 rubles more; those in the food industries, nearly 1,500 rubles more; and those in the communications industries 1,900 rubles more.

The Social Fund

Soviet citizens are entitled to old age and disability pensions, sick benefits and many other payments under the social insurance system, as well as such free services as any kind of medical care and education all the way from elementary school through college. Then there are paid vacations and resort accommodations, stipends for college students and many other payments and welfare services which come out of what is known as the social fund administered by the government, the trade unions and other public organizations. All this obviously contributes to raising living standards.

Expenditures for social and cultural services at the expense of the national budget have been steadily rising—from 122 billion rubles in 1950 to 230 billion in 1959 and to nearly 248 billion this year.

In actual money terms the social fund supplements the income of every Soviet family by somewhere between 30 and 50 per cent. As the country keeps growing richer, the social fund pays for more and more of the citizen's material and cultural needs.

Take this example. Not so very long ago education was free only through the seven-year school. Then all the upper grades of the secondary school were declared free. Now not only is all education through college and graduate school free but stipends are paid to students while they are at college. There are also more and more boarding schools every year where full maintenance of children is paid for from the national budget.

The fruits of a Soviet worker's labor are returned to him a hundred-fold since the aim of production in our country fully coincides with the interests of the people. Every member of our society feels the tangible results of the successful advance of the country's economy. Each one knows that a better life means, first and foremost, raising the productivity of his labor and improving the performance of his factory or farm. It is this consciousness that explains the new attitude toward work which is so characteristic of the Soviet way of life.

At the dawn of socialism in the Soviet Union this new attitude toward work took the form of Communist Subbotniks—men and women gave up their free Saturdays to rebuild the country. During the period of industrialization it took expression in the movement of shock brigades of workers who pledged to fulfill the plans ahead of schedule. Now it has taken the form of a country-wide emulation of communist work teams dedicated to better work, more study and greater social responsibility. This is the guarantee that the seven-year plan, the plan for an economy of abundance, will be overfulfilled.

The greater amounts of foodstuffs which the same money buys illustrates the growth in the purchasing power of the ruble in the past thirteen years

	1947	1959
Bread	1 lb.	2.4 lbs.
Meat	1 lb.	3 lbs.
Butter	1 lb.	2.4 lbs.
Cheese	1 lb.	2.2 lbs.
Milk	1 qt.	1.4 qts.
Sugar	1 lb.	1.4 lbs.

Index of per capita consumption of foodstuffs in workers' families
(prewar year 1940 = 100)

	1956	1957	1958
Bread	81	77	76
Potatoes	161	165	156
Other vegetables	126	127	135
Meat and fats	188	198	213
Fish products	169	169	180
Dairy products	214	230	250
Eggs	176	205	222
Sugar	200	205	215
Confectionary goods	155	158	161

Index of per capita purchases of manufactured goods
in workers' families—in comparable prices
(prewar year 1940 = 100)

	1956	1957	1958
Fabrics (total)	175	182	183
woolen	346	431	446
silk	1,831	2,138	2,146
Leather footwear	178	193	201
Coats	245	269	285
Knit goods	331	387	426
Furniture and household goods	328	371	445
Books, newspapers, radios, musical instruments, clocks and watches, motorcycles, etc.	891	1,098	1,219



This is the formula of socialist economics—expanding output equals greater purchasing power.

But the worker's wage is not the only yardstick by which to measure his rising purchasing power. Other factors operate in the Soviet Union. Our government follows a systematic policy of cutting retail prices, so that the buyer now gets more for every ruble he spends. In the past twelve years the consumer has saved several hundred billion rubles this way.

In 1959 and early 1960 retail prices were cut on fats, canned goods, silk fabrics, cameras, clocks and watches, bicycles, haberdashery and other items. These cuts ran from 5 to 30 per cent and in the case of many drugs, to 40 per cent or more. The consumer saves 11 billion rubles by these price reductions.

There are also other factors that help explain a constant growth of purchasing power. Last May the USSR Supreme Soviet passed a law on the abolition of the income tax. The law provides that tax cuts will begin this year and by 1965 no one will any longer be paying a tax on earnings.

Since taxes in our country are not high, some commentators say that tax abolition will not add an appreciable sum to the citizen's income. But that is not so at all. A good many people presently pay as much as a whole

month's wages in taxes during the course of the year. It is also fairly common for two or three members of a family to be earning income. For taxpayers in these categories, tax savings will add a substantial sum to the family budget.

Beginning with 1966 some 74 billion rubles that people previously paid to the national budget in annual taxes will stay in their pockets.

The shorter workday is another factor that makes for growing purchasing power. This year the changeover from an eight- to a seven- and six-hour day will be completed and in 1964 the country will start the shift to a six- and five-hour day.

The objection may be raised that a cut in working time does not by itself necessarily mean a rise in wages. And that, of course, is true. But in a socialist country a cut in the working day is not confined to a mere time reduction. It is accompanied by improvements in the wage setup.

Wages of lower-bracket earners in the Soviet Union are now being brought up to the level of medium wage earners. In a number of occupations, a direct wage rise is under way. The seven-year plan allocates some 100 billion rubles for measures connected with the reduction of the working day and various wage adjustments.

Millions of workers in many industries have

already benefited from these measures. Iron and steel workers, for instance, are now making an average of 1,500 rubles more a year than they did before the working day was cut; workers in the chemical industry are making 1,200 rubles more; those in the food industries, nearly 1,500 rubles more; and those in the communications industries 1,900 rubles more.

The Social Fund

Soviet citizens are entitled to old age and disability pensions, sick benefits and many other payments under the social insurance system, as well as such free services as any kind of medical care and education all the way from elementary school through college. Then there are paid vacations and resort accommodations, stipends for college students and many other payments and welfare services which come out of what is known as the social fund administered by the government, the trade unions and other public organizations. All this obviously contributes to raising living standards.

Expenditures for social and cultural services at the expense of the national budget have been steadily rising—from 122 billion rubles in 1950 to 230 billion in 1959 and to nearly 243 billion this year.

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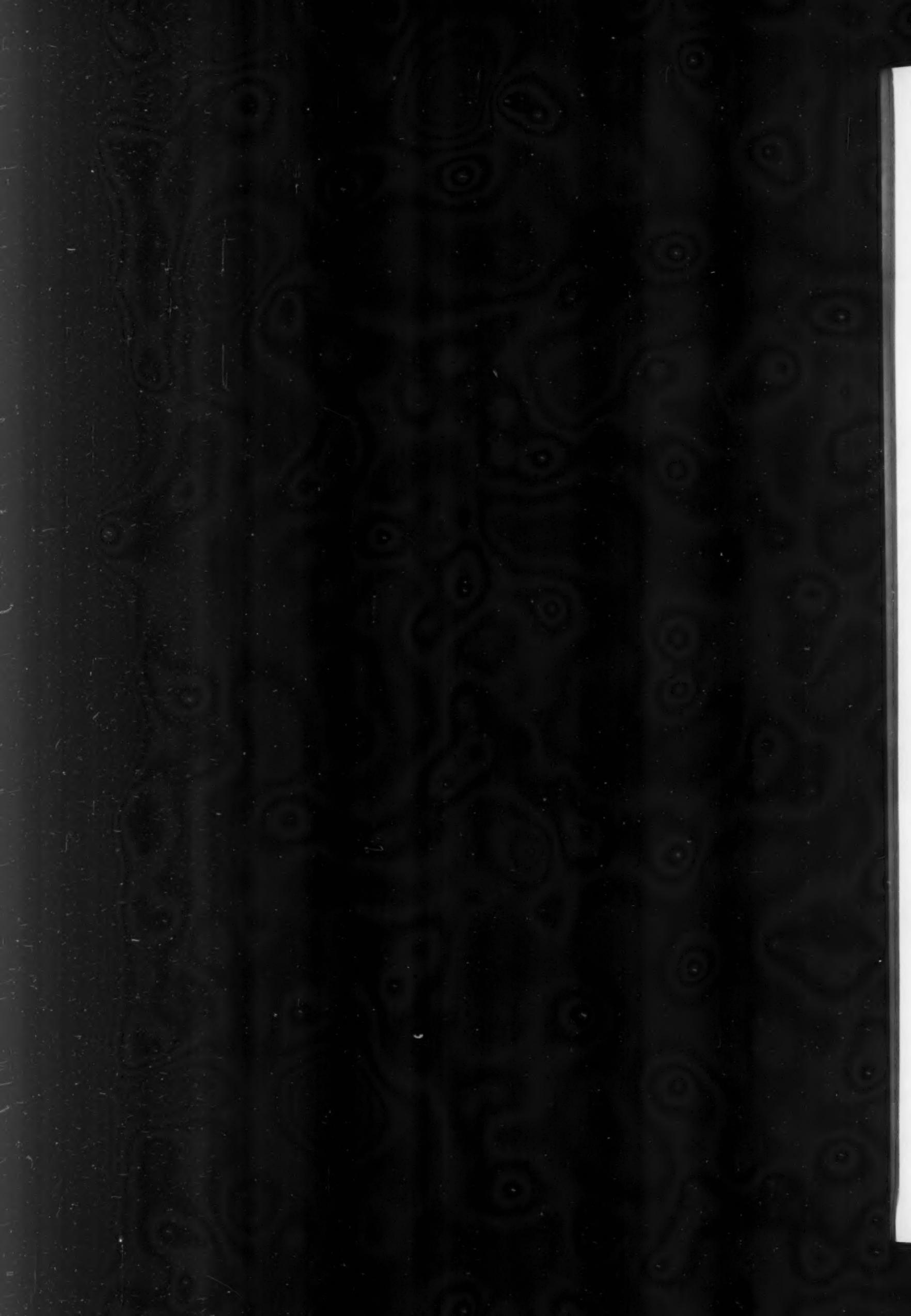
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By Alexander Korovushkin
President, USSR State Bank

NEW MONEY FOR OLD

MONEY NOW IN CIRCULATION will be replaced by new currency in the Soviet Union on January 1. On the same day new prices scaled to the changed currency will take effect. Ten old rubles will be equivalent to one of the new.

The major purpose of the new currency is to simplify national book-keeping. It has nothing at all to do with what is called devaluation which means depreciation in the value of paper currency and which usually accompanies inflation that cuts down living standards. This was the situation, for instance, when the so-called "heavy franc" was introduced in France.

But the Soviet picture is quite different. Here a new currency is being introduced and prices rescaled at a time when money is stable and the purchasing power of the ruble—as well as the wage earner—is rising steadily.

The Soviet monetary system is sounder today than ever. It has the most solid foundation—a planned socialist economy without depression or crisis; a steady rise in the output of consumer goods sold at prices fixed by law; and a sound national budget with an excess of income over expenditures.

Noteworthy also is the fact that the amount of money in circulation conforms to the country's needs, being correlated very strictly with commodity and monetary turnover.

Savings bank deposits are always a good index of the stability of a currency and the trust people have in it. In the past two years alone Soviet bank depositors—there are more than 50 million now—augmented their savings by 20 billion rubles to a total of more than 105 billions.

Old Currency Unwieldy

The currency and price scale now in use was introduced at a time when the national income and budget were much smaller and production and trade were a fraction of that of today. The old currency is too unwieldy for the present rapid economic growth and expanded consumer purchasing power.

The amount of money in circulation—both cash and negotiable paper—has increased enormously. The State Bank—the country's sole credit, accounting and cash center—is now handling nearly four times as much cash as it did before the war. Bank operations in cash—receipts from shops, the transportation system, public utilities and services, places of entertainment, etc.—run to several billion rubles daily.

Last year the State Bank lent a total of more than 3.4 trillion rubles for economic development. Clearance payments between enterprises

have also increased in recent years and now run into trillions of rubles.

With huge sums like these to be accounted for, it makes no sense to keep on using the present ruble. It is too small a monetary unit for this gigantic volume of production and turnover. The new ruble is a convenience to the public and to the stores, banks and other agencies that have to handle and account for large sums. No one—buyer, seller or government—loses by the new currency or the new price scale. The consumer gets exactly as much for his money as he did before.

Denominations

The new currency will be issued as USSR State Bank notes in denominations of 10, 25, 50 and 100 rubles, and as treasury notes of 1, 3 and 5 rubles. These will be smaller and more attractive than those now in use. Coins will be made of a different alloy and will be minted in denominations of 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 15, 20 and 50 kopeks and one ruble.

The State Bank will set up 30,000 exchange points throughout the country where new money can be exchanged for old. For three months after the New Year both the old and the new money will circulate. Old money will be accepted on a 10:1 ratio and in unlimited amounts for all cash transactions. The old bank and treasury notes and coins will be withdrawn from circulation as they come into the stores and banks.

All wholesale and retail prices are being recalculated on the 10:1 scale. Beginning January 1, people will be using the new scale to pay rent, fare, theater admission and everything else. Of course, wages will also be paid in the new currency, as will pensions, grants, scholarship stipends and the like.

All new rates and prices are to be published before October 1 so that every citizen can check whether the ratio is being accurately maintained. Wages are to be recalculated considerably in advance for the same reason.

Foreign Exchange

The larger monetary units and the new price scale will naturally raise the value of the ruble in relation to the gold standard. Hence, as of January 1, it will be necessary to revise the rate of exchange of the ruble with respect to foreign currencies. All debts in connection with foreign trade transactions based on rubles will be recalculated.

Today the Soviet Union has economic ties with 80 countries. Foreign trade has been increasing annually and the State Bank has currency operations with 800 banks throughout the world.

Chairman Khrushchev, speaking to the Supreme Soviet, declared that the new ruble will result in no losses either for foreign nations or for the Soviet Union. It is meant to streamline the Soviet monetary system.



By Lev Petrov

the Skorokhod Shoe Factory

SOVIET SHOE FACTORIES last year turned out 400 million pairs of footwear in some three thousand different styles—shoes for every occasion and season and to suit every age and taste. But even augmented with imports this wasn't enough to meet growing demands.

The seven-year plan schedules a larger shoe output and a greater choice of styles. For the Skorokhod factory in Leningrad this means production expansion from the present 17 million pairs a year to 25 million.

Skorokhod—the word means fast walker—is one of the largest shoe factories in the Soviet Union, long famous for quality and wear. Its 120 buildings are spread over 30 acres of pleasantly landscaped grounds, criss-crossed by sand-strewn walks and brightened with rose bushes, tulips and violets. Many of the tall poplars reach up to the third story shop windows.

From the outside Skorokhod looks somewhat old-fashioned when you compare it with modern single-level factories, but its equipment will stand up with the best of them. Placed end to end the conveyor lines would stretch for some ten miles. All shops are light and airy, the windowsills gay with potted plants.

Skorokhod has its own tannery, design offices, research laboratories and such auxiliary departments as a machine-repair shop. This is a very big and busy factory working on two seven-hour shifts. It has been especially busy this past year and a half modernizing its equipment, adding new machines and working out more efficient production methods to meet the high output figures scheduled by the seven-year plan.

"Our Best Guarantee Is People"

Every phase of footwear manufacture at Skorokhod is mechanized and many operations are fully automated. But this by itself is no guarantee that the factory will hit its 25 million annual target figure. "Our best guarantee," says director Serafim Zakharov, "is the ingenuity and inventiveness of our people."

Many of the Skorokhod workers have developed new operating procedures to cut production costs and improve the quality of footwear. Technologist Vasili Prokofiev and mechanic Pavel Arkhipov suggested an automatic lasting machine of their own design. Electrician Mikhail





Sherstoboyev and engineer Isaak Freitis designed a piece of equipment for automatic control of the temperature of the hot-cure presses.

These idea men and inventors figure that between automation and the new labor-saving techniques they think up the factory ought to be able to save about 75 million rubles in the seven years of the plan period. This sum is not just taken at random. It's justified by the savings of this past year and a half.

Training Skilled Shoemakers

It needs skill and dexterity to make the quality footwear for which Skorokhod has a reputation both at home and abroad. Hence the varied study programs entirely at management expense.

Skorokhod has its own vocational school that offers training in all trades needed by the factory. It graduated 350 young people last year. There is also a specialized secondary school that provides training in two fields—the technology of shoe manufacture and shoemaking machines. Students are qualified technicians when they graduate. Some 900 of the Skorokhod workers are studying at secondary schools and another hundred at colleges.

Every worker is encouraged to take advantage of advanced training offered by a great variety of courses that operate directly in the shops. About 3,000 people each year move up to more highly-skilled and better-paying jobs that way.

The basic wage at the factory is about 800 rubles a month but bonuses for exceeding the production quotas or for saving material run the earnings up a good deal higher—from 200 to 1,000 additional rubles. The best cutters, for example, make as much as 2,000 rubles a month.

A Self-Contained Community

Skorokhod, like many other large industrial plants, has its own vacation facilities—a holiday camp set in beautiful country about a hundred miles from Leningrad. A good many of the workers spend part or all of their month's paid vacation at this camp. A two weeks' stay costs 75 rubles—less than 19 dollars at the official rate of exchange.

Those who prefer the resorts in the south and other vacation areas can get their accommodations at only a third of the actual cost, the remainder being paid out of the state social insurance fund which is administered by their trade union.

The kindergarten maintained by the factory takes care of a considerable number of the preschool children of working parents. The children are left there in the morning and called for by the parents at the end of the workday. Play and physical development are carefully supervised.

