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Heartfelt Gratitude

THE CENTRAL COMMITTEE of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet and the USSR Council of Ministers have received numerous congratulations on the occasion of the greatest event in human history, the successful accomplishment by the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics of man's first space flight carried out by the brave son of the Soviet people Yuri Alexeyevich Gagarin on the spaceship VOSTOK. Congratulatory telegrams and letters have been received from Government, Party, public and scientific organizations and citizens of our country, from Communist and Workers' Parties, from statesmen, public figures, scientists, cultural workers and individuals of foreign countries.

The Central Committee of the CPSU, the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet and the USSR Council of Ministers express the most sincere and cordial gratitude to all the Government, Party, public and scientific organizations, statesmen and public figures, scientists and cultural workers, to all the citizens of our country and of foreign countries for their congratulations and good wishes to the Soviet people, the Communist Party of the Soviet Union and the Soviet Government on the occasion of the world's first space flight accomplished by a Soviet man.

The Central Committee of the CPSU, the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet and the USSR Council of Ministers are firmly convinced that this world-historic achievement of the Soviet Union that has delighted all people will serve for many generations as a symbol of bold and daring deeds of the mind and labor, as a great achievement in the name of stable peace throughout the world, in the name of progress and the happiness of mankind.

**CENTRAL COMMITTEE OF THE COMMUNIST PARTY OF
THE SOVIET UNION**

PRESIDIUM OF THE USSR SUPREME SOVIET

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1. THE BLAST-OFF PHASE

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No. 6 (57)

	Page
Heartfelt Gratitude	1
Man's First Flight into Space	2
Moscow Welcomes the Hero	6
The Road to the Stars	
by Norair Sisakyan	10
Yuri Gagarin —	
The World's First Cosmonaut	11
The Communist Party —	
Leader of the People	
by Visili Moskovsky	14
Soviet Diary	17
Election to Local Soviets	
by Yuri Filonovich	18
The Individual and Society	
Under Socialism	
by Vasili Tugarinov	21
The Acid Test	
by Grigori Deborin	24
Soviet Books Abroad	
An interview with Boris Makarov	28
What Soviet Children Read	
by Vasili Kompaniyets	30
Buratino Goes Hunting —	
cartoons for children	34
Stamps on Child Life	
by Vyacheslav Merkulov	34
A Collective Agreement	
by Natalia Leibova	35
Reply to Mr. George Riffero	
by Lydia Levit	40
The Privileged Class	
by Anatoli Alexin	42
Artek	
by Irina Zemskaya	45
Vissarion Belinsky	
by Nikolai Bogoslovsky	50
Mechanizing the Soviet Farm	
by Nikolai Tarasov	52
The War Novels of	
Konstantin Simonov	
by Lazar Lazarev	54
The Living and the Dead	
Excerpt from the novel	
by Konstantin Siminov	54
Bookshop in Lvov	
by Zinaida Anisimova	58
Student Production of	
Porgy and Bess	
by Boris Pokrovsky	60
Five in a Boat	
by Nikolai Kozlovsky	62
USA-USSR Track and Field	
by Victor Kuprianov	64

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3. DESCENT PHASE

2. CONNECTION OF BRAKING DEVICE









MAN'S FIRST FLIGHT INTO SPACE

FOR MILLENNIA man's inquisitive brain has been trying to reach into the universe in a search for knowledge that would extend his mastery over nature. Modern science has developed a great arsenal of tools and techniques with which to explore the cosmos. The distances they have already made accessible run to astronomical figures.

The cosmos is a world of stars, stellar associations and galaxies, of which our solar system is a minute part. Advanced science, based philosophically in dialectical materialism, asserts that a multiplicity of worlds exist on which life, the highest form of matter, could have evolved. The genesis of life elsewhere in the universe would be no exceptional phenomena. One cannot specify precisely where life has evolved or what form it has assumed, but that it exists is indubitable.

Man's appearance on earth marked a new stage in its development as a planet. As he became cognizant of nature's laws, he began to remake the earth, to arm himself with the weapons with which to combat nature. The first space flight is the culmination of a process that began when he chipped out the first stone ax.

Man is now exploring a new realm and is making vastly important findings. With the first sputniks, for example, we found the earth's radiation belts, a discovery that basically altered our concepts of circumsolar space and radiation flight hazards. It is still much too early to estimate the full significance of space flights and the prospects they hold out. One thing is clear, however, the breakthrough into space will immeasurably extend our scientific, technological, economic and cultural horizons.

The rate of advance in modern science and technology is increasing year by year. We see developments today that would have been impossible to conceive of only 15 to 20 years ago. We may expect that in the very near future space vehicles will be used to solve a host of theoretical and practical problems. Weather forecasting, ice reconnaissance, relaying of TV and sound broadcasts, extra-atmospheric investigation—these are only beginning projects. They will be followed by manned flights to the moon and other planets of the solar system, the creation of habitable interplanetary stations, the gradual adaptation to life in space. For the more remote future there is the now seemingly fantastic project of establishing contact with other worlds.

Designing a Safe Ship

One of the prime problems that confronted Soviet science was to design and equip a vehicle that would guarantee the astronaut's safety in flight and his safe return. Flight along a ballistic trajectory is not, in reality, space flight, and was therefore rejected as a possible approach. From the very outset Soviet scientists directed their efforts toward the creation of artificial satellites and spaceships of great size and weight. This was true for the full series of launchings, from the second sputnik that carried a test animal, the dog Laika, to the orbital spaceship *Vostok*.

A great deal of information and experience had to be accumulated with regard to the structure of space vehicles and their instrumentation in order to test the reliability of various control systems in flight. A fundamentally new task was to create systems of orientation for orbital spaceships and solve the problem of their safe return to earth.

For manned flight it was also necessary to guarantee that normal pressure, temperature and air composition be maintained in the ship's cabin.

Outer space studies provided data both on the effect of various types of radiation on the living organism in space-flight conditions and on meteorite hazards. The data was used to devise safeguards for orbital ships.



INTERIOR OF THE ASTRONAUT'S CABIN ON THE SPACESHIP VOSTOK

The wealth of experimental information derived from the flights of the first Soviet orbital ships, and the development of safe re-entry systems made it possible for scientists and designers to create a spaceship for manned flight, the *Vostok*. In March 1961 the last two control launchings of the ship—with a dummy in the pilot's seat and the test dogs Cherynuška and Zvezdochka in the cabin—were carried through successfully.

The test flights followed the strict program set up for the manned flight to follow and confirmed the reliability of the ship's design and of its various systems.

The *Vostok*, with Yuri Gagarin aboard, was launched April 12, 1961.

The Spaceship

The *Vostok* has two main divisions: the pilot's capsule with facilities for the pilot, the life-sustaining installations, and the landing system; the instrument section with the ship's retro-engines and the instruments that operate during orbital flight.

After orbiting, the spaceship separates from the last stage of the carrier rocket. In flight the instruments function according to a prescribed program. They take orbital measurements, telemeter data and the television image of the pilot, carry on two-way radio communication with the earth, maintain the required temperature throughout the ship and condition the air in the pilot's cabin. The instruments are controlled automatically by programming installations and can, if necessary, be controlled by the pilot himself.

The program of the first manned flight was devised for only one revolution of the earth. The design and equipment of the space vehicle, however, allows for longer flight.

When the flight program is completed, a special system orientates the vehicle in space for descent. Then, at a designated point in the orbit, the retro-engine is switched on. This reduces the velocity to the required value, and the vehicle enters its descent trajectory.

The capsule with the space pilot is decelerated in the atmosphere. The re-entry trajectory is chosen so that the deceleration load on entering the dense layers of the atmosphere will be no greater than man can endure. When the capsule reaches a designated altitude, the landing system is switched on. The actual landing of the capsule takes place at a low speed. The vehicle travels some 5,000 miles from the time the retro-engine is switched on to the time it touches the ground. The descent takes approximately 30 minutes.

The shell of the pilot's capsule is covered with a heat shield to protect it as it passes through the dense layers of the atmosphere. The shell has two fast-opening hatches and three portholes covered with heat-resistant glass that permit the pilot to make observations throughout the flight.

The pilot's seat, which he occupies during the whole of the flight, can be jettisoned if the need arises. It is installed so that the pilot is in the best position (chest-back) to react to the load during the orbiting and the re-entry stages.

The pilot wears a space suit that ensures his safety and functioning ability should the cabin begin to leak air in flight or the air conditioning system fail.

Instrumentation and Equipment

The ship carries the following: instruments and equipment for the pilot's vital functions (an air-conditioning system, a pressure control system, food and water; a system for removing body wastes); flight control equipment and a setup for manual control (the pilot's panel, instrument panel, manual control system, etc.); a landing system; radio apparatus for communication with the earth; an autonomous system that checks on the operation of the instrument, the radio telemetric systems and the various sensors; a television system for observation of the pilot from the earth; instruments to record his physiological functioning; the ship's retro-engine; an orientation system; a flight control system; radio systems for orbital measurements; a temperature control system; electric power sources.

On the vehicle's external surface are mounted the control units, orientation elements, the blinds of the temperature control system, and the antennae of the radio systems.

The pilot's cabin is much roomier than that of the usual aircraft. Its instruments are arranged for his maximum convenience. Without leaving his seat he can make observations, communicate with the earth, control flight and control the vehicle if necessary.

The frame of the seat has a detachable back with braces for holding the pilot in position when catapulting and parachuting. It carries parachute systems; catapulting and pyrotechnical devices; an emergency store of food and water; radio equipment for communication and direction finding when the pilot lands; a space suit ventilation system and a parachute oxygen supply unit; the apparatus for automatic operation of the seat.

Landing Methods

The astronaut can be landed in the cabin of the vehicle. This landing method was tested in the fourth and fifth spaceflights launched with test animals in the cabin. A variant is provided, also previously tested in orbital spaceship launchings—the pilot is catapulted in the seat from the cabin at an altitude of some 4.5 miles and is landed by parachute.

The air-conditioning system maintains normal pressure and normal oxygen content, a carbon dioxide content of not more than one per cent, temperature at 15-22 degrees centigrade, and a relative humidity of 30-70 per cent.

The air is regenerated—the carbon dioxide and water vapor absorbed and the required quantity of oxygen injected—by means of highly active chemical compounds. The process is controlled automatically. If the quantity of oxygen drops and the concentration of carbon dioxide increases, a special sensor gives a signal that alters the operation of the regenerator. If an excess of oxygen is produced, a mechanism automatically reduces the amount of oxygen injected into the cabin. The humidity is controlled in a similar way.

A system of special filters keeps the air free of contamination by harmful admixtures that might come from the pilot's body wastes or the operating instruments.

The required temperature is maintained by a special control system that uses a constant-temperature liquid

cooling agent to transfer the heat from the pilot's cabin. The cooling agent flows through the temperature control system to a liquid-gas radiator. The flow of air through the radiator is regulated automatically, depending on the temperature in the descending vehicle. Thus, the required temperature is maintained with great accuracy. To keep the temperature of the cooling agent and the temperature in the instrument section at the required level an automatic radiation heat exchanger with a system of blinds was installed on the outside surface of the vehicle.

The Orientation System

For landing in a designated area the spaceship must be orientated in space before the retarding engine is fired. This is done by an orientation system. In this flight one of the axes of the vehicle was orientated to the sun.

The sensing elements in this system are a series of optical and gyroscopic sensors that feed signals to an electronic pack where they are transformed into commands governing the control systems. The orientation system finds the sun automatically, adjusts the vehicle accordingly, and stabilizes it in the position required—all with high accuracy.

When the vehicle is oriented, the retarding engine is fired at a designated moment. The command for switching on the orientation system, the retro-engine and the other systems are given by an electronic programming device.

The spaceship carries radiometric and radiotelemetric equipment for orbital measurements and instrument control. Ground stations in the Soviet Union receive the telemetric information and make trajectory measurements. The data is relayed automatically to computing centers. As a consequence, orbital information is available throughout the flight for forecasting the ship's movements.

The vehicle also carries a radio system signal working on a frequency of 19.995 mc/sec. The system does radio direction finding and transmits part of the telemetric information.

A television system transmits images of the pilot so that his condition may be observed from the earth. One camera transmits a full-face view, another a side view.

Two-way communication with the earth is maintained by a radiotelephone system that works on short wave (9.019 and 20.006 mc/sec.) and ultrashort wave (143.625 mc/sec.).

The FM channel is used for contact with ground stations for a distance of 1,500-2,000 kilometers (930-1,240 miles). Short-wave communication with ground stations in the Soviet Union can, the experiment has shown, be carried on from most of the orbit.

The radiotelephone system includes a tape recorder to take down the pilot's speech in flight for subsequent reproduction and transmission when the vehicle passes over ground receiving centers. A key is also provided for telegraph communication.

The instrument panel and pilot's panel operate the main systems and permit manual-controlled descent of the vehicle if necessary. The instrument panel has several dials, light signals, an electric clock, and a globe that revolves synchronically with the vehicle's movement in orbit so that the pilot can determine his position in flight.

The panel has levers and switches to operate the radio-telephone system, regulate the temperature in the cabin, and to switch on the manual controls and retarding engine.

Manual Control of the Ship

The reliability of Soviet spaceships had been thoroughly confirmed in previous launchings. Nevertheless, in the *Vostok* additional safety measures were provided.

To orientate the ship when steered by hand the pilot uses an optical orientation device to determine the ship's position in relation to the earth. The device, consisting of two annular mirror-reflectors, a light filter and a latched glass, is installed in one of the portholes of the cabin. The rays traveling from the line of the horizon strike the first reflector, pass through the glass of the porthole and reach the second reflector which directs them through the latched glass to the eyes of the pilot. If the ship's bearings in relation to the vertical axis are correct, the pilot sees the horizon as a circle in his field of vision.

Through the central part of the porthole the pilot sees the part of the earth's surface directly under him. He determines the position of the ship's longitudinal axis by watching the "run" of the earth's surface in his field of vision.

By means of control units he can turn the ship until the line of the horizon is visible in the orientation system as a concentric circle and the direction of the earth's "run" coincides with the course plotted on the latched glass (chart). This shows that the ship is correctly orientated. If necessary, the pilot's field of vision can be covered by the light filter or a blind.

The globe on the instrument panel makes it possible for the pilot not only to ascertain the ship's bearings in flight but to predetermine the landing place should the braking device be switched on at any moment during the flight. Finally, the ship is so designed that it can land even if the braking device fails by employing the natural frictional action of the atmosphere.

The ship is equipped with devices that prevent the temperature in the cabin from rising above a specified level to protect the surface from the prolonged heating that occurs during the gradual braking of the vehicle in the atmosphere.

The supply of food, water and regeneration substances and the capacity of the electric power sources allow for a flight lasting as long as ten days.

Medical Problems of Space Flight

The medical-biological problem required an investigation of the effects of space flight on the living organism and of protective measures against harmful effects; the design of installations that would provide normal living conditions for the pilot or crew; the development of procedures for the medical selection and training of pilot or crew and for uninterrupted check of health and capability of pilot and crew members throughout the flight.

Specialists in physiology, hygiene, psychology, biology and clinical medicine worked on these problems for ten years. Research was done in laboratories on earth and in rocket flights with animals. The wealth of medical experience gathered in the related areas of aviation and underwater navigation was tapped. Wherever feasible, special stands were set up for laboratory study of the effect of a particular space flight factor on the organism. The body's reaction to strains and stresses was studied in centrifuges that reproduced accelerations analogous to those that occur during blast-off and recovery. Other factors were studied with vibro-stands, thermo- and vacuum-chambers and similar units.

Laboratory experiments, however, can only measure the effect of the single isolated factor being studied, whereas in a real rocket flight all the various factors act simultaneously and in combination. Besides, the behavior of the living organism in a state of weightlessness cannot be studied in the laboratory. The biological researches undertaken with rockets, beginning in 1951, therefore gave more conclusive answers.

Several dozen experiments carried on with animals in rockets shot to altitudes of up to 450 kilometers (279 miles) gathered comprehensive data on the physiological reactions and behavior of animals—dogs, rabbits, rats and mice—at various periods of flight. Examination of the test animals while in flight and for a prolonged period after their return to earth led to the conclusion that living organisms reacted quite satisfactorily to rocket flights in the upper layers of the atmosphere. The changes observed in some of the physiological functions during the flight were not symptomatic of illness. Quite often they disappeared while the experiment was still in progress and did not reappear subsequently.

Effects of Weightlessness

But the short duration of rocket flights did not allow for the study of the biological effects of such important factors as prolonged weightlessness and cosmic radiation. The use of artificial earth satellites for biological experiments, beginning in 1957, was therefore a most important step forward.

Biological experiments, continued with the first Soviet orbital spaceships, investigated several new problems. Besides a more thorough examination of the effect of prolonged weightlessness on the organism, studies were made of the transition from weightlessness to overstrain, and vice versa, and of the biological effects of cosmic radiation.

Test subjects ranged from the simplest forms of life to

the higher vertebrates. The use of many different species of animals and plants made possible thorough and detailed study of the effects of space flight on diverse processes and functions. Data on the behavior and physiological functioning of experimental dogs in flight was especially exhaustive. Their behavior was observed with a special TV system. The data analyzed showed that the animals not only fully retained their vital functions after protracted weightlessness followed by overstrain but that their general physiological functioning showed no morbid symptoms. Examination of the animals over a sufficiently long period after the flight revealed no deviations whatsoever from the normal.

An especially thorough search was made for possible effects of cosmic radiation. The many and varied detection checks used revealed no changes that could possibly result from ionizing radiation.

The research undertaken with orbital spaceships led to the exceedingly important and authoritative conclusion that flights in orbital spaceships circling below the radiation belts near the earth are safe for highly organized representatives of the animal kingdom.

The conclusion from these biological experiments, added to laboratory investigations, was that space flight would not endanger man's health.

Choosing and Training the Astronaut

The first space pilot had to be a man aware of the enormous importance of the assignment. He had to be willing to give all his ability, energy, knowledge—perhaps even his life—to this historic undertaking. Thousands of Soviet citizens of the most varied ages and vocations volunteered.

In the course of a space flight a man is subjected to a complex of such environmental factors as acceleration and weightlessness and to severe nervous and emotional strains that call on all his moral and physical stamina. Along with this, the astronaut must be able to function properly, to orient himself in the complicated flight conditions, and, if necessary, control the spaceship himself. All this requires physical and mental health of an exceedingly high order and a corresponding general background and technical competence. As a group, pilots are most inclined to have this combination of qualities.

In selecting a group to be trained as astronauts a great number of pilots who had volunteered were interviewed. Those considered most promising were given physical and psychological examinations designed to reveal latent deficiencies or low resistance to space flight factors. Biochemical, physiological, electrophysiological and psychological methods and special functional tests were used to assess the reserve possibilities of the main physiological systems of the applicant. Subjects were examined in a pressure chamber with the air considerably rarefied, under increased pressures, during abrupt changes in barometric pressure, in a centrifuge, etc.

The psychological tests were designed to search out those with especially retentive memories, resourcefulness, instantaneous reaction to changed situations, and precise coordination.

The group selected was then given a course of special instruction that simulated flight conditions and further tested individual reactions.

The instruction program gave the future astronaut the theoretical background and the skills and habits they would need to use the equipment and instruments in the spaceship's cabin. Study included the fundamentals of rocket and space technology, spaceship design, related problems of astronomy and geophysics, and space medicine.

The Training Program

The training and test program included flight in planes under zero-gravity conditions; training in a replica of the spaceship cabin and on a special device, prolonged stay in a specially equipped soundproof chamber, training in a centrifuge, parachute jumps from planes.

During the training process some problems still pending were solved, specifically those that had to do with feeding the astronaut in flight, his space suit and the air regeneration system.

On the plane flight reactions to weightlessness and transition from weightlessness to overstrain were studied, together with such problems as maintaining radio communication, taking in water and food, etc.

It was found that all the astronauts in the group bore up well under zero-gravity conditions. For periods of weightlessness lasting up to 40 seconds they could take in liquid, semiliquid and solid food; perform such finely coordinated and purposeful movements of the hand as writing; maintain radio communication; read; and orient themselves visually in space.

Training in the replica of the cabin and in the special training device covered general habituation to stays in the actual ship and to the equipment and instrumentation of the cabin and practice in flight tasks. A special stand was made for this purpose, having electronic devices that duplicated the instrument changes that would be taking place during the flight. The pilot acted as he would in space. Unusual—emergency—versions of the flight were simulated for training purposes.

A specially equipped soundproof chamber was used to determine the psychological stability of the astronaut during a prolonged and isolated stay in the close confines of the cabin with external stimuli sharply reduced. During the stay the regimen and feeding process of actual flight were duplicated.

The centrifuge and the thermal chamber tested the astronaut's tolerance for such factors as acceleration and

temperature changes and trained him to make the required adjustments. The tests established the fact that the astronaut made a good adjustment. Those who best withstood the tests were singled out.

In air-drop training each of the astronauts had to make several dozen jumps. The physical-training portion of the program consisted of planned lessons and setting-up exercises. The planned lessons were designed individually for each astronaut. The setting-up exercises, aimed at general physical development, were given for an hour daily. The purpose of the physical-training program was to adjust the astronaut to the effects of acceleration, to help him make better use of his body in space and to strengthen his ability to endure long physical tension.

Physical training combined selected exercises, games, diving, swimming, and exercises on special apparatus and was carried on under close medical supervision.

The more direct preparation for the flight began when this training program was completed. It included study of flight assignments and maps of the landing area; instruction in navigation, radio communication, etc.; a study of the emergency supplies and their use after landing, and of the direction-finding systems; training in a centrifuge in a space suit under the anticipated maximum load; training over a long period in a model spaceship using all the lifesaving systems.

From among the trainees the group of men most ready for space flight were selected, and from this group Major Yuri Gagarin was chosen to make the pioneering voyage.

The Flight

The *Vostok* took off on April 12, 1961, at 9:07 A.M. Moscow time. During the entire blast-off stage Gagarin kept in constant touch with the flight center on the ground by radiotelephone. He felt during this stage of the flight and recorded the changes in load and the stages of separation of the rocket carrier with precision. The noise in the ship's cabin did not exceed the noise in the cockpit of a jet plane. Even at the blast-off stage the astronaut was able to watch the earth through the cabin's portholes.

During orbital flight the orientation and landing were done automatically. But had it been necessary, the astronaut—on his own or on command from earth—could have taken control of the ship, determined his location and made the landing in the designated area.

After the spaceship moved into orbit, a state of weightlessness set in. Gagarin found the condition strange at first but soon accustomed himself to it. He felt fine during the entire period of weightlessness and was in full command of his faculties.

He carried through the flight program in its entirety—checked the operation of the ship's equipment, maintained uninterrupted communication with the earth by radiotelephone and telegraph, made observations through the portholes and the optical orientation device, sent reports earthward, recorded observation data in his log-book and on magnetic tape and took food and water.

The earth's surface was clearly visible up to 300 kilometers (186 miles). Coastlines, large rivers, terrestrial relief, clouds and the shadows they cast could be observed plainly. When he flew over the territory of his own country, Gagarin saw the massive oblongs of collective farm fields.

The sky was pitch black. The stars looked brighter and clearer against the sky than they do from the earth. The earth had a very beautiful pale-blue halo. On the horizon the colors changed from a delicate light blue to ultramarine, dark blue, violet and finally to black. When emerging from the shadow, a vivid orange flash, which then passed through all the colors of the rainbow, could be observed at the horizon.

At 9:51 the ship's automatic orientation system was switched on. After the ship emerged from the shadow it was orientated to the sun.

At 9:52, when he was near Cape Horn, Gagarin reported that he was feeling fine and that the ship's equipment was functioning normally.

At 10:15, as the ship was approaching Africa, the pilot made another report on flight progress. That same moment the automatic program control device commanded the appropriate apparatus on the ship to prepare for the firing of the braking rocket.

At 10:25 the braking rocket was fired and the spaceship veered off the orbit of an earth satellite onto its descent trajectory.

At 10:35 the ship entered the dense layers of the atmosphere.

At 10:55 Moscow time, after carrying out the world's first manned space flight, the spaceship *Vostok* landed in the designated area.

The astronaut has been feeling fine since his return. No harmful effects have been noted.

This first space flight in history made it possible to draw the momentous scientific conclusion that manned space flight is feasible. It demonstrated that man could be launched into space, be thrust into orbit and return to earth without bodily harm. It showed that in a state of weightlessness man can retain full command of his faculties, that he can coordinate his movement and that he can think clearly.

The flight provided extremely valuable data on the operation in flight of the structural elements of the ship and the equipment it carried. It confirmed the complete reliability of the carrier-rocket and the spaceship. It ushered in a new era in human progress—the exploration of circumsolar space.



The world's first astronaut is flown to the Soviet capital on April 14, two days after his space flight, to receive the homage of the country.

The big plane carrying Major Yuri Gagarin, surrounded by a flying guard of honor, circles in the air over Moscow before descending.



At the Vnukovo Airport thousands of Muscovites are on hand to greet the astronaut as he steps out of the plane onto the red carpet.



MOSCOW WELCOMES THE HERO



Major Yuri Gagarin reports to the nation that he has accomplished the mission assigned him—an orbital flight around the earth in the spaceship Vostok.

Nikita S. Khrushchev, other high Soviet Government officials and representatives of the diplomatic corps at Vnukovo Airport to welcome Gagarin.



Leonid I. Brezhnev, President of the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet, presents the Order of Lenin and the Hero of the Soviet Union medal.

With his wife Valentina Gagarina, Chairman Khrushchev and Nina Khrushcheva at a reception in Gagarin's honor at the Grand Kremlin Palace.



Yuri Gagarin speaking at a jammed press conference on April 15, the day after the historic welcome, at the Scientists Club in Moscow.



Major Gagarin and his wife photographed with Government and Party leaders (upper row). Relatives of the astronaut (bottom row).

One of the largest crowds in the city's history gathered in Red Square, Moscow, to cheer the man who blazed the trail to outer space.



THE ROAD TO THE STARS

By Academician Norair Sisakyan

SOVIET BIOLOGISTS carried on space research as far back as 1949 with the earliest vertical rocket-powered flights of animals and their safe return to earth. The first flights reached an altitude of 60 miles, followed by others to altitudes of 125 and 275 miles. The eventual goal of the research program, safe manned flight, required the solution of a host of biological problems.

During a rocket's take-off, when its engines are in motion—the "active phase"—the passenger is subjected simultaneously to acceleration, vibration and noise. When the engines stop and the rocket moves along a ballistic trajectory—the "passive phase"—the organism is in a weightless state. During descent and re-entry into the dense layers of the atmosphere, when the retro-rockets are functioning, the passenger is subjected to considerable deceleration effects.

In vertical rocket flights to a height of up to 60 miles the condition of weightlessness lasts for about 3 minutes; at 125 miles, 5 or 6 minutes; and at 300 miles, about 10 minutes. In ballistic trajectories, zero gravity may obtain for as long as several dozen minutes, and in orbital flights for a practically unlimited period.

Some of the manifold problems of space flight were solved through rocket research. Biologists and engineers working together developed a unique sealed cabin in which the desired barometric pressure and normal atmosphere could be maintained regardless of external conditions. A layer of thermal insulation on the inside of the metal walls serves to protect the passenger from sudden temperature variations.

The effectiveness of recovery systems was tested in repeated launchings of ballistic rockets with animals aboard.

But their great research value notwithstanding, vertical launchings of high-altitude rockets, just like rocket flights along a ballistic trajectory, are not, strictly speaking, space flights, and leave many biological questions unanswered. Before a man could be permitted to venture into outer space, scientists had to carry through a very comprehensive research program on animals in actual orbital flights through space.

Cosmic Hazards

We know a good deal today about the hazards in space against which an astronaut must be safeguarded. One danger derives from physical factors—the extremely low barometric pressure; the absence of molecular oxygen; the danger of meteors; and the effects of cosmic, ultraviolet and corpuscular radiation. The last—radiation—is the most threatening.

The effects of the various radiations, particularly of cosmic radiation, on the human organism needed considerable study. For safe space flight it was necessary to investigate the doses

received and their immediate and hereditary effects on living creatures. For this reason the spaceships carried specimens of the higher and lower forms of life.

A second group of hazards that needed study included noise, vibration, initial acceleration at blast-off, and weightlessness in orbital flight.

Science has gathered considerable data on the effects of noise on the human organism. Spaceships were soundproofed to muffle noise. Note that the ship is noisy only during the first stage, from the beginning of acceleration to the moment the ship is in orbit. In orbital flight, after the rocket engines are switched off, the ship is absolutely silent. Thus, noise proved no serious obstacle to manned flight.

Neither did vibration effects. They are felt only during the launching stage when the ship is placed in orbit. To cushion vibration various types of shock absorbers have been proposed.

Finally, considerable experience has been accumulated with regard to the effects of acceleration. It has been established that stresses are best endured when the forces act (in relation to the longitudinal axis of the human body) in the direction: chest—back, or back—chest, and also from left to right and from right to left. It follows that an astronaut should be in a reclining position when a ship goes into orbit and on re-entry into the denser layers of the atmosphere.

Weightlessness

Once the spaceship goes into orbit, the astronaut finds himself in a state of weightlessness with its attendant physiological changes. He must be able to make the necessary adjustments so that he can carry out all tasks.

For manned flight it is vital to determine the effect exercised by the earth's gravitation on the cardiovascular system. Most investigators maintain that the human body can adapt itself to weightlessness. We can assume that there is some sort of compensatory adaptation for the complete loss of vestibular feeling and the partial loss of deep muscular joint sensitivity. An essential role is probably played by visual analysis which makes the needed corrections in behavior and movement and which "reports" on the position of the body in space and on the need for tensing the muscles to perform this or that operation.

All these assumptions, however, call for further scientific verification obtainable only through manned flight. With this Gagarin's cosmic trip we began to accumulate evidence.

The way in which the living organism is affected by the change from gravity to weightlessness, and vice versa, is of significant interest. It has already been established that the organism endures the transition from gravity to weightlessness better than the other way round.

Another important flight factor is the accommodation the astronaut makes to the physical limitations of his vehicle; the peculiar conditions of eating and drinking and of working and relaxing; the solitude; the various protective devices; the absence of the customary external stimulation he normally experienced on earth; emotional tension; limited movement; and so on.

The psychological effects of solitude and prolonged stay within the narrow confines of the cabin require much further study so that means can be worked out to reduce possible tensions.

Safe return to earth was, of course, the crucial factor on which manned flight depended. Soviet science and engineering have developed reliable systems to guarantee the astronaut normal functioning during flight and his safe return to earth within a predetermined area. Only after this was a manned flight to outer space permitted.

The Training Program

To choose people fit for space flight and to train them properly presented a series of novel problems. Obviously, a would-be astronaut had to be a man perfectly fit physically, one with a high level of intellectual development and technical knowledge, a man of strong will, able to evaluate a situation quickly and unerringly, to make instantaneous and well-motivated decisions and to act on them.

Special techniques were employed to test the functional potentials of the human organism and its adaptability to adverse environmental factors. Tests were made with centrifuges, vibration-test stands, heat chambers, depression chambers, and under conditions of sustained isolation and motor restraint in chambers that completely shut out external stimuli—sound, light, etc.

The selection procedure stressed psychological factors and these were further tested during the training process. The course of training included theoretical material dealing with the tasks to be accomplished in flight and the specific skills required by the space pilot to operate the ship's equipment and scientific instruments.

Every astronaut was given a good background in rocket flight dynamics, space physics and the effect of flight factors on human beings.

Physical fitness was continually tested in pre-flight training. Physical training was intensive, its aim being to increase the astronaut's ability to withstand acceleration and to perfect body control and coordination. He was given exercises that trained him to withstand physical stress without loss of efficiency and that built up his stamina and endurance.

The training of the Soviet astronaut followed a complex and carefully devised program. That it was eminently successful is evident from the epic flight of Yuri Gagarin.

YURI GAGARIN— WORLD'S FIRST COSMONAUT

YURI GAGARIN was born March 9, 1934, to the family of a collective farmer in Gzhatsk District, Smolensk Region of the Russian Federation, a locality noted for the high quality of its flax. The district center is the town of Gzhatsk, founded in the early eighteenth century, a busy rail and river shipping terminal some 110 miles west of Moscow. The Moscow-Minsk highway passes through it.

The astronaut's father, Alexei, is 59 and works as a collective farm carpenter. His mother, Anna, 58, is a housewife. He has two brothers, Boris and Valentin, and a sister Zoya. They all live in Gzhatsk.

There was nothing unusual in Yuri's biography up to the time he began training for his epic flight. His life repeats in many details that of thousands of young Soviet people like himself.

He entered school in 1941 at the customary age of seven. The Nazi invasion interrupted his education until 1943 when the Soviet Army liberated his native village. In the interim he saw things he is not likely to forget. He remembers the way a huge red-headed Nazi soldier lifted his younger brother Boris by the scruff of his neck like a puppy and hung him from the branch of an apple tree. He remembers the bitter cold night the fascists threw them out of the house, and his mother crying bitterly.

After the war the family moved to Gzhatsk where Yuri resumed his schooling. He was especially fond of mathematics and physics and was active in the school's mathematics club.

His brother Boris says of the world's first astronaut, "I think Yuri started dreaming of becoming a flier back at school. In our small town the boys learned about flying and fliers only from books. But Yuri would go hunting for drawings of planes so he could make models of them. Besides his interest in aviation, which he didn't talk about much, he went in for athletics. He was a keen soccer and basketball player and used to say that sooner or later he'd settle seriously on one of the two sports."

At Gzhatsk Yuri went through the sixth grade and then moved to Moscow to live with his cousin Antonina Ivanovskaya and her husband, a metallurgy engineer. He continued his education at a vocational school in Lyubertsy, a town near the capital. He did well in his studies and in sports and other extracurricular activities. He was very popular





The first man to orbit the earth, as a schoolboy.

In 1956 at the school for aviation in Orenburg.



With his wife Valentina and elder child Yelena.



At Lyubertsy trade school learning foundry work.



While a student at the Saratov Technicum.

and was voted class leader and editor of the wall newspaper.

At the Lyubertsy school he received both a general secondary and trade education and in 1951 graduated with honors and a qualification certificate as foundryman. He went on to an industrial technicum in Saratov, a city on the Volga, where for four years he studied foundry technology, graduating with honors in 1955.

While at the technicum, he joined the Saratov Flying Club—this was in 1954. Thereafter, that was where he spent the major portion of his free time, three evenings a week, until he mastered the theory and practice of flight. Yuri had only 13 hours in the air with an instructor before he made his first solo flight in June 1955.

Aviation, he decided, was his future, and that same year he entered the famous Orenburg Air Force School. Orenburg is the alma mater of 134 Heroes of the Soviet Union. Valeri Chkalov, who made the first USSR-USA nonstop flight in 1937, is a graduate.

Yuri was an outstanding student, a member of the school's amateur theater group, and a good gymnast and track man.

At Orenburg he studied the contributions to aviation theory of Tsiolkovsky, Zhukovsky, Chaplygin and other pioneering scientists, and followed the progress in artificial earth satellite launchings with absorbing interest. He was graduated in 1957 with a first-class flying certificate and the rank of lieutenant. Since then he has been serving as a pilot in the Soviet Air Force and is presently a major. At Orenburg he met his wife Valentina. She studied at the Orenburg Medical School.

Yuri's mother used to worry about his choosing flying as a career, and he would write wonderful letters home comforting her.

To Yelena the first astronaut is simply Daddy.

Whenever they met, his mother would ask: "Yuri, tell me what it's like." His face would grow serious and his voice firm: "Don't worry about me, Mom. Our craft won't let me down."

His Happiest Spring

Yuri Gagarin is stocky, slightly below average height, very calm and polite, with a good sense of humor. This modest and cheerful young man enjoys sports and higher mathematics, music and literature.

Everyone who knows Yuri respects him for his ready sympathy. He is a great lover of the ballet but has many other interests as well. He can often be found on the basketball court, and the boys yell with delight when they see with what agility he tosses the ball into the basket despite his height.

This is the Yuri his associates and neighbors know. And they all say that his outstanding characteristics are boundless love for his country and its people, mildness and simplicity—the best traits of a real Russian and Communist.

His wife Valentina, a year younger than her world-famous husband, is also a simple, pleasant woman. She is a laboratory assistant in a clinic and a good mother to their two daughters, Yelena and Galina.

This past spring was the happiest one in the life of the Gagarins. On March 9 Yuri had his twenty-seventh birthday. Two days before that Galina was born. Several days later Yelena turned two. The family had a joint celebration, and friends and relatives gathered around a festive table to congratulate them. And now, two months later, the whole world is congratulating the Gagarin family, the family of a Russian farmer's son who became the world's first astronaut.





In October 1961 the Twenty-second Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union will convene in Moscow to review developments of the past few years, consider the present trend of events, and discuss major problems of theory and practice in building communism. The congress, the most authoritative body of the Party, will adopt a new program and introduce changes in the Party Rules.



Party congresses are epochal events in the country's life. Each one marks a new stage in the advance toward communism and for that reason commands the attention of people in the Soviet Union and of those elsewhere in the world.

This article is the first of a series of four on the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. The second will describe the Party's organizational principles, structure and activities. The third will show the significance of Party congresses as historic landmarks in the development of the Soviet state. The fourth and concluding article will deal with the programs adopted by congresses previous to this one.

Vasili Moskovsky, the author of the series, is a statesman and journalist. He participated in the work of many earlier Party congresses. At the Nineteenth Congress he was elected to serve on the Central Auditing Commission of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. He is presently Deputy Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Russian Federative Republic.

THE COMMUNIST PARTY—

THE FACT is generally accepted that society has never taken any major step forward unless impelled in that direction by the revolutionary activity of the masses of people—the real makers of history. The success the people have in bettering their lot, however, in transforming society, always and everywhere depends in large measure on the character of the parties that guide and lead their revolutionary activity.

History teaches us that the people, acting as a progressive historical force, exert a decisive influence on the course of society's development. But people's movements have not always won the day. History records many instances when they suffered defeat. This happened whenever the people had no experienced leadership capable of organizing the movement and making it conscious of its direction and goal. Time and again the spontaneous and undirected revolts of the ancient slaves and the peasant uprisings in the Middle Ages were put down. For centuries Europe was shaken by peasant wars, but it was the bourgeoisie and not the peasantry that gained from these wars. Our era abounds in examples of this.

Only in Russia, in 1917, was the revolutionary struggle of the people completely victorious for the first time in history. Under the leadership of the Communist Party, which bases its activities on the objective laws of social development discovered by Marx and further developed by Lenin, the workers and peasants of Russia became the real master of their country.

Following the Revolution, the question of prime importance was how best to consolidate the revolutionary gains, how to build the new society. Lenin emphasized that it could not be done without a party tempered in

struggle, a party that mirrored the feelings of the people, a party that could lead because it had the confidence of the people. The Bolshevik Party, now the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, was that working-class party. It had been steeled in battle from the day it was founded in 1903 by Lenin.

The People Make History

When it became the ruling party after the Socialist Revolution of 1917, the Communist Party concentrated all its energies on the peaceful reconstruction of the country ruined by years of war. That was the great need of the moment. But the exploiting classes the Revolution had thrown out, encouraged and supported by foreign reactionary forces, took up arms, and the young Soviet Republic found itself fighting for its life, ringed by interventionist armies.

The Party mobilized the people for a patriotic war of liberation. It was clearly aware of the great danger hovering over the young Soviet Republic but it was also aware that it had on its side a force so powerful that neither the domestic counterrevolution nor its foreign supporters could beat it back—the people, rulers of their own country and their own destiny. The people, led by their Communist Party, were now to make the country's history.

In those grim years of foreign intervention and civil war the young republic was cut off from the major food, raw material and fuel producing regions. The food shortage was acute, almost to the point of famine; Moscow and Petrograd workers were living on a bread ration

strength from its contact with the people, could tell them the truth about the danger facing the country and urge the working people to muster all their strength for victory over the interventionists, over hunger and economic chaos, and, if necessary, to give their very lives for victory over the enemy.

The people and the Party were one in that critical hour of the young Soviet Republic's life, as they have been ever since. Like Antaeus in the ancient Greek myth, whose strength was renewed every time he touched mother earth, the Communists keep constant contact with the masses who brought them into the world and nurtured them. Therein lies the source of the strength and invincibility of the Communist Party.

After victory in the Civil War, the Party called on the people for a great creative effort to build the new society. There was no pattern to follow, no one to learn from and practically nothing to build on. This was a peasant economy, backward, encircled by enemies, ruined by the First World War and foreign intervention. The country had no heavy industry to furnish the necessary base for industrialization and it was denied credits with which to buy equipment from other countries. Its corps of skilled specialists was pitifully inadequate.

The Soviet Republic's ill-wishers—and they were many and powerful—mocked at the ambitious plans for industrializing the country. Nor did they stop at mockery. They did everything possible to hinder peaceful progress by the disruption of normal international relations and by a continuous series of aggressive attacks that forced the young republic to spend much of its energy on military defense. For years they kept up a bitter, even if hopeless, secret war—by economic blockade, by smug-

leader of the people

By Vasili Moskovsky

of less than an eighth of a pound every other day. Factories and mills were idle for lack of raw materials and fuel, and the Red Army had to fight with inadequate arms.

That these incredible handicaps were surmounted is a tribute to the latent strength and will of the working class and the great authority of the Party—the leader of the broad masses of the working people. There are countless incidents in the history of the Civil War to prove the point. During the most critical periods, when the very existence of the Soviet Republic was at stake, Communists and non-Party people joined the fighting forces in the hundreds of thousands.

It was not unusual to find the sign, "Closed. All gone to the front," stuck on the door of Party and young Communist League committee offices. About half the membership of the Party and YCL were fighting—against the counterrevolutionary General Yudenich hammering at the gates of Petrograd (now Leningrad); against Denikin's White Guard army advancing on Moscow; in Siberia and the Far East where some 100,000 partisans were battling behind enemy lines in 1919; in the Ukraine and the Caucasus.

What induced these heroes—a hungry and poorly armed people already reduced to the very limits of physical endurance by the First World War—to take up arms again and fight under the young Red Army's banners? They were defending a new life and a new social order, one without landlords and capitalists, and had unlimited faith in the Party, which was leading them to victory. The Party did not conceal from the people the difficulties awaiting them, and the great power of its truthful appeal mobilized the masses. The Communist Party, which draws its

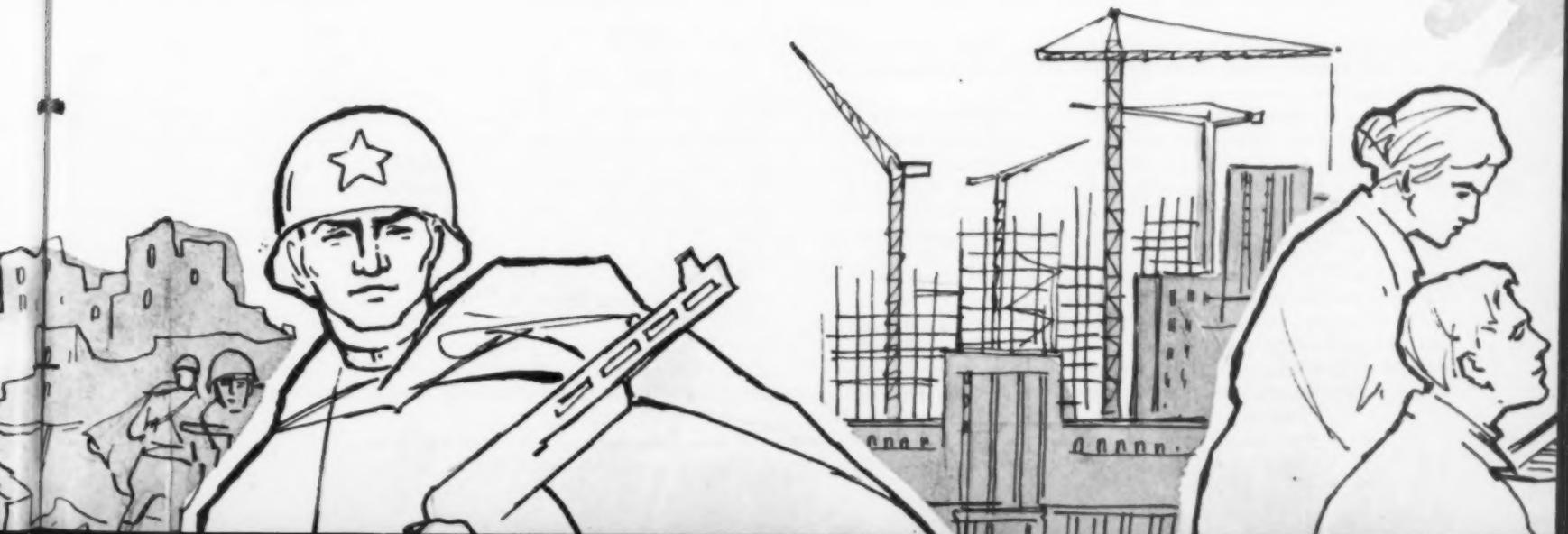
gling agents into the country and by recruiting saboteurs among hostile elements inside the country.

The Party proved equal to its task because it maintained constant contact with the people and was undeviatingly faithful to Lenin's behests, because it relied for guidance on creative Marxism, on the revolutionary theory which enables it to find its bearings in any situation and to anticipate the future course of events. Relying on its knowledge of the objective laws of social development, the Party has invariably projected and accomplished tasks dictated by the requirements for the development of society and by the vital interests of the masses. The will of the Party has been the concentrated expression of the general will of the working people.

The Collective Experience of Millions

The scientific program Lenin elaborated for building socialism called for industrialization, for the involvement of the peasantry in socialist construction with the help of cooperatives, and for a cultural revolution. It premised an alliance of the workers and peasants in the common task. The plan had the wholehearted support of the Party and the people, and was put into practice by the people under the Party's leadership.

Millions of Soviet people labored selflessly on the great construction jobs of the five-year plans. They denied themselves not only comforts and pleasures but even the simple necessities, conscious that this was the only way to convert backward agrarian Russia into a first-rate industrial state.



The Party picked up every suggestion that came from the workers and collective farmers that would speed the transformation—and there were millions of such valuable suggestions. Socialist competition movements were initiated by workers and swept the country. The slogan heard everywhere was "Let's fulfill the five-year plan in four years!" And, as is known, the plan was fulfilled in less than four years.

The successful completion of the five-year plans changed the face of the country. By the time the Second World War broke out the Soviet Union was a strong power with a modern industry and collectivized agriculture, with a high level of culture and technology, a country where concern for the people's welfare was the pivot of all the activities of the Party and the Government. The victory of socialism in the USSR furnished the basis for the development and consolidation of such powerful driving forces of our society as the moral and political unity of the Soviet peoples, their friendship and patriotism. Thanks to these forces the Soviet Union was able to survive the severe trials of the Second World War, to recover rapidly from the ravages of war and to further the construction of communism.

The victory of socialism in the USSR is living proof of the fact that a free people is the decisive factor in social progress, capable of building, within a comparatively short span of time, a superior way of life—socialism. The economic plans, successfully fulfilled, disproved the myths spread abroad that workers and farmers are incapable of governing themselves, of managing the national economy, of building a life along new, more rational lines.

It was the Party's policy, the people's own policy, that guaranteed the successful solution of the multitude of complex problems that had to be solved and the consistent advance of our country. That this is a viable, a dynamic policy that adjusts itself to the needs of the time was proved time and time again in critical situations that demanded great flexibility, foresight and boldness.

The Party's theory is not a dogma, but a guide to action, as emphasized by the founders of scientific communism. It presumes a creative policy that does not worship the letter, a policy based not on schemes and formulas but on concrete realities, on the specific features of a particular historic stage of social development.

The theory develops out of the collective experience of the people, and the practice is designed to meet their needs and requirements. The lessons taught by the history of our state have proved that every task projected by the Party, regardless of its magnitude, has proved to be realistic because it was based on a knowledge of the people's potential and a careful evaluation of the specific conditions of the given situation. Speaking of the complex problems involved in building socialism, Lenin noted that the collective experience of millions would provide the solutions. "We count," he said, "on combined experience, on the experience of millions of working people."

The People Solve National Problems

The Communist Party and the Soviet Government are ever mindful of Lenin's advice. For the solution of important state problems they invariably turn to the collective experience and wisdom of the people. For example, the draft for the sixth five-year plan was discussed in 1956, not only at national and republic Party conferences and congresses but at thousands of local meetings attended by people from every walk of life.

More recently the leaders of the Party and the Government consulted the people on ways and means of increasing the output of consumer goods to meet demand more adequately. National conferences of workers in light industry and of those in retail trade were convened for the purpose.

The advice of building workers, architects and craftsmen in related trades is constantly being sought to expedite housing construction, to build faster, better and cheaper.

A few years ago a measure was proposed to reorganize the management of industry and construction. This was a very important change being proposed. Let us trace the process through which the proposal was drafted into law. To begin with, the Plenary Meeting of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, in February 1957, mapped out the basic lines of the proposal which were later formulated in the theses of Nikita S. Khrushchev's report to the USSR Supreme Soviet. The Central Committee and the Council of Ministers submitted the theses to the country for discussion.