The factory has its own polyclinic staffed by 20 specialists. There is also an overnight sanatorium where people who need treatment stay after work for as long as a two-months' period. All medical treatment is free. A worker is entitled to 90 per cent of his average earnings during the entire period of his illness.

The factory restaurant, set in a tree-shaded part of the grounds, can serve 800 people at a time. A three-course hot lunch costs about 75 cents, figured in American money. Many of the workers bring their own lunch. Others who live nearby prefer to go home to eat.

A varied choice of cultural, sports and other leisure-time activities is offered by the factory's House of Culture. There are chorus, dance ensemble, brass band, jazz orchestra and dramatic groups. Several times a week workers fill the 1,500-seat auditorium where motion pictures are shown and plays are performed by professional touring companies or the factory's amateur actors.

Skorokhod worker Valentin Danilov is convinced that the factory's shoes are the world's best and says buyers at home and abroad like them.

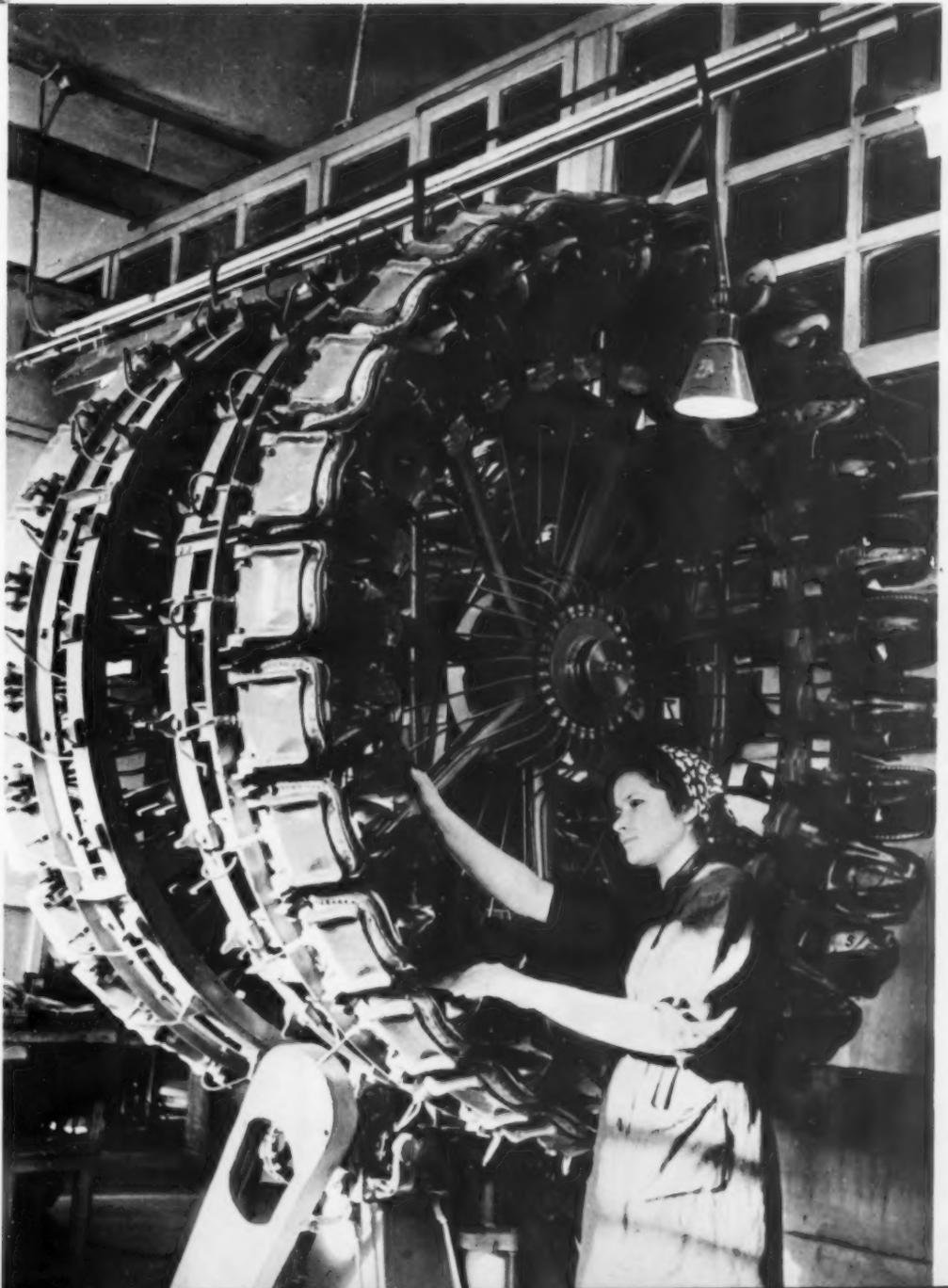




One of the factory shops. The Skorokhod buildings spread over 30 landscaped acres.



Vasili Prokofiev (left) and Pavel Arkhipov check an automatic machine they designed for tightening shoe lasts.



To gear for larger output, Skorokhod is modernizing its equipment and machinery.

"You've got to be a cobbler and artist combined if you want to create a new style in shoes that will sell," say shoe designers.

Soviet factories are now producing more than 3,000 styles to satisfy the growing demand for attractive and durable footwear.



SHOE FASHIONS keep changing as fast as any other fashion, and shoe designers are busy all year round trying to meet the deadlines of shoe manufacturers and at the same time satisfy the very rigid demands of shoe stores. What people want now is not just footwear but high-quality shoes at a reasonable price. They are growing more and more fastidious with regard to both styling and materials.

"To create a new style in shoes that will sell, you've got to be a cobbler and artist combined," says Yevgeni Orlinsky, a designer at the Footwear Fashion House in Moscow.

It's hard to guess how many sketches he draws before he is satisfied with the form and lines and trimmings. But that is only the beginning. Then he must choose materials and adjust his model for mass factory production. Here he works closely with a shoe technologist who helps him in such things as selecting the proper last or the best way to sew the soles to the uppers.

"This is a really painstaking business," says Yevgeni. "What combination of colors will be most effective? Which leather will be most practical? What last will be most comfortable for a walking shoe? How high



Shoe designers of the Footwear Fashion House in Moscow carefully examine a new style before it is submitted for consideration of the Art Council. If approved, it will be turned over to shoe factories for mass production.

COBBLER AND ARTIST

By Irina Yegorova

should the heel on an evening shoe be to please women? There are a hundred and one problems to be solved before a new model can be submitted for the consideration of our Art Council."

The Art Council of the Fashion House is composed of the leading designers, representatives of shoe factories and shoe stores. Once a month this very authoritative forum meets in the Demonstration Hall to select new styles for production. Every pair is closely examined and discussed as models—both female and male—parade on a brightly-lighted runway before these exacting judges.

The Art Council has to be satisfied on all scores—the reason for its diverse membership. The designers look for elegance. The shoe factory representatives are concerned with mass production problems. And the store people are most interested in price. Sometimes judgments differ, more often not, but each new style has to be generally approved on all counts.

A pair of men's shoes displayed at the last meeting of the council won immediate favor. The unanimous feeling was that they were nice-looking and seemed to be durable.

Retailers were confident that these shoes would sell very well at the price computed by manufacturers.

The happiest person at this meeting was Rita Setikhanova—the council's approval of her design was a mark of recognition for this girl who has been working at the Fashion House for only a couple of years.

Rita is a graduate of the Moscow Institute of Applied and Decorative Arts. She must have been born a stylist—she remembers sketching gowns and shoes and accessories as far back almost as her own first party dress. Her coming-out design as a professional was a big seller, and ever since then she has been creating one happy model after another. But she is still nervous when her new designs are discussed at the Art Council and is more than pleased when they get its go-ahead-signal.

This girl, like any other designer at the Fashion House, does all kinds of footwear. "But," she says, "I like to design low-heeled shoes best and I think I've been doing some pretty fair men's shoes." For which the men are grateful, you may be sure.

All designers of the Fashion House spend

a good deal of time at the shoe factories helping to create unusual shades and new kinds of leather textures—crushed, or pressed, or shiny, or with polka dots, or splashes, or dapples, or what have you. On the other hand, factory people are the most willing consultants of shoe designers. A production man is not only a harsh critic but a friendly adviser who suggests what material is best for a particular sole. If it's a substitute to be used, he will insist on a thorough test, not only in the laboratory, but in actual wearing conditions. The Fashion House has been using more and more leather substitutes. Many of them come from the Research Institute of the Leather Industry. Their substitutes are in many ways superior to natural hide.

Each of the new shoe styles that finally goes to the Demonstration Hall of the Fashion House for minute examination by the Art Council is a product of the combined skills of many people like Rita Setikhanova and Yevgeni Orlinsky. And these people are proud that their work won plaudits both at home and abroad—not the least of which was a Gold Medal and an Honorary Diploma at the Brussels World's Fair.



One of the 1,200 stalls on the ground floor for foodstuffs of all kinds. These apples were grown in orchards on drained floodlands.

collective farm M

THE collective farm market shown here is the newest and largest in Kiev, the Ukrainian capital, but only one of many. Like any other market in any other city, it operates right alongside the stores of the state retail trade chains and the cooperative stores.

After meeting their obligations to government procurement agencies, collective farmers take their surplus products directly to the city consumer. They set their own prices, do their own trading and, of course, do what they please with the money they make.

This new market in Kiev can take care of 7,000 customers at a time. The ground floor with its 1,200 stalls is reserved for the farmers of the neighboring villages. Here they sell meat, milk, poultry, eggs, honey, fruit, vegetables and whatever else they raise.

The farmer pays a modest rental to the market for space, scales and trays. He must have his produce examined by the sanitary inspector on the premises before it can be placed on sale.

On the upper floor the farmer-seller turns buyer. Here the state and cooperative stores bid for his attention with their thousands of consumer items—shoes, suits, dresses, fabrics, furniture, toys, TV sets, appliances and what not.



On the balcony buyers find a well-stocked department store. Of the many large collective farm markets in Kiev, this is largest.



Before meat, milk, vegetables and other products can be put up for sale, they must be quality checked by one of the market sanitary inspectors.



For a small fee the farmer is provided with a stall, scales and the services of experts like butcher Pavel Shamich.

m MARKET

Photos and story by Alexander Mokletsov



This collective farm market can serve 7,000 customers at a clip—city people buying farm products and country folk who buy practically everything manufactured, from shoes to TV sets.

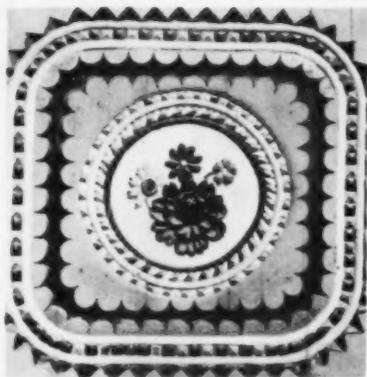




Village smith Sergei Kirillov thought his house deserved more than just one coat of paint. He began the ornamental work four years ago and still keeps adding new touches.







Picture House

By Ilya Vladimirov

THIS PICTURE HOUSE might very well have been the home of some knight from a Russian fairy tale. But it is not a stage set for a children's play nor is it from a "kiddie land." It is the home of a very down-to-earth family of a village smith, Sergei Kirillov. And his house is a very real and solid structure, just like any other in Kunary, a collective farm village halfway between Sverdlovsk and Nizhni Tagil, two of the largest industrial centers in the Urals.

The house is carved and fretted all over—its wooden walls and doors and balcony richly ornamented, the window shutters adorned with bouquets of fantastic flowers, the drain pipes capped with crowing roosters or carved wooden knights brandishing tiny metal spears. Everything is painted in all the colors of the rainbow—and a few more besides, it seems at first glance.

"Why all this fancy decoration?"

"Why not?" replies Kirillov. It is obvious he had been asked the question more than once. "Isn't it more attractive than other houses in the village?"

There was no denying the fact, even though Kirillov had not quite answered the question. "Besides," he added, "we like living in it." This seemed to be as good an answer as any.

He thought the usual single-color house was not very interesting, and so he began his decorative work. This was four years ago when the house was built—that's the reason for the 1956 carved over the door. And it took most of his evenings and practically all his Sundays.

Was he an artist? No, just a self-taught amateur. He had been pretty good at drawing when he was a boy at school, but nothing much more than that. He is a very fine smith though, the villagers say. In his courtyard he built his own small workshop, and it is probably here that the idea to decorate the house first originated.

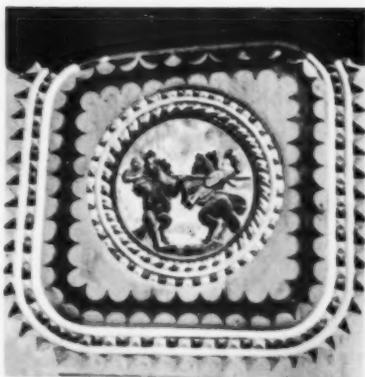
All his carving was done with simple hand tools—an ax, saw, plane, chisel and rasp. There are two half-carved pedestals standing beside his bench. The house is still not quite finished, he explains.

"Where do you get the designs?"

"Oh, I just think them up as I go along. I scratch them down on paper first and then transfer them to wood." His sketches, dozens of them that he had just "scratched down," show an artist with a rich imagination.

When I wanted to take a photograph of this picture house, Kirillov protested mildly. "Wait till it's finished. It doesn't look nice yet."

When I got back to Moscow I showed my photos to Peter Maximov, Chief Architect of the Institute of the Theory and History of Architecture. He looked them over closely and said with a pleased smile: "I'd love to show these to some of our architects who complain that original folk art is disappearing in this machine age of ours."



A HOUSEWIFE'S WORK IS NEVER DONE



By Andrei Sakharov

Photos by
Alexander Mokletsov

This is a story about Militsa Torosyan, a thirty-eight-year-old Moscow housewife. Her husband Ervant is business manager of a theater. Their sons—Arthur, fourteen, and Karen, thirteen—are secondary-school students. The family lives at 9/10 Vernadsky Avenue in Southwest Moscow. Militsa Torosyan says: "Everyone should do what he or she loves best and follow that calling. I think mine is housekeeping and the family, and my husband says I'm pretty good at it."



Providing for three men, two of them growing fast, takes very carefully planned shopping.



All three consider her an outstanding cook and say that her *okroshka* won't bear competition.

ANY HOUSEWIFE, whether in the Soviet Union or any other country, will tell you that taking care of a husband and two growing boys keeps you going around the clock. Militsa Torosyan is no exception.

Her day starts early. She gets breakfast, sees her husband off to work, checks that the boys haven't forgotten to wash behind their ears, watches them from the balcony as they race down the street with their schoolbags, and then with a smile turns back to the, suddenly quiet apartment.

The familiar scene repeats itself day after day with some small variations. Militsa is busy seven days a week, and still her work is never done. Her reward is seeing her husband happy and these two tow-headed youngsters growing up the way they should.

Before the morning has really gotten under way, Militsa has the house tidied up, the beds made, the dishes washed. With these chores finished, she makes out her shopping list. Besides the groceries, there

are socks and shirts to be bought for the boys. Again they managed to grow out of their clothes. What else? Oh yes, there's that electric iron which has to go to the repair shop.

Stretching the Budget

On the way down to the stores Militsa does some mental arithmetic. Ervant makes 1,500 rubles a month. They manage on that, but the family budget sometimes needs a little stretching. Their monthly rent is 50 rubles. Another 50 rubles go for utilities—telephone, gas, electricity and other community services. Their food bills run about 30 rubles a day. They still have the income tax to pay, but that's only for the next few years—until taxes are abolished as provided for by the law passed this spring. But in the meantime, that takes about 150 rubles a month.

There isn't too much left—350 rubles. Part of that has to go for



When she waves the boys off to school from the balcony the apartment seems abnormally quiet.

clothing and shoes, and part put away for summer vacations. That's usually where the budget stretching comes in.

The family likes to vacation together. But a month's stay at a southern resort for four costs between 2,000 and 2,500 rubles. To live in a rented summer cottage near Moscow isn't much cheaper. So they compromise. The children usually go to a Young Pioneer camp and the grownups get resort accommodations through Ervant's trade union. They pay only 30 per cent of the actual cost, the rest is paid for by the union—that's one of the advantages of union membership.

The abolition of taxes will give the Torosyan family an extra 150 rubles a month and make it possible for the family to vacation together, something they are looking forward to. They have other plans for that additional money. They'd like to buy more books, for example.

The Torosyans spend about 25 to 30 rubles a month for reading matter. They have a home library of almost a thousand books. Militsa says: "The boys are still reading Jules Verne and James Fenimore Cooper, but they'll soon be reading Tolstoy, Dostoyevsky, Sholokhov, Shakespeare, Zola, Hemingway and a great many other writers. We'd like to have their books around the house."

Close Figuring

There are occasions when the old family abacus is taken out for some really close figuring. That's for a special purchase. The last time was when the Torosyans decided they wanted one of those new Start TV sets. More and more often now Militsa is getting what her husband calls "that abacus look" in her eyes. Now she wants a piano.

"The boys have a good ear for music," she says. "I want them to play an instrument."

"Why the piano?" asks Ervant.

"Why not?" asks Militsa. But she knows precisely what Ervant is getting at—a piano happens to be an expensive kind of musical instrument, at least now. So she starts figuring out all possible and impossible windfalls. Ervant may, for example, get an extra month's bonus for good work—that happens occasionally. Or Militsa may win in a lottery—but that's only wishful thinking.