The theses were discussed at more than 514,000 meetings in factories and on construction jobs, on collective and state farms, in offices, schools and scientific institutions. Present at these meetings were about 41 million people, and more than 2.3 million of them made suggestions,

recommending the best and most effective ways of organizing the management of the national economy. More than 68,000 workers, factory executives, farmers, scientists, trade unionists, Party and Government leaders took part in the discussion that went on in the local and national press. The law, as finally adopted, represented the collective judgment of literally millions of people.

The more recent series of conferences throughout the country on methods of boosting farm output offers still another instance of mass participation of the people in solving national problems. At these regional conferences chairman of collective farms, brigade leaders, agronomists, zootechnicians, scientists—Communist and non-Party people—combined their valuable experience to search out bottlenecks and to plan an effective farm development program.

The Party must be in the vanguard, Lenin taught, it must be where the people are if it is to lead them properly. Following in this Leninist tradition, members of the Presidium of the Central Committee and secretaries of the Central Committee travel to various parts of the country to give practical help to the local workers in solving pressing problems and to acquaint themselves with local needs and practices. Regional farm conferences of the kind indicated above have been held since 1955.

Following the plenary meeting of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union in January of this year on the farm problem, a series of zonal conferences were held in the Urals, Siberia, Kazakhstan and Transcaucasia attended by Nikita Khrushchev, Dmitri Polyansky and other Party leaders. Before each of these conferences Khrushchev attended, he made a close study of the collective and state farms in the vicinity so as to be in a position to make specific and practical recommendations.

The leaders of the Communist Party keep in close touch with the public. They make firsthand studies of various localities, of various branches of the economy, of the work of Party organizations and government agencies, to see what can be done to serve the public more efficiently, to determine how production may be increased and living standards raised.

Educate, Persuade, Organize

The more radical the desired change, said Lenin, the more must be done to make people consciously interested in it, to convince additional millions of people of the need for the change. All of Lenin's life and work was spent in this great task of enlightening the people, making them class conscious, developing their initiative. The Party is dedicated to this same task. All its efforts are bent in that direction. As the vanguard of the working class and the people's leader, the Party grows stronger as the people grow more conscious and become more active builders of socialism. All that has been accomplished in our country in the 43 years of Soviet power is a product of the intellect, talent and labor of the masses raised by the Communist Party to the heights of conscious historic activity. Whatever form the work of the Party takes, varying with the specific situation, its essence is always the same—to educate, persuade and organize the people. Reliance on the people, who create the material and intellectual values, and mobilization of the people for the practical implementation of the policy of the Communist Party and the Soviet Government—that is the clue to our victories on the road to communism.

The Party is connected with the working people by numberless ties, visible and invisible. Its salutary influence is felt in factories and research institutes, on collective farms and construction projects, in theaters and on board ships thousands of miles from their native shores, at polar research stations and in army units. Wherever Soviet people live or work, in big cities and small settlements, one feels the heartbeat of the Party, the expression of its will, its collective reasoning.

The Communist Party of the Soviet Union has about 9.5 million members. They are Communists by reason of their love of people, by reason of their desire to devote their strength, energy and talents to the struggle for the people's happiness, by reason of their deep and abiding faith in the virtue and the justice of the Party's aims. They were led into the ranks of the Party by their desire to work with people whose views and ideas they share, to draw powerful moral support in the family of their comrades-in-arms, to work together for one great aim—communism.

Maintaining close contact with the people and working side by side with them, as Lenin taught, our Party is at the same time leading the masses, marching in the vanguard of their struggle for communism. And the Soviet people are giving their unqualified support to the policy of the Party which is helping them to achieve this great aim, the ideal which has been the dream of millions, the goal of their struggles.

SOVIET DIARY

LENIN PRIZE WINNERS

THE LENIN PRIZE, the Soviet Union's highest award for achievement in science and technology, literature and the arts, is presented annually on April 22, the birthday of the founder of the Soviet state.

This year more than 200 nominations for the coveted awards were made by research institutes, industrial plants, unions of workers in the creative arts, dramatic companies and newspaper and magazine editorial boards.

The nominees and their works were discussed in the press, at scientific and literary conferences and by the Lenin Prize Committee of the USSR Council of Ministers.

Seven prizes were awarded in science, nine in technology and ten in literature, journalism and the arts.

Abram Ioffe, the "grand old man" of Soviet physics, was awarded the Lenin Prize posthumously for his research leadership in the field of semiconductors.

Mikhail Postnikov, also internationally ac-

knowledged, received the prize for his contributions to mathematical theory.

For his basic study of the formation of mineral deposits—iron, manganese, hard coal, salts, oil and gas—Academician Nikolai Strakhov received an award. Prizes were presented to geologists and engineers of Krasnodar Territory of the Russian Federation and Azerbaijan: to the geologists for their discovery and survey of the world's largest gas fields and to the engineers for the development of offshore oil fields.

A large group of engineers in the Tula Economic Area won Lenin Prizes for designing composite mine mechanization systems, and a number of Kazakh geologists and engineers for working out a new method of extracting composite ores.

In medicine awards were made to a group of physicians for new surgical methods they had devised to treat tuberculosis, cancer and other diseases.

Vyacheslav Volgin's treatise *The Development of Social Thought in France in the 18th Century* won him the Lenin Prize.

There were four awards in literature—to Alexander Tvardovsky for his poem *Space Beyond Space*; to Alexander Prokofiev for his book of verse; to the Ukrainian writer Mikhail Stelmakh for three novels; and to the Estonian journalist Johannes Smuul for his *Ice Chronicle*, written after he returned from an expedition with scientists in Antarctica.

In the performing arts prizes were awarded to conductor Yevgeni Mravinsky, actress Vera Pashennaya and pianist Svyatoslav Rikhter.

In the graphic arts awards went to Martiros Saryan, the oldest Armenian artist, and to Boris Prorokov for his series of drawings *This Must Not Happen Again*.

For their work on the film *Ballad of a Soldier*, now being shown in American theaters, the director Grigori Chukhrai and the writer Valentin Yezhov were honored with prizes.

JOBS WAITING

THE academic year of Soviet higher schools is drawing to a close. Students are taking their final state examinations and presenting their diploma theses. Soon they will receive their diplomas and, at the same time, appointments for work.

Young engineers, doctors, teachers, economists, agronomists and other specialists may themselves choose the conditions and place of their future work before graduation.

The *Ekonomicheskaya Gazeta* and other periodicals run regular want-ad columns. A cellulose paper mill in Laskela (Karelia) wants technicians, builders and electricians. The Volzhsk power-equipment assembly trust advertises for engineers in a number of specialties to assemble power stations in the lower and middle Volga areas. The Dneprovsky Engineering Works in Zaporozhye wants designers and production engineers. The Azov shipyards needs shipbuilders and mechanics.

The country keeps growing in all directions, and workers in every craft and profession are in demand. At the beginning of this current year there were 62 million factory and office workers employed, and the national economic development plan forecasts that by the close of the year another 3.2 million will have been added.

More than 100,000 certified engineers and 500,000 workers with a specialized secondary education are trained in the Soviet Union every year. The emphasis, however, is by no means exclusively on technology. Among the 342,000 young people graduated in 1960 from schools of higher education, almost 200,000 were doctors, economists, lawyers, teachers, workers in the arts and the entertainment field, philosophers, linguists and people in various other non-technological areas. So we see there is obviously no neglect of the humanities in Soviet education.

This crop of graduates is the first since the Soviet educational system reorganized the curriculum to link the school more closely to the country's specific economic and cultural needs. Higher standards were set for theoretical study, and such newly developed fields as computer analysis, program control and automation were incorporated into the syllabuses.

The Soviet state has created all conditions for the young people to study successfully. They do not pay for schooling or the use of libraries, laboratories and study aids. Most students receive a state stipend.

Upon completion of the course of study, the young men and women are not confronted with the problem of finding jobs where they can apply their knowledge and abilities. They do not have to wear their shoes thin in search of work, because in the Soviet Union the job looks for the man.

SEASONAL FOOD PRICE CUTS

ABOUT this time every year the Soviet housewife corrects her budget. This is when the seasonal prices—for spring and summer—come into force. On April 1 retail prices are cut on milk, sour cream, soft cheese and other dairy products, like sour milk and kefir. Then, on May 1, egg prices drop, and in June and July vegetables and fruits are cheaper. Seasonal prices hold until October 1.

For the consumer this means a real saving: for instance, a 20 to 25 per cent cut in dairy products, a 25 per cent cut in eggs prices and a 50 per cent or more cut in the cost of fruit and vegetables. This price cut, however, does not mean a loss to the foodstuff producers—

the collective farms and state farms—as the state procurement prices remain at a level profitable for them.

Food consumption keeps rising in the Soviet Union. There are two reasons for this: first, the steady increase in the wages of city workers and in the income of collective farmers; second, the regular price cuts in consumer goods. The seasonal price reductions add that much more to the citizen's purchasing power.

Note this consumer pattern—it repeats itself for other foodstuffs—for the five years from 1954 to 1959, per capita consumption of milk and dairy products rose by 40 per

cent, from 374 to 623 pounds annually.

Both the regular and seasonal retail prices are fixed by central and local government bodies for all state stores. Collective farms and individual collective farmers who bring their surplus produce to city and suburban markets do not have to sell at the fixed government prices; the market sets the price. However, since people buy most of their food at state-owned stores, the government-established prices will naturally tend to keep collective farm market prices low.

Thus, in spring, summer and early fall Soviet city dwellers have a larger and more varied choice of foodstuffs at lower prices.

By Yuri Filonovich
Photos by Igor Vinogradov



2



ELECTIONS TO LOCAL SOVIETS

MOSCOW TEACHER Boris Vozdvizhensky, Leningrad fitter Vasili Smirnov, Tajik cotton picker Mairam Elmuradova and two million other representatives of the people—factory workers and collective farmers, writers, scientists and artists, engineers, teachers and doctors—recently assumed new duties as deputies to the local Soviets.

These Soviets are the governing bodies of every city district, town and village in the country. They have their own budgets. Their members, elected for two-year terms, oversee local industry, farming and commerce; public education; medical services; housing construction and the maintenance of law and order. The last countrywide elections for the local Soviets were held in March of this year.

Soviet citizens have the right to vote at the age of 18. Only the insane and those deprived of their franchise by a court sentence are not allowed to vote. There are no other limitations—class, property status, race, nationality, education, or anything else. Any citizen who has reached the age of 18 can be elected to a local Soviet. For election to the Supreme Soviet of a republic, a citizen must be at least 21; and to the USSR Supreme Soviet, 23 years of age.

All voters have the same rights. Servicemen cast their ballots in the same way as other citizens. Persons traveling on election day can vote on board ship, train or plane. Sick voters are visited at home or in the hospital by some member of the local election commission with a sealed ballot box and ballot.

Practically the entire electorate, up to 99.9 per cent, customarily



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1 Teacher Boris Vozdvizhensky was elected deputy to the Moscow Soviet from his district.

2 He was nominated by the teachers in his school. Colleague Lidia Kuzmina speaks in his behalf.

3 At election meetings he heard what voters like factory worker Zoya Fyodorova expected of him.

4 She said the district needed more nurseries. Engineer A. Nikolayev added kindergartens.

5 The candidate tells the voters about himself. He is 49, fought in the war, has two children.

6 Posters with their candidate's biography are widely distributed by volunteer canvassers.



At the polls. Balloting is secret. Practically everyone—99.9 per cent of the voters—turn out.



The ballots are counted in public. Teacher Vozdvizhensky is elected by a large majority.



The new deputy at the first session of the Moscow City Soviet after the election last March.

turns out to vote. No interference with citizens' voting rights, no pressure designed to exclude them from voting places, nothing that will interfere in the slightest degree with the exercise of their civic rights, is permitted.

All election preliminaries are carried through by commissions elected at meetings of industrial workers, office employees, collective farmers, college students and servicemen. Thus, the organization and control of the elections rest with the working people. During the last elections, for instance, some eight million citizens participated in the work of the election commissions.

Voting in the Soviet Union is direct. Deputies to all Soviets, right up to the USSR Supreme Soviet, are elected directly, not by stages or through an electoral college, as in many countries.

Why Only One Candidate?

Under the Soviet election law candidates may be nominated by Party organizations, trade unions, cooperatives, youth organizations, cultural societies and general meetings of workers at their factory or office, farmers in their village, or servicemen in their units. This system permits citizens to nominate candidates they know and trust.

Foreign visitors ask why we have only one candidate in each constituency. Isn't this contrary to democratic principles?

Our answer is an unqualified "no." Those asking such questions do not seem to understand the fundamental difference of principle distinguishing the Soviet social system.

In countries where several names are listed on the ballot for a single office, it means that the office is being fought for by several parties, each with its own candidate. The election contest is a reflection of a political struggle for control by different classes or social groups. This same thing was true of prerevolutionary Russia.

After the October Socialist Revolution, the Communist Party became the ruling party because it was the only political party of the people. There are no antagonistic classes in the Soviet Union. The workers, farmers and intelligentsia have common interests and a common goal—to make the country richer, to accelerate the development of industry, farming, science and culture, so that the society can reach communism, the highest form of social organization we know today, in the shortest possible time. All Soviet people work side by side for this common aim. They own the fruits of their labor. Hence, there is no social or economic necessity for the existence of other parties.

Since there are no antagonistic classes or parties there is no reason for several candidates to run for one office. For the Communist Party of the Soviet Union does not conduct the elections alone but jointly with the trade unions, the youth and all other organizations and societies of the working people, in close unity with non-Party people.

The Soviet election law does not rule out the nomination and registration of several candidates in one constituency. But it has become the

practice for the Party and other citizens' organizations, after nominating candidates and discussing their merits at election meetings, to agree on a single candidate for each election district.

The electors are able to challenge the candidate and replace him with another during the pre-election discussion of candidates. This is what happened at a pre-election meeting at the Stalingrad Wire and Cable Factory where the workers rejected the candidacy of the factory manager and nominated an engineer instead. Why was the original candidate rejected? Because he had neglected to act on various suggestions and proposals workers had made.

Another example. The newspaper *Izvestia*, on the eve of the elections, received a letter from the city of Armavir. The writer presented convincing evidence, of which the city's electorate was unaware, that one of the candidates nominated for public office was unworthy of the honor because of his questionable honesty and his lack of courtesy. The paper published the letter which soon found a response in Armavir. The charges were checked and found to be true. As a result the organization that nominated the candidate was shamed before the entire country. His candidacy, of course, was immediately withdrawn.

These and other such instances that occur from time to time show that the election procedure in the Soviet Union gives citizens every opportunity to choose and elect candidates who will most worthily represent their interests and do their bidding.

The registration of candidates is a simple procedure. All he—or she, of course—is required to do is to consent in writing to stand for election. Property qualifications or length of residence in the given district have no bearing.

To acquaint the voters with the candidate and his qualifications this procedure is followed: At meetings of citizens people are elected who are authorized to canvas for the candidate. Each such person usually has dozens of volunteers to assist him. They distribute campaign literature and arrange meetings at which the voters direct questions to the candidate and specify what they expect him to do if he is elected.

A candidate is considered elected only if he has polled more than half the vote and only if at least half the electorate of his constituency cast ballots.

The law details the procedure for counting the ballots. It is done publicly, in the presence of the election commission members and representatives of public organizations and the press, to make certain there is no juggling of returns. A Soviet official or member of an election commission found guilty of falsifying returns is liable for a prison term of up to three years. Instances of this kind are exceptionally rare.

Citizens do not complete their democratic function as electors once they vote their candidate into office. Thereafter they check on his performance. Deputies are required to report to their constituents at regular intervals. Should a deputy fail to justify the trust of the citizens or neglect his duties, his constituents have the right to recall him and, at a special election, choose another deputy to replace him.

THE INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIETY UNDER SOCIALISM

By Vasili Tugarinov

IN ALL HUMAN HISTORY the individual and society have been closely interdependent. No man has ever been able to isolate himself completely from society, to withdraw successfully into an ivory tower. His life and work have purpose and meaning only when they relate to other people's needs. Nor can his own needs be met without the cooperation of other people, that is, outside of society.

Soviet sociology holds that man is a product of social relations. Society molds the individual and, conversely, the individual influences society, since he is one of its essential and active elements. At the same time, however, the degree to which man's individual potentialities and talents are developed and utilized depends upon the nature of the social system and its economic level.

This problem of the relationship between the individual and society is often reduced to a matter of the individual's freedom to do what he wants, without regard for the rights of others. As for his duties to society and society's obligations to him—this, for some reason, is considered by some people to be quite a separate question.

Let us take this instance. A man loses his job. The society he lives in cannot guarantee employment. He protests that he is denied a chance to earn a living. Those who hold to this one-sided and limited definition of individual freedom are quite satisfied with the fact that a man without a job has the right to protest. As for the fact that the society he lives in does not guarantee this man the right to work, that does not concern the advocates of abstract "freedom of the individual."

But, one asks, what good does it do a jobless worker to be free to get up in the city square and yell anything he wants to if after his unemployment benefits expire there is a good chance he may starve to death, society considering that none of its business?

Therefore Soviet sociologists insist that the problem of the relationship between the individual and society cannot be disposed of with formal legal decrees which regulate this relationship. It is most intimately concerned with the nature of the society and whether the society can create the necessary conditions to guarantee that its members will be able to exercise their rights and freedoms.

Class Conflict

The existence of classes with diametrically opposed interests sets man against man. Economic and political antagonisms are the source of antagonism among people. The nature of the relationship between society and the individual is primarily determined by the social and economic system of the society. One kind of relationship will obtain in a society based on private property and divided into antagonistic classes. Quite another relationship will develop in a society which is not divided into hostile classes and where socialist relations prevail.

Understandably, in a society where there are no antagonistic classes, there are no basic conflicts of interest between the individual and society, nor can there be. There we have a harmony of interests and virtually limitless possibilities for developing the individual personality. These possibilities are inherent in a socialist society composed of two friendly classes—workers and farmers—with one common aim.

The development of the individual under socialism is determined, in the first instance, by socialist production relations. The basis of these relations—public ownership of the means of production—makes it

possible to direct and control economic growth and to plan production and consumption so as to meet the real needs of all the people and to eliminate unemployment forever.

A socialist society not only proclaims the right of every citizen to a job but guarantees the exercise of that right on the basis of an economy planned in the interest of society as a whole. The ever threatening unemployment that plagues working people in so many countries today, the constant worry about a livelihood, about tomorrow, is all ancient history for Soviet workers.

New Incentives

The Marxist world-view, which has been espoused by the Soviet people, is that fundamental economic changes make for a fundamental reorganization of the life of society along entirely new lines, as shown by the USSR. Society concentrates its main attention on man, on the ordinary working man. This, in turn, gives man a new concept of himself, of his place in the life of society. It gives him a sense of dignity, a sense of responsibility for the destiny of all the people.

Precisely this growing mass initiative, self-expression, creative activity of tens and hundreds of millions of people, is the first and basic evidence of real freedom of the individual under socialism, evidence of an unexampled level of social consciousness reached by a whole people.

The socialist system gives men incentives other than profits, personal power and self-seeking ambition. The Soviet way of life opens man's eyes to the fact that the purpose of life lies in work for the common good and not for himself alone. The principle "All for one and one for all" becomes his standard of conduct and way of life.

The collectivism, mutual help and cooperation of a socialist society serve to develop the finest human attributes. Socialist collectivism makes society immeasurably stronger. Common work for a common goal, wide exchanges of experience and knowledge, mutual assistance and support—all this creates an atmosphere which inspires everyone to work for the general good.

Soviet daily life abounds in illustrations to prove this point. Hundreds of enterprises with millions of workers have joined the countrywide movement to earn the honored titles Communist Shock Worker and Communist Work Team. More than 1.4 million Soviet workers are inventors and innovators. In the past ten years some 10 million inventions and rationalizing innovations have been put to work. This growing number of creative citizens concerned with increasing the country's productivity testifies to the progress of the individual under socialism.

It is a living denial of the charge frequently made abroad that in a socialist society the development of the productive forces is achieved at the expense of the producers—the working people. Actually, the fact that the development of the productive forces is directly connected with higher living standards for everyone—industrial workers, farmers, office workers—is the real explanation for the enthusiasm with which millions of workers do their jobs.

One rank-and-file innovator at a mill in Vyshni-Volochek put it this way, speaking of himself and his fellow workers, "This constant feeling of concern and responsibility for the affairs of the country as a whole is beginning to be a sort of sixth sense." The feeling expresses itself in all kinds of ways, not only in purely economic matters. In a Lenin-

grad railroad car plant there is a bookshop run by a staff of 15 bench workers, clerks and engineers who have voluntarily taken on the job of bringing books close to the workers, to help their comrades find the books they want and need.

Let's take another illustration—the assistance to local authorities in running the municipal government volunteered by workers and other citizens. In so small a city as Vyborg there are 230 volunteer public bodies—house committees, parents' organizations, pensioners' councils, medical aid groups, etc. The city executive committee has the help of 6,500 volunteers. Vyborg is indebted to these public-spirited citizens for 46 athletic fields, 55 children's playgrounds and several parks and garden areas. This kind of social activity may not seem very important, but it reflects a characteristic feature of socialism—the general welfare is everybody's business.

The "Hero" and the "Crowd"

This growth in socialist collectivism does not diminish the individual. On the contrary, it enriches his personality. There is a flowering of personal creativity in socialist society—evident in every area of life—in educational and cultural progress, in the active participation of the citizenry in the management of the country's affairs, in the enormous popular interest in science and the arts. The dividing line between the "hero" and the "mass," between the brilliant individual and the "gray crowd," is disappearing. The "crowd" is also disappearing in process; it is changing into one great team of conscientious and creative workers.

The basic achievement of socialism is the creation and education of a generation of people cast from a new mold. A simple farm woman, Yekaterina Andreyeva, who became head of one of the largest collective farms in the central part of Russia, said at a conference, "Now people seem to have gained a wonderful power—a wonderful faith in themselves and in their own abilities. Every man and woman on our collective farm is an expert in his field. Last year we opened an evening People's University of Culture on our farm. Now our community center has become too small to hold everybody who wants to attend classes and lectures. People listen with great interest to lectures on literature, music, mechanization and sputniks. They seem to be growing into new individuals."

"Every man forges his own happiness"—this catch phrase has acquired real meaning under socialism. In the final analysis, the country's economic and cultural progress, and with it, better living conditions, depend upon the skill, efficiency and initiative of every Soviet man and woman.

A while ago one of our youth newspapers asked its readers to send in their answers to these questions: "What is your goal in life? Do you believe you will achieve that goal?"

The most remarkable thing about the great majority of answers was their confidence and assurance. Here are a few typical replies.

Yuri Latyshev, a worker from Almetyevsk in the Tatar Autonomous Republic, wrote: "I have two aims at present. The first is to complete my education, to graduate from an institute. The second is to bring up my son and make him a real man. I have always achieved the goals I set for myself."

Serafima Rylova, a college student from Penza, says: "I should like to become a real teacher, a real educator of my young friends. To teach them and to learn from them. I am certain I shall achieve my goal."

Sharif Muterperl, an accountant from Alma Ata, writes: "I want to be of the greatest possible use to the people of my country. I believe that in my present job I can get a great deal done that will be of value to my people and our society, so that I can say I have achieved my immediate goal. I am not referring here to the common goal of our people which is the construction of communist society. The fulfillment

by each of us of his purpose in life will undoubtedly help us to achieve this great common goal."

What is interesting about these letters and most of the other replies is that the writers felt that there was nothing that stood in the way of their realizing their personal goals and that they saw their individual goal as part of the common goal. There was no question in their minds that the larger their personal contribution to the common good, the sooner their needs and everybody else's would be met by society. The individual develops as society progresses; and as society prospers, the opportunities for satisfying the needs and wishes of the people become greater.

Individual Freedom—What is It?

Now we come to the question of the freedom of the individual. Freedom, in the real sense of the word, is man's recognition that he must understand the laws that govern society and nature. To the extent that he understands and utilizes these laws, he is able to develop his own potentialities without coming into conflict with other people and with society in general, harmoniously uniting his personal interests with the interests of society.

Freedom is a consciously felt necessity, say the dialectic philosophers. There is profound meaning in these words. Where man has come to know the laws that govern society's development, has placed them in the service of society and has opened by their rational use unlimited possibilities for unhindered access to the vast wealth and culture accumulated by mankind, there is real freedom.

No society can develop without clearly defined standards of conduct binding on everyone. The special character of socialism is that the standards of conduct for the individual, the standards of relations between people, between the individual and society, conform to the interests of society as a whole.

But socialism does not by any means imply petty guardianship, regimentation of conduct of the individual. Respect for the dignity of the individual is fundamental in socialist society, a society built upon respect for man, for his initiative, his imagination, his inexhaustible creativity.