Ervant doesn't look convinced, but balancing the family budget is Militsa's job. He admits that he isn't much good at this complicated pastime of stretching the family budget to cover such purchases as a piano. But his wife seems to be an expert at the game. "If she decides we need a piano," he says, "we'll surely have a piano."

Dinnertime

Militsa is through with her shopping just in time not to be late with lunch. It's usually a three-course hot meal. What should she cook today? That requires some thinking.

There's a reputation to be maintained—Ervant and the boys think that if Militsa is not the world's best cook, at least she's a runner-up for the title. With all dishes cooked and being kept warm on the stove, she has a little time left for reading before the boys come home from school and Ervant from his office.

There's a little horseplay at the table—the boys have to work off some energy—until Militsa asks Arthur what mark he got in school. A deadly silence follows, and Mother knows what that means. Although she sighs, she's not so upset about his school work as she used to be.



Her husband makes 1,500 rubles a month. But even though the monthly rent is only 50 rubles with another 50 for utilities, Militsa thinks it's wise to stretch the family income with her sewing.

Since they live in a fairly new apartment, her house chores are not as taxing as they might be.



With the arrival of the milkman—or lady, in this case—Militsa's workday officially begins.

Breakfast, for mothers the world over, is hardly the most relaxing time of day. The boys, as you might expect, get up late and rush their meal. Militsa takes hers last when all are served.



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It takes more than just living together, Militsa believes, to build a close-knit family. They all do things together, whether it's playing backgammon . . .

Her sigh is a kind of rhetorical comment on how different two children in the same family can be.

The younger, Karen, is even-tempered, self-reliant, a good all-round boy. His teacher says he's a good student, the school sports coach thinks he's an upcoming athlete; and then there are his paintings which have been winning first prize in school art shows. Militsa is very proud of her "little one," especially of his art honors. She herself used to study painting at an amateur studio at the Moscow Central Telegraph Office where she used to work as an operator before her first child was born. She wants very much to have Karen study art when he graduates from secondary school.

Arthur is the exact opposite of his brother—high-strung and easily carried away by whatever happens to catch his interest, usually at the expense of his studies. The result is a poor mark, and then follows a long talk with Father. Arthur comes away from this men's talk with wet eyes, to sit brooding for a long time at his desk. But now these unhappy incidents have been occurring much less frequently.

The course of study at the school the boys attend is being altered—

that is part of a general reorganization of the country's school system to give more emphasis to work training. Arthur has chosen to specialize in radioelectronics and has taken to the new course like a duck to water. As soon as he found out that only those who did well in science and math would be allowed to stay at this specialized school, his marks began picking up—to the delight of his parents. Karen doesn't care much for science, and he asked his parents to have him transferred to a different school where the emphasis is on the arts—which pleases his parents, especially Mom.

Time for Herself

Militsa puts in a good deal of her free time at the school. She is active on the parents' committee, helps organize excursions, hikes, parties and art shows. She believes, as do other active parents, that school and home must combine efforts if children are to be educated in the best possible way.

The Torosyans like to do things together—camping out in the



... or taking one of the river boats for a pleasantly cool cruise on a hot summer evening.



Militsa believes that school and home must combine efforts. She is active on the parents' committee.

This is one of her enthusiasms that the rest of the family does not share—window shopping.

woods, going to a movie or an art show, discussing a book or a new play. One of the few things they don't do together is cheer for the same soccer teams. Mother and Arthur are Dynamo fans, Father and Karen go all out for the Spartak team.

Militsa manages somehow or other to find time for herself in spite of the cooking and cleaning and washing and ironing and sewing. She's much too interested in the world outside her apartment to be satisfied with an exclusive diet of household chores.

She reads the newspapers regularly and as many of the new books as she can manage to squeeze into her busy days. She is studying the English language in a neighborhood group and does her homework while the boys do theirs. They are taking English at school too and quite often the three of them talk for practice.

Every once in a while the Torosyans visit with friends or have people in. Neighbors like to drop in on the Torosyans—they are comfortable people to be with and there is a pleasant feeling of ease in their home. You feel that this is a happy, close-knit family. It's Militsa's full-time job and she has done well by it.





Tanya Buzanova

Their Aspirations

By Semyon Gurevich

Teacher, Moscow School No. 74

LAST TERM I asked my students to write a composition in which they imagined themselves living ten years or so later, in the seventies. These were teen-agers who were born the year their fathers were defending Stalingrad. They were three years old when the American and Soviet troops linked up at the Elbe River in Germany. They knew about the war from their parents' talk, from history books and the novels of Mikhail Sholokhov and Konstantin Simonov and the Seventh Symphony of Dmitri Shostakovich. They were in school during the years when the Volga was linked up with the Don, when the great Volga power stations were being built and the first sputniks launched.

I have their compositions before me now. They are written with a sense of purpose, faith in the bright future, an earnest desire to help their fellow men to a better life. It was a heartening thing to me that none of them talked about making a lot of money or holding down a soft job.

Their dreams are founded on the life of the country, their families and each Soviet citizen; on meetings with men and women

who have been places and seen things; on the knowledge acquired in school; and, finally, on books—reminiscences of people who have devoted decades to their chosen work; stories by scientists about their quests, their mistakes and their achievements; scientific fiction; and reportage.

These engineers and inventors of tomorrow know about Tupolev and the Wright brothers, Konstantin Tsiolkovsky and Thomas Edison; these future farmers are familiar with the horticultural research of Michurin and Luther Burbank; and the future educators among them had read Leo Tolstoy and Anton Makarenko.

Scientists and Astronauts

In their work periods at factories and farms they learned to respect manual labor by doing it. They met people of different vocations and thus were better able to choose their own future work.

Tanya Lushchinskaya was eleven when she read her first book about rockets. Then she went through the novels of Jules Verne and

the work by Tsiolkovsky. She listened to the signals from the first sputniks over her radio and watched them flash across the horizon. Judging from her composition, it seems she has already chosen her lifework. This is Tanya as she see herself in 1970:

"The plane is coming down at one of the capital's largest airports. A few minutes later we are standing on the field. By 'we' I mean a group of staff members of the Pamir High Altitude Observatory. We have come to Moscow for the Fourth Congress of Astronomers which opens tomorrow. Our observatory will present a new rocket design.

"Today, when several sputniks—in reality huge space laboratories—are circling around the earth, when manned scientific stations have been set up in three places on the moon, and when a guided rocket has been sent to Mars, our project is no longer fantasy but reality.

"Man will never cease to dream. Today he dreams of a flight to the stars. That too will soon become reality. The rocket we designed will not be able to carry man to the nearest star, but it will take him to the most distant planet of our solar system, Pluto. Scientists



Leonid Karev



Mikhail Matyukhin



Nailya Sluvis



Lena Altman



Tanya Volnikova



Tanya Lushchinskaya

will be able to get close to the sun and study the nuclear processes in its atmosphere. This rocket will blaze a trail into the depths of space.

"Two days later we are urgently summoned back to the Pamir Observatory. The day we return we take off for the main artificial earth satellite to replace the group of scientists working there on assembling the Mars-2 rocket. The first manned flight to Mars is to be made in that rocket."

Polytechnical education has made the Soviet teen-agers' aspirations more precise and diverse.

Leonid Karev became interested in electrical apparatus when he was a ninth grader in high school. He used to sit for hours in the physics lab, taking the instruments apart and putting them together again. In his composition he looks back on his youth. Now, in 1970, he is working at an atomic power station. The knowledge of English he acquired in high school stands him in good stead, for he is a member of a team made up of scientists from many countries.

Mikhail Matyukhin becomes one of the

first men to set foot on the moon. He is helping to assemble the first interplanetary station when he hears the call signals of the Soviet Union and he hears this news broadcast to space: "Complete success reported at the Conference of the International Disarmament Committee, and work starts on a giant dam across the Bering Strait connecting the Soviet Union with America. Everybody is rejoicing. It's almost unbelievable! At last humanity has been freed of the arms race and the danger of atomic warfare. Boys and girls carrying bouquets of flowers are gathered in front of the American Embassy. The words of a familiar song ring out:

"The forces of peace are growing;
Peace will triumph over war!"

Nailya Sluvis writes:

"After finishing high school I entered a technical school to become an analytical chemist. It was the same technical school for which I had failed the entrance exams two years earlier. From the school I went to work in a laboratory at the USSR Academy of Sciences and attended college at night.

"Now my dream has come true. I am a

chemist and head of a laboratory at the Academy. We are working on desert reclamation and have already made great progress. Arid expanses are giving way to thriving fields. And what a tremendous part chemistry is playing in all this! For it is we chemists who make the special fertilizers that bring life to tens of millions of acres." Nailya goes on to tell enthusiastically about the joys and difficulties of her chosen profession.

Healing the Sick

Lena Altman knows about the work of a pediatrician from her mother, who is one. She does not picture the future as all bright and cloudless, or the work easy. No, she is ready for hard work. This is what she says in her composition:

"A short while ago I discharged a little boy who had been at death's door. He spent about three months in our hospital. It was a hard battle to save his life, but what I remember most are the hours I spent with his mother. They were much more difficult for me than the battle against death.

"I can still see her frightened, pleading eyes and hear her saying, 'Doctor, can't you do anything to help him?' I stood there like a dummy, afraid of bursting into tears.

"How ashamed I was to let that woman see me so helpless! How I longed to be able to tell her that her boy would recover and that everything would be all right! But I had said that so many times I knew she wouldn't believe me.

"Then all of a sudden, after we had tried everything we could, the crisis passed; and from then on the boy was on the road to recovery. That was the happiest day of my life. I ran like mad to the boy's parents. His mother—a small, bent woman—was sitting by the window, crying. I ran up to her and whispered, 'He's going to get well, he's going to get well!' At first she couldn't believe me, but a few seconds later both of us were sitting on the couch crying, crying from happiness this time."

Many of the boys and girls dream of becoming doctors. What gave Tanya Volnikova the idea was her mother's serious illness. Sitting at her bedside, she learned patience and solicitude, caution and resourcefulness, level-headedness and compassion. She says about her future:

"These are only dreams. Perhaps things will turn out that way or perhaps they will be altogether different, but I am firmly convinced that sooner or later the day will come when the head physician of a hospital will lead me into a ward and say those ordinary, customary words—but so full of meaning for me: 'Dear friends, let me introduce your new ward doctor.'"

Actresses and Musicians

Many of the students were interested in the stage, painting, music, motion pictures and the other arts.

Tanya Buzanova dreamed of a stage career. She wanted to follow in her parents' footsteps. Meanwhile, she entertains at school parties with her readings. Here is a page from her future diary:

"And so, this is 1970!

"After eating breakfast on the run (I suppose I won't ever learn to get up in time), I fly out of the house. My heart is in the clouds; I want to sing and dance because I know that today will be the most wonderful day, the happiest day of my life. Under my arm I carry the script of my new part. I am on my way to the first rehearsal of Tolstoy's *Resurrection*, in which I play Katyusha Maslova.

"Several weeks pass. Tonight is opening night. I arrive at the theater at half past nine in the morning, before anybody else. The place is so quiet that I am a bit frightened. I walk down the aisle and up onto the stage. Now I can see everything; I have a wonderful sensation of freedom. Today I want to act in some special way. I don't know how to put it into words, but I want to very much.

"If you ask me why I do not tell what happens after that—about the performance it-

self, about the flowers and the applause—my answer is: Nothing more is needed here. If I write about the performance and about its end, it will really be the end. But I don't want it ever to end."

Julia Sulpovar is at a concert. "The majestic opening chords of Tchaikovsky's First Piano Concerto ring out. Van Cliburn is at the piano.

"Van Cliburn . . . Can twenty years really have passed since the time I first heard him in 1958 and was enthralled by his playing? The language of music! . . . How it has helped bring nations together. I have heard Cliburn several times during these years. He is no longer the lean, awkward youth with a shy smile that so charmed everybody. His playing has become more mature; and besides, now I am better able to judge it."

Alexandra Mirenskaya has been interested in art for a long time. In 1970 she is working on her masterpiece. "The sculpture is finished at last. I am satisfied. I put everything I have into it.

"One day I saw a girl whose appearance struck me. She and a friend of hers were sitting on a park bench arguing heatedly about something. She was not at all pretty, but she was so youthful and full of high spirits that I could not tear my eyes away from her. I asked her to pose for me. When she stood up I liked her even more. She was slender and long-limbed. Her face was very expressive. She reminded me of a flower that had not yet blossomed. I was eager to convey the youthful, almost childish, expression not only of her face but of her whole body.

"When I look at the statue now I somehow have the feeling I am seeing it for the first time.

"Tomorrow the public and the critics will view it. What will they say about it?"

Lyuba Andryushina intends to put her artistic talent to a different use: "I work at Fashion House," she says in her composition. "I adore being a dress designer. Just recently we spent a long time designing new models of work clothes, making them more comfortable and attractive.

"Soon there will be a contest of fashions for pre-schoolers. I prepared for it all last year. It gives me great pleasure to see little boys and girls dressed attractively.

"I have entered three models: a one-piece winter outfit made of brightly-colored water-repellent cloth, a peasant-style dress (sarafan) for girls, and a fall coat lined in nylon. I am sure the youngsters will be very comfortable in the winter outfit: they will be able to play in the snow without getting wet. The sarafan is very practical and hardly creases at all. The coat is warm and soft, in gay tones of the kind children like—and I do too, for that matter."

Future Parents

Children, the boys and girls who will be living in the twenty-first century, are mentioned in practically every composition. And



Julia Sulpovar



Alexandra Mirenskaya



Lyuba Andryushina



Oleg Zaltsman

not only by future schoolteachers but by future parents as well.

Svetlana Matveyenko looked far ahead into the future:

"Well, here I am, home again! I drop wearily on the couch and cast a loving glance around the apartment. I had become homesick for it while in the maternity hospital.

"I bet you can't guess what I'm going to show you," my husband says with a twinkle in his eye.

"He lifts me up and carries me to the bedroom.

"You bought the crib!" I exclaim, "and everything else we need for the baby! They're beautiful, darling!"

"Now Pa, remember what the doctor said. Mom's supposed to take it easy for a while."

"I press the head of my eldest son to my breast. How he has grown! Or could it be that I just hadn't noticed it before? After all, he's a big boy now, he's sixteen.

"Sixteen! He is already a grown person with his own character, habits and abilities.

"I can hardly believe that so much time has passed."

In Valentin Khavkin's composition an athletic victory coincides with a joyous event in his family life. "I run out into the street feeling I am the happiest man in the world. A son! Listen, everybody, I have a son!"

"Passers-by stop and smile. My friends gather around me and congratulate me. 'Now he's sure to win,' one of them says. Yes, now, more than ever before, I have to win. A few minutes later we are speeding along to the stadium in the factory bus. I am so happy I hardly know where I am. In another hour the race will begin. I try to concentrate, but my wife's happy face and that tiny being, my son, keep rising before my eyes.

"I am brought back to reality by the voice of my coach, Konstantin Sergeyevich. 'We must win the spikes,' he says. At these words the faces of my teammates grow serious. The spikes (silver ones) are a challenge prize for the winning team in the track-and-field meet. The battle has been going on for three days now. Today is the last and decisive day. So far we are in second place, but we must take first place. That is what everybody wants. We'll win for sure.

"At last we arrive at the stadium. The huge bowl seating 150,000 is packed to capacity. Thanks to the four-hour workday the number of sports fans has multiplied. After work tens of millions of people go to the athletic fields, swimming pools and stadiums.

"Entrants in the 800-meter finals come out to the starting line," I hear the announcer say.

"Our team is only one point behind the leader. I take my place. My friends cheer me; each of us knows that I simply must win. Then there comes the gun (the only kind of gun that is still being fired in our day), and we're off!

"The last 50 meters I run neck and neck

with a man in a yellow jersey, No. 72, and I manage to spurt ahead of him just as we reach the tape. Victory! There are cheers, congratulations, flowers.

"A picture of my wife and son again appears in my mind's eye. I can see the happy and proud look on my wife's face when I tell her I won."

Oleg Zaltsman intends to become a journalist. Here is how he pictures the future:

"Today is Tuesday, the second day of the factory two-day period, or, as it is now called, Day of the Worker. Today everybody has to take his place at a factory machine: doctors, designing engineers, schoolteachers, actors—everyone.

"Now more than three-quarters of the country's population has two (and some have three) specialties. I am an assembly mechanic at an electric appliance factory. But come to think of it, the name of my trade is out of date. I don't have to 'assemble' anything in the literal sense of the word. My job is to lay out the parts correctly in the machine and then push several buttons."

Builders of Tomorrow

There are other compositions. I find them all fascinating, probably because it is my job to teach these children and others like them that personal happiness lies in using their abilities and gifts so that they contribute most to the well-being of the people.

On a bookshelf at home I have a number of folders that I treasure more than any rare first editions. They contain compositions by my former students.

Leonid Shersher wrote some of them. After graduating from our school in 1936 he went to the Literary Institute. By the time the war broke out he was a published writer. The last article he wrote, *Frontline Notes*, appeared in the December 1941 issue of the magazine *Novy Mir*. A few months later he was killed in action.