Socialist democracy is in constant process of growth and expansion as participation in government is broadened by the transfer of various governmental functions to public organizations. The gradual development from socialist statehood to communist self-government is evidence of the development of real socialist democracy and requires that every member of society assume a larger and more active measure of social responsibility. An active assault upon life rather than withdrawal into a narrow world of personal emotions and petty interests—this is what lends man real dignity, this is what makes him a free participant in the common goal of building communism.

Under socialism and communism the individual develops on the basis of the unity, the harmonious relationship, of personal and social interests. The economic, political and intellectual development of society as a whole becomes the main and most essential condition for the welfare, freedom and intellectual development of every individual.

The individual in a socialist society is not an egoist concerned only with his own welfare, nor is he the complete altruist who lives only for others and not for himself. He is neither a person who appropriates what belongs to others, nor a martyr who offers himself for sacrifice on the altar of social interest.

The man of the new society does not have to relinquish his personal wants for the social good, because his society does not require him to—except in such emergency situations as war. When we say this we do not assume, of course, that any individual in the Soviet Union would be permitted to build himself a soft berth at the expense of others. Social

interests always have priority. That is one of the most essential conditions for the free, all-round development of every individual, because precisely this development is the ultimate aim, the basic task of the Soviet state, of the Communist Party, of socialist society as a whole.

The harmonious relationship of the interests of the individual and society, their unity, is one of the important laws of social progress under socialism. The unity of personal and social interests means that man is becoming conscious to a constantly greater degree of the interests of society, that he places himself freely, voluntarily and gladly in the service of social progress, considering this in no way a sacrifice, but the fulfillment of life.

Social Versus Personal Interests

Since socialism is a stage in social development leading toward communism, some contradictions between the interests of the individual and the concrete, historically conditioned level of social development still exist, but these contradictions are temporary and, as society approaches communism, they become weaker and will finally disappear completely.

Note that notwithstanding the rapid development of the productive forces, it is as yet not always possible to satisfy fully the material and cultural requirements of the people owing to the rapid growth of these requirements. But this is not a basic contradiction between the individual and the socialist system, but between the individual's fast growing wants and the level of development of the material base of socialism. The speed with which this contradiction is resolved depends upon the working people themselves, upon the work of public organizations and of the state.

Then there are the contradictions arising from survivals of the past existing among some of the people—such things as lack of concern for others, individualism, bureaucracy. Here, too, we can see that these are temporary contradictions that do not arise from a conflict between the socialist social system and the interests of the individual.

There are contradictions that develop when personal interests have to be put aside for the interests of society, situations in which an individual or a group of individuals must sacrifice personal convenience and interest for society's good—work under difficult conditions, transfer to another job when production needs require it, etc. These are very specific contradictions and arise largely from the inability of one or another member of society to see that in the final analysis he will be advancing his own welfare by this temporary "surrender" of his immediate personal interest and convenience.

Contradictions of this kind are transitory under socialism. They have no significant bearing on fundamental economic and political relations, on the intrinsic nature of the socialist system. We must bear in mind, too, that these contradictions sometimes arise from the inefficiency of some executives who do not know how to make use of the potentialities released by socialism.

Real, Not Formal, Freedom

All the activities of the Communist Party and the Soviet Government are designed to give people richer, fuller lives. The steady rise in real wages, the reduction of the workday, the abolition of the income tax—all this is evidence. Great sums are expended by the state for social services. The amounts allocated for pensions and other benefits have grown in the past twenty years from 4.2 billion to 23 billion rubles.

Public funds derived from industry, farming and transport pay for a growing list of social services—housing, education, medical care, resort facilities. Under socialism production serves all the people. Production for man, not man for production—that is the fundamental law of socialism. By freeing man from the consuming worry about his livelihood

and security, socialism and communism make it possible for him to develop his individual capacities most completely.

Real—and not merely formal—individual freedom is freedom from exploitation of man by man, freedom from want, freedom from the uncertainties of the future. This freedom is assured the individual by socialism. Freedom from want means not only material freedom, it means also spiritual freedom which frees man from oppressive fears, gives him social purpose, optimism, vigor.

All the freedoms—material, social, intellectual—are guaranteed by the basic fact that in a socialist society the people themselves control and direct the development of all the forms of social life. Let us take freedom of speech, for example. We in the Soviet Union understand it as the right of citizens to express publicly—whether in speech or writing—their views on all matters, to criticize shortcomings in the work of officials, government agencies, economic bodies, directors of industrial plants, etc. It stands to reason, however, that it cannot be a matter of indifference to the Soviet people whether these views coincide with the interests of society or are directed against it. A socialist society does not allow anyone the freedom to advocate antidemocratic views. Soviet law, for example, prohibits the dissemination of any propaganda for war, racism, national hatred and other such misanthropic ideas.

Freedom in a socialist society is not determined by the degree to which a person becomes independent of the society, but by the degree to which he becomes aware of the unity between his personal interests and those of society, the degree to which he has made the interests of society his own interests. Individual freedom under socialism, in other words, is based not on a rift with society, not on the individual's alienation from society, but on the unity and identity of personal and social interests.

Man Disciplines Himself

As man progresses in making the standards of social discipline and social ethics the regulator of his own conduct, he ceases to feel the discipline imposed by the state or by public pressure, adhering to these standards and ethics by conviction, by desire, of his own free will.

Socialism stands for the most complete expression of individual freedom, but it does not allow any individual to abuse the freedom at anyone's expense. When the vestiges of the old antagonistic system will have been completely erased from the minds and hearts of people, the old agencies and forms of social regulation called into being by the existence of these survivals will no longer be needed. They will vanish as antisocial acts become the extremely rare occurrence.

How does the individual grow under communism? What is his personality configuration?

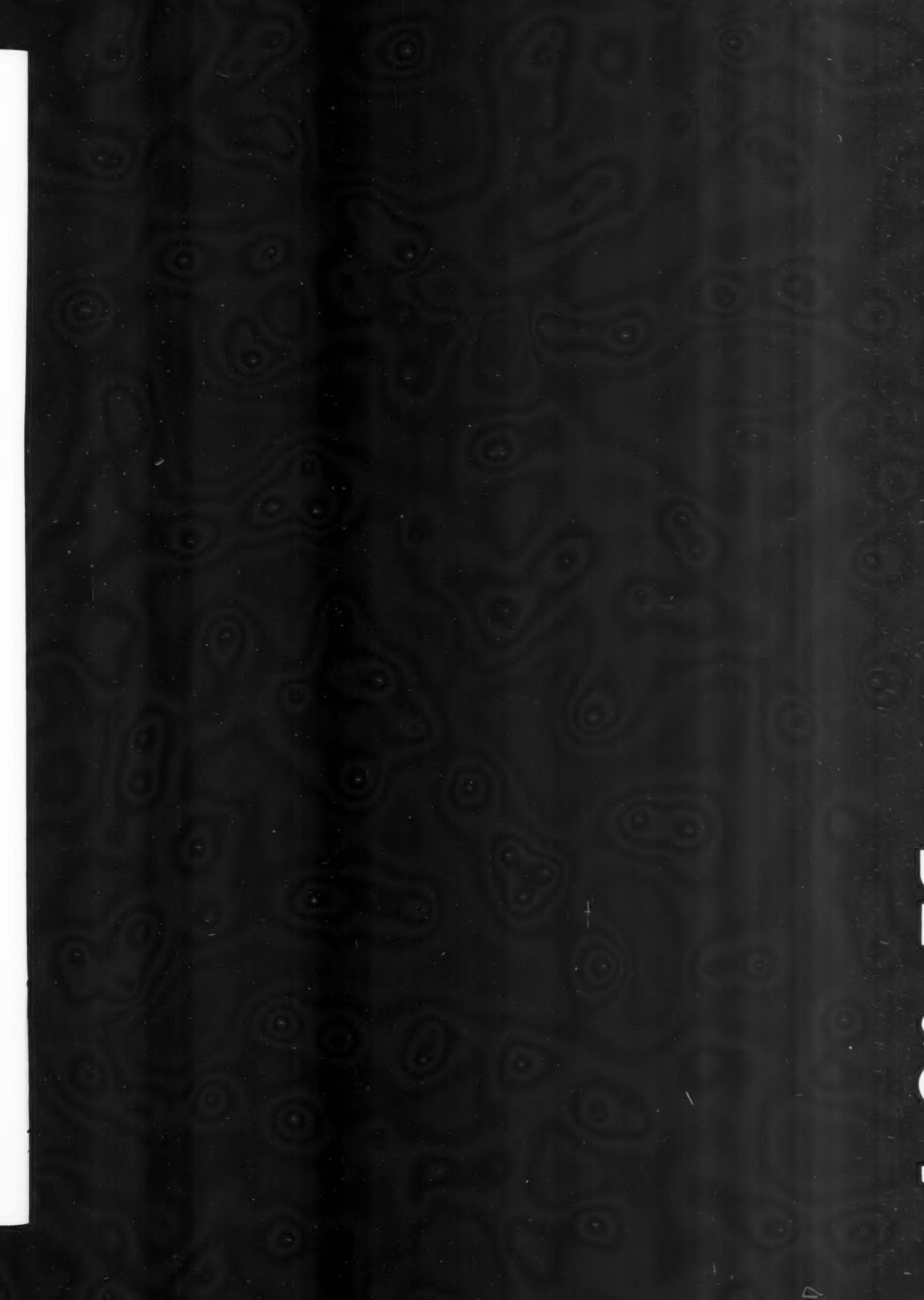
Man in communist society does not discard the qualities and attributes acquired in the earlier, antagonistic epochs of human development. He absorbs the best of them, refines them, synthesizes them, as it were. The dominant characteristics of the communist man will be an all-embracing humanity and comradeship, a higher sense of freedom, personal initiative and a creative approach to life.

The individual will grow and mature as socialism builds and consolidates the material and technical foundation of communism for a high standard of living for everyone, as it narrows the gap between town and country and between mental and manual labor.

As socialist society moves toward its higher stage, communism, to produce an abundance of goods and services, it will begin to operate on the principle "From each according to his ability, to each according to his needs," and thereby guarantee the individual material, social and intellectual freedom on a level higher than any mankind has yet achieved.

the **ACID** test







By Grigori Deborin
Historian

The first of a comprehensive six-volume History of the Great Patriotic War of the Soviet Union—1941-1945 was published recently. Contributors are Soviet historians and soldiers—marshals and generals—whose leadership of the armed forces contributed to the victory. Editor of the project and author of this article is Professor Grigori Deborin, eminent Soviet military historian.

IN LATE APRIL of 1940 Count Schulenburg, Ambassador of Nazi Germany to Moscow, was called to an audience with Hitler. At the time the Nazis were scheming to attack the Soviet Union, and Hitler wanted to know whether the USSR could be provoked into beginning the conflict. Schulenburg, with good reason, said flatly, "I do not believe that Russia will ever attack Germany."

Hitler agreed but told the Ambassador that he did not relish the idea that the Soviet Union could not be "provoked into launching an attack." Thus we see that even while fascist Germany's political and military leaders were planning the invasion, they were well aware that the Soviet Union would always adhere to its policy of peace and would never be the aggressor.

On June 22, 1941, Hitler invaded the USSR. The Soviet people met the treacherous attack with their Great Patriotic War which was an integral element of the Second World War. It was a war thrust upon a peaceful nation, the most ruthless and the most heroic chapter of Soviet history. No other people has ever had to endure so great a trial. In this torturous crucible of war was demonstrated once again the might of a free people and the invincible strength of socialism.

German militarism has precipitated other European conflicts but never one with such far-reaching aims. The intent was to turn Europe and then the rest of the world into *lebensraum* for the Germans, the "master race," so Nazi propaganda styled it.



Memorial in bronze to the Soviet soldier-liberator by Yevgeni Vuchetich. It stands in Berlin's Treptow Park.

To achieve his overriding aim the Nazis geared the economy to war and built a powerful army whose officers and men were befogged by chauvinism, race hatred and the conviction that they could not be beaten.

Before he ventured to attack the Soviet Union, Hitler seized several European countries, thereby expanding his economic resources and manpower. Under the heel of the fascist jackboot were eleven countries and six allies. Nazi Germany also had this enormous advantage—when it attacked the Soviet Union its industry had long been on a war footing.

The Barbarossa Plan

The notorious "Barbarossa plan" for war against the Soviet Union was put into operation by the Nazi high command in June 1941 by bringing its military strength to a total of 7,234,000 officers and men and preparing the theater of operation.

In June of the following year, 190 fascist divisions were suddenly hurled against the USSR. In no war in history has so many troops and so many weapons been put into the field. The surprise attack made it possible for the fascists to penetrate deep into the country, enormously increasing the threat to the whole world. Had the USSR fallen before the onslaught of the Nazi hordes, nothing could have stopped the German war machine.

The Soviet Union was in dire straits, with the Nazi armies at the banks of the Volga and the approaches to Moscow. By November 1941 they had occupied Soviet territory that had been producing 68 per cent of the country's pig iron and 58 per cent of its steel.

For the Soviet people the war was a question of life or death, there were no lesser alternatives. The Nazis were determined to put an end to socialism, to callously exterminate millions of men and women, to

enslave the Soviet peoples. The USSR, fighting for its own freedom, was fighting for the freedom of all other peoples as well. It fought to liberate its own occupied territories and those of other countries, and to deliver the German people themselves from Hitler's torturers and hangmen.

The war was an acid test for the Soviet Union. In order to drive out and smash the invaders it had to build up a great army on the go. By May 1945, its fighting force totaled 11,365,000 men. Behind the lines tens of millions of Soviet people worked to keep this huge army fed and equipped.

The war against fascism proved without a doubt the superiority of the Soviet social and economic system. It demonstrated that a country's military and economic potential depended not only on the level of its industrial development, but on the morale of its people, the way they used the available resources. Although it had fewer production sources, the Soviet Union proved able to use its potentialities to such good effect that it soon surpassed Germany in both the quantity and quality of weapons produced.

To see the picture in its entire perspective, it must be realized that the Soviet Union had to expand its industry, with the war being fought on its own territory, veritably under enemy fire, and at a time when factories and plants had to be evacuated from threatened areas. Despite these handicaps, a production peak had been reached by 1942 that began to turn the tide at the front. Note that between 1943 and 1945 the Soviet Union was producing annually 40,000 aircraft and 30,000 tanks while Nazi Germany was producing only 26,000 and 19,000 respectively.

The Anti-Fascist Coalition

But the war demonstrated more than Soviet economic superiority. Here was a victory of political ideas. Soviet policy brought peoples together in the common struggle against fascism; Nazi policy repelled people and led to Germany's increasing moral and political isolation.

When Hitler attacked the USSR, an anti-fascist coalition sprang up. It was based on an accord of interests among the partners, all of them defending their national independence and the great ideals of human freedom and democracy. The comradeship-in-arms of the USSR, USA and Great Britain was the weapon that defeated the German and Japanese claimants to world supremacy.

International cooperation on the field of battle demonstrated, in the most striking way possible, that states with different social systems could not only coexist but could pool their efforts in concerted action. This was a coalition the like of which history had never known. It kept the world free.

The patriots in the German-occupied countries of Europe and the Japanese-held countries of Asia were active partners in this anti-fascist coalition. The comradeship-in-arms of those who fought for national independence and liberty was worldwide. The Soviet people prize the contribution made by every one of the belligerent countries to the historic victory over fascism.

A Stable Colossus

The Nazis proclaimed to the world their conviction that the Soviet system was unstable, that it would collapse after the first few blows. Hitler's propagandists called the USSR a "geographical conception" and "a colossus with feet of clay." The Soviet people, they said, abhorred the social system under which they lived.

But the war proved the USSR a powerful, unified state and not a "colossus with feet of clay." Workers, farmers and intellectuals unequivocally demonstrated their devotion to their country and its social system, their willingness to make every sacrifice that would defeat the enemy. They worked and fought heroically to defend their socialist Motherland.

The bedrock stability of the Soviet state and social system was strikingly illustrated by the fact that even in the Nazi-occupied areas, Soviet governmental bodies functioned underground with unimpaired prestige and authority, and that as soon as one or another part of the country had been freed, all Soviet organs of power were at once re-established by the people themselves.

The world watched with bated breath the titanic battle fought on the Soviet-German front, for that was where mankind's fate hung in the balance. It was where fascism grouped its main forces and where they were smashed. A comparison of the number of fascist divisions on this front and other theaters of the Second World War makes this evident. In 1942, the crucial year, Germany had 199 of its 269 divisions in the field against the Soviet Union. Add to that the forces of Germany's satellites—a total of 73 divisions by November 1, 1942—all concentrated on the Soviet-German front.

These great legions were smashed. All told, the Soviet Army destroyed 1,024 divisions of Nazi Germany and its allies, while the other belligerent countries destroyed a little more than 140 divisions in all the other theaters of war. This is an eloquent testimonial to the crucial part played by the Soviet-German front in World War II and by the Soviet Union in defeating Nazi Germany. There is also this fact to consider—that the USSR, faithful to its commitments as an ally, contributed vigorously to the routing of imperialist Japan by destroying its strongest force, the crack Kwantung Army.

Last Front in Berlin

The war the Nazis began on the Soviet Union's western frontier on June 22, 1941, ended far away. The last front was Berlin itself. By attacking the USSR, Hitler Germany rushed headlong to its own destruction. The red banner hoisted over the Reichstag in May 1945 symbolized the triumph of mankind over the dark forces of fascism, the victory of the free people of the world united against imperialist aggrandizement.

Another striking testament to Soviet patriotism, other than the heroism of the fighting men and the self-sacrificing labor of the people in the rear, was the partisan movement—a war of all the Soviet people in occupied territory against the Nazi invader.

What inspired the Soviet people—soldiers, partisans, workers in the rear? The socialist system under which they lived. Vladimir Lenin, the founder of the Soviet state, once said, "A nation, most of whose workers and peasants have learned, have felt and seen, that they are defending their own Soviet power, the power of the working people, that they are defending a cause which, when won, will guarantee them and their children the opportunity to enjoy all the blessings of culture, everything that man has created by his labor—such a nation will never be vanquished."

Tested by the grim trials of war, socialism showed itself superior to capitalism as a way of life. It provided the Soviet people with the will and power to defend their freedom and independence, smash fascism and give fraternal assistance to the European nations in their struggle for liberation. The war demonstrated conclusively the historic invincibility of socialism, that the laws of history are inexorable and the designs of any claimants to world supremacy futile. That, in my opinion, is the basic lesson to be learned from the Second World War.

The Test of Reconstruction

The test of the socialist system that came after the war with reconstruction and development was no less severe than the test of war itself.

To the monumental destruction of the actual fighting, criminally multiplied by the fascists who deliberately and calculatedly ruined industry, transport, public utilities and housing, add the military expenditures and the temporary loss of income from industry in the occupied areas, and you have the astronomical total of 2 trillion 600 billion rubles.

The Nazis laid waste and looted 1,710 cities and towns, ruined and razed more than 70,000 villages. They destroyed about 32,000 industrial establishments, 98,000 collective farms and tore up 40,300 miles of railroad track. There has been no war in history in which a country suffered comparable destruction. This is aside from the heaviest loss—the tragic death of millions of Soviet people at the front and in the Hitlerite death camps.

The German generals boasted that it would take the Soviet Union twenty to twenty-five years to recover from the damage they had inflicted. They were certainly in the best position to know.

But they were as wrong here as in their military calculations. Within

a few years the Soviet people reconstructed their economy and began to move ahead to work miracles of construction. Prewar economic levels were exceeded several times over. Soviet science and engineering scored great triumphs, evidenced by the sputniks and spaceships and that most recent and most auspicious launching in human history—when a man was orbited in space and returned safely to earth after circling the globe.

To Strengthen the Peace

Its military strength has grown immeasurably, but the Soviet Union has not deviated an inch from its policy of peace. The single aim and design of Soviet foreign policy, as Nikita Khrushchev has stated on so many occasions, is to preserve and strengthen peace. The Soviet Union's ever-growing might has never been used, nor will it ever be used, to threaten aggressive action or to whip up war hysteria.

Consistent with its undeviating peace policy the USSR has unilaterally cut its armed forces several times in recent years. In 1955 the armed forces were 5,763,000 strong; by the close of 1960 they had been cut to 2,423,000.

The Soviet people are confident of their own strength, of their present and their future. That is why they advocate total disarmament and peaceful coexistence of all countries.

The war which they fought and suffered and the victory they won will be remembered through the ages. It is memorialized in the monument in Berlin's Treptow Park to the Soviet soldier and liberator, who struck down the fascist swastika and saved mankind. Those who bore the brunt of the last conflict are not likely to forget the destruction and tragedy it brought.

There is this acid lesson the war taught all freedom-loving peoples—that there is no more certain way to prevent another war and achieve universal peace than total disarmament.

A war that began with the treacherous invasion of the Soviet Union ends in the Nazi capital. Soviet soldiers raising the flag of the USSR over the Reichstag.





An Interview with Boris Makarov,
Acting Chairman of Mezhdunarodnaya
Kniga (International Book Organization)



SOVIET BOOKS ABROAD

QUESTION: What does Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga do?

ANSWER: We export and import many millions of books, newspapers and magazines every year. We send postcards, reproductions, maps, phonograph records, postage stamps for collectors and film strips to foreign countries. We also arrange for the publication of Soviet books and music abroad.

Within recent years, with cultural ties between countries very much expanded, the work of bookselling organizations like Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga has become a very important factor in the exchange of materials that make for better understanding between peoples.

QUESTION: With what countries does Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga do business?

ANSWER: We do business with bookselling companies in more than a hundred countries: with firms in the socialist lands; with those in Western countries—the United States, Britain, France and the Federal Republic of Germany—and many African and Asian countries, among them Guinea, Ghana, India and Japan; and with some Latin American firms.

QUESTION: What organization in the Soviet Union translates and publishes the books you handle?

ANSWER: The State Foreign Language Publishing House. We export books printed in 20 languages. Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga is the only Soviet organization officially authorized to export books. We also act as agents for Soviet authors in arranging for translation and publication of their work by foreign publishers. Most recently we acted on behalf of Konstantin Simonov when we gave exclusive rights to Doubleday & Co., Inc. of New York for the English translation of his novel *The Living and the Dead*.

QUESTION: Does your organization export books in the Russian language also?

ANSWER: Yes, a great many of them. As a result of the growing interest in the work

being done in the Soviet Union in science, technology and various other fields, many more people have begun to study the Russian language and to ask for literature in the original. The number of requests from our agents for books in the Russian language keeps mounting.

QUESTION: What type of books do foreign readers ask for most frequently?

ANSWER: Most requests are for fiction and poetry. But the interest in Soviet technical and scientific literature seems to be growing by leaps and bounds. That is quite natural with the universal recognition of the accomplishments of the Soviet people in science and technology.

There is this interesting fact worth mentioning—the demand for Soviet socio-economic and political literature keeps rising from year to year. We consider this evidence of the desire of foreign readers to become more thoroughly acquainted with the social and state structure of the Soviet Union and with Marxist-Leninist theory.

Last year Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga could not fill all the orders received from abroad for socio-economic and political literature. Particularly numerous were requests for the works of Marx, Engels and Lenin; the collectively written *History of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union*; the *Fundamentals of Marxism-Leninism* and the *Fundamentals of Marxist Philosophy*.

A large edition of Khrushchev's *Happiness and Peace to the Peoples*, a collection of speeches and documents relating to his 1959 tour of Asian countries, was sold out as soon as it was issued. *Face to Face with America*, written by the group of Soviet journalists who accompanied the Soviet Chairman on his tour of the United States, evoked equal interest.

QUESTION: Do you expect to be putting out other editions of these books?

ANSWER: Of course. We are booksellers and our business is to satisfy the demand for these and other books. We will be sending a

number of new books this year on social and political subjects to our agents abroad, included will be the proceedings of the 22nd Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union to be held in October. This material will be published both in the original and in translation. We shall also send English editions of the newly issued volumes of the *Collected Works of V. I. Lenin*. The entire 55-volume edition, to be completed in 1963, will include his completed works, preparatory materials, notes, plans and outlines.

QUESTION: What Soviet writers do you expect to be publishing in English this year?

ANSWER: The second volume of Mikhail Sholokhov's *Virgin Soil Uplifted* (published in the United States under the title *Seeds of Tomorrow*) will soon be coming out in English to complete his panoramic novel of the collectivization period. Yuri Bondarev's *The Last Shots*, about the concluding days of World War II, and Dmitri Medvedev's *It Was at Rovno*, a documentary account of Soviet partisan activity by a writer who participated in the events he describes, will also be appearing in English. We will have a collection of stories by young Soviet writers, three plays, and a book of science fiction and adventure stories.

QUESTION: Does Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga fill mail orders sent by individual readers?

ANSWER: Since ours is a wholesale book organization we prefer that individual bookbuyers send their requests to Mezhdunarodnaya agents in their own countries. In the United States, for example, our agents are, among others, Four Continent Book Corporation in New York City and Cross World Books and Periodicals in Chicago.

These firms will, on the reader's request, send without charge book and periodical catalogues and information on all materials we export.

The office of the Commercial Counselor of the Soviet Embassy will be glad to answer any questions concerning the work of Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga.

SOVIET MAGAZINES

SOVIET UNION

SOVIET Literature

New TIMES

INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

MOSCOW NEWS



WHAT SOVIET CHILDREN READ

By Vasili Kompaniyets

Editor-in-Chief, State Publishing House of Children's Literature, Russian Federation

TEACHERS have a saying: The fortunate man is born twice—the first time when he comes into the physical world, the second when he comes into that alluring world of books where neither time nor space have limits. In that second birth he can see into the past and future and traverse the universe. This is a world a man never leaves once he has entered it.

Maximum Gorky called a book "that most intricate and greatest wonder of all the wonders created by man" as he makes his way toward a happier future.

A book can be friend, parent, teacher. Do you want a child to grow up with a love for people, a belief in human dignity, a thirst for knowledge, the courage to fight for the happiness of all men? Place in his hands those books that reflect the goodness and wisdom of man, those, to quote Anatole France, that will give him the greatest and most diverse food for thought.

But there are books, as there are men, that set nation against nation, that teach children to hate those with a different color of skin or a different way of life, to look down on people who toil, to consider only their own well-being and not the general good. Such books are not published in the Soviet Union.

In prerevolutionary Russia, children's literature was very heterogeneous both in social attitude and artistic quality. Writers of juveniles came from different social classes, had different political views, and were motivated by different educational principles.

Leo Tolstoy wrote his famous *ABC* to teach children joy of life, love of man and freedom of thought, to give them a feeling for the good and the beautiful and an understanding of the meaning of justice, duty and honor. At the same time Lydia Charskaya and Klavdia Lukashevich were writing stories that wrapped the young reader in a mystic haze and taught him resignation, servility, fear—the attributes of lackeys and careerists. The heroes of the detective stories published at the time were likable murderers, amiable thieves and crafty detectives.

Only four days after the Soviet society was born of the Great October Socialist Revolution, education was on the new government's agenda of vital and immediate questions—at a time of war, economic ruin and threatening famine. Special committees were given the task of studying the whole motley heritage of children's literature and choosing those works that would help to teach the ethics appropriate to a society where no man is permitted to exploit another.

An honored place in Soviet children's literature was given to the writings of Alexander Pushkin, Mikhail Lermontov, Nikolai Gogol, Nikolai Nekrasov, Anton Chekhov, Alexander Ostrovsky, Leo Tolstoy, Vladimir Kordenko, Maxim Gorky and many other prerevolutionary authors. These Russian classics were gradually joined by the classics of other Soviet national literatures published in simplified form for children. They included such superb national epics as the Kabardinian *The Sledge*, the Yakut *Olonkho*, the Karelian *Kalevala* and the Estonian *Kalev's Son*. Also published were fairy tales and stories of the everyday life of other peoples.

The masterpieces of world literature were also added to children's reading lists—Cervantes' *Don Quixote*; Swift's *Gulliver's Travels*; Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe*; Molière's comedies; Homer's poems and the works of Goethe, Schiller and Heine. Victor Hugo's *Gavroche (Les Misérables)*, Mark Twain's Tom Sawyer and Huckleberry Finn joined the permanent gallery of the beloved literary heroes of Soviet children, as did Cinderella and Little Red Riding Hood.

Maxim Gorky did much to build a library for these millions of new readers—the children of workers and farmers who sought the answers to a multitude of questions. These were searching young readers, intensely active, passionately interested. This was the generation that was going to lay the foundation for the society of the future. Gorky strove to create a new literature for them which would help them fathom the intricate phenomena of life, would show them the past in the light of the great events of the present and would enable them to glance into the future.

This new kind of literature for children was born in an intense struggle. It was necessary to break down the false and pernicious view widespread among reactionary teachers and writers of the time that books for children should be purely entertainment, and the accompanying rationalization—no less fraudulent—that children lived in their own little isolated world, uninterested in the life around them.

Nadezhda Konstantinovna Krupskaya, the wife of Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, helped to shape and develop this literature. She was a gifted teacher and wrote many articles on books for children recommending the use of everything that was valuable in the older literature, everything that broadened the child's knowledge, awakened his curiosity, strengthened his character.



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A child's book, she said, must be a source of joy for the young reader. Its vivid imagery must help him to comprehend the world he lives in, the phenomena of nature, the relations between people. Young folks, she thought, should be introduced early to the romance of science and technology, learn how to look at nature, understand how its strength is harnessed. Books should be written to tell "how to make things oneself."

Maxim Gorky favored a special publishing house where the creative efforts of writers, artists and scientists interested in children's literature could be joined. Such a publishing house, with a plan of work drawn up by Gorky, was organized and is still operating today. It is called Detgiz, short for State Publishing House for Children's Literature of the Ministry of Education of the Russian Federation. The Dyetsky Mir (Children's World) and the Molodaya Gvardiya (Young Guard) publishing houses also specialize in juveniles. Similar publishing houses have been set up in the Ukraine, Uzbekistan, Georgia and Azerbaijan. Besides those working exclusively with juvenile material, all the other publishing houses in the country also put out children's books.

In 1959 the Soviet Union published 3,256 titles for children—pre-school to late teens—in a total of 211 million copies. Detgiz alone published 627 titles in 124.3 million copies. Juveniles are issued in 57 of the languages spoken in the Soviet Union and 20 foreign languages. There are also a large number of children's newspapers and magazines published.

Every Soviet school has a well-rounded juvenile library of fiction, poetry, history, art, music, science—and science fiction, of course—"how to do it" books, and those in other categories. Almost every Soviet family has its own children's library.

Writers of the stature of Samuil Marshak and Kornei Chukovsky have devoted their creative energies to Soviet children's literature almost from its beginning. They have not only contributed poetry and stories, vastly favored by youngsters, but have trained gifted young writers. Vladimir Mayakovsky, Mikhail Prishvin and other eminent writers also wrote for children.

To educate, Lenin taught, means to tell people the truth about their own lives and the life of the entire world. Soviet writers do not hide the realities of existence from their juvenile readers. Children are interested in everything. They want to know how the universe came to be, what the meaning of life is, what makes for happiness, whether boys and girls can be real friends, why there are rich and poor people, why wars happen, whether life exists on other planets, how people will live a hundred years from now.

They find the answers in sensitively written and illustrated juveniles. Vitali Bianki's *Lesnaya Gazeta* (Forest Newspaper) and Mikhail Prishvin's *The Sun's Storeroom* and *The Golden Meadow* introduce the young reader to nature's kingdom. Boris Zhitkov's *What I Saw* and Mikhail Ilyin's *Stories About the Things Around You* acquaint him with the world of things, of science and technology. Iosif Khalifman's *In the World of Bees* and *The Message of the Crossed Antennae* contains amazing stories about the life of bees and ants. The young reader learns the secrets of the signals of the colored antennae of ants and of the messages transmitted by bees to one another. Mikhail Ilyin's widely read *A Story about a Great Plan* and the recently published *About Life Which Is Very Good* by Lev Kassil and *Attention, the Future Is Speaking!* by Vasili Zakharchenko tell young people about the complex phenomena of socialist construction and give them a glimpse into the Soviet society of the future. Pavel Klushantsev's *Toward Other Planets* is about rockets, satellites and space travel. Ruvim Frayerman's *The Wild Dog Dingo, or a Tale about First Love* is a wonderfully perceptive story of friendship and awakening love.

Detgiz has been publishing the best of the children's books by Soviet writers in a series called The Golden Library. Among those already published are Samuil Marshak's inimitable *Tales, Songs, Riddles*; Arkadi Gaidar's autobiographical narrative *School*; Valentine Katayev's romantic tale *Peace Is Where the Tempests Blow*; the very well-known book by Nikolai Ostrovsky on the fortitude of the Soviet people during the Civil War, *How the Steel Was Tempered*; and Kornei Chukovsky's book of gay verse *The Wonder Tree*. Also in the series are Boris Polevoi's *The Story of a Real Man*, Alexander Fadeyev's *Young Guard*, Lev Kassil's *The Conduct Record* and *The Land of Shvambriana*, the verses of Agnia Barto and Sergei Mikhalkov, and other books.

Library of Adventures in 20 volumes was published some years ago and includes the best works of Jules Verne, Conan Doyle, Stevenson, Obruchev, James Fenimore Cooper, Dumas, Mayne Reid, Bousсенard, Rider Haggard, Kaverin and others. *Historico-Revolutionary Library* is presently being issued, and several other series are in preparation—*History Library for the School Child*, *Young Pioneer's Library* and *Library of Tales*.

Soviet children's reading interests range widely. Favorites are the Indian classic *Hitopadeshi*; *The Merry Japbaki* by the Turkmenian writer Kerbabayev; *The Generous Atymtai*, a book of didactic stories and fables by the Kazakh writer Altynsarin; the verses of the Polish writer Bzhechwa; Ernest Hemingway's *The Old Man and the Sea*; *33 Answers to 33 Questions*, about the seven-year plan; *The Merry Theater*, a collection of plays for school drama groups; *The Living Word*, for those who like to recite; *The Round Dance of Friends* by Lydia Bagatkova, a book of dances done in various countries; and a how-to-do-it book called *Know and Be Able*.

The lively, colorful illustrations for these and other children's books are done by the country's leading graphic artists. Dementi Shmarinov, People's Artist of the Russian Federation, has illustrated children's editions of the works of Tolstoy, Dostoyevsky and Nekrasov. The celebrated trio Kupriyanov, Krylov and Sokolov, People's Artists of the USSR, who draw under the joint name of the Kukryniksy, have illustrated Maxim Gorky's books. *The Lay of the Host of Igor* contains magnificent prints by People's Artist of the Russian Federation Favorsky. Illustrations for Ostrovsky's *How the Steel Was Tempered* were done by Honored Artist of the Russian Federation Kibrik.



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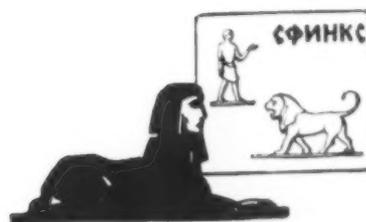




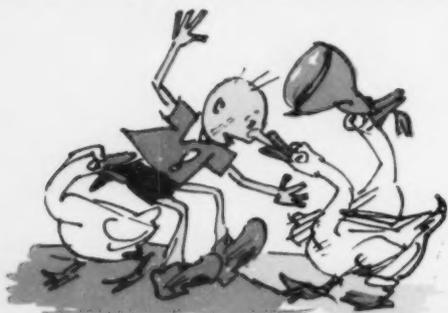
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Москва
1960

Издательство
«Детская литература»



BURATINO GOES HUNTING



STAMPS ON CHILD LIFE

By Vyacheslav Merkulov

THE FIRST postage stamp depicting child life in the Soviet Union was issued in 1930 to commemorate a national education exhibition held in Leningrad. This 10-kopeck olive-colored stamp showed school children putting out a wall newspaper.

Many stamps since then have pictured the country's efforts to meet the needs of its future citizens—children's health resorts in the Crimea and the Caucasus, new schools, clubs, libraries and polyclinics built especially for youngsters.

A series issued in 1936 was dedicated to the Young Pioneers, the school children's organization, and pictured the various activities it undertook to help grownups.

Another series, two years later, showed a nurse weighing an infant, youngsters on vacation at Camp Artek in the Crimea and school children learning how to use a microscope.

A second Young Pioneer series appeared in October 1948. The first stamp pictured junior aircraft modelers, the second showed a Pioneer boy and girl saluting the flag of the USSR, and the remaining stamps in the series depicted some Young Pioneers hiking and others grouped around a campfire.

The most recent series, "Soviet Children's Drawings," issued last year, reproduced the winning drawings in a children's competition for the best stamp picture.

A COLLECTIVE AGREEMENT

By Natalia Leibova

Chairman, Trade Union Committee,
Moscow Machine-Tool Plant Stankokonstruksia



Workers at the large Moscow machine-tool plant Stankokonstruksia check an item in the collective agreement that staff and management negotiate yearly.



WE NEGOTIATE a collective agreement with management at our factory — the Moscow machine - tool plant Stankokonstruksia — every year. The agreement regulates the plant's over-all production and specifies the mutual obligation of management to worker, and vice versa. The one now in force was signed in February.

Since there are no privately owned factories in the Soviet Union, the country's gross productivity is used to raise living standards. Last year, for example, as a result of the country's general economic growth and the growth in labor productivity in particular, workers of our plant received an increase in hourly pay that averaged 15 per cent. Consequently, every person on our staff is personally interested in raising the plant's output.

The first clause of the collective agreement specifies exactly what management and staff have pledged to do in this respect. The second clause defines the length of the working day for each category of shop and office worker of the plant, the rates of pay and the various types of vocational training the management is required to provide free for workers so they can improve their skill and qualify for better jobs or learn a new trade.

Other clauses deal with labor safety and proper working conditions. A rather detailed section of the agreement deals with measures to improve the workers' housing conditions as well as their cultural and recreational facilities, and specifies the sums allocated for these purposes by the plant and the union.

Report to the Staff

Every worker received a copy of the agreement for 1961 as soon as it was signed by manager Alexander Vladzievsky, for the plant, and by myself, as chairman of the trade union committee, for the staff. Practically all the personnel—97 per cent, to be exact—are union members, and so we negotiated on behalf of all the workers. The agreement was signed at the closing session of the plant's trade union conference, attended by 150 delegates from all shops and departments.

The conference summed up forty days of work during which the management and trade union committee had both reported at shop meetings on the fulfillment of the 1960 agreement. Prior to these shop meetings some 500 of the workers had checked to see whether the various provisions of the agreement had been carried through.

These control powers are provided for in the agreement, which says that twice a year "a mass checkup on the fulfillment of the

collective agreement is to be carried out. Reports are to be made by the factory manager and the chairman of the trade union committee to meetings and conferences of shop and office workers."

The checkup showed that in the main the agreement had been carried out by both parties. In 1960 the machine-tool production target had been topped, the working day had been reduced to seven hours, and wages had gone up. The management had made it possible for many of the workers to raise their job qualifications by giving them the opportunity to attend branches of the Machine-tool Secondary School and the Machine-building Institute opened at the factory. The trade union committee had provided more than 600 shop and office workers with accommodations at vacation resorts and sanatoriums without charge or at only 30 per cent of cost, the union covering the difference from its social insurance fund.

There were some complaints made by workers at shop meetings that management had only partly fulfilled its pledge to mechanize operations at the foundry. But in general there was satisfaction with the way the agreement had been carried out.

Some 450 proposals and suggestions were made by workers at the shop conferences and through the printed factory newspaper for inclusion in the 1961 agreement. There were such large items as the construction of a new shop and an increase in the sums allocated for the plant's housing program, and such details as an elevator in the cafeteria building and help for amateur gardeners.

When all the suggestions were in, the trade union committee and the management charged Alexander Kovalenko, head of the factory's production planning department, and Boris Borodin, vice chairman of the trade union committee, with the job of working up a draft for the 1961 collective agreement.

The preparation of the draft involved some argument. For example, we insisted that the rest of the foundry be mechanized in the first quarter of the year; the management said it couldn't be done until the end of the year. However, when the entire trade union membership supported the demand of the trade union committee, the management gave in and found a way to put it into effect.

There was argument on other points, too, but the two sides met each other halfway and



At the collective agreement conference Chief Engineer Victor Cribakin speaks for management. "All clauses are satisfactory. We pledge to meet all of our commitments on time."



Valentina Shatalova asks the conference to go on record "that a bolder policy be followed in promoting young workers."



Foreman Alexander Petrov: "The agreement imposes responsibilities upon all of us, whether we are executives or benchworkers. To get the job done, we all have to work together."



Natalia Leibova, head of the Trade Union Committee, submits the draft agreement to the conference after it has been discussed in the shops.



Victor Myasov, technologist, wants the plant to appropriate more money than it presently does for technical training so that more workers can qualify for better jobs.



Vyacheslav Sushchev (center) is a conference delegate from the engineering shop.

(Right) Plant doctor Ivan Zhelezkov checks on health standards the agreement calls for.

Plant director and trade union head look at housing built under last year's agreement.



These young people work days and study nights at the technical institute branch at the plant.

arrived at decisions that would further the common good. When the draft agreement was ready, a factory conference was called for discussion and a vote.

The New Agreement

The new collective agreement calls for renovating and automating various departments in the plant. Automation will be doing a number of things at once—increasing the output of machine tools that are very much in demand, making jobs easier and freeing workers for areas of work where they are needed. There will be no lay-offs and no wage cuts. As a matter of fact, production expansion plans require an additional 120 benchworkers and engineers.

Last year gaugers Nikolai Lebedev and Alexei Cherepanin and grinder Alexander Orlov worked out some new production ideas that raised their output and earnings. At the insistence of the workers in their shops we added a point to the collective agreement requiring the management and trade union committee to popularize these innovations.

The 1961 agreement provides for a ten per cent wage increase for the foundry and thermal shop personnel. Because working conditions in these shops are harder than, say, in the machine shop, the proposal met with general approval.

During the past few years our factory has built several houses for the workers. Under the new agreement the amount to be spent for new housing and remodeling is to be 15 per cent higher than in 1960.

Most of our workers have children. We have a nursery for babies up to three, a kindergarten for 100 children, and a Young Pioneer summer camp near Moscow for school children. Under last year's agreement the management provided for 400 youngsters at the camp; the number this year is to be 450.

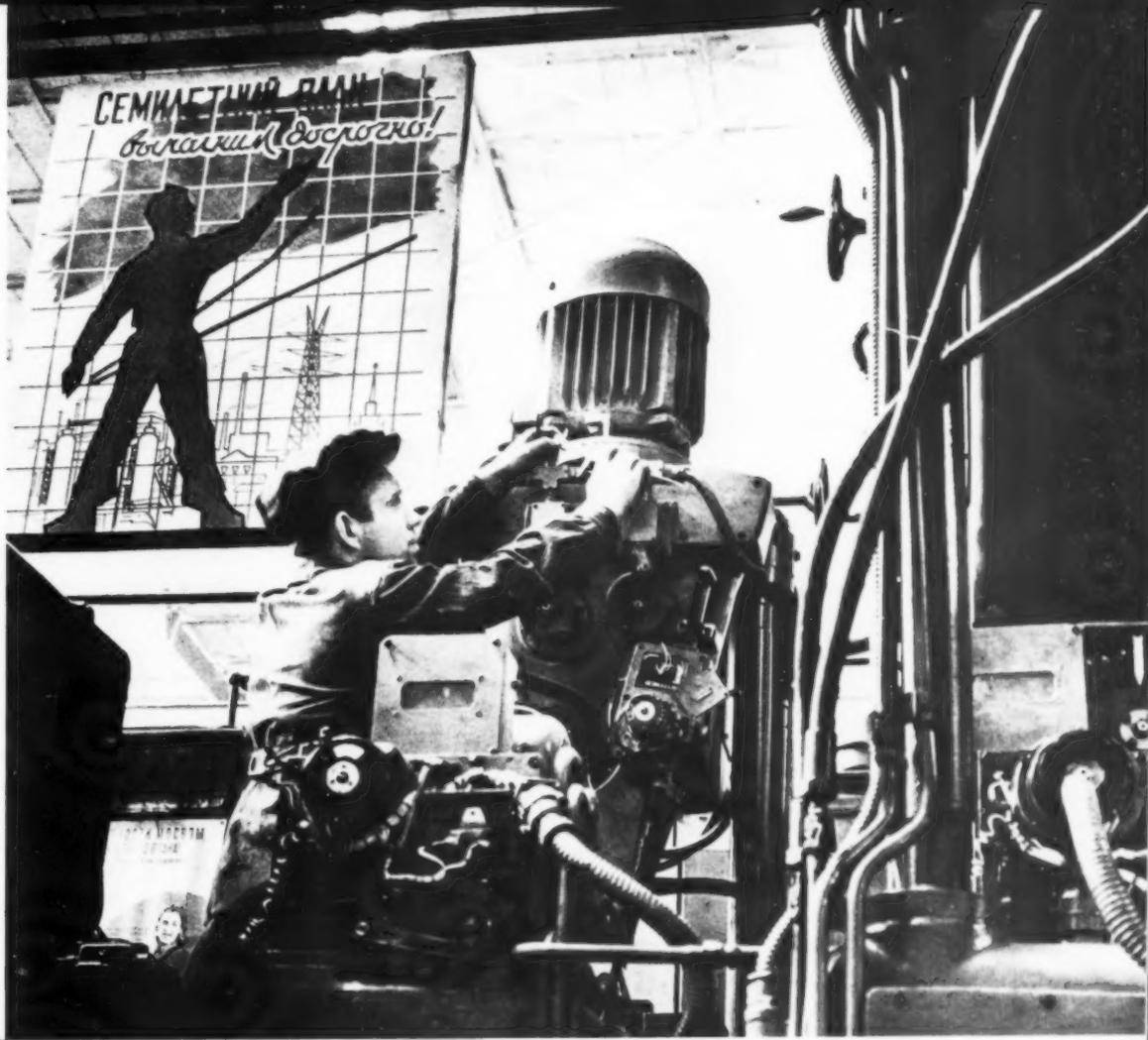
Some 700 people on our staff will spend their vacation this year at resorts near Moscow, on the Baltic or Black Sea, at the Karlovy Vary spa in Czechoslovakia and elsewhere, at the expense of the social insurance fund and the plant.

The new agreement also provides for larger appropriations for various sports activities, outings, excursions and tours to the Caucasus, Central Asia and other parts of the country.









This poster is a reminder that staff and management pledged to top production quotas.

The plant maintains this well-equipped technical library with Regina Ryumkina in charge.

(Left) Natalia Leibova signs for the union, director Alexander Vladzievsky for the plant.



In previous issues we ran a series of articles on Soviet education which evoked considerable comment. One letter we received was from George Riffero, Research Director of the Washington State Teachers Federation with headquarters in Olympia. Mr. Riffero appended a number of questions with the request that we answer them in a forthcoming issue.

The answers below are by Lydia Levit, who heads the Department of Public Education of the Sverdlovsk District in Moscow. She was graduated in 1939 from the Moscow Pedagogical Institute, taught fifth and seventh grade history for several years, and then served as principal of School No. 636 in the capital. She was appointed head of the Department of Public Education of Sverdlovsk District in 1959.



REPLY TO MR. GEORGE RIFFERO

QUESTION: Does a school board in the Soviet Union hire and fire teachers?

ANSWER: Teachers are hired and fired by the District Department of Public Education on the recommendation of the school principal and with the consent of the school trade union committee. Vacancies are filled mainly by new graduates of the teacher training institutes and also by transfers between schools. A recommendation to discharge a teacher is carefully considered by the trade union and the Teachers Council to make certain that the action is being taken for sufficiently weighty reasons and that personal and other irrelevant considerations are not involved.

QUESTION: Do you divide your schools according to school districts?

ANSWER: Yes.

QUESTION: Do you have a superintendent of schools for each district?

ANSWER: Each district has a Department of Public Education in charge of the schools within its area. The department is, in effect, the "superintendent" and directs the work of the schools through inspectors—two to four, depending on the number of schools under its jurisdiction.

Each department has a council made up of people in the community, trade union representatives, the departmental inspectors and the district's best school administrators and teachers. Major questions of school operation are discussed at council meetings.

The Department of Public Education is under the Executive Committee of the local Soviet of Working People's Deputies.

QUESTION: Do all teachers have training in at least one foreign language? Do all students study a foreign language?

ANSWER: Every pupil is required to study a foreign language in the fifth to eleventh grades. Teacher training schools give additional language study, as do teachers' colleges and universities, so that we may expect every teacher to know at least one foreign language fairly well. In practice, however, we find that many teachers, especially those in rural schools, do not (except, of course, for those who teach foreign languages). While most can read or write, comparatively few can understand the spoken language or make themselves understood. We are still suffering from faulty language-teaching methods. Now much more attention is being given to the study of the living, spoken foreign tongue.

QUESTION: How do you evaluate the performance of students in academic subjects? In vocational subjects?

ANSWER: Student performance in the academic subjects is measured by a five-point system, with "5" the highest mark. Progress in vocational training is indicated by the work category the student is placed in at the factory, laboratory, office, etc., where he gets his practical instruction in a trade or skill.

QUESTION: Who decides what is to be taught in the schools?