I have two theater programs in the folder marked "Oleg Okulevich." In the first he is listed as author of a play about Giordano Bruno, the medieval philosopher who was burned at the stake for heresy; in the second, as an actor in the role of Ivan Petrovich in Dostoyevsky's *The Insulted and the Injured*.

Together with a pamphlet titled *School Children at the Nikolai Ostrovsky Museum* by Margarita Nazarova are compositions she wrote in my class. Critical articles on American literature by Raisa Orlova are clipped together with a school composition she wrote on Balzac. I have a thick folder of newspaper clippings reporting the work done by some of my former students, leading figures in industry, medicine, geology, and so on.

For the teacher, the sowing and the reaping are separated by a long period of years. The boys and girls in our classrooms today are destined to be the builders of tomorrow's society. When I read these compositions I tell myself, "they will be building well."



Valentin Khavkin



Svetlana Matveyenko









HAPPINESS IS NOT WOVEN OF CLOUDS

By Khizir Teunov

Photos by Mikhail Grachev

ELBRUS, the highest mountain in the Caucasus chain, is called Oshkha-Makho, the Mountain of Happiness, in the native language of the local highlanders. One of their old legends has it that those who dwell in the foothills shadowed by this two-peak snow-covered mountain or on the surrounding cloud-capped plateaus are destined to be happy people. But they also have a companion saying, perhaps as ancient as the legend: "Happiness is not woven of clouds, but must be spun by hand."

And these mountain people whose lands make up the Kabardinian-Balkarian Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic have indeed fashioned their happiness by their own labor with the fraternal help of other republics of the Soviet Union.

The total population of this small mountain republic is only 420,000. The Kabardinians are the most numerous and live in the foothills, the Balkarians live on the high plateaus. The two are kindred peoples and joined to form an autonomy within the Russian Federation, the largest of the USSR's fifteen Union Republics.

These are hardy people, tempered by the burning heat and the bitter cold of their high dwelling places. But before the Revolution their talents and industry were thwarted by the discrimination and oppression which were official policy of the czarist government toward national minorities.

There is nothing today to remind one of this dismal past. The cheerless peasants and solitary shepherds are long gone. Gone too are the wretched huts, the depressed villages, the narrow twisting roads. And when illiteracy went, so did the witch doctors and the ancient superstitions.

But perhaps the most striking break with the past is the new place women occupy in the life of Kabardinians and Balkarians. In the old days a woman was traditionally the household slave, completely shut away from any wider sphere of activity than cooking and child-rearing. Now there are women engineers and scientists, doctors and teachers,



Street in Tyrnyauz, this mountain republic's new industrial center where molybdenum and wolfram are mined at very high altitudes.





Aerial cableways and other installations of the modern mining industry have completely altered the landscape of this once primitive region of the Caucasus.



Students at Kabardinian-Balkarian University in Nalchik. Under the czarist regime these people had no written language of their own.



Nalchik, the capital, is a modern city. New apartment houses have replaced the old huts and up-to-date plants, the ancient workshops.

directors of factories and managers of collective farms. A third of the deputies to the republic's legislature are women.

Drive after dark along the modern automobile road that winds through the mountains toward the city of Tyrnyauz and you get a sense of places and people alive and effervescent.

New Towns and New People

Tyrnyauz is one of the republic's new industrial centers, a city of miners, well-planned with two-story stone houses, handsome squares and parks. The main thoroughfare is Elbrus Street which leads to a tourist trail, a very popular one among mountain climbers. Another street, the one the miners take, leads to towering Mount Molybdenum.

It used to be a two-hour trip to the mines high in the mountains, and now the passenger cable line with its terminus at almost a mile and a half above sea level gets you there in six minutes.

This mountain is a rich storehouse of metals, the site of the Tyrnyauz Wolfram-Molybdenum Combine. Not far away, aluminum, antimony-lead and bismuth-tin deposits have been found. In the Malka River valley another industrial concentration is forming around newly discovered iron ore deposits.

These rich metal stores are being tapped on an increasingly larger scale. The seven-year plan schedules a 50 per cent increase in the output of wolfram, while the output of molybdenum is to be doubled.

Not too long ago the Baksan Hydropower Plant was the only one of its kind in the republic. Today there are sixty. Other enterprises produce

equipment for the metal and oil industries, building materials and such consumer goods as furniture, textiles, knit goods, carpets, shoes, canned goods, meat and dairy products.

Until quite recently, while traveling through this region, you would not see cities or towns on your way—only an occasional village. Now, 38 per cent of the people live in urban communities. Nalchik, the capital of the republic, has almost doubled its population in the past twenty years—from 48,000 in 1939 to the present 87,000.

There is a very definite drift toward the industrial centers. The Gedgafov brothers are typical of many farm families whose young people have taken advantage of training opportunities offered by the republic's fast-growing industries. The four brothers all work in the mines of Tyrnyauz.

The eldest, Aslamurza Gedgafov, began as an ordinary miner, then went to a mining institute and is now chief mechanic. Khusen, who is twenty-seven, works as a driller, and Ibragim at twenty-six is a blaster. The youngest, twenty-three-year-old Khabil, began to work at the mine this year as an ore sorter.

Fruits of the Soil

The Kabardinian-Balkarian Republic is fine cattle country. The pasturage is varied and plentiful, there is more than enough water, the air is clear and dry. Large herds of sheep, cows and high-bred Kabardinian horses graze the alpine pastures from early spring to late fall.

These mountain people, long acknowledged as skilled herdsmen, have



The herdsman who are born to the saddle are accustomed to handling the wildest of racehorses.

A group of Kabardinian college students in one of the colorful Caucasian folk dances.



Not long ago the Baksan hydropower station was the only one in the region. There are sixty now.

won new laurels for their bumper crops of wheat and fodder corn. Widespread mechanization and large-scale irrigation have more than doubled the republic's yield of wheat and corn since 1953.

The fast-flowing mountain streams have been channeled to the fields of nearly every one of the republic's 100 collective farms. Four large and widely branched irrigation systems have been built entirely at government expense.

Irrigation has also stimulated fruit- and grape-growing. Orchards and vineyards are quite new for this region—the first ones date from just before the Second World War. The seven-year plan forecasts an eleven-fold increase in the grape yield, while the over-all fruit yield will increase at least three times by 1965.

Dawn in the Mountains

Both the Kabardinians and the Balkarians acquired written languages only after the Revolution, and in the short time since then they have created very original national literatures. They have developed their own writers, their own painters and sculptors, their own music and their own theater.

A few years ago a group of talented amateur actors were sent from the mountain villages to study at theater institutes in various Soviet cities. They returned to Nalchik for their professional debuts and the plaudits of audiences at Kabardinian, Balkarian and Russian theaters.

The youngest theater in the republic is the Balkarian State Theater founded only a couple of years ago. Its first productions were staged

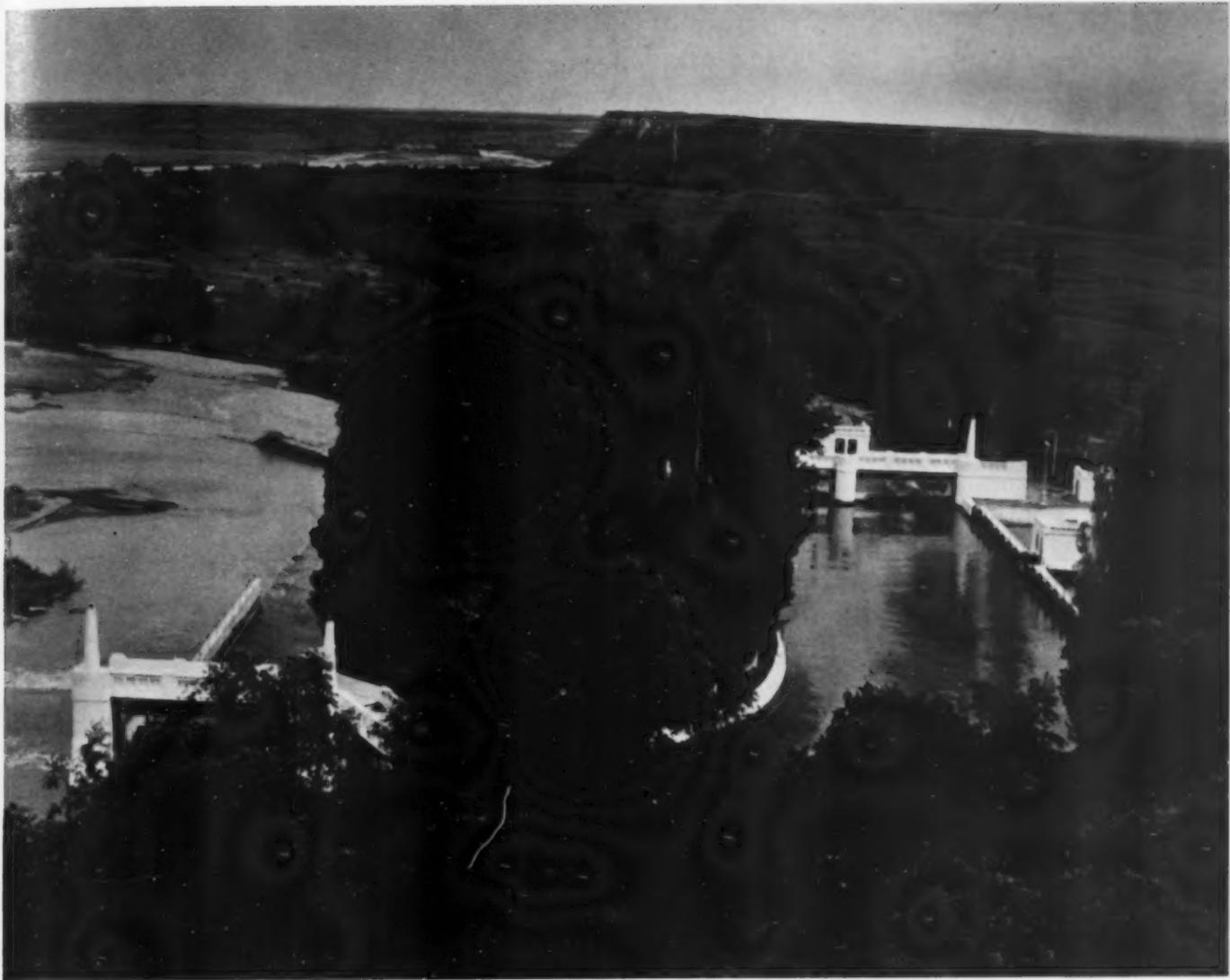
in Nalchik and then in the villages of Mukhol, Gundelen and Zhentaly. The opening play was *Dawn in the Mountains*, by the young Balkarian dramatist Issa Botashev.

The theme of the play was the struggle of the mountain people for Soviet power, and the material was gathered from a history only forty years old. Many scenes were based on actual accounts of people who had helped make the history. Hero of the play was Akhmat Musukayev, a Balkarian revolutionary leader. He was brutally murdered in 1930 by reactionaries who were trying to push back the clock.

In the audience were people who had known and loved this national hero. His daughter, Shamsa Musukayeva, saw the play when it was performed in her native village of Gundelen. She is a national figure in her own right, manager of a flourishing collective farm and one of the representatives from her republic to the USSR Supreme Soviet, the country's parliament.

People like Shamsa Musukayeva symbolize the new mode of life in this mountain land. This is not the old Kabardinia and Balkaria where illiteracy was almost universal. Everyone studies today—young and old. The 250 schools of this small republic are attended by 70,000 children, and there are many thousands of students at the technical schools, the institutes and the recently opened state university in Nalchik. The republic has teachers of its own, librarians, scientists and specialists of all kinds in its factories, farms and laboratories.

There is an old saying these highlanders are fond of repeating: "If you know how to start properly, you can make snow burn." They probably can. They've met greater challenges these past four decades.



The once uncontrolled mountain streams have been channeled toward the collective farm fields by four large and widely ramified irrigation systems.



Journalist Fuza Dudarova, shown here with her daughter, typifies today's Kabardinian-Balkarian woman, who successfully combines the duties of wife and mother with career.



LITHUANIAN LAWMAKER

By Andriejus Cukrevicius

Photos by Georgi Petrusov







BRONIUS TILVITIS, deputy to the Supreme Soviet of Lithuania, is a machinist by trade. He still makes his living that way, even though he is a member of the legislature of his republic. A majority of the deputies are industrial workers and farmers, men and women who work at their trades. This is general for legislative bodies in the Soviet Union.

There were no people like Tilvitis in the Sejm, Lithuania's highest legislative body, before it joined the Soviet Union in 1940. Of the 49 members of the Sejm not one was a worker or farmer; they were professional politicians and representatives of the moneyed interests. Forty-two were members of Tautininkai, the fascist organization.

Tilvitis not only represents his constituents, he lives and works with them. They are his neighbors and benchmates, with the same needs and problems. This awareness he carries from the factory to the legislative chamber. "Every bill that I help draft," he says, "must represent the wishes and interests of my constituents."

His constituents are the 30,000 people in the Panerei electoral district on the outskirts of Vilnius, capital of Lithuania. The residents of the district over 18 years of age go to the polls every fourth year to elect their representative. There is a total of 209 deputies in the Lithuanian Supreme Soviet.

This is the electoral procedure as outlined by the republic's constitution: Candidates for office may be nominated at public meetings of factory and office workers or collective-farm members, or by any public organization of citizens such as the Communist Party, a trade union, a cooperative, cultural or youth society. There is no limit to the number of nominees. After nominating a candidate the group or organization embarks upon a newspaper, radio and television campaign to acquaint the voters with his or her merits.

Some weeks thereafter special meetings are held to elect a committee of citizens who have earned the public's confidence. They serve as electors, their job—to consider the merits of each of the candidates and to select the best

one. The name of the candidate they select appears on the ballot, to be approved or disapproved by the voters.

Biography of a Deputy

At the election held early last year Bronius Tilvitis was nominated by his fellow workers at the Electrical Welding Equipment Plant, one of the republic's largest. His qualifications were debated by the committee of electors and compared with those of the other nominees. He won the place on the ballot and was elected to the Supreme Soviet of the republic on March 15, 1959.

The voters had reason to choose Tilvitis as their representative. He had an outstanding reputation as a worker, for one thing. They knew him as a man with imagination and a creative flare, for another—this was attested to by the 34 efficiency suggestions he had submitted that saved the plant more than a million rubles in time and materials in the two-year period before the election. Then there was the respect and affection he had won

Deputy Tilvitis (right) with the republic's chief executive Justas Paleckis.



from the many younger people at the plant who were learning to master their trade with his ready help and guidance.

They knew the candidate's background—his fine war record and the way he had thrown himself into the work of rebuilding his native village after the fascists were driven out. They were impressed with his exemplary personal and family life.

He Justified Their Trust

Tilvitis is a member of the Supreme Soviet's Economic Committee. Among the other 20 members are farm manager Vaslovas Babraitis, Mayor of Vilnius Jonas Vildzunas, Minister of Agriculture Vitas Vazalinskas, and Seslovas Bubliss, captain of a fishing boat.

This committee functions for the Supreme Soviet between sessions. It drafts legislation on economic matters, appraises industrial and farm projects that affect the republic as a whole, studies economic development plans, examines budget proposals and makes recommendations to the Supreme Soviet.

How do the voters rate the work of their deputy for the year and a half he has served? This headline tells the story—"He Justified Our Trust." It appeared in a Lithuanian newspaper over an article describing Tilvitis' activities.

People come to see him on matters large and small, on problems of state and for help with personal problems. They are all important enough to deserve the attention of this people's representative.

A farm woman came to see him some time ago with this unhappy story. She had adopted a young war orphan and had brought him up as her own son. She had never been able to bring herself to tell the boy that he was adopted. Then a malicious neighbor did it for her. The lad was terribly hurt that she hadn't told him herself. He left home and took a job at the plant where Tilvitis was working. Would the deputy talk to the boy?

Of course he would. Tilvitis went to see the lad, spent time with him and persuaded him to forgive his mother and go back home.

A Multitude of Problems

Since the Lithuanian Economic Council was planning large-scale apartment house construction in the city during 1960, it had reduced allocations for new housing for the personnel of the large plants in Tilvitis' district. In the judgment of many voters this was a mistake, considering the housing shortage. They went to see their deputy. He made a round of the neighboring plants and convinced himself and the various plant managers that there was no reason why they could not build houses on their own.

His duties seem to cover a multitude of widely separated problems. Education is one. A group of workers had to raise their job qualifications within a relatively short time and the courses they needed weren't being given. They talked to Tilvitis. He had to go to Latvia, the neighboring republic, to solve that problem. He found that the Letts had met a somewhat similar situation by setting up a school in Riga for their workers which they called the Rationalizer's Creative Institute. With their help Tilvitis worked out the plan for a similar school at home. It opened this past fall.

In spite of all his other obligations Tilvitis doesn't neglect shop problems. As a matter of fact, since he has been deputy he has looked at the plant through different eyes, with a feeling of special responsibility for the constituents who work right alongside him.

Talking to the men in one of the shops he learned that the shop superintendent was a rather disagreeable person and generally disliked. He made it his business to check, heard the superintendent insult one of the men, and wrote it up for the local paper. The superintendent was taken to task and when he repeated the offense he was fired. To Tilvitis this was a matter of principle. "The man had to learn," he says, "that he couldn't behave that way in a Soviet place of work."