ANSWER: Each republic, through its Ministry of Education, works out its own curriculum, which is followed by all the schools of that republic. It is drawn up by authorities in education and in the various disciplines, and incorporates the ideas and criticisms of practicing teachers expressed at the many teachers' conferences and congresses. The curriculum is designed to further the aim of educating cultured individuals, who have a general knowledge of the humanities, are conversant with the rudiments of science, have learned some definite skill and are familiar with our modern production methods. The job of the school is to prepare the child for whatever socially useful field of work he may later choose. It must also equip the secondary school student with sufficient background so that he can continue his education at a school on the college level. These general aims are common to all Soviet schools and explain the similarity of the curriculums followed in the different republics and the fact that the scope of the subject content and of the student's knowledge is much the same. (The curriculum of the schools of the Russian Federation was reproduced in full in our December 1960 issue.)

QUESTION: Is school policy decided by the principal, the teachers or some other group?

ANSWER: By policy we assume you mean methods of teaching, emphasis in subject matter, discipline and other such classroom problems. Since the teacher is responsible for what his pupils learn, he must make the decisions. His approach, of course, has to be flexible and adjust itself to the individuals in his class and the material he is teaching. The school principal and inspectors are free to criticize, but the criticism must be constructive. Their function is primarily to advise, not to admonish, unless the results of the teaching are judged unsatisfactory.

In the larger schools, teachers in the same or related subject have Methods Councils to discuss common classroom problems, literature in the field and new teaching techniques. Those in small schools, mostly elementary schools in rural areas, have Methods Unions that take in teachers of several adjacent schools. In addition there are Methods Bureaus in the district centers and cities with their own libraries and staffs of full-time and volunteer authorities on methodology that work in experimental education. Similar research activity is carried on by the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences. There are Institutes for Raising Teachers' Qualifications in every region and large city.

QUESTION: What kind of teachers' organizations are there?

ANSWER: The largest is the teachers' trade union. Then there are the Methods Councils we mentioned previously, as well as pedagogical societies for popularizing educational methods. On the social side, there are teachers' clubs in every city of any size. (See the story on the Moscow Teachers' Club in our April issue.)

QUESTION: Must a teacher be a member of the Party before he can get a job?

ANSWER: Absolutely not. Party membership is entirely optional. There are two million teachers in the Soviet Union; only about 400,000 of them are members of the Communist Party.

QUESTION: Why does the teaching profession have so much prestige in the Soviet Union?

ANSWER: The younger generation will be shaping the future. When the Soviet teacher prepares these boys and girls for creative and useful work, when he gives them the knowledge and skills they need to develop their talents and enjoy their leisure, he is performing a function of the highest social importance.

QUESTION: Do you use many electronic devices—tape recorders, etc.—as teaching aids?

ANSWER: Not as many as we should like to. We use them in relatively few schools as yet, mostly city schools.

QUESTION: Do all children have the opportunity for an education?

ANSWER: All children not only have the opportunity but they must go to school. The law on universal and compulsory eight-year schooling is strictly enforced. Educational and community agencies make it their business to see that every child gets at least the minimum eight years of

schooling. Nor is there any limitation whatever on the numbers who go on to the ninth, tenth and eleventh grades of secondary school. Every encouragement is given to those who wish to complete high school—free tuition, boarding accommodations (when necessary), coaching, etc.

As for schools on the college and university level, admission to full-time schools is by competitive examination. Preference is given to those who graduated from high school with honor and have at least two years of actual work experience. There is a widespread system of evening and correspondence colleges and universities for those who combine work with study. There is no limitation on the number of people in these schools.

QUESTION: Are the schools government supported?

ANSWER: In the Soviet Union the schools are financed from the State Budget. The 1961 budget allocates 35 per cent of its expenditures for social and cultural services. Of the total, public education, personnel training, science and culture get 11.3 billion rubles as compared with 10.3 billion for 1960. The amount allocated specifically for maintenance of primary and secondary schools is 3.5 billion rubles, which covers salaries of teachers and service staff, new construction, purchase of equipment and teaching aids, text and reference books, etc.

It is also common practice for a factory or a collective or state farm to become the patron of a particular school and help build its workshops, dormitories and other facilities, and to provide instructors for the required practical vocational training. The collective farms sometimes supply the materials, funds and labor for the construction of small rural schools. These patron enterprises generally donate machines and lathes for workshops in urban schools and tractors and other farm equipment for rural schools.

QUESTION: If differences arise in the school, how are they settled? Who has the final word?

ANSWER: If the problem concerns only one school, the Teachers Council of that school has the final say. Differences between the council and the school administration that cannot be reconciled by the school are referred to the district education department. As for the dismissal of teachers and other personnel, the administration cannot take action, as explained previously, without the sanction of the trade union.

QUESTION: Is the college teacher paid more than the elementary or high school teacher?

ANSWER: Yes.

QUESTION: What are the qualifications for college teaching?

ANSWER: To teach in an institute—including a teacher training institute—a master's or a doctor's degree is usually required. But there are exceptions made for people lacking higher degrees who have done unusual work in their fields or who have special experience.

QUESTION: What American writers, besides Jack London, are read in the Soviet Union?

ANSWER: Mark Twain, Edgar Allen Poe, O. Henry, Theodore Dreiser, Upton Sinclair, Sinclair Lewis, Ernest Hemingway, John Steinbeck, William Faulkner . . . but it would take much more space than we have to list them all, considering that books by 243 American writers—poets included—have been translated into fifty of the languages spoken in the Soviet Union and published in a grand total of 100,222,000 copies.

QUESTION: Do you believe that teachers' unions, like those we have in the United States, serve to further education?

ANSWER: I do not know enough about the work

of teachers' unions in the United States to venture an opinion. It does seem to me, however, that if they truly express the interests of the great body of American teachers, their activities must undoubtedly benefit education. It could hardly be otherwise. The teachers of the world are a tremendous force for social progress since they bring learning to people.

QUESTION: How does the Teachers Union of the USSR further education?

ANSWER: In all sorts of ways. The most recent example is the role the Teachers Union played in paving the way for the comprehensive reorganization of the Soviet education system aimed at narrowing the gap between school and life, placing greater emphasis on polytechnical training. Presently the union is working to put the law on school reorganization into practice.

The major problems of the school's work are discussed at meetings organized by the Teachers Union. Decisions taken at trade union meetings have the force of law. The union helps teachers to raise their professional qualifications, participates in the work of the Teachers and Methods Councils and cooperates in planning courses of study.

QUESTION: Are all teachers required to join the union?

ANSWER: Like Party membership, trade union membership is optional. There is no obligation to join. Nevertheless practically all Soviet teachers do, and understandably so, because they are aware that the interests of all teachers are identical. There are, besides, the very concrete advantages offered by membership—job protection, social insurance, vacation services, social facilities, and so on.

QUESTION: How many classes a day does the high school teacher have?

ANSWER: The average is three to four. Eighteen hours a week is considered a full schedule for a high school teacher. Teachers of some subjects—like physics, chemistry and mathematics—will often carry a heavier load, as much as five or six hours a day, but their pay will be higher accordingly.

QUESTION: Do teachers have to attend parents' meetings after school?

ANSWER: Ordinarily the homeroom teacher will be required to meet with the parents of his students. This does not apply to the subject teachers. When there are school wide parents' meetings, all teachers are present unless they happen to have classes at that hour.

QUESTION: Are teachers required to do other kinds of work after school hours?

ANSWER: No. If you are thinking of leading student clubs or other extracurricular activities, that is entirely voluntary. Teachers of mathematics, foreign languages and Russian have to correct written class and homework assignments after school hours but they get extra pay for that.

QUESTION: How many days a week do students attend school?

ANSWER: Six days a week. In the upper high school grades (ninth to eleventh) students get one or two days of work training, usually outside the school building—at a nearby factory or farm.

QUESTION: How many hours a day do children attend school?

ANSWER: From four to six. Most children like to stay after school for hobby club meetings and other extracurricular activity. Students who fall behind in their work get special coaching after school.

QUESTION: Do students get homework?

ANSWER: Of course, especially in subjects like

mathematics, Russian and foreign languages, where written exercises are assigned. The teacher does try to keep the amount of homework at a minimum in order to give the child adequate time for recreational reading, sports and rest.

QUESTION: Do parents argue with teachers about homework assignments?

ANSWER: I'm afraid they do. Some complain that their children are loaded down with homework and want the material to be explained more thoroughly in class. And in some cases they are right. But just as often parents will reproach the teacher for giving the children too much time to themselves so that they get into mischief. Soviet parents, I suspect, are much like American parents that way.

QUESTION: Are those teachers who work harder or do especially good work paid more?

ANSWER: No, all teachers are paid on the same basis. How much they make depends on the class they teach, length of service and educational background. Good work is rewarded in other ways—by public commendation from the principal, bonuses and awards from community or government agencies, and the gratification that comes from seeing their names mentioned in newspaper and magazine articles. The best teachers are awarded the title Honored Teacher of the Republic.

QUESTION: Which is the more important—the teacher's ability or his political views?

ANSWER: We think it a mistake to oppose the two. No matter how gifted a person may be as a teacher, he harms the community if he holds reactionary views and spreads them among the young people. On the other hand, unless a person has that special gift which marks the good teacher, no matter how good and progressive his ideas, he will not be able to communicate them to his students. A teacher's success depends in equal measure on his ability and his social outlook.

QUESTION: Does the film School Years give an authentic picture of the Soviet educational system?

ANSWER: Yes. *School Years* was released by the Mosfilm Studio in 1957.

QUESTION: Will you give a recommended reading list on the subject—in the Russian language—and indicate where the books can be bought?

ANSWER: We might recommend:

THE NEW PUBLIC EDUCATION SYSTEM IN THE USSR. A collection of documents and articles edited by N. Goncharov and F. Korolyev; published by the RSFSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, Moscow, 1960. Price—1 ruble, 58 kopecks.

THE SCHOOL PROGRAM. Published by the RSFSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, Moscow, 1960. Price—36 kopecks.

THE SCHOOL AND CARE OF THE STUDENTS' HEALTH. By M. Antropova and G. Salnikova. RSFR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, Moscow, 1958, 2nd edition. Price—15 kopecks.

TEACHING COMMUNIST ETHICS TO SCHOOL CHILDREN. By N. Boldyrev. Uchpedgiz, Moscow, 1956, 2nd edition. Price—55 kopecks.

AESTHETIC EDUCATION IN THE SOVIET SCHOOL. RSFR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, Moscow, 1954. Price—30 kopecks.

YOUNG PIONEERS' HOUSE OF ART EDUCATION. By N. Grodzyanskaya. Uchpedgiz, Moscow, 1958. Price—13 kopecks.

METHODS OF CLASSROOM TEACHING. Articles by N. Boldyrev. Uchpedgiz, Moscow, 1959. Price—38 kopecks.







FOREIGNERS WHO VISIT the Soviet Union frequently remark that we have a "privileged class" here. They mean the children, and they are absolutely right. Every adult, whether he holds high public office or works at a shop bench, whether his job relates to children or not, feels very much concerned with their welfare, is very much interested in their growing into mature adults—transformed into Man with a capital M, as Gorky put it. This feeling has long been national policy.

It was in the year 1919, during the grim period of the Civil War, on a stormy winter evening with the dry snow whipping against the windows and the trees crackling in the frost that Lenin went to Sokolniki to attend a New Year's party for children. This was when the young Soviet Republic was fighting the enemy on the many fronts of the Civil War with hunger attacking from the rear. Lenin had nevertheless managed to find toys for the children. He brought dolls for the girls and automobiles, bugles and drums for the boys. He played with the youngsters and danced with them around the fir tree.

Lenin loved children with all his great heart, and this love he bequeathed to the people. He looked on children as the country's hope and future. From the first days of the Socialist Revolution this concern has been a sacred law for our society.

Would it be too sentimental to say that the grass that turns our stadium fields green, that the ice on the skating rinks sparkling in the sun, is for our children? For them, too, are the beautiful resorts on the Black Sea. Drive along any suburban highway in summer and watch for a bright red flag on a high mast fluttering in the breeze from a forest grove, on the slope of a hill, along the bank of a river or the shore of a lake—these are Young Pioneer camps, children's camps.

And the schools? They spring up wherever man takes up his abode: in new towns booming in regions that were empty not long ago, in large cities and small settlements. It would seem that the whole country looks on and listens as the children work at the blackboard or answer a test question, rejoicing at their every small success in that most wonderful of human activities, the acquisition of knowledge.

An Important Meeting

I had occasion once to visit a village in Moscow Region. There was a meeting going on at the Village Soviet building. Teachers, Young Pioneer leaders, the librarian and the chairman of the Soviet all seemed to be trying hard to prove something to one another. As I learned a while later, this excited conference was about a fifth-grade boy who had been absent from school for a whole week. He had been spending his time, day after day, at the river—fishing! All sorts of ideas were being proposed, their single intention—to keep this zealous young fisherman at his school desk, to get him to like his studies.

I frequently recall this meeting, and always with a feeling of pleasure and even pride. And indeed this is something in which our country can take pride—a youngster forgets about school for a week and the village notables are all upset about it. Why wasn't he studying? Why didn't he want to take advantage of the opportunities for learning which the country so generously offered him?

To build beautiful, comfortable school buildings, stadiums and theaters for the children; to send them to vacation resorts at the seaside or to Young Pioneer camps in the mountains for a summer is only half the job. The other half, and immeasurably more difficult, is to instill in these little people, with infinite care and patience, the finest of human qualities; to teach them to love peace, freedom, creativity; to passionately hate destruction, war and the enslavement of man by man. This is the cardinal task of our society.

Once, at a readers' conference in a village in Ryazan Region, I asked a sixth grader, a member of the Young Pioneers, "What do you want to be when you grow up?"

"A fighter for peace."

"I mean, what profession are you going to choose?" I insisted.

"I haven't decided yet. But I want to fight for peace! My father was killed in the war. I was born then and I never saw him."

the privileged class

By Anatoli Alexin
Children's Writer

This Ryazan village boy had not yet found his vocation, but thousands of children from their very earliest years are moved toward one or another profession out of these same feelings for peace and brotherhood. Take this little girl—see how often she bandages her doll. Perhaps she dreams of healing people. Or this boy making a structure of blocks and sand—perhaps he dreams of building new cities. Or these youngsters who discovered an unused strip of “virgin soil,” they’ve called it, not far from their school building where they are raising vegetables—future scientific farmers, perhaps, who will be growing bumper crops.

Man Is a Friend to Man

This wish to heal, to build, to grow things, is an inherent quality in our children. It is manifest in their games, thoughts, the things they plan and do together. I remember a wonderful “Garden of the Republics” that I saw in the old Russian town of Vladimir. It was planted by Young Pioneers who had come there from all the 15 republics of the Soviet Union. I saw that garden blossom, a living symbol of the friendship of children of different peoples and different nationalities.

We take pride in the fact that we do not have a single book or play for children, a single children’s film or TV broadcast, containing a line that would teach children hatred or duplicity, dull their thinking or pervert their taste. The art and literature addressed to our young readers and spectators is infused with feeling for humanity and its aspirations.

I once kept a list of plays, films and books for children that appeared within the span of a single month. Here are a few of the titles: *Vasyok Trubachyov and His Comrades, Your Comrades Are with You!, Her Friends, Happy Voyage, Two Friends, Always Together.*

The similarity of these titles do not bespeak a lack of originality or imagination on the part of our writers. They show that the great themes of friendship, fraternity, mutual aid and the struggle for man’s happiness inspire our story writers, scenarists, playwrights and artists who devote their creative efforts to the younger generation.

“Man is a friend to man!” That is the idea that our art and literature, our radio and TV broadcasts bring to young people in a hundred different dramatic guises. And what a noble idea that is!

There are people in the publishing houses, radio and TV stations and film studios whose job it is to study children’s likes and dislikes. One of the ways they gauge interests is through “Books of Comments,” in which children write their impressions of books they read, or plays, movies or TV broadcasts they see. Another gauge is in the thousands upon thousands of letters that youngsters send every day to the children’s newspapers and magazines and to radio and TV stations.

Here is one entry chosen at random from the “Book of Comments and Impressions” of the Central Children’s Theater in Sverdlov Square, Moscow. Sixth grader Volodya Nazarov writes, “When I leave the theater after the show is over, I want to do something very good for all the people in the world.”

In their everyday life our children see countless examples of nobility and self-sacrifice by which they can pattern themselves. They learn from the thousands of projects in which they take part. Work is the basis of communist upbringing. And where children are brought up to respect work, where they are taught to direct their seething energy and creativity toward interesting and useful projects, there will be little misconduct and delinquency.

People who come from abroad often ask Soviet children’s writers, “Just what is your principle of bringing the school closer to life, to work?” And then, without waiting for a reply, add, “Doesn’t this heightened interest in vocational training mean that you neglect the humanities and the aesthetic side of education generally?”

I can answer the question best with this statement by the principal of a Moscow school: “Vocational training and practical work, far from reducing the child’s interest in the humanities and in theoretical study generally, make all this theoretical knowledge which our children acquire more concrete, relates their classwork more to actual life.”

Take an actual school situation. In a school I visited, the children study radio engineering, but not only from the textbook. This year

they themselves installed radio facilities in their school and have been broadcasting during recess periods. I heard them reciting their own verses, reading stories they had written, playing the piano and the violin, and staging classics of Russian and Western literature. In a recent broadcast they dramatized one of Jack London’s stories.

This incident also comes to mind. I was passing by the school one day as the children came pouring out of the playground. The early frost had whitened the streets, trees and the roofs of houses and had touched the children’s cheeks with red. The boys slid along on the first ice of the year. The street rang with their noisy talk, their jokes and laughter. A holiday matinee had just ended.

“Wasn’t Petya wonderful as the grandmother,” said a little girl with pigtailed. “The way he played the part of the old woman was terrific.”

“He has real talent, that Petya,” said one of the boys very seriously, as though delivering a carefully thought out judgment; “he’s going to be a fine actor.”

“But he says he wants to be a lathe operator,” another of the girls broke in.

The serious boy said, just as earnestly, “Then he’ll be a good one.”

What faith he had in Petya. And perhaps it wasn’t Petya he was really thinking about, but of all the daring dreams children dream, ranging through all fields of knowledge and activity. Our children know that their dreams will come true. That, perhaps, is the most striking characteristic of our “privileged class.”

Aesthetics and Carpentry

There is another example I would like to give. Not long ago I was in the distant Arctic town of Norilsk. The pupils at one of the schools had organized an amateur show and every youngster—literally every one of them—took part. The girls in the lower grades danced a waltz from Tchaikovsky’s *Swan Lake*. Two of the young people sang selections from Rimsky-Korsakov, Verdi, Mozart, Shostakovich and Gershwin. Children in the drama group gave recitations from the works of Pushkin, Lermontov, Mayakovsky, Gorky and Sholonov and selections from Hemingway’s *Old Man and the Sea*. The members of the art group displayed their works.

The aesthetic training the children in this Arctic school were getting was on a high level indeed. And at the same time these very same pupils, who were getting vocational training in the school woodworking shop, were making furniture good enough to be sold in the town store.

The school has an automobile class where children learn not only to drive but to make minor repairs. When children graduate they receive the usual certificate attesting to the fact that they have completed the general high school course, besides another document certifying that they have mastered the elements of a trade—bricklayer, plasterer, concrete worker, assembler, driver, joiner, cabinet maker.

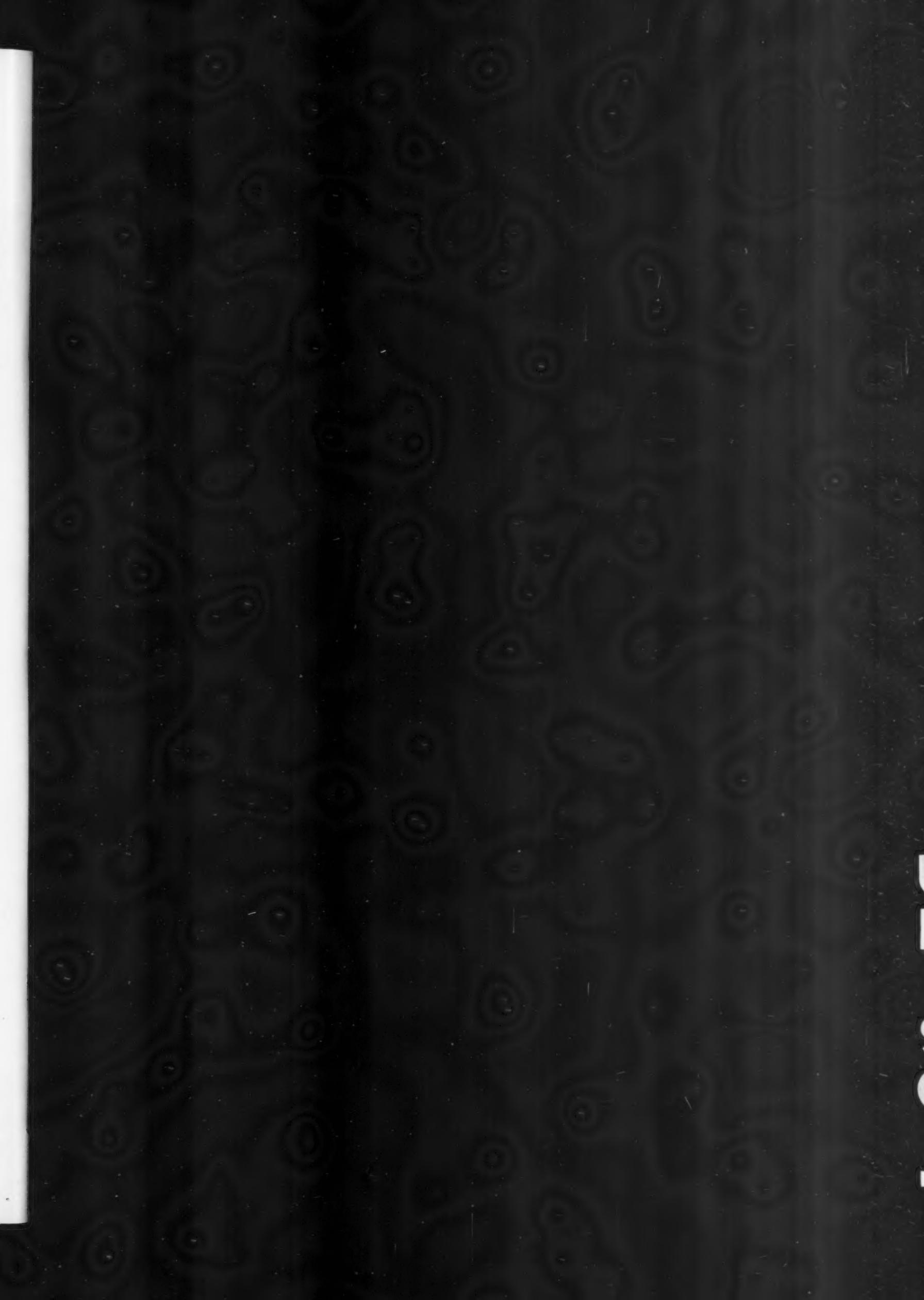
This close link between work and study, theory and practice, vocational and academic training, helps us to bring up people who, apart from their rounded general education, feel that they have a place in society, people with the self-confidence that comes from the use of knowledge and skills, and the unhampered and unlimited opportunity to develop their talents and abilities.

In their school workshops and Young Pioneer technical groups the children invent and build. The projects they create call for high technical competence. Visit an exhibition of their work and you will find radio sets so tiny they fit into a matchbox and complicated working models of plants and power stations.

Now many of these budding engineers and scientists are taken with the idea of making a working model of a sputnik. They dream, many of these boys and girls, of eventually flying to the moon, not as tourists or idle excursioners, however, but as fearless explorers, bold conquerors of interplanetary space.

And at the same time these children, in compositions done for homework, write with understanding and sensitivity about music and the paintings of artists past and present.

The vocational and aesthetic components of our children’s schooling supplement and enrich one another and help us to rear accomplished and mature adults, people with ideals and humanity, people familiar with the world’s cultural treasures, people dedicated to their work.







ARTEK



Suria Dadasheva (right) is from Azerbaijan. Loila Larsen is a guest from Norway. The friends you make at Artek, they say, are your friends for life.

One of the unwritten laws at Artek is to leave the camp more beautiful than you found it. These Young Pioneers decided on a road improvement project.





Would-be frogmen train for the Water Festival when Neptune emerges from the sea.

By Irina Zemskaya

THEY HAVE this old legend in the Crimea to explain the shape of Mt. Ayu-Dag. A great bear, they say, went down to the shore and fell asleep, and while he slumbered he turned to stone. That is why the mountain looks so much like a sleeping bear.