Tilvitis gets 500 rubles a month for his expenses connected with his legislative work, and also traveling expenses. In addition he is provided with a secretary. That is all. He lives on

his wage as a skilled fitter; it runs to about 2,000 rubles a month. Whatever time he has to take from his job for legislative activity is paid for at his average wage rate.

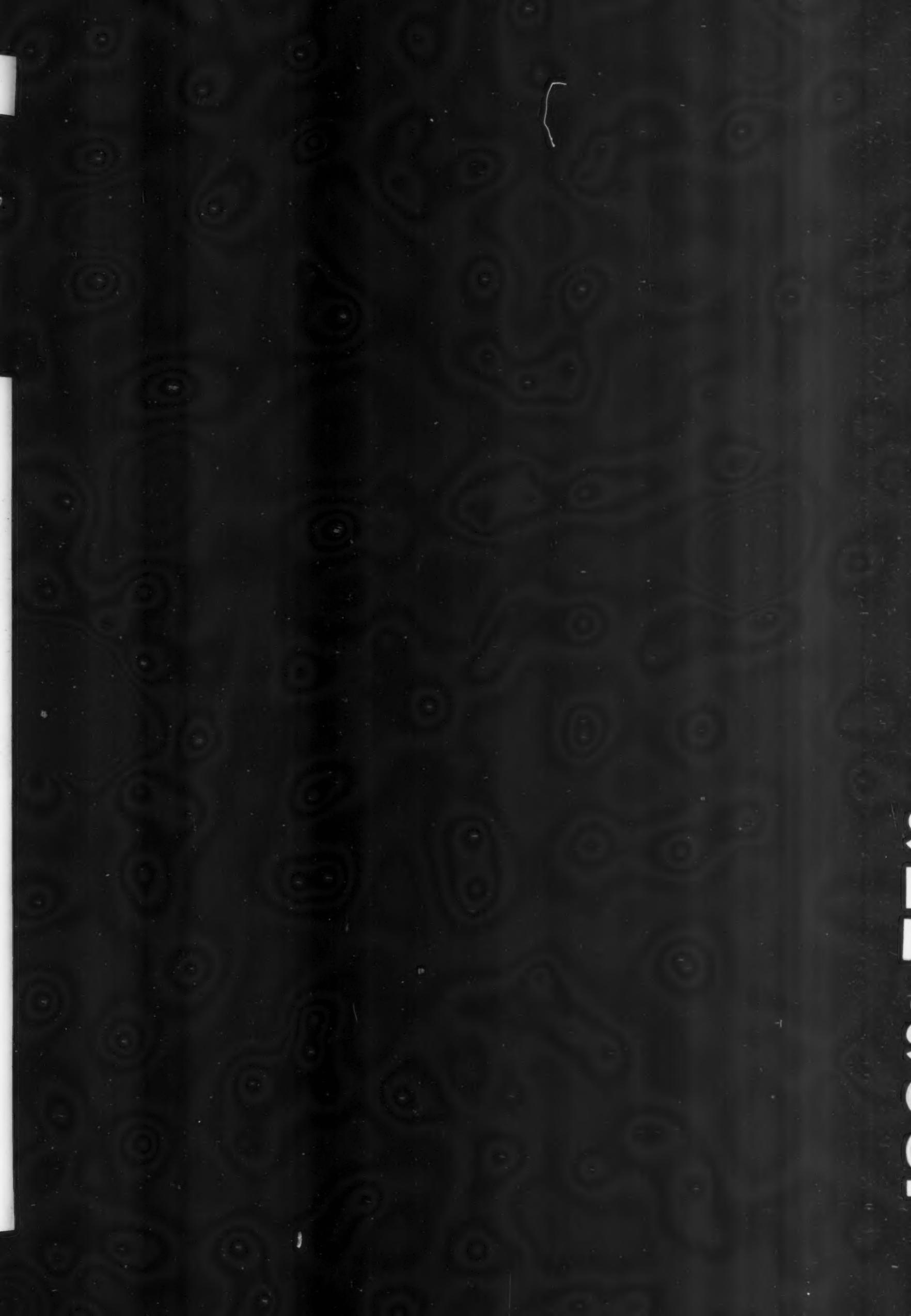
Report to the Voters

Like every other Soviet deputy Tilvitis gives his constituents an account of his doings at stated intervals—twice a year—so that they can check on whether or not he is carrying out their mandate. They have the power to recall him at any time if he fails to do the job for which they elected him.

Monday is the day he sets aside for visitors. Any of his constituents may—and many of them do—drop in to talk to him at the office made available for that purpose by the local Soviet. He also carries on a considerable correspondence. He has to answer an average of a hundred letters a month.

Worker-deputy Tilvitis is a relatively young man, having recently celebrated his 35th birthday. Many of the deputies are young people. It seems peculiarly appropriate for Lithuania which has been renewing its youth since it joined the Soviet family of nations. "But," says Tilvitis, "even the older deputies are young, if not in years, then in feelings. Take my deputy colleague Jonas Zokas, he's past the half-century mark. Thirty years ago he went to South America when he couldn't make a living at home. But he couldn't make a decent living abroad either, and in 1956 he returned. He got a job with the Tiesi Printshop and found himself after all his wanderings. The workers at his shop put him up for the Supreme Soviet. When Zokas talks about the future of Lithuania, you would think it was a young man talking."

In Soviet Lithuania the people themselves run their sovereign republic. The wise maxim of Vladimir Lenin that deputies from among the people should themselves "work, put into effect their laws, check on how the laws actually work, and account directly to their electors" has been realized.







The concerns of a Soviet deputy are legion. (Left) Tilvitis checks progress on a new housing project.

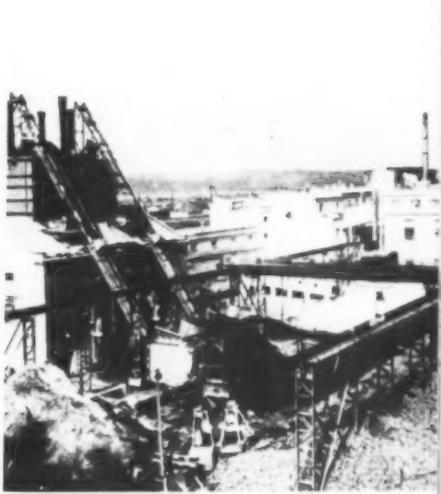
(Center top) He makes one of his many regular reports to the voters on his legislative activities.

(Right) He visits a kindergarten maintained by the electrical welding plant where he works as machinist.

(Right center) His constituents judge the work of their deputy by such realities as new apartment houses...

(Right bottom) Or by this plant to make silicate bricks proposed by the voters in Tilvitis' district...

(Center bottom) Or by such evident facts as this new music school built for the children of Vilnius.





There is no area of national life in which the Soviet trade unions with their 55 million membership do not play a vital role—whether it has to do with housing or legislation, wages or kindergartens, pensions or production quotas. This is the trade union committee of a Moscow factory checking on plans for automation.

TRADE UNIONS

partners in management



By Boris Burkov
Editor in Chief
of the Trade Union Newspaper Trud

THE SOVIET TRADE UNIONS with their membership of 55 million workers are the country's largest voluntary and independent mass organizations. I wish to stress the words "voluntary" and "independent" because of the repeated allegations by some Western commentators that our trade unions are under state control. Their assertions are buttressed with such specious parallels as these: the government calls for greater production and so do the unions; the government wants peace and so do the unions.

At every point, say these commentators, the positions of the state and the trade unions coincide. And Soviet workers would be the last people in the world to deny this fact. They deem it a virtue that their unions and their government advocate and pursue the same program for peaceful construction, that the interests of the state and the workers are in full harmony.

In the Soviet Union the working people themselves are at the helm of the state, and the worker not only creates the national wealth, but he also owns and uses it. Since all industries are national property, their profits are publicly owned and are spent on the people's behalf and for their benefit. Part is allocated to capital construction so that the country's productive potential increases year after year; part goes for housing construction; part for education, medical services, cultural development, and so on.

Even the most perverse of critics must now admit that as the Soviet Union grows richer, the standard of living of its citizens keeps rising. Our goal to ensure every family the world's highest living standard within a matter of years is given thoughtful attention abroad.

No Freedom to Strike?

But, ask these commentators rhetorically, how can the trade unions be free if they do not strike? It is undeniably true that Soviet workers do not strike. However, this is not because they have been denied the right to strike, but because they have no reason to do so.

Before the Revolution Russian workers were often forced to strike for decent working conditions and a better life. I am old enough to remember back to 1910 when my own father, a worker on the Ryazan-Urals railroad, went on strike for a shorter workday. Railroad men demanded that the czarist government decree an 8-hour day.

During the strike the workers spent their last pitiful savings, suffered from hunger and illness and were finally forced back to work. It was only after the Revolution that the 8-hour day was decreed by the Soviet Government headed by Lenin.

I have visited many Western countries, and from what I have observed there, I conclude that men go out on strike for higher wages, shorter hours and decent working conditions. In our country the situation is totally different.

All problems that have to do with wages, hours and working conditions are taken care of by legislation. And all legislation is drafted with the direct participation of the trade unions, so that workers' interests are very well protected. Within the current seven-year plan earnings are scheduled for an increase of 40 per cent and the workweek for a cut to 30-35 hours to make it the world's shortest.

Nor is the Soviet worker ever faced with the specter of insecurity and unemployment. His right to a job is guaranteed by the Constitution. So is the principle of equal pay for equal work.

The phrase "surplus labor" has no meaning for us. Our economic development is so speedily paced that it is not the man who looks for a job, but the job that looks for the man.

The paramount objective of our government is to see that living standards keep going up. The unions have that same objective. This is a built-in feature of our socialist society. Under these circumstances what would Soviet workers be striking for?

Role in National Life

There is no area of national life in which our trade unions do not play a significant role. I already mentioned their participation in drafting the laws pertaining to labor. Now consider so vital a matter as mechanization and automation.

The government, the industrial management, the workers and their unions are all interested in technical re-equipment that will raise productivity since the fruits will accrue to the nation as a whole. The unions and the management therefore work together to improve production methods and both encourage workers to submit suggestions that will increase the plan potential.

Competition—or socialist emulation, as we term it, since this is rivalry for the general

good rather than for individual benefit—is very much a matter of course at Soviet factories and farms. The spirit seems to have taken hold of everyone.

Individual workers, teams and whole plants are competing for leadership as producers, and it is the trade unions that organize this socialist emulation. Its motto is: "Catch up with the best and help those who fall behind so that everyone is up to mark." Union locals see to it that new methods are publicized, that the experience of skilled workers is shared and that appropriate recognition and honors are awarded.

Lenin called our trade unions a school for administration, a school for management, a school for communism. And indeed it is through the unions that our workers learn the science of industrial management and state administration.

All Soviet enterprises have production councils whose membership is elected at trade union meetings from among the best and most experienced bench workers, engineers and managerial personnel. There are now seven million people in these councils who, in effect, run our industries jointly with the factory management.

The function of any school is to help people grow and develop and this is also true of our trade unions. The young worker who gets his first job in a factory learns about management through his union organization.

Let us say a novice turns in a suggestion at a union-sponsored production conference. It may happen that his suggestion is no good but that is not important. What is important is that he is learning to be concerned not only with his particular job but with the work of his shop and the whole factory. Gradually he gets to know more about that work and is interested in more widely ranging problems than those immediately at hand. He is thereby equipping himself with the breadth of understanding necessary for a managerial job.

Safeguarding Workers' Interests

As important as production matters may be, they constitute only one aspect in the activities of our trade unions. Look at the composition of a union committee at any factory and you get an idea of how large in scope and varied in character its work is. Besides the production matters, it has several other subcommittees that deal with wages, labor



The unions see to it that the collective agreements at enterprises employing women provide for adequate preschool care for children.

The unions administer a countrywide network of vacation and health resorts where workers get accommodations free or at reduced rates.



safety, social security, housing and welfare, cultural activities, care for workers' children, and last but not least, the grievance subcommittee where the union and the management have equal representation.

In each of these fields our unions exercise wide powers granted them by law to safeguard the workers' interests. If, for example, the grievance subcommittee fails to reach an agreement in considering a worker's complaint, the word of the union representative is final. The management in such a case can appeal only to a court.

I have already emphasized that the management and the unions in our plants and factories have a common goal—to boost production and thus raise the country's living standards. As a general rule they work together without friction. But, since we are all fallible, there may occasionally be a case when the rights of one or another employee are violated by management. If this happens, the employee is backed by his union with all its influence.

In no Soviet enterprise can an employee be dismissed without the agreement of the trade union. Appointment to managerial posts must also have trade union approval. The trade union may demand the removal and punishment of plant managers who violate collective agreements or labor laws or who disregard the rights of the workers.

Early this year our newspaper *Trud* printed a letter sent in by a Donbas miner. He wrote that the men resented the behavior of the mine chief, Nikolai Onishchenko, for his rudeness to everyone and his particular disregard for the younger engineers. Careful investigation bore out the statements of the miner. The trade union requested that the undersized chief be dismissed and he was.

Trud is the leading union paper with a daily circulation of 1.2 million, and it plays an important role in molding opinion. Much of its space is devoted to letters and articles written by industrial and office workers on every possible topic. Our writers and our readers are a fairly broad cross-section of the population and their communications give the unions a gauge by which to judge how effectively they meet the needs of the working masses.

Multiple Functions

Every minute of the day five new apartments are ready for occupancy in the cities and towns of the Soviet Union—this is the scale on which housing is being provided at government expense. The trade unions check on the schedule of construction, supervise its quality and control the distribution of apartments. There is a law which requires that the allocation of housing by the director of an enterprise be approved by the local union committee.

The trade unions have the right by law to control labor-protection regulations, industrial safety and working conditions in general. A union inspector may refuse to permit a new factory to open if he considers its safety

measures inadequate. He may likewise order a shop or a whole plant closed down in case the workers' health is in danger.

The trade unions have the right to control the work of retail stores, restaurants and other establishments that are servicing the public. The trade unions send many of their members to volunteer in the police patrols which help maintain public order.

Certain functions previously exercised by governmental agencies have been taken over by the trade unions and other public organizations. For example, the unions now administer all health and vacation resorts. In most cases workers get resort accommodations at a decided reduction—usually two-thirds of the actual cost is paid for from the state social insurance fund which is also administered entirely by the unions.

The trade union concerns itself not only with the worker but with his family too. It sees to it that children are provided with places in nurseries and kindergartens. It arranges for summer camp facilities for children of school age.

Children in our country are often called the privileged class, and every trade union organization gladly assumes its share of responsibility for them. This is reflected, in particular, in the help which is rendered to schools. Our unions have become even more active in this field recently since the educational system was overhauled with a view to bringing it closer to real life. The workers and their local union committees help equip

school workshops, supervise the work training of pupils in their plants, and take a leading part in parent activities.

Dues and Finances

Dues paid by the membership of our trade unions are very modest—one per cent of earnings—and even this money is returned in manifold ways. For example, in the event of financial difficulties the unionist may apply for a loan to tide him over. Workers and their families have at their disposal tens of thousands of factory clubs and houses of culture, libraries, sports facilities and tourist camps maintained by the unions.

Other, and important, sources of union revenue are sports games, motion picture admissions and the union press. Every union organization decides on its own how its money is to be spent.

The trade unions also have under their administration the huge state social insurance fund which will come to 70 billion rubles this year. Social insurance in the Soviet Union is paid for entirely by the enterprises and none of it comes from pay envelope deductions.

It is the welfare of the whole nation and every individual family that is the ultimate goal of the Soviet trade union movement. At every level, from the national union all the way down to the factory local, these mass organizations are vested with powerful rights and are very influential in deciding every aspect of the life of the country and its people.



Housing construction is another responsibility. The unions are actively involved in every step of the work, from supervising schedules, to passing on quality and assigning new apartments.

The Labor Protection Subcommittee checks safety installations on plans for a new factory. If required standards are not met, the union has authority to prevent the factory from opening.





The Apostle Matthew

Andrei Rublyov

By Natalia Demina Deputy Director, Andrei Rublyov Museum

ANDREI RUBLYOV, acknowledged by art historians of both East and West as one of the great religious painters of all time, was born in 1360, so far as can be gathered from the ancient Russian chronicles. They make reference to him three times, evidence of the venerated legend with which his name was invested; only rarely do the chronicles make mention of artists.

This year will mark his 600th birth anniversary. He died at a very advanced age, approximately in 1430, and was buried in the Andronikov Monastery in Moscow, now being converted into a Rublyov museum.

He lived during a period when Russia, led by Moscow, was in the process of throwing off the ruinous 200-year-old yoke of Tatar domination and beginning to emerge as a unified state.

Rublyov saw the events of his time through the eyes of a poet and philosopher; with the hands of a master artist he painted the spiritual ideals that dominated this flowering of national consciousness.

The artist lived in 14- and 15-century Moscow, center of the nation's culture. He became a monk at the Troitse-Sergiyev Monastery and later the Andronikov Monastery, both renowned for book learning and artistic attainments. Rublyov's work was commissioned by the Moscow princes and he was companion to the men of learning and the eminent artists of the time.

Frescoes Restored

He followed the Neoplatonic teachings of some of the church fathers and regarded the world as linked "by the binding force of a radiant chain of love . . . which taught those above (in the moral sense) to care for those beneath them, those who were equal to uphold each other, and those below to strive toward those above."