And this is the modern addition to the legend. Nobody knows how many years Ayu-Dag, the Bear Mountain, was fast asleep. But one day the air around its rocky ear began to buzz with children's voices and their laughter and songs, and the centuries of its quiet slumber were rent forever.

This happened 36 years ago, in 1925, when tents were set up at the foot of the mountain and Artek, the Young Pioneer Camp, was opened. Now it stretches for three miles along the seashore, no longer a simple tent camp but a self-contained town of beautiful white stone palaces and summer villas, schools, a museum and parks. There is a polyclinic too, but it's not much frequented; at Artek it's not considered good form to be sick.

The children arrive at the camp in buses that wind their tortuous way along the mountain highway from Simferopol to Gurzuf. Russians, Ukrainians, Uzbeks, Karelians, Yakutians, children from every part of the Soviet Union, cluster around the gate and stare wide-eyed at the lovely scene spread before them—tall cypresses, Crimean pines and palms, blossoming roses along the gravel paths, and the glorious blue sea beyond.

Still somewhat dazed by all this loveliness, they are called to be "introduced" to one another. "But we made friends on the way up here," they exclaim. At Artek, they learn, there is a very special way to be introduced.

On one of the twin cliffs rearing over the sea is a flat area just large enough to hold a group of children sitting close to each other. This





Only experienced hikers can reach Artek's tent town high in the mountains.



Good camp manners say help out, especially if it's a boy ironing.

Last campfire. When the flames die down, each camper picks a coal to take home. There he lights a new fire in recollection of Artek friendships.





Pushkin's Grotto—a spot the great poet loved—is the Artek angler's paradise.



is where Artek's Young Pioneers have their campfire. Overhead is the black southern sky, below are the rippling waves, and in the distance the twinkling lights of the camp.

While the fire crackles merrily, the leader tells the children about the campers of other years, now long grown, and the names they made for themselves, and of the camp's traditions and unwritten laws. Then each Young Pioneer tells about himself, the city or village he comes from, his school, the books he likes, his favorite sports. That is how the first day at Artek ends.

Days Packed with Fun

It is followed by 44 others, each one packed with exciting things to do. There are the Artek Festivals, several days of song and dance contests in which all 1,600 youngsters at the camp participate. The members of the contest juries are hard put to single out the best performers. Then there is the Olympia Club and its Little Olympic Games. The traditional torch burns for several days in the center of the camp, and the club's light-blue flag flaps in the wind as heated battles are waged on track and field, on the volleyball and basketball courts, in the swimming pool and at the chess tables. The juries have a hard time but not nearly so hard as the gardeners who have to fashion the champion laurel wreaths for practically half the children in camp.

Artek owns a fleet of sail and motor boats and stages an Aquatic Holiday during which Neptune emerges from the bottom of the sea. Though he brandishes his trident formidably, the children are not afraid of him. They jump into the sea and race, the winners receiving beautiful big sea shells as awards from Neptune.

Another Artek highlight is the fishing trip. The boat sails up to the camp's pier, and in the early morning a group of children tiptoe over the gravel on their way down to the pier so as not to awaken the others. The sun has long risen and the sea is as smooth as a lake. As soon as the boat casts anchor, the skipper cries out, "All aboard!"

One after another they jump onto the deck, and the motorboat shoots out toward Mt. Ayu-Dag. Suddenly they notice silver ripples on the smooth surface of the sea. "Mackerel hunting for food," the skipper tells the children. They spot several poles jutting out of the water, markers toward which the fishermen head to pull up nets full of cold, slippery mackerel. The children go back to camp with the fresh morning breeze blowing in their faces.

Artek has camp sites with pup tents high up in the hills where children can stay and even live for a week. They are easy enough to see but not nearly so easy to reach. Only those who are strong can get to them.

It would take too long to list all the things that are done at Artek. Once some Bulgarian fishermen pulled out of a fish net a sealed bottle containing a letter. It was a greeting the Artek Young Pioneers had sent to the children of the whole world.

Welcome Is the Word for Artek

Artek is famous for its hospitality. The sign over its gate says "Welcome," and the camp every summer greets thousands and thousands of people who come from all over the world. It is a great holiday for the children when Nikita Khrushchev visits them during his vacation. Soviet and foreign statesmen, scientists, artists and athletes leave their entries in the Honored Visitors Book. "Artek is a real heaven, but a heaven on earth," reads the comment of Henri Barbusse, the great French writer.

There will soon be many other camps, including the Morskaya, joining Artek at the foot of Mt. Ayu-Dag to accommodate as many as 4,000 children at one time. The old park atop the mountain with its collection of rare trees and bushes from many corners of the globe it to be a wild-life sanctuary for young naturalists. Artek sportsmen will be getting a new stadium, swimming pool and boat basin. The campers will have their own cable cars, miniature cars, skating rink, and ships with hydrofoils.

Time flies at Artek. The day the children leave, the campfire is lighted for the last time. They sit close-packed around it and sing their favorite songs about Bear Mountain, the morning mists over the sea and about Artek friendship. When the flames die down and only the smoldering coals remain, each child takes a piece of coal as a souvenir. And back in their villages and towns they light new campfires of friendship in loving recollection of Artek at the foot of Mt. Ayu-Dag.

VISSARION BELINSKY

On the 150th Anniversary of His Birth



THE WORLD outlook of the great Russian critic and revolutionary democrat Vissarion Belinsky was formed in the period of the thirties and forties of the nineteenth century, during the reign of Nicholas I. The struggle against serfdom and the autocracy was still the major historical task of the progressive social movement. It was a period when all social contradictions had sharpened. The feudal serf-owning system had outlived itself. Russia, slowly at first and then with gathering momentum, embarked on a course of capitalist development.

The enslaved people responded to the growing oppression of the landowners with peasant riots and disturbances that spread alarmingly. In a report made to the czar in 1839, the Chief of Police, Benkendorf, was forced to conclude that "The whole of the people's spirit aspires to one aim, liberation. . . . Serfdom is a powder barrel under the state."

In spite of every effort made by the monarchy to stifle any expression of free thought, progressive Russian culture, with close ties to the liberation movement, kept developing, maturing and growing stronger.

Vissarion Belinsky left an indelible mark not only on the literary life of the period but on Russia's philosophical and social thought in spite of a short, although extraordinary creative, life.

Education of a Revolutionary Critic

He was born in 1811 to the family of a naval surgeon. His ability and interest in literature and the theater were manifest while he was still a schoolboy. Since he had no money to buy books, he copied the verses of the best of the Russian poets from magazines and anthologies. In his teens he tried his hand at poetry and short stories, but his gifts lay in other directions. He had unusually fine aesthetic judgment, faultless taste, and the faculty of getting at the very essence of a work of art. Without finishing high school, he went to Moscow in 1829 and successfully took the examination to enter the philology department of Moscow University.

The Decembrist uprising of 1825—a revolt of members of the nobility against the autocracy—was still fresh in everybody's mind. The government, more watchful than ever, took special precautions with students and persons entering government service. Belinsky was required to sign a statement that he "did not belong to any Masonic lodge or secret society either within the empire or without," and pledged that he would have no dealings with any such groups in the future.

Alexander Herzen (1812-1870), the great revolutionary democrat and materialist philosopher, wrote of this period: "There were no secret societies, but the *secret understanding* of sympathizers was great. The groups of people who had, to a greater or lesser degree, felt the iron hand of the government, looked around them warily. Any action other than words, and those veiled, was impossible. Words, therefore, acquired great potency, the spoken word even more than the printed word since it was less likely to be detected by the police."

Belinsky was not destined to complete his higher education either. In his third year he was expelled from the university. Ostensibly it was for failing to take his examinations in time because of illness. But this was only the pretext; the university authorities had been told of his drama *Dmitri Kalinin* in which he passionately declared himself against serfdom. The play was condemned as "unmoral and a disgrace to the university."

Belinsky's thinking was greatly influenced by his friendship with Nikolai Stankevich (1813-1840), who founded a literary-philosophical circle to which the most inquiring Moscow University students belonged. At the same time, a second circle was organized by Alexander Herzen and Nikolai Ogaryov (1813-1877), the aristocrat-revolutionary. The friendship of Belinsky and Herzen grew out of ideological differences and matured in argument and debate.

Herzen describes the rivalry between the two circles in these words: "We spread the doctrine of the Decembrists and the French Revolution, later the doctrine of Saint-Simon and the same revolution. . . . But most of all we propagated hatred of all violence, of all absolutism. . . . There was not much love lost between our circle and that of Stankevich. They did not like our almost exclusively political trend; we did not like their almost exclusively speculative trend. They regarded us as Frondeurs and pro-French; we considered them sentimentalists and pro-German."

In the long run the conflict of tendencies proved temporary. Advocates of "philosophy" and "politics" were later destined to form an indestructible union, to enrich each other and to raise Russia social thought to new heights in its progress toward the ideas of socialism.

A Critical History of Russian Poetry

Belinsky's first long article, "Literary Reveries," was printed in 1834, when the writer was only 23. It introduced a wholly new and fresh critical approach. Belinsky surveyed the development of a century of Russian literature, from the time of Peter I to the first quarter of the nineteenth century, analyzing the contributions of contemporary authors and outlining the prospects for the future. Writers, he said, should express "the spirit of the people from whom they came," should reveal the people's "inner life to its very depths."

The young critic's fresh and independent thought, his bold and outspoken appraisals, made a profound impression on his readers, an impression heightened by succeeding articles.

He was the first among the Russian critics to give a farsighted and penetrating interpretation of the great literary legacy of Alexander Pushkin (1799-1837). The eleven articles he published shortly after the poet's death are the best Belinsky wrote and constitute, in effect, a critical history of Russian poetry from its beginning to its golden age.

Belinsky saw in Pushkin a genius who, while working for the present, was creating the future, the forerunner of realism in Russian poetry, the first writer to reveal the national character. The whole of Russian life, said Belinsky, was portrayed in Pushkin's works with masterful fidelity and insight.

Writing of the poet's contribution to the development of an indigenous Russian literature, Belinsky said, "No other poet exercised so strong, so multifaceted and fruitful an influence. . . . Pushkin found new sources of our poetry, originated countless new forms, enriched it with ideas. . . ."

Belinsky characterized *Yevgeni Onegin* as an encyclopedia of Russian life and indicated at the same time that Pushkin's work belonged to all mankind. "We see him as a great poet of the world," he said, and predicted that the time would come when Pushkin would be regarded as a classic poet, whose works helped shape aesthetic and moral values.

Belinsky wrote several articles on another great Russian poet—Mikhail Lermontov (1814-1841). He hailed Lermontov, practically unknown at the time, as a bright new star in Russia's literary firmament. The articles stressed the rebellious leit-motif of Lermontov's poetry—its protest against the vulgarity of life, its bitter reflections that the rights of the individual were being trampled on at every step. The strength of his poetry, Belinsky noted, lay in its uncompromising rejection of the old, of all the precepts and traditions of a doomed and dying aristocratic society.

Gogol and Realism

Belinsky's articles on Nikolai Gogol (1809-1852) are especially notable. He reveals the essential quality of this great Russian writer's work—its folk character, simplicity, its extraordinary verisimilitude.

On the basis of his analysis of the literary experience of Gogol and the Russian writers who followed the path of the author of *Dead Souls*, Belinsky created the teachings on critical realism and proclaimed Gogol the leader of a new trend in Russian literature that came to be called the naturalist school, i.e., literature that reflected "ordinary life."

Early in his career Gogol had declared himself in favor of the idea of portraying "the ordinary." "The more ordinary a thing is," he said, "the greater the poet must be in order to find the extraordinary in it."

The principle was later developed by Belinsky and became one of the cornerstones of realistic aesthetics. In the article "The Russian Short Story and Gogol's Short Stories" Belinsky promulgated a thesis almost wholly coinciding with that of Gogol's article, "The more ordinary the theme of a story, the greater the talent required to reveal it."

In this simple phrase "portraying the ordinary," the everyday reality of Russia, was contained the seed from which the whole of Gogol's creative work subsequently grew. His books, with remarkable power and penetration, dramatized the social contradictions of Russian life and were therefore, to Belinsky's thinking, in harmony with the progressive social thought of the time. He compared the publication of *Dead Souls* to a refreshing flash of lightning on a sultry night.

The reactionary critics violently attacked Gogol's satirical writing and gave a hostile reception to Belinsky's article that revealed its profound social implications. With Gogol's *Inspector General* and *Dead Souls* as weapons, the critic fought autocracy and serfdom.

However, toward the close of his life Gogol betrayed his principles. He published his reactionary "Excerpts from Correspondence with My Friends" in which he lauded such servile "virtues" as humility and obedience to authority. Belinsky wrote an angry letter to him, and with his inherent frankness and passion rebuked Gogol, demanding that he disavow the "Correspondence."

Influence on Turgenev

In the forties and fifties of the past century naturalism became the leading trend in Russian literature. Alexander Herzen's novel *Who Is To Blame?*, the first short stories from Ivan Turgenev's *Memoirs of a Sportsman*, and Ivan Goncharov's *Ordinary Story* were representative, and may be considered products, of Belinsky's teaching. He greeted the appearance of these writers with great warmth, as he did Fyodor Dostoyevsky, whom he acclaimed as a great writer after reading his first story "Poor People."

Belinsky greatly influenced Turgenev (1818-1883) who described his first meeting with the critic in the following words. "I saw a short, round-shouldered man with irregular features, but an uncommon and singular face, with fair hair falling over his forehead and that stern but restless expression so often seen in shy and lonely people. At first he spoke quite a lot, and rapidly, but without feeling and without a smile. But gradually he became more animated, his eyes opened wide and his whole face changed. When he was at his best, one could not imagine a more eloquent man. . . ."

Belinsky carefully followed the development of Turgenev's talent. When "Khor and Kalinych," the first story in *Memoirs of a Sportsman*, appeared in the first number of *Sovremennik* (*Contemporary*) for 1847, Vissarion Belinsky wrote to the author, "You yourself do not realize what 'Khor and

Kalinych' is. To judge by 'Khor,' you will go far. This is your true genre."

And it soon became evident that the writer had indeed found his genre. This was more than a personal success for Turgenev; it was a triumph of the Gogol school, united by Belinsky, and a triumph of the principles of realistic aesthetics that Belinsky was so tirelessly developing. The critic called upon writers to extend their field of observation, to express their sympathy with the oppressed people, to expose the immorality of serfdom.

Belinsky was an important influence in the lives of other Russian writers. When they moved into the circle gathered around him, they joined the company of the most advanced social thinkers of the time. In this company were discussed the vital political, social and philosophical problems of the day. Here such questions as the function of literature and the writer-citizen's responsibility to the people were argued.

He Ranged the World of Literature

Belinsky's criticism ranged far beyond the compass of Russian literature. In his articles the reader found brilliant analyses of the plays of Shakespeare and Schiller; the comedies of Molière; the novels of Cervantes, Sir Walter Scott and James Fenimore Cooper; the poetry of Goethe, Byron and others.

"I consider Belinsky," wrote Herzen, "one of the most remarkable personalities of the period of Nicholas I. In several of his critical articles, with his single-minded hatred of the authorities, he achieves almost poetic eloquence. Who does not remember his articles on Turgenev's *Parasha*, on Derzhavin, on Mochalov's Hamlet? What loyalty to principle, what fearless consistency, what ingenuity in skirting the reefs of censorship, what boldness in attacking the literary aristocrats! The great soul of a gladiator lived in this shy man, in this frail body! Yes, he was a strong fighter! . . ."

Belinsky's articles were awaited impatiently when they appeared on the 25th of each month. Students in Moscow and Petersburg would keep coming to the coffee houses to ask whether *Otechestvennye Zapiski* (*Memoirs of the Fatherland*) had arrived yet. The thick magazine was passed from hand to hand. "Is there an article by Belinsky?" If there was, it was read eagerly, sympathetically and amid laughter and debate, and three or four more of the old and venerated beliefs and authorities would go by the board.

In 1846 Belinsky left *Otechestvennye Zapiski* for the periodical *Sovremennik*, which published his memorable reviews of Russian literature of 1846 and 1847. But the critic was not fated to be the ideological leader of this journal for long. In May 1848 he died of tuberculosis.

A Forerunner of Socialist Thought

In one of his letters the great revolutionary democrat Nikolai Chernyshevsky (1828-1889), speaking of Belinsky's love for his homeland and his revolutionary fervor, says that only death saved him from arrest and exile. In spite of his shyness, notes Chernyshevsky, Belinsky was a most formidable opponent when his convictions were under attack. At such times he "spoke just as uncompromisingly as he wrote and nobody could silence him."

In his philosophical searchings, Belinsky traversed the long and difficult road from idealism to materialism. Having achieved a creative understanding of advanced Russian and West European thought and culture, Belinsky, in his last works, arrived as close as it was possible for a man of his time at a consciousness of the role and the destiny of classes in the historical process of social development. This was a tremendous step forward in the development of Russian social-political thought. Lenin grouped Belinsky with Herzen and Chernyshevsky as the predecessors of the Russian Social Democrats.

During the mid-nineteenth century, when the protest of the oppressed peasantry against serfdom was rising like an elemental wave, Belinsky was the ideologist of the peasant revolution, a fighter for the abolition of serfdom who tried to evolve a revolutionary theory that would point the way to altering existing circumstances.

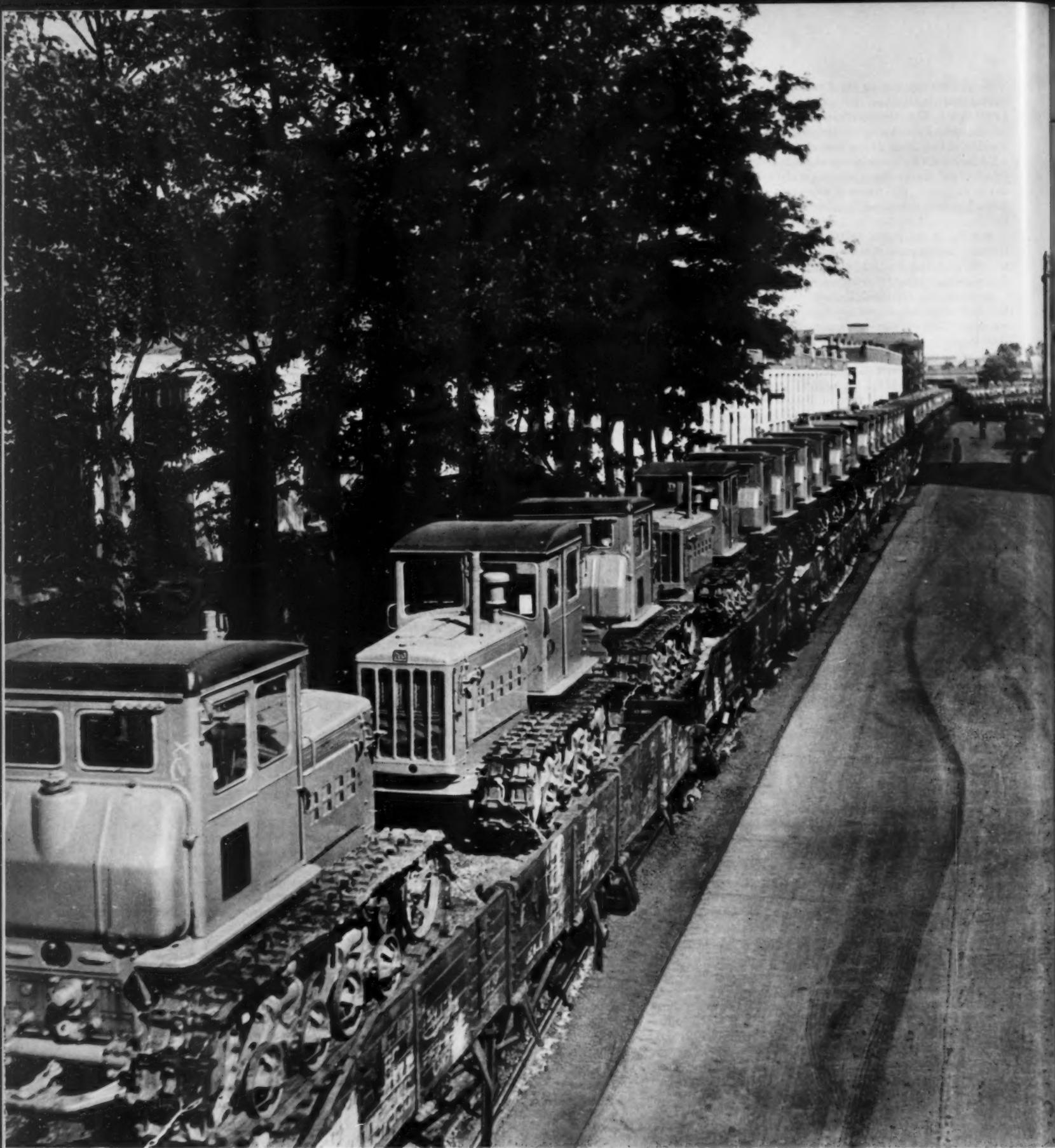
Belinsky believed in the future of the people as ardently as he championed their cause. In 1840 he wrote, "We envy our grandchildren and great-grandchildren, who are destined to see the Russian of 1940 standing at the head of the educated world, laying down the law in science and art and receiving the reverent tribute of respect from all enlightened mankind."

Belinsky played a major role in the development of nineteenth century Russian literature. His literary criticism helped writers to see the essential aspects of their work, helped others to leave the blind road of so-called pure art isolated from life for the road of creative realism. He was passionate in his support of a popular art that would meet the urgent needs of the period and the vital interests of the people.

Since he thought of literature as one of the most powerful tools in changing life, he demanded a literature of realism, a literature that revealed the national character with content that was close and meaningful to millions of readers.

His great service lay in directing the development of Russian creative writing toward realism, a course that has made it one of the world's great literatures.

The great tradition Vissarion Belinsky founded is followed by Soviet writers today, helping them to fight for a profoundly truthful, effective art, to respond to the most important themes of our time, to express the hopes and aspirations of the Soviet people.



Trainloads of farm machines of all types and for all purposes keep rolling across the country to give Soviet farmers the tools they need to grow bumper crops.

Mechanizing the Soviet Farm

By Nikolai Tarasov

Chief, Farm Machine and Automobile Administration, State Committee on Automation and Machine Building, USSR Council of Ministers

THE LAND is man's main source of food, but it cannot by itself feed him; skillful hands are needed to force the earth to yield its riches. Place in those hands highly developed instruments of labor, and the remarkable power of the land will manifest itself in bounteous harvests.

In the difficult years when the young Soviet Republic was suffering the heavy destruction inflicted by the First World War and foreign intervention, Lenin dreamed of a hundred thousand tractors for the farmers. He attached tremendous importance to machinery in developing agriculture, considering it a decisive element in transforming the countryside.

That dream has long since been realized. Today there are more than two million tractors, a half million combines and innumerable other types of farm machines working the country's fields. In the 43 years of the Soviet period the mechanical horsepower available to the farmer has multiplied almost tenfold, from 0.5 to 4.7 horsepower per worker.

In plowing, sowing and harvesting grain crops and sunflower, machines have completely replaced manual labor; for harvesting cotton, sugar beet and potatoes, for cultivating truck gardens and orchards and for doing stock farm chores, they are being used on a growing scale, although much still needs to be done to achieve complete mechanization.

Machine farming has turned great stretches of virgin and long-fallow steppeland to the plow, regenerated deserts, drained swamplands, and vastly expanded acreage. As compared with the pre-Soviet period, the country's sown area has increased by 207.5 million acres; in 1960 it totaled 501.6 million acres. There has been a corresponding growth in animal husbandry.

The rate of farm development has been especially high these past seven years when 101.3 million acres of virgin land were reclaimed and the yield of every kind of crop climbed sharply, including the basic farm products—grain, milk and meat. There was also an increase in the harvests of vegetables, fruit, tea and other crops.

And yet, with all these achievements, agriculture is not keeping step with the country's accelerated pace of economic development, with the population's rising income, and the growing demand for farm produce. The Plenary Meeting of the Central Committee of the Communist Party held in January of this year was therefore sharply critical of the shortcomings in farm management and worked out a program that would not only bridge the gap between farm supply and consumer demand in the shortest possible time but would even outpace the country's needs.

More and More Specialized Machines

A crucial element in this expansive farm development program is the uninterrupted technical progress in agriculture and completion of all-round mechanization in all its branches by 1965, the last year of the seven-year plan period.

The original target figures of the plan called for the manufacture of 1,240,000 tractors, about 400,000 grain combines, and many other types of machines between 1959 and 1965. In 1960, thanks to the fact that industry topped its quota figures for the plan and provided additional accumulations, the Central Committee of the Communist Party and the USSR Council of Ministers found it possible to boost the target figures for tractors to 1,610,000 and for grain combines to 540,000, with proportional rises for other kinds of machines. The achievements of industry in the first two years of the seven-year plan period permitted the January Plenary Meeting of the Central Committee of the Communist Party to adopt a decision projecting a new, still more appreciable, increase this year in the output of farm machinery.