His brilliant colors and inspired figures were dulled by centuries of dust and much of his work was covered over with the paintings of lesser artists or destroyed by fire and mildew, but he never lost his pre-eminent place as a matchless icon painter. His work, particularly during the reign of Ivan the Terrible in the 16th century, was not only esteemed and imitated but held in reverence.

Wall paintings done by Rublyov and his pupils have been restored in the Soviet period and many of his icons brought to light. Together

with the famed Theophanes the Greek and Prokhor of Gorodets, he painted the walls and ceilings of the Annunciation Cathedral in the Moscow Kremlin.

A fine early 15th-century manuscript is illuminated with miniatures that are highly reminiscent of Rublyov's frescoes. It is called *Khitrov's Gospel*, after its 17th-century owner, and is now in the Lenin Library rare book collection. Many of the illuminated letters take the form of beasts, birds and dragons. They are painted with a gentle irony and evidence a thorough knowledge of animal life.

The finest miniature in the manuscript is of the disciple Matthew. He is portrayed as a pensive youth, comely and strong. He carries a large book and is shown striding into a shining circle that signifies eternal love. Compositionally, the figure is strictly balanced and the wind-blown robe outlines the body in a manner that derives from the classic Greeks. This is Rublyov in a superlatively lyrical mood.

In 1408, at the bidding of the Grand Prince of Moscow, the painter and his close friend Daniil Chorny repainted the famous 12th-century Cathedral of the Assumption in Vladimir.

Of the magnificent frescoes only a few fragments of *The Day of Judgment* have survived on the vaults, arches and columns of the central and southern naves. But the fragments are sufficient to show how organically the fresco must have blended with the cathedral's sweeping architectural lines. The apostles, the angels and the virtuous men are represented with typically Russian features; this is the nation depicted in a period of trial and tribulation.

Deisus

The cathedral's iconostasis is very large but it is painted with the most moving simplicity. The figures are light and graceful, the features tender. In Rublyov's Mary there is the love and sorrow of all the mothers in the world. Most of the icons are displayed in the Tretyakov Gallery in Moscow and the Russian Museum in Leningrad.

There is reason to believe that Rublyov painted his wonderful multifigured *Deisus* soon after he completed the frescoes for the Cathedral of the Assumption. This prayer tier was done for a church in Zvenigorod near Moscow. Only three of its icons—the Savior, Archangel

The Trinity







Michael and Paul the Apostle—survive, and they show the damaging effects of time.

The Savior is painted with Russian features, his gaze kindly and calm, but judging. This is the wise, understanding and loving guardian the Russian people were hoping for in this turbulent period of Tatar invasions and feudal rule.

The face of the Apostle Paul embodies the resolution and wisdom of the philosopher. The figure, the posture, the changing color values of the smoke-lilac robe all contribute a sense of reflective gentleness.

The Archangel Michael is shown leaning on a staff, his head bent and his eyes contemplative. In the ethereal blues, golds and rose-reds of the icon Rublyov seems to have painted the reflection of the apostle's radiant inner world.

Trinity

In 1422 the white-stone Trinity Cathedral was built on the grounds of the Troitse-Sergiyev Monastery with funds provided by the brother of the Grand Prince of Moscow. Andrei Rublyov and Daniil Chorny, both well advanced in years by then, were asked to decorate the interior.

Unfortunately the frescoes have not survived, but we do have the iconostasis done by Rublyov and Chorny and their assistants. Its lustrous play of color reminds one of the flowers in Russian fields and meadows. The iconostasis includes the Old Testament *Trinity* icon which is attributed to Rublyov. The original is in the Tretyakov Gallery.

The icon represents God in the image of three angels seated at table with Abraham. Symbolized is the Last Supper, the Holy Trinity

Left
The Archangel Michael

Center
The Savior

Right
The Apostle Paul



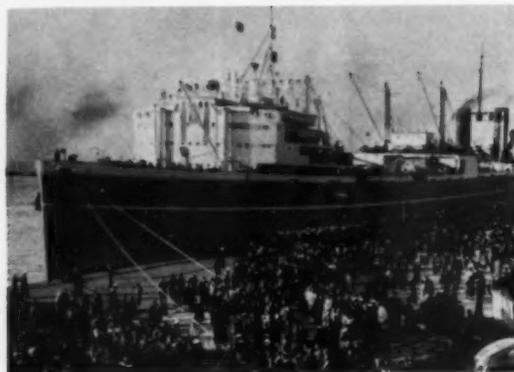
and the union of the three virtues—faith, hope and charity. The icon was painted in “honor of Sergius,” the founder of the Troitse-Sergiyev Monastery, who left as a legacy the unity which 14th-century Russia needed to achieve independence and to form a state.

In the center of the icon is the sacrificial bowl referred to in ancient Russian poetry as “the bowl of mortality”—the pledge of eternal life. The three angels are seated around the bowl, gazing at it in profound silence. The circle they form symbolizes consummation. The angel in the middle is pointing to the bowl, his head inclined to the angel on his right. The tree of life and love behind him seems to repeat the gesture. The angel at the left blesses the bowl. Behind him is an edifice that stands upright to symbolize man’s moral world. The third angel bows his head in humble acquiescence.

There are no redundant lines in the painting. All the strokes are decisive and follow one another in a sweeping circular movement to give the composition a sense of strict and unerring rightness.

The icon is astonishingly brilliant, as though shining from within. In his own time it won for Rublyov an incomparable reputation as a colorist. That reputation is still undimmed 600 years later.

His paintings exerted a profound influence on the development of Russian art. From him the Moscow school of Russian painting acquired its specific character and became a leading school of Russian painting. His poetic concepts, the grace of his figures, the purity and harmony of his colors were characteristic of the works of the many masters of this school until as late as the 17th century, which today have become priceless treasures of Russian culture.



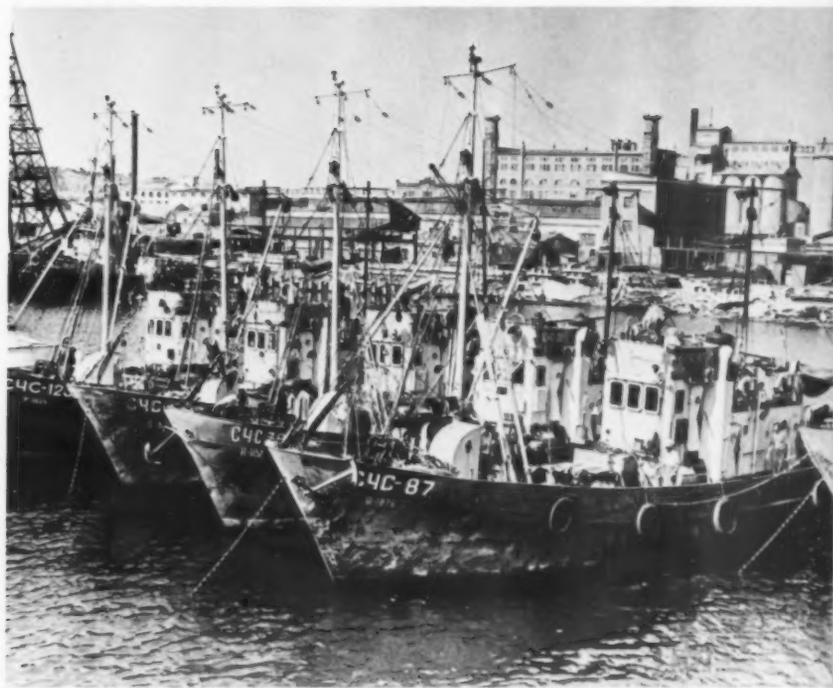
ODESSA

**maritime
crossroad of the world**





One of the modern motorships in the Soviet merchant fleet—the *Ukraina* docking at the Black Sea port.



A fleet of boats is readied for a fishing expedition. The catch will supply the local area.

By Mikhail Sukhanov

THERE IS a never-ending stir on the docks of Odessa, Soviet port on the Black Sea. Day and night tall cranes straddle the waterfront like prehistoric birds. With shrill cries they plunge their iron beaks into the bowels of vessels and pull them out gorged with monstrous crates of machinery and great bags stuffed with rice and sugar. Stacked alongside the tracks, this variegated cargo is promptly whipped into freight cars by agile automatic loaders.

These vessels fly the flags of all nations blown by the same light breeze pungent with the smell of sea iodine and Indian spice. Odessa is the maritime crossroad of the world. Its sea routes, more traveled each year, point the way to all six continents. Soviet whalers and hydrographic vessels out of the port of Odessa even make regular voyages to the Antarctic. The *Slava* whaling flotilla, for example, has steamed out of the port fourteen times. This year it was accompanied by the even larger *Sovietskaya Ukraina* whaling fleet.

Through Odessa contact is maintained with the three Soviet Antarctic stations set up for International Geophysical Year research and with the special ships equipped for scientific study of this little-known continent. Odessa gave a flowery welcome to the diesel-electric ship *Ob*, recently returned from its fifth expedition to the bottom of the world. The Black Sea city is also a port of call for a good many other floating laboratories from which Soviet scientists study oceanic and geomagnetic phenomena.

But it is the freighters that lead this endless parade of ships in and out of the harbor. In 1958 the trading ships of 41 countries cast anchor in Odessa, in 1959 those of 50 countries, and for 1960 the figure will certainly be higher. The Soviet Union has commercial ties with 70 countries. Exports and imports have trebled in the past ten years; their value for 1959 was 42.1 billion rubles. This is what these ships berthed in Odessa harbor mean.

Trading with the World

From all parts of the USSR by rail and truck the most varied kinds of merchandise keep rolling toward Odessa docks—equipment for factories and power stations, intricate machine tools and precision instruments, automobiles and tractors, farm machinery, paper, coal, oil, cotton, wheat—in an endless line to be stowed in the ships' holds for transport overseas.

Incoming ships bring equipment for the food industry from Italy, staple fiber from France, cement from Bulgaria, tobacco from Greece, soybeans from China, cork from Portugal, rice from Burma, rubber from Indonesia, leather from India, pineapples and bananas from the African countries.

Shipping between Odessa and Italian ports is lively and has been so for a long time. Black Sea freighters make regular voyages to Venice, Ancona and Ravenna with metal, grain, oil, manganese and chromium ores



(Top) Freighters and tourist ships steam in and out of the busy port in an endless procession.

(Upper right) The *Ilya Mechnikov* docks at the harbor with a cargo of crude rubber from Manila.

(Right) Goods from every part of the USSR for shipment abroad. These are going to Bulgaria.

and other cargoes. The USSR has been placing large orders in Italy for industrial equipment, and so Italian businessmen find trade with the Soviet Union profitable.

Exchange of shipping with French ports has also been carried on for a good many years now on the basis of long-term agreements. A five-year trade agreement with Great Britain (signed in 1959) takes Black Sea tankers to English ports. Trade with West Germany has been growing steadily. The same holds true for many other countries of western and northern Europe, as well as for the socialist countries.

A Steel Mill for India

All of this trade activity heartens Odessa dockers because they know that the development of trade is one of the surest means of consolidating the friendship of peoples.

It is a long way from this Black Sea port to Bhilai in India and Aswan in Egypt, but

Odessa waterfront workers feel close to both these places. They sent to India the shiploads of metal and equipment with which the giant Bhilai Steel Mill was built. Right now they are loading the freighters with material and equipment for the construction of the Aswan Dam. Nor are these the only projects in India and the United Arab Republic going up with Soviet help. Odessa is shipping equipment for a second section of the Bhilai Steel Mill and for other new Indian industrial plants.

Anand Kolsreshta, second mate of the steamer *Djalamudra*, said in a speech at the Odessa Port Workers' Club, "We Indians have many solicitous friends in the Soviet Union." He was referring to the fact that the USSR, when it extended credit to underdeveloped countries, had only this motive—to help them build their national industries as quickly as possible so they could provide their people with a higher standard of living. It is in this spirit that the USSR has been helping the United Arab Republic build the Aswan

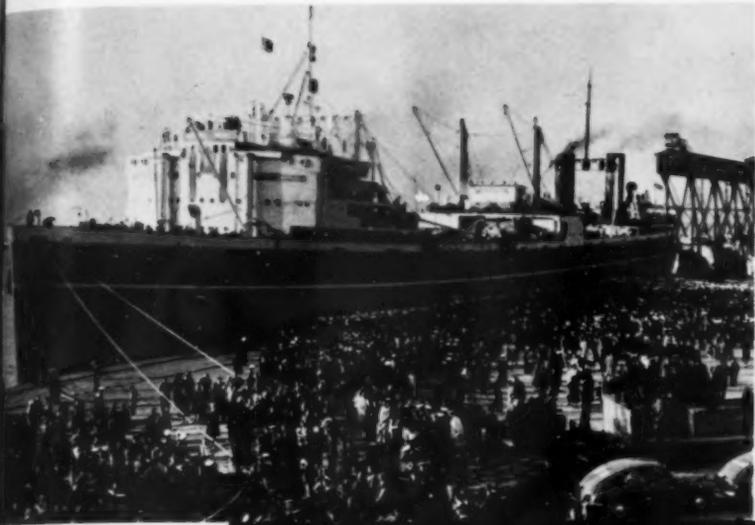
Dam and a hundred or more industrial plants.

Until very recently Soviet trade on a regular basis among the Latin American countries was confined to Argentina and Uruguay. Now the USSR has concluded trade agreements with Brazil, widened its business contacts with Mexico, and considerably extended its trade with Cuba.

Wherever a nation is stricken with disaster, Odessa seamen will be heading relief ships that way. They carried wheat to Yemen suffering from drought; food, clothing and medicines to Ceylon when it was stricken by floods and to Morocco when it was struck by an earthquake. A Soviet ship sailed from Odessa to Thailand with an anti-cancer cobalt gun, a potent weapon in the fight against this killing disease.

Tourism

Tourist shipping is now commonplace in Odessa and other Soviet ports. When the motorship *Mikhail Kalinin* docked at the



(Upper left) A cordial welcome home for whalers returned from a voyage to distant Antarctica.



(Upper right) Last year the trading ships of 50 countries cast anchor in this fast-growing port.

(Right) Trucks awaiting shipment to one of the many Asian trade partners of the Soviet Union.



Black Sea port one day this summer, it brought 270 Soviet tourists home from an extensive Asian cruise. They had visited Yokohama, Shanghai, Jakarta, Bombay, Istanbul and other cities.

Another popular cruise out of Odessa covers the European countries. Thousands of Soviet vacationers have made the fascinating tour. It is arranged to provide ample time for a long look at the antiquities of Greece and the sights of Italy, France, Belgium, Sweden and Finland.

Foreign tourists arrive in Odessa on the ships of various countries. Last year the American ship *Mauri* docked with a party of tourists.

With increasing frequency one sees ships in the harbor loading and unloading great cases of display material for trade exhibitions and international fairs that make for better understanding between nations. The most recent display material shipped from Odessa went to fairs in Izmir, Damascus, Bagdad

and other cities; the most recent to arrive was material for the Japanese Exhibition that has just opened in Moscow.

International Fairs

Since the war the Soviet Union has held exhibitions in 36 countries in Europe, Asia, Africa and on the American continent, visited by 150 million people. By the end of this year 25 new exhibitions will have been sent abroad.

A growing number of foreign exhibitions have also been held in the USSR, about 70 since 1946. Thirty have been scheduled for the current year by Finland, Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia and other countries.

The port has been growing apace to keep up with all this increased shipping. Although its area since the war has been enlarged several times over, it is still crowded. Construction work on a new harbor some 18 miles south of Odessa was started in 1958. The first section is finished and is presently docking ocean-going vessels.

The country's fast growth in the past four decades is reflected in Odessa shipping. Before the Revolution most of the cargo handled was imported and came in foreign vessels. The backward industry of czarist Russia could not even fill domestic needs. Exports were confined to farm products.

Today the port handles mostly Soviet manufactured goods in high demand not only by underdeveloped countries but by those with highly developed industries. And where most cargoes were previously carried in foreign vessels, now a great fleet of modern Soviet ships ply the ocean lanes. Most of the vessels in this merchant fleet were built in home shipyards, others were built for the Soviet Union in Czechoslovakia, Japan, West Germany, Holland, Belgium and other countries.

Shipping men call Odessa the southern sea gate of the USSR. It stands wide open to merchants of all countries who are interested in mutually profitable trade.



Cotton is grown farther north in the Soviet Union than in any other country in the world.

More cotton is grown every year to keep pace with the needs of an expanding textile industry.



COTTON

COTTON REMAINS COTTON—as popular for ladies' dresses and men's shirts as ever. No matter how fast the manufacture of synthetic textiles is expanding in our age of great technical advances, there is certainly nothing to indicate a diminishing consumer demand for cotton, which has been used by man since time immemorial. The demand for both keeps growing simultaneously and the seven-year plan provides for the coordinated development of both natural cotton and artificial fibers.

Northernmost Plantations

Cotton in the Soviet Union is grown farther north than anywhere else in the world. Its zone begins at the 37th parallel north latitude while in the United States, Egypt, India and other countries the cotton belts end at just about this parallel or even somewhat south of it.

Most of the cotton in the Soviet Union is supplied by Uzbekistan. Other sources are Tajikistan and Turkmenia, neighbor republics in Central Asia. Cotton is also grown in Azerbaijan and Armenia, and in certain regions of Kirghizia and Kazakhstan.

The average plantation in the Soviet Union runs considerably larger than in other countries. This is characteristic of Soviet farming generally, but it is particularly true of cotton growing where large acreage offers decided advantages for mechanization and irrigation.

On collective farms the average cotton plantation runs between 1,250 and 1,500 acres. There are many running as large as 3,750 to 5,000 acres. On the state farms they are still larger—up to 15,000 and 20,000 acres. In the climatically-suited high-yield parts of the country the tendency is toward even larger plantations.

Higher Yields

The Soviet Union's average cotton yield per acre is almost 1900 pounds, the world's highest. Its gross cotton harvest is six times that of the prerevolutionary figure. What this means is plenty of raw material for the textile

industry, which has grown tremendously during the Soviet period, with enough cotton left over for export.

The seven-year plan provides for a further considerable increase in cotton fabric manufacture. Many new mills are being built in different parts of the country and existing ones are being modernized. This expansion is matched by a program to increase the cotton supply, and by 1965 the textile industry will be receiving annually 5.7 to 6.1 million metric tons—35 to 45 per cent more than in 1957.

Much has been done to increase the country's cotton harvest but the possibilities have by no means been exhausted. Work is now under way to further expand output.

The acreage planted to cotton is being extended and greater use is being made of mineral fertilizers. In Central Asia and the Caucasus new irrigation systems are being built. Scientists are working closely with cotton farmers on plant selection and seed growing. Early-ripening, high-yield and long-staple varieties of cotton are being developed for the different climatic zones.

Increasing Mechanization

Successful development of cotton growing is unthinkable without more extensive and more effective use of machinery. Collective and state farms have completely mechanized plowing, planting and cultivation, and increasingly large numbers of machines are being used for harvesting and auxiliary operations. The farm equipment industry is working hard to provide each plantation in the country with all types of machines it needs to eliminate manual labor where it still remains.

Each year more and more farms attain over-all mechanization. This means that the farmers produce more cotton with less effort. This also means lower costs and increased income.

Cotton is one of the country's big-money crops. Nearly all cotton-growing farms have annual incomes that run into millions of rubles, and the personal incomes of the farmers are correspondingly high. This crop really deserves the name "white gold."





Galina Petrova, second grade teacher at Moscow Elementary School No. 57, is planning to continue her studies at the Moscow Pedagogical Institute.

THE FIRST IN A SERIES OF ARTICLES ON SOVIET TEACHERS

By Fyodor Maximenko
Deputy Minister of Education
Russian Federation

BECOMING A TEACHER

A congress of teachers of the Russian Federation was held in Moscow this July, attended by 1204 delegates from every corner of the vast republic.

The main item on the agenda was the question of the effective implementation of the recent school law, of closer ties between education and productive labor.

Another pressing task today is that of improving the system of instruction in the general subjects. This is perfectly natural, for Soviet industry is being increasingly equipped with the most up-to-date machinery that can be effectively controlled only by personnel having some knowledge of physics, chemistry, and mathematics. The training of such personnel should begin with the first grade. Then too, university-level educational establishments want their students to be better versed in physics, chemistry, mathematics, biology, Russian language and literature.

Sharing their experience in educating children and the youth in a spirit of labor and cultivating in the younger generation a sense of collectivism and love for their homeland, the delegates stressed that the growing educational opportunities in the school enable

teachers to carry out still more effectively their primary task of implanting knowledge in the minds of the youth.

It is the teacher who inculcates in his students regular work habits at the same time that he inspires in them an appreciation for the wonderful achievements of the human mind.

The Russian Federation Teachers' Congress was a manifestation of the true humanism and internationalism of the Soviet intelligentsia. The congress adopted an appeal to the teachers of all countries calling on them to rally in the struggle for peace and the elimination of war for all time, to come out against all war propaganda and attempts to strain international relations, to denounce racist, militaristic and other devious ideas. The courageous, impassioned voices of the Soviet teachers will undoubtedly be heeded and echoed by progressive teachers the world over.

Beginning with this issue, USSR will carry a series of articles dealing with teacher training in the USSR, the material and legal status of the Soviet teacher, the initiative a teacher may display within the framework of the curriculum, and teacher-pupil and teacher-parent relations.

TEACHING is one of the most honorable professions in the Soviet Union. There are today 33,300,000 pupils attending Soviet general-education schools (primary and secondary) and more than 2,000,000 teachers. By 1965 the number of pupils at general-education schools will rise to between 36 and 40 million. The number of teachers will increase correspondingly. The requirements are demanding and the competition for entrance to training schools very keen, yet the institutes that prepare teachers for the upper grades have as many as three to seven applicants for every opening.

A teacher on the primary level—first, second, and third and fourth grades—must have completed the course of study at one of the two-year training schools; there are 400 of them. A teacher in the senior grades—fifth to eleventh—must have completed a five-year course at one of the 200 teachers' institutes or university schools of education. Tuition is free throughout and most pedagogy students, some 72 to 80 percent, receive a monthly stipend and free dormitory accommodations.

The prerequisite for entrance to any of the professional schools is a secondary school diploma and a passing grade in the entrance examinations. The type of entrance examinations an applicant is required to take depends on his subject. Future teachers of mathematics, physics, astronomy, fundamentals of production and drafting take entrance examinations in secondary school mathematics, physics, Russian, literature and a foreign language. Those who expect to teach philology are required to take entrance exams in the Russian language, literature, the history of the USSR and a foreign language. In selecting future students preference is given to those with the highest grades in their special subjects: in the department of philology—in literature and Russian; in the physicomathematics department—in mathematics and physics.

The examinations are strictly competitive but, grades being equal, preference is given to those who have had at least two years of experience at jobs in industry, farming, commerce, public health, etc., or who have been demobilized from the country's Armed Forces—but again, only those who get the highest grades in the competitive examinations.

There are special preparatory courses offered for those who went to work immediately after graduating from secondary school and are therefore some years removed from formal study. These courses are offered at various institutes and universities six to eight months before the entrance examination date. The coaching for groups of 20 to 30 is done by both secondary school and university teachers. Those who complete the preparatory courses may take the entrance exam for any institute, not necessarily the one that gives the coaching. An applicant who fails to make the grade in the competitive examinations but possesses the knowledge covered by the secondary school program may take a correspondence course at the given institute and study while holding a job.

The course of study for each of the subjects is uniform throughout the country. This is true for both the primary level training schools and the advanced institutes. It is not, however, confined exclusively to the student's subject. Training covers two or three related subjects, for example, Russian language, literature and history; mathematics and drafting; physics, electrical and mechanical engineering; geography and biology; general technical subjects and manual training.

The course of study for each of the subjects is broad in scope. The teacher of Russian must have a background in the history of the language; Old Slavic; modern Russian; linguistics; Russian literature of the 18th, 19th and 20th centuries; Soviet literature; the ancient classics; the literature of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance; world literature of the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries; and contemporary world literature.

A student in the department of physics, electrical and mechanical engineering must take general and theoretical physics, theoretical mechanics, electrical engineering, radio engineering, mechanical engineering with practical training in tractor driving, mathematical analysis, analytic geometry, mathematical physics and general chemistry.

Those specializing in mathematics and drafting take mathematical analysis, the theory of the functions of complex and active variables, analytic geometry, basic geometry, advanced algebra, arithmetic, the theory of numbers, elementary mathematics, computing machines, blueprints, general physics, astronomy.

Students are required to master the secondary school course of study in their subject. They must be thoroughly acquainted with the textbooks used, be able to do all the laboratory experiments and the practical work called for in the curriculum.

A great deal of attention is devoted to teaching methods. Those who will be teaching the lower grades study methods in penmanship, reading, writing, arithmetic, singing and conducting extracurricular activities. The institute student learns the methodology of all school subjects. He covers such topics as lesson planning, motivation, the use of textbooks in the classroom and homework assignments.

Practicing teachers in the different subjects are frequently invited to lecture and demonstrate effective methods or to give a model lesson. A physics teacher may be invited to teach Newton's Law, for example, to a class of prospective physics teachers. He will demonstrate the approach by which he leads students to an understanding of the laws of mechanics, what he tells them, what he elicits from them, what problems he assigns to test them, and so on.

The aim of the training school or the institute is not merely to provide the student with an organized body of knowledge and teaching techniques but to train him to work independently, to devise creative methods and techniques of his own when he is faced with a teaching problem, his ultimate aim being to arouse in his pupils the desire independently to arrive at an understanding of the laws of development in nature and society. He is familiarized with methods of scientific investigation and is trained to do independent research on his own. For the research-minded, courses are offered in such relatively new branches of science as mathematical logic and the theory of information.

Actual practice work in teaching gets major emphasis. In the five-year program of the institute, 34 academic weeks, a total of 204 academic days, is given over to practice teaching. The values are obvious—application of the theory learned in class, understanding of the psychology of children, skill in working with various age groups.

Practice teaching is done at different types of schools—the 8- and 11-year schools, vocational schools and boarding schools among others. During the first three years of the institute course students do a good deal of observing, with some practice teaching of a rather general character. Fourth-year students do specific practice teaching in their subject and supervise extracurricular activity. They work with a classroom teacher at a school for a training period of 8 weeks, 6 hours a day.

Practice teaching in the fifth, and last, institute year is carried on independently at a village or city school for what is actually a twelve-week probationary period. The student teaches his specialty and is also assigned an official class. At the end of this period the school sends the institute an appraisal of the student's work.

Between January and March of each year the Ministry of Education in each republic notifies the training schools of teaching posts to be filled. In April each student is interviewed by representatives of the local school board and public organizations as to the kind of school and location he prefers. The young teacher's preference is the decisive factor. He is not assigned to a school unless he so wishes, and such factors as health and family circumstances are given careful consideration.

From time to time there have been teacher shortages in certain subjects. That was true between 1942 and 1950 and is true today, but for quite different reasons. During the war period and for some time after there were not enough teachers in physics and mathematics because so many of the men had been called up for the army. At the same time young people without pedagogical training were taken on to fill the many vacancies. With the help of short-term courses, seminars and consultations with experienced teachers they eventually became good teachers.

Today there is a shortage of teachers for manual training, farming, mechanical engineering and industrial production. These are all new subjects added to the course of study by the school reorganization law of 1958. For the next four or five years the schools will be recruiting specialists from industry and agriculture to teach these subjects. By 1964, however, the training schools will have begun graduating students in these specialties.

Those teachers who wish to take correspondence courses enjoy many privileges. Their hotel and travel expenses are paid for if the final examinations are given out of town. Those who successfully combine study with work are entitled to extra vacation with pay. There are refresher courses offered in every regional center. Educational institutes periodically hold consultation classes, seminars and conferences.

During the Soviet period the life and work of the schoolteacher has changed a great deal. But that would be touching on the material and legal status of the Soviet teacher, the subject of future articles.



American educators at a Leningrad school, one of many visited. They sat in on a number of classes, including one in English.

AMERICAN EDUCATORS VISIT SOVIET SCHOOLS

A GROUP OF AMERICAN EDUCATORS recently spent a fortnight in the Soviet Union. The tour was arranged under the cultural exchange agreement.

The leader of the delegation, Dr. Roy Hall, Assistant Commissioner for Research of the United States Office of Education, said at the conclusion of the visit, "My colleagues, Dr. Jacob Getzels, professor at the University of Chicago; Dr. Chester Harris, professor at the University of Wisconsin; and I came to the Soviet Union to study the school system . . . Thanks to the great attention paid to us by the Soviet educators and to their cordiality and friendly welcome, we were able to accomplish a considerable amount of work."

The visiting educators acquainted themselves with research being done by the institutes of the Academy of Educational Sciences in Moscow and Leningrad. In Kiev they stopped at the institutes of education and psychology of the Ukrainian Ministry of Education. They sat in on classes, including one in the English language, at various schools. They expressed their pleasure at the fact that they were provided with every opportunity to study work done at the Moscow, Leningrad and Kiev Universities.

The guests showed particular interest in the methods used to develop the abilities and talents of the individual pupil. One of the visitors, talking to people at the Leningrad Institute of Education, said that he and the other members of the delegation were quite satisfied after what

they had seen "that great attention is devoted in the USSR to the development of the capabilities of each individual pupil. They are not simply names in the school register. An individual approach is found to each one of them."

They noted that there was no gap between educational research and practice and that the whole system of secondary, specialized technical and higher education was designed to tie in the schooling of the rising generation with the country's very practical needs.

As the group was going through a Leningrad school, one of the students gave Dr. Hall several postage stamps to be presented as a gift to some young American stamp collector. "He also asked me for the address of a girl with whom he could correspond," the delegation leader said. "I gladly gave him my daughter's address and I hope a friendly correspondence will spring up between them."

The American educators spoke in glowing terms of the professional level of Soviet teachers. Dr. Hall declared, "The Soviet teachers we met deeply impressed us. Their excellent training and their knowledge of scientific achievements, modern methods of teaching and the latest educational theories are really striking."

In a parting message Dr. Hall wished Soviet teachers continued success and commented on the great burden of responsibility that educators in both countries carried. "The education of the younger generation, which needs peace," he said, "is in our hands."

Anatoli Smirnov of the Academy of Educational Sciences of the Russian Federation talks to his guests.



The Americans were impressed by the attention the Soviet teacher devotes to the individual student.

The visitors learn about the work done by Moscow's Psychological Research Institute.



(l. to r.) Educators Chester Harris, Roy Hall and Jacob Getzels observe a laboratory experiment at the Pavlov Institute of Physiology.



More Than Welcome

SAY SOVIET PEOPLE TO VAN CLIBURN

By Viktor Gorokhov



"Autog
every

HOW I love these nights, Moscow suburb nights. This very popular song might well have been written in fond memory of the lovely evenings at Ruza, the composers' colony in a Moscow suburb. Van Cliburn first played it two years ago at the close of his last concert following the Tchaikovsky Contest. And now he is playing it again at this retreat after an evening stroll through the woods along the banks of the Moscow River.

It is quiet except for the sound of his piano and a cuckoo in the distance. Van cocks his head, listens for the number of calls. "How many times does the cuckoo say I will return here?" he asks.

"You will always be more than welcome," replies a chorus of voices.

Van stops playing, pauses thoughtfully and then says in that inimitably impetuous way he has: "I shall never forget a Russian woman I met the last time I was here. I saw her again not long ago. She showed me a photograph of her son who was killed in the war. He could have been my twin. And he was a pianist too. 'May I call you my son?' she asked me. I often think of that Russian woman.

"I always liked Russian music—Rachmaninov, Tchaikovsky and Prokofiev—but after visiting your country I seem to have taken on a new, a Russian, character. I really feel as though that pianist who was killed in the war might have been my brother. And he must have been a good pianist too—Russia has so much fine talent."

The Texan spent a good part of this summer touring the Soviet Union. He gave concerts to large audiences in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Tbilisi, Baku, Yerevan and Sochi. The hospitable reception from music lovers and musicians alike, he said, made him proud but also gave him a special sense of responsibility. That responsibility he met admirably. Svyatoslav Rikhter, the eminent Soviet pianist who will be touring the United States this fall, said after Van's first concert in Moscow:

"Cliburn played Prokofiev perfectly and, believe me, that is anything but easy. It is good that an American pianist understands our composer so well. And it is good that our audiences understand an American artist so well. May this be the happy sign of a better future for both our countries."

A stroll with Soviet friends through the woods along the Moscow River bank.



With Lev Vlasenko, fellow prize winner in the Tchaikovsky Piano Competition.

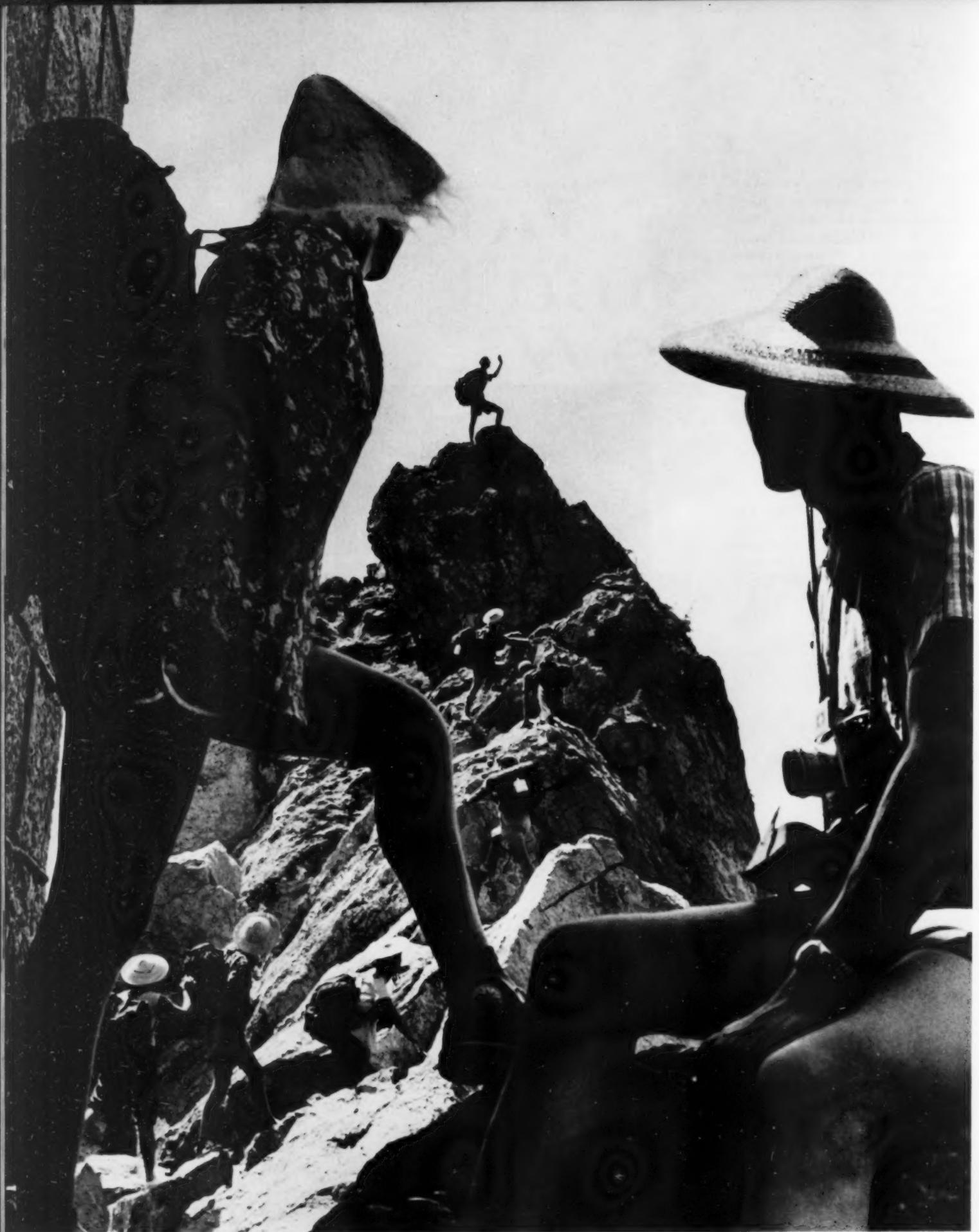


The pianist encourages a shy youngster to strike up an acquaintance.

Lunching at Ruza, composers' colony in a Moscow suburb.



"Autograph, please?" This scene repeated itself after every concert during his tour of the Soviet Union.



The mountain-climbing addicts insist that no activity is quite so satisfying, but those who prefer tennis, volleyball, chess or just sightseeing find many like-minded companions at this tourist camp in the Crimean resort town of Gurzuf. All vacationers at this camp are guests of "Sputnik," the Soviet Union's bureau for international youth travel.



FRIENDS

in all languages

GURZUF is a memorable name to hundreds of young people in many countries. It is a resort town on the Black Sea not far from historic Yalta in the Crimea. Three years ago it was chosen as the site for the tourist camp run by "Sputnik," the Soviet Union's bureau for international youth travel.

Young tourists who come to Gurzuf speak different languages and hold different political and religious convictions. But they all have one strong common feeling—they all want to build understanding and friendship.

The camp is situated in the foothills of forested mountains close to the beautiful beach. The gleaming white two-story building is surrounded by green lawns and sports fields. The sky overhead is bright blue and the sea is pleasantly warm. Everything—nature, place, people—conspires to create an unforgettable vacation.

Tourist groups come for three-week periods. The newcomers are welcomed by the oldtimers—those who arrived two or three days earlier. That is the camp tradition. And a very good one it is—it helps to make friends quickly.

The camp operates under a whatever-you-like-to-do program. Hikers take off for the mountains, athletes head for the tennis or volleyball courts, chess players go to the game room, and there are boat trips for everybody. Most of the guests, however, prefer the beach of tempting white sand and blue waves.

In the evening people gather round the "friendship campfire," another of the camp traditions. They sing the songs of their countries or do their folk dances. And they somehow understand each other, even without interpreters.

When a tourist leaves for home, the whole camp sees him off with flowers, songs and firm handshakes. No one says "good-bye" at Gurzuf—it is "till we meet again."



Irina Belyakova, USSR



Jean Martines, France



Zand Manfred, Germany



Gana Beloguba, Czechoslovakia



Jadwiga Grohowska, Poland



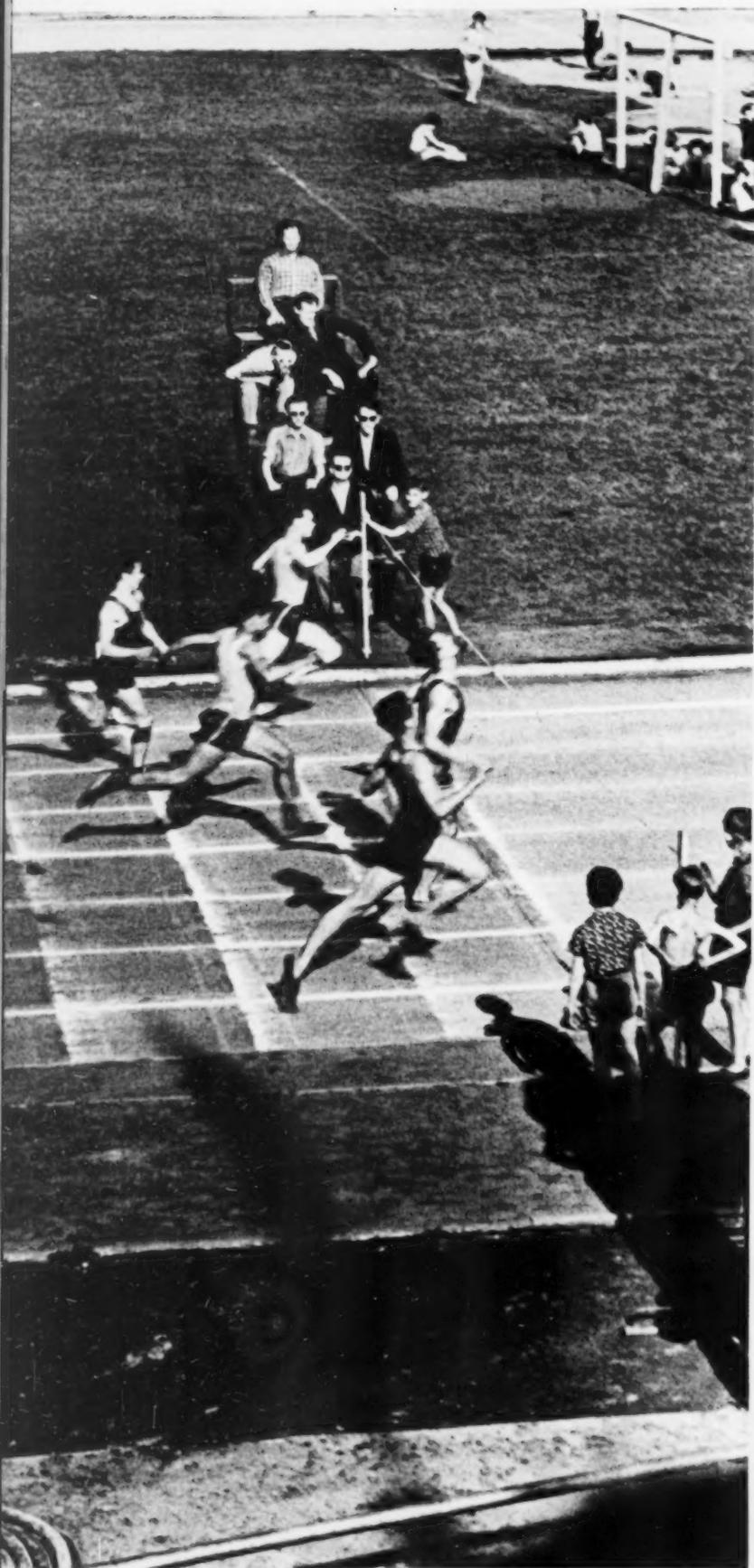
Tom Robinson, USA

A ball, water and lots of youthful energy add up to a splashing good game.

French, Russians, Poles—everybody who knows how does the cha-cha. Those who don't and want to will learn before the dance is over.

At night songs in all languages of the world are sung around the campfire.





Every fourth employee of the Kingisepp Pulp and Paper Mill in Tallinn, Estonia, belongs to the workers' sports club. Its 500 members have 18 sports to choose from.



Motorcycle racing is the major attraction in Estonia—even more popular than soccer, which is generally considered the No. 1 sport in most of the Soviet Union.

Photos by Igor Vinogradov

IT'S FUN TO KEEP FIT

By Adolf Antonov

A SPORTS CLUB in a Soviet factory is no small affair. Take the one at the Kingisepp Pulp and Paper Mill in Tallinn, capital of Estonia. Of the 2,000 people employed at the mill, 500 are enrolled in 18 sports ranging from chess—which is a considerable sport in the Soviet Union—to yachting.

The chairman of the mill's sports club is 29-year-old Udo Kynd, a broad-shouldered chap with bulging muscles and a friendly smile. We drop in to see him at the club's office. He looks very busy with papers—new

applications for membership. But when we ask him to tell us about sports activities at the mill, he puts all papers aside with obvious relief. "I think I talk better without papers," he says.

The mill's club is part of the Kalev Sports Society of Estonia named after the hero of an Estonian epic poem. Its major aim is to get more people to go in for sports. Of course there is a certain amount of routine business that has to be done—dues collection, for example. Otherwise the club's officials try to

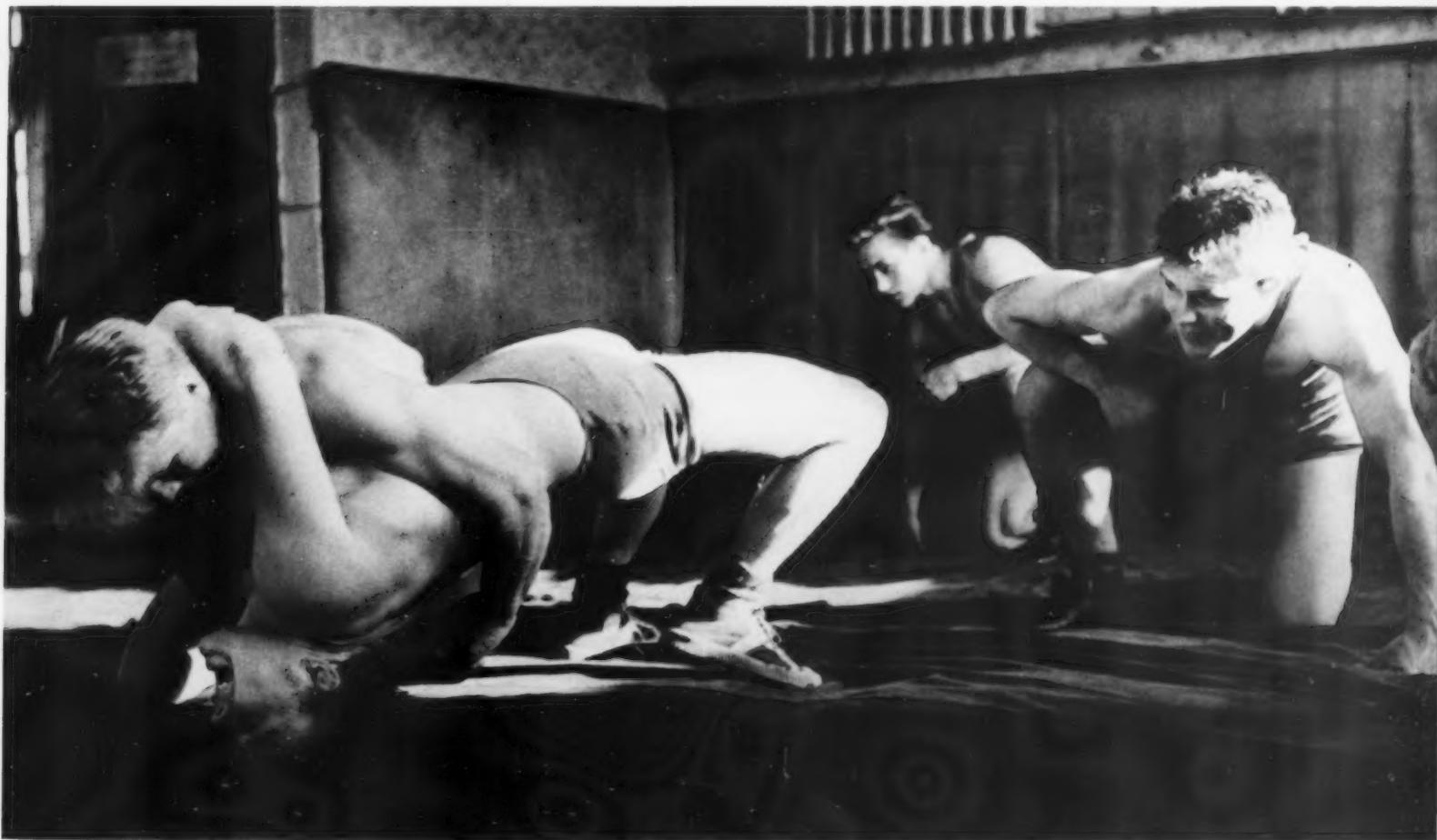
get along with as little paper work as possible.

Udo Kynd is a machine operator by trade and a weightlifter by avocation. Three years ago, at the annual membership meeting of the sports club, he was first elected chairman of the executive committee, and ever since then the members have re-elected him to this post.

"Well," he explains, "this is volunteer work and I don't get paid for it. Neither do any of our dozen executive committee members."

His job as chairman takes a good deal of time, but he likes it—except for the paper

The mill's club has produced a sizable contingent of athletic greats. Now it's trying for a world beater. The top man here is carpenter Jan Roots, a Soviet Olympic wrestler.





Tug-of-war takes skill and muscle and weight too—that's why the sturdy mill loaders win first prize.

work. He'd much rather have a workout at the stadium or in the gym.

"To be honest, however," he says, "I must pay tribute to my helpers. There's Mare Kopet, for instance, who is in charge of the children's sports section with more than 200 youngsters. Electrician Ilmar Sildard takes care of the hockey and water polo team sections."

Perhaps the most popular sport at the mill, like everywhere else in Estonia, is motorcycle racing. It has the same rating as soccer in other parts of the Soviet Union or baseball in the United States. Fitter Endel Lehtma wears the Kalev colors at the national motorcycle meets. He has earned a citation as Master of Sports and has a fan following of no small proportions.

With the Baltic at their doorstep, Estonians are natural-born seamen. There is a large group of young people at the mill who spend all their spare time at the yachting basin in the Pirit River estuary. They have a run if the wind is right; if it isn't, they mend sails, scrape and paint their boats.

Landlubbers have to take a class in navigation—on land, of course—before they are allowed to venture out of the harbor. They usually study in the wintertime, so that by spring they're ready for actual sailing.

Vaino Vapper is skipper of the club's yachting section. He's a real enthusiast and his shopmates say that he wears a sailing cap even when he sleeps. He has gotten dozens of the workers to share his enthusiasm, and the Kalev yacht club is acknowledged to be the best of the six in Tallinn.

Ernest Cook, head of the marksmen's section, also deserves special notice. This lean bronzed old man with piercing eyes is an ex-world champion who brought the Argentine Cup to Tallinn and now he is training young sharpshooters.

When he was chosen for riflery instruction, one of his first jobs was to persuade the mill director, Victor Lesnoy, to allocate a generous sum for a new range. It is now the city's best, and several of Cook's trainees have become members of the Estonian rifle team.

Talking with Kynd, Vapper, Cook and other

athletes, we got an impression that sports are the No. 2 concern for the mill management. And perhaps this is the way it should be because a well organized physical fitness program certainly makes for healthier workers. And then the management, like everybody else at the mill, is pleased to see the workers' sports club cited among the best in Estonia. For one reason or another Director Lesnoy even served as chairman of the sports club for a couple of terms.

Besides all this, however, there is one factor which gives legal force to the management's interest in sports—a provision in the union-negotiated collective agreement that the management allocate specified sums for the physical fitness program. The union itself also makes allocations to the mill's sports club.

The club's budget runs some 50,000 rubles a year which is sufficient for buying uniforms, renting a stadium, a swimming pool and tennis courts. The club membership dues of three rubles a year—75 cents at the official rate of exchange—are pretty much a token payment.

Anybody at the mill who wants to become a good athlete is given the opportunity to do so. The club provides all the necessary equipment free of charge. Team members get their traveling expenses paid when they go to out-of-town matches. But more than that, they get time off from their jobs at regular pay.

There is one set of statistics Kynd doesn't mind reading off from his "papers"—175 club members out of 500 have national sports classification ratings which they won by scoring for the mill in matches. He also speaks with pride of the many who walk away with the honors at the "Friendship Meets" with Riga's Slokka Mill, their traditional rival. Every once in a while they develop an athlete of world caliber like carpenter Jan Roots who is a member of the Soviet Olympic wrestlers' team.

This sports club with its diversified activities to suit every athletic interest is not unique. There are such clubs in every Soviet town. They all operate on the slogan: "It's fun to keep fit—try it." And it is at these local clubs that many an Olympic star first emerges from the ranks of millions of athletes.



One of the republic's best athletes, mill worker Enn Liiwak, upholding club honors in a pentathlon event.



A sport for every interest and inclination. The club also offers activities for the children of members.



The club's yachting division heads for open water. Estonians have a long-time tradition of seamanship.



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Skipper Vaino Vapper gives all land-lubbers a winter seamanship course before they venture off terra firma.



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