However, more machinery rolling off the assembly lines is only part of the farm mechanization problem. It is not enough to increase the number of machines. To mechanize agriculture in a country as vast as ours, with diverse soil and with climate zones that range from the fringed to the subtropical, it is necessary to develop machines adapted to individual crop and definite zone requirements. Such machines have been worked out through the joint efforts of scientists, engineers, designers and production men—specialized machines for grain production, cotton growing and sugar-beet and flax cultivation, for work in orchards and

truck gardens and on stock farms. These are machines that take into account such specific features as operation in mountain areas and on very wet land, ensuring the complete mechanization of all operations in both field work and stockbreeding.

Designers develop a model to do a particular job and then adapt the basic design to suit a special situation. For example, two basic models of grain combines and twelve adapted models are being designed at present, each to be used in a different zone. One is for the dry southern part of the country, the other for the humid central region.

Staff engineers of the Taganrog Combine Works have devised a self-propelled chassis called the Taganrozhet, on which a grain combine, dump-truck body and other units can be mounted. The chassis operates as a tractor at sowing time, a combine at harvest time, and a dump truck in between. The advantage of the combination is apparent. The chassis engine does the job of at least three single engines, two of which—the one on the tractor and especially the one on the combine—are used only for short periods during the year. The chassis will thus be operating all year round on one or another job.

An important trend in the technical progress of Soviet agriculture is the transition to higher operating speeds for tractors and other basic farm machines. At present a large number of the tractors work at speeds of 4.5-5 miles an hour instead of the customary 2.5-3 miles. But this is only a preface to higher speeds. Soviet industry is already turning out tractors that do 7.5 miles an hour in the fields and 25 miles an hour in hauling operations.

The over-all power capacity of tractors is also being increased—machines with 150 and 220 horsepower engines with less weight per horsepower and lower fuel consumption. What designers have in mind is greater efficiency plus lower operating cost.

Nor are the operators being neglected in these new machines. The cab of the T-57 tractor, for example, has an air-conditioning unit that blows cool filtered air in hot weather and hot air in cold weather.

Automation the Goal

The highest stage of technical progress is automation. For a long time now Soviet agriculture has been using automatic pumping stations, incubators, relays for regulating hothouse temperatures, conveyor lines for drying and cleaning grain.

A grain harvester combine with a device that automatically adjusts to the most efficient operating conditions has been designed. Now in the testing stage is an automatic radio-equipped tractor from which one operator can control a string of machines following each other stepwise.

These are the beginnings of a process that is taking on greater and greater momentum. In the next few years it will have converted Soviet farm into a highly mechanized production line.

At its January plenary session the Central Committee of the Communist Party set the end of the current seven-year plan period as the deadline for mechanization of all branches of farm production. To meet the deadline it will be necessary to create more than 300 new models of machines and have them mass-produced. Last year 186 types of new machines and implements were designed and tested. Another 112 are planned for this year.

The new farm machinery program looks forward to an increase in the manufacture of powerful tractors operating at higher speeds; self-propelled chassis; and grain, corn and silage combines.

Work is also under way on a machine for processing grain after harvesting and on improved cotton pickers. New machines are being designed that will take over more of the stock-farm chores.

More machines are to be manufactured for irrigation and land improvement work and for farming in mountain regions. The scope of the farm machinery production program may be judged by the following—this year as many excavators will be manufactured for irrigation and melioration work as were produced nationally in 1959 for all other purposes.

Trainloads of new Soviet-made machines are rolling without pause into the countryside to give farmers the tools they need to produce as much foodstuffs—and more—than the country can consume.

THE WAR NOVELS OF KONSTANTIN SIMONOV

By Lazar Lazarev

KONSTANTIN SIMONOV's hair is liberally streaked with the gray that betokens more than the passing of years. He comes from that generation of Soviet men and women who carried the heavy burden of the relentless war against Hitlerism.

Before the war he was a poet of promise and a budding playwright whose work was known to a comparatively small circle of people. His first poems were published in 1934, when he was 19, and his first book appeared four years later. But even at that early period Simonov had already defined his hero—a strong man and a brave one, a man who had no patience with the smug and complacent, a man to whom human dignity was the primary consideration. He valued and held most dear those who devoted their lives to the struggle against fascism.

By the early days of the war, when he was only 25, he had already won popular acclaim, for he was giving poetic expression to the thoughts and feelings of millions of his countrymen. He described frontline battles in which he himself participated, episodes he himself witnessed. He was in the submarine that mined Constanta, fought with the infantrymen who defended the Crimea, penetrated the enemy rear with the scouts on the Kola Peninsula, battled at the walls of Stalingrad.

His bulldog courage and staying power were the wonder of his comrades. "He can write on the march, in a jeep, in a dugout between battles, under a tree still smoking."

In his play *The Russian People* Simonov wrote of the heroism and nobility born of those years of trial and tribulation; in his story *Days and Nights* he wrote of the legendary defenders of

Stalingrad; in the poetic cycle *With You and Without You* he wrote of lovers hopelessly separated by the war.

These works, created on the move, written literally under fire, have lost none of their immediacy, their excitement and passion, for today's reader.

Simonov wrote a great deal during those years, enough to have exhausted even his great store of vivid war impressions. But in 1945, when he published his diaries of the first six months of the war, it was evident that he still had plenty to tell his readers and that he would be returning to the subject of the war more than once.

Comrades-in-Arms

His recurrent theme is larger in scope than the war itself; it is the struggle against Hitlerism. It is this theme, for which he is best known to American readers, that runs through his two novels—*Comrades-in-Arms* and *The Living and the Dead*. Simonov made two visits to the United States, in 1946 and 1960, and met with American writers and war veterans.

Comrades-in-Arms (1953) is a novel on many planes with action laid in many parts of the world, including Moscow; the small Russian town of Vyazma; Spain of the Civil War period; Khalkhin Gol, the site of Japanese-inspired battles; the western boundary of the Soviet Union; the camp in France where the fighters of the International Brigade were interned. It has a large gallery of characters—some of whom appear again in *The Living and the Dead*—and is intended as the historical opening scene of the struggle against fascism. The

book ends with these prophetic words of one of the heroes, "There will be a wind."

The Living and the Dead

That lethal wind of war is the protagonist of *The Living and the Dead*. The book is set in the grim and terrible first months of hostilities and centers around the war correspondent Sintsov, who witnesses the retreat of the Soviet Army from the western boundary of the Soviet Union to Moscow and suffers the horrors of encirclement and capture.

Behind Sintsov and the soldiers he encounters is the vast and turbulent panorama of a nation fighting off attack and invasion, a panorama of tragedy and of sublime courage. The novel describes the war in all its truth, a good deal of it bitter truth. Simonov writes not only of the faith of the people, the fearlessness and courage of the fighting men, but he also describes the muddle and the confusion that resulted from a lack of preparedness.

But the more you delve into the novel, the more you think about it, the more apparent becomes its essential message—the strength of the Soviet nature, the solidity of the Soviet social structure, the indomitable spirit of the people. Simonov's book makes you see why the war that began so auspiciously for fascism on that June morning in 1941 ended four years later in Berlin with Hitler Germany defeated.

The Living and the Dead is one of the most widely read novels published last year. Librarians, the most infallible statisticians of readers' likes and dislikes, say that copies have not been staying on the shelves long enough to gather even the thinnest film of dust.

THE LIVING AND THE DEAD

AN EXCERPT FROM THE NOVEL

BY KONSTANTIN SIMONOV

A comparative lull had set in on the Yelnya sector of the front after our successful offensive battles there in August and September. Lieutenant Colonel Klimovich's tank brigade was deployed in a forest south of Yelnya; its reconnaissance battalion, operating as infantry, held a three-mile defensive area on the forward edge.

Just before the war, Klimovich's tank brigade had been stationed near Slonim. About seventy men of the original complement were now on the rolls. Some had been killed while the brigade pushed its way out of encirclement through the forests toward Slutsk and Bobruisk. Others had fallen in the covering operations at Mogilev; still others had been casualties of the August and September battles near Yelnya.

On the eve of the Yelnya fighting the brigade had been brought up to full strength, half with old BT-7 tanks and half with new T-34 tanks. The "34's," as everybody called them right from the start, had shown themselves to be first-class machines, and they had borne the brunt of the Yelnya battles. Although every battalion had suffered large losses, the brigade was not withdrawn to the rear. Fresh replacements of men and tanks, this time all the 34's, were due to arrive. Klimovich, who had fallen in love with those machines during the Yelnya fighting, looked forward to them with an impatience understandable only to a tankman who twice since the outbreak of the war had miraculously escaped from BT-7's that had gone up in flames like matchboxes. Those light tanks were fast but weak in armor and firepower, weaknesses which had been obvious even before. Yet the

promised T-34 replacements had not come, and Klimovich had gone into the fighting on the western border with the outmoded BT-7's.

On the fifth day of the war he had barely held himself back from shooting a company commander on the spot. In a fit of helpless rage the officer had started shouting, right there in front of the men, that fighting in those matchboxes was impossible. In an engagement an hour later the commander destroyed a German tank and then his own went up in flames before Klimovich's eyes.

At Yelnya Klimovich had experienced a dual feeling of pride and bitterness—pride in these men of his, who in the new tanks had cracked the German machines like walnuts, and bitterness because he had not had a single T-34 in the early days of the war and had had to give up two tanks for one instead of one for two.

Now, during the lull, he had repaired all the remaining BT-7's and kept drumming it into the heads of his subordinates that it was possible to fight with those machines, too, although deep inside he was waiting for the new tanks more eagerly than he had ever waited for anything.

Even before, he had been one of those who are called the "backbone of the army," but now, when military service had become combat service, the army filled his whole life. He thought about his brigade and nothing else because he had nothing else. Before the war he had lived with four other people; three of them he loved, and the fourth he looked after because he considered it his duty—his daughter, his

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son, his wife and his mother-in-law. On the third day of the war a bomb had hit their car on the highway and killed all four. He had thought them safe. When he learned the news he was in the middle of a battle, so that he could not even get to see what was left of them being buried.

He was only thirty, and if anybody had ever thought of saying to him: "Yes, the most horrible thing in the world has happened to you, but you're still young. You don't really mean to say there won't be anything in your life to take the place of what you have lost, do you?"—despite the depths of his sorrow he probably would have answered, truthfully, "No, I don't." But during all those months it had never occurred to any of those who heard his firm voice and saw his locked-up expression to ask him what he thought he'd be doing after the war, all alone. Nor did he himself ever think about life after the war. He himself was the war, and as long as the war was on he thought of nothing else. His heart was empty of everyone and everything.

On the evening of October 1, he sat in brigade headquarters, a ramshackle and dirty hut on the outside but scrubbed clean inside—he was a stickler for cleanliness—reading "New Tales of the Good Soldier Schweik," written by a frontline satirist. Most men at the front liked these stories, but for Klimovich they had no appeal. The Germans still had the upper hand, and he thought it was too early to laugh at them. He read the stories all the same, though, because it was his habit to go through the Front newspaper from beginning to end in search of useful pointers for his brigade.

The telephone on his desk rang. Folding the newspaper so that his place was on the crease and would be easy to find, Klimovich picked up the receiver. It was the commander of the reconnaissance battalion reporting an extraordinary occurrence: repeated machine-gun, tommy-gun and rifle fire, and grenade bursts were coming from the rear of the German troops stationed opposite the battalion. Klimovich moved the

receiver away from his ear, pushed open the window and listened. His trained ear caught the faint echoes of distant fighting.

"I'm coming right over," he said. "Wait for me."

It had just stopped raining, and it was dark and damp in the forest. The lieutenant assigned to meet him walked in front, his hands on his tommy gun and his elbows spreading out the sides of his soaked rain cape. As Klimovich passed by a BT-7 tank camouflaged in a deep trench, his thoughts returned to the constant theme: "If only we'd get those 34's soon!"

The observation post was situated on the fringe of the woods. In the daytime it commanded a good view of an unmown meadow sloping gently down toward a stream, and a similar meadow rising in the same gentle slope toward a woods on the other side, the German side, where two burned-out tanks stood side by side, one a BT-7 and the other a German T-4. They had stood there like that for nearly a month, like inseparable twins.

Here and there white and red signal rockets soared above the German forest in front of them, and flares from explosions lighted the sky. The machine-gun and rifle fire was now no longer a mile behind the German forward edge, as the commander of the reconnaissance battalion had reported thirty minutes earlier, but quite near. The German positions were 400 yards away, and the firing was taking place about 500 yards farther back, where, according to reconnaissance information, the second line of German trenches were.

The excitement felt by the men at the observation post communicated itself to Klimovich. They all thought the same thing but were afraid to believe it.

"Ivanov, man the tanks!" Klimovich ordered the commander of the reconnaissance battalion after having heard his report on the observations made during the previous half hour.

"Yes, Comrade Lieutenant Colonel!" replied Ivanov. He could not

refrain from asking, "Are we going to push forward to meet them?"

"We'll decide, depending on the situation," Klimovich said.

Then he went down into the dugout and told the telephone operator to connect him with army headquarters.

He had rung up headquarters before setting out, and now it was time to call again. As the operator reached out to crank the handle, the telephone rang. It was headquarters asking for Klimovich.

"What can you see there? Give us a report," the Army Commander said.

Klimovich reported that he saw rockets and the flare of explosions, that fighting was going on 800 or 900 yards away inside the German lines.

"Your neighbor on the right reports the same thing. But the fighting is on his right, or straight ahead of you, on a narrow front. How do you size up the situation and what do you intend to do?"

Klimovich told the Army Commander what he and everybody in the reconnaissance battalion thought: that a unit emerging from encirclement was fighting its way through the German forward position on their sector. He asked permission to bring up tanks and carry out a reconnaissance in force left and right of the sector from which they heard the fighting that was going on the German lines.

There was a pause of several seconds at the other end of the wire. Then the Army Commander said that so far as he knew there had not been any encircled units in the immediate rear of the Germans for a long time. He suggested that this might be a clever ruse to draw us forward in order to smash us and then break through our positions.

"I am taking that possibility into account," Klimovich said. "There will be precautionary measures, and I will leave some 34's in ambush."

"You've got eleven of them, haven't you?"

In those days each T-34 was precious, and the Army Commander knew where each one was.

"Yes, eleven. But just the same, if those are our men trying to break through, we have to help them, don't we?"

Again there was a pause at the other end of the line. Klimovich heard voices but could not make out what they were saying. The Army Commander was probably talking it over with a member of the Military Council or with his chief of staff.

"Go ahead," the Army Commander said a minute later. "Report every half hour."

Klimovich put down the receiver and started preparing for the attack without losing a moment. He spoke with the battalion commanders over the telephone and issued instructions. Meanwhile the din of the fighting was heard shifting now to the right, now to the left, now moving forward, now receding alarmingly. No, this could not be a ruse; 800 yards away, between the first and second German lines, men were moving, dying, pushing forward and withdrawing, pressed in on all sides by a moving ring of German fire that grew heavier every minute. It was as though a living, bleeding heart were thrashing about there inside the German positions, and on all sides it was being speared by the flashes of explosions, pierced by tommy-gun bursts, and ripped by volleys of mortar fire.

If the Army Commander had forbidden him to go to the aid of the encircled men who were now dying a stone's throw from their own forces after having covered probably hundreds of miles, that would have been the blackest day in Klimovich's life as a soldier. If he had been told beforehand that he was sure to be killed while helping them, he would have gone into battle anyway, without a moment's hesitation.

When that bleeding, lacerated heart gave a last desperate push and advanced another two hundred yards closer to the German frontline trenches, and when eight BT-7 tanks and a hundred and fifty men of the reconnaissance battalion dashed toward the German lines to meet it, it was more than simply a bold night attack; it was a concentrated and invincible spiritual movement of all the men in that reconnaissance battalion, so depleted in the months of fighting.

Klimovich's plan of striking to the left and right of the strip where our men were fighting their way out of the German rear proved to be correct, and it bore fruit at once. When the Germans, who had moved up along the trenches to the expected place of the breakthrough in order to close its narrow mouth with a living cork, heard the roar of tank motors and shouts of "Hurrah!" they hurriedly started moving back to the right and left. A double shift of that kind cannot be made at night without creating confusion; in this case the confusion was heightened because the breakthrough from the rear and the frontal attack came as a double surprise to the Germans.

The fighting ended an hour later. At times it flared up here and there and then died down, and then once again belated tommy-gun bursts rattled somewhere in the darkness, as though in an empty pail. Klimovich lost two tanks blown up by German mines and fifteen men killed on the banks of the stream. But in the confusion of the battle more than three hundred men—even by the rough, night count—a whole battalion had broken through the German lines and now, wild with joy though tattered and starving, the hale and the wounded, still holding their guns, streamed through the trenches toward the dugouts of the tankmen.

Radio stations all over the world gave a step-by-step account of how the icebreakers and aircraft of six countries rescued the twelve members of the Nobile expedition from the ice; newspapers all over the world reported how flyers had saved the crew of the *Chelyuskin* from imprison-

ment by the ice; tens of millions of people waited with bated breath for news when three expeditions moved simultaneously to rescue the four men on the North Pole ice floe. But the happenings of that night on the sector of the reconnaissance battalion of the 17th Tank Brigade took up only half a page in the operations bulletin of the front and did not even get into the Soviet Information Bureau bulletin—but the greatest of all human joys, the joy of men who have saved the lives of other men, was not a fraction the less for it. All night long that joy sang in the hearts, glowed in the faces, and lived in the handshakes of the men in every dugout of Klimovich's tank brigade, wherever rescued and rescuers sat side by side, embraced, and, incoherently interrupting one another, told the story of how it had all happened. They ate their fill of bread, porridge and canned meat, and slept like logs on cots and bunks, on earthen floors and prickly fir branches.

In the last battle Brigade Commander Serpilin, leader of the breakthrough group, was wounded in both legs. His adjutant and two tommy-gunners carried him into Klimovich's hut on his greatcoat and put him on top of the blue quilt that covered the peasant bed. Serpilin lay back against the high white pillows, lanky, grimy, unshaven, his sparse gray hair disheveled. But he was dressed according to regulations, wearing the Order of the Red Banner and the 20 Years of the Workers' and Peasants' Red Army Medal on his tunic, with insignia on his dirty collar tabs. The rhomb on one side real, with the enamel on it, flaking, but the other was made of a piece of wool cut from a cap band.

Serpilin's legs, in breeches slit open above the knee, lay on the blue quilt; blood seeped through the muddy bandages.

After the tommy-gunners had placed him on the bed, they left the hut together with Klimovich's orderly, who was eager to get them fed. Serpilin's adjutant, a very tall and emaciated political instructor, stood like a guardian angel at the head of his commander's bed, leaning on the bedstead and looking down steadily into his face.

Klimovich sat down on a stool beside the bed. "I've summoned the doctor. He will be here any minute now, Comrade Brigade Commander. Suppose he dresses your wounds first and we talk later?"

"No doctor, Lieutenant Colonel," Serpilin said in a low but firm voice, moving his lips with difficulty. "Send me straight to the medical battalion. They won't operate here anyway. But first connect me with the Army Commander. Are you on a direct line?"

"Yes."

"Who's your Army Commander?"

Klimovich named him.

"Sergei Filippovich?" The shadow of a smile flickered across Serpilin's exhausted face.

"Yes."

"We were classmates at the Academy. Connect us."

Klimovich rang up the Army Commander at once. He had to report to him anyway; and what with all the excitement, he was ten minutes late as it was.

"Lieutenant Colonel Klimovich reporting," he said, when the Army Commander picked up the receiver. "As a result of the battle about three hundred men, with arms, have come over into my sector. The commander of the group wants to speak to you."

"Let's have him," the Army Commander said. There was the same quiver of excitement in his voice as in Klimovich's.

Walking around the table and pulling the wire under it, Klimovich brought the telephone up to the head of the bed. The Brigade Commander threw back his head, saw the face of the adjutant above him, and made a sign with his eyes which the man understood at once. He adjusted the pillow and helped the Brigade Commander to prop himself up on it.

"Comrade Commander," the wounded man said into the telephone, not in the low tone in which he had spoken to Klimovich but in a loud, strong voice, "this is Brigade Commander Serpilin reporting. I have brought out into your sector the 176th Rifle Division in my command . . . Hello, Sergei Filippovich, this is Serpilin."

On those last words his voice failed him; a spasm locked his throat, and he fell sideways together with the pillow. It was all so sudden that the adjutant did not have time to catch him. The receiver fell to the floor. As Klimovich picked it up, he heard the Army Commander's voice:

"Serpilin? Is that you, Fyodor Serpilin?" the Army Commander said into the receiver, which Klimovich now put to his ear because Serpilin had lost consciousness.

The doctor, who had just run in, was already bending over him, cutting the muddy bandages with a scissors, while the nurse quickly laid out the cases with the hypodermic and ampoules on a stool.

"Why don't you answer, Serpilin? Is that you? Which Serpilin? Why don't you answer me?" the Army Commander shouted into the receiver, his voice breaking. Klimovich, looking at the unconscious Serpilin, hadn't thought to tell the Army Commander that he was at the other end of the wire and not Serpilin.

"Comrade Army Commander," he said at last, tearing his eyes away from Serpilin, whose arm the doctor had rubbed with a wad of cotton dipped in ether before giving him an injection. "This is Lieutenant Colonel Klimovich. I've picked up the receiver. The Brigade Commander is wounded. He's lost consciousness."

"What does he look like? Tall and thin and partly bald?"

"Yes, that's right." Klimovich replied without looking at Serpilin. He would remember for the rest of his life that Serpilin was tall and thin



BY NIKOLAI VOROBYEV

and partly bald, that he wore one rhomb of chipped enamel and the other cut from a cap band, that on his chest was the Order of the Red Banner and the 20 Years of the Workers' and Peasants' Red Army Medal. With men like him the army would always be an army, even if it had retreated from the border to Yelnya. He was the kind of man one did not have to look at twice to understand and remember.

"That's him, that's Serpilin! Where did he come from? Why he—" and the Army Commander nearly blurted out something that was no business of Klimovich's at all. After a short pause, he added that he would come to the brigade at once.

"Have you got a doctor there? What does he say?"

"Yes, we have, Comrade Army Commander. I'll ask him."

Klimovich turned to the doctor. "The Army Commander will be here soon. He wants to know the Brigade Commander's condition."

The doctor stood over Serpilin, the empty hypodermic still in his hand.

"There's no point in his coming," the doctor said without even turning his head. "I'll apply a tourniquet and then we'll ship him to the medical battalion and put him straight on the table. Tell the Army Commander every minute is precious."

Klimovich picked up the receiver again. "Comrade Army Commander, the doctor says the Brigade Commander has to be taken straight to the operating table at the medical battalion." He heard the Army Commander release his breath sharply and then swear softly but with feeling.

"Then tell the doctor to do that. Tell him I'll go to the medical battalion myself, maybe even get there before the operation. But, on second thought, don't tell him that; he might get nervous and bungle the operation. Tell him I'll come to the medical battalion right after the operation. After you've sent them off give the rest of your report to the chief of staff. That's all from me."

Ten minutes later a stretcher was brought in and Serpilin was placed on it. Klimovich went out to the ambulance to see him off. Serpilin's adjutant started climbing into the ambulance after the doctor and nurse, but the doctor said there was no room for him, and no need for him to go, besides.

"I'm going along just the same, Comrade Army Doctor," the adjutant said, holding on to the side of the ambulance.

"Comrade Lieutenant Colonel!"

To the doctor's surprise, Klimovich supported the adjutant. Klimovich found it quite natural that the adjutant should want to accompany his Brigade Commander to the medical battalion.

"That's all right, climb in! There'll be room for you. And then come back here in the same ambulance."

"That depends on what the Brigade Commander says," the adjutant replied.

"Of course. But if you do come back, come straight to me."

"Comrade Lieutenant Colonel!" the adjutant shouted from the ambulance after it started down the road. "Tell Shmakov, our commissar, that I'm with the Brigade Commander."

The ambulance drove off.

It flashed through Klimovich's mind that he had seen that lanky political instructor somewhere before. He returned to the hut, moved the telephone back to its former place and rang up his deputy to warn him against giving the emaciated men too much food or vodka in all the joy and excitement.

"A tankman's hospitality knows no bounds," the deputy replied, laughing it off.

"Put bounds to it just the same," Klimovich said curtly. "And see that all the men are bathed by morning. That will be real hospitality!"

Next he rang up his brigade commissar and asked him whether Shmakov, commissar of the group that had broken through, was with him.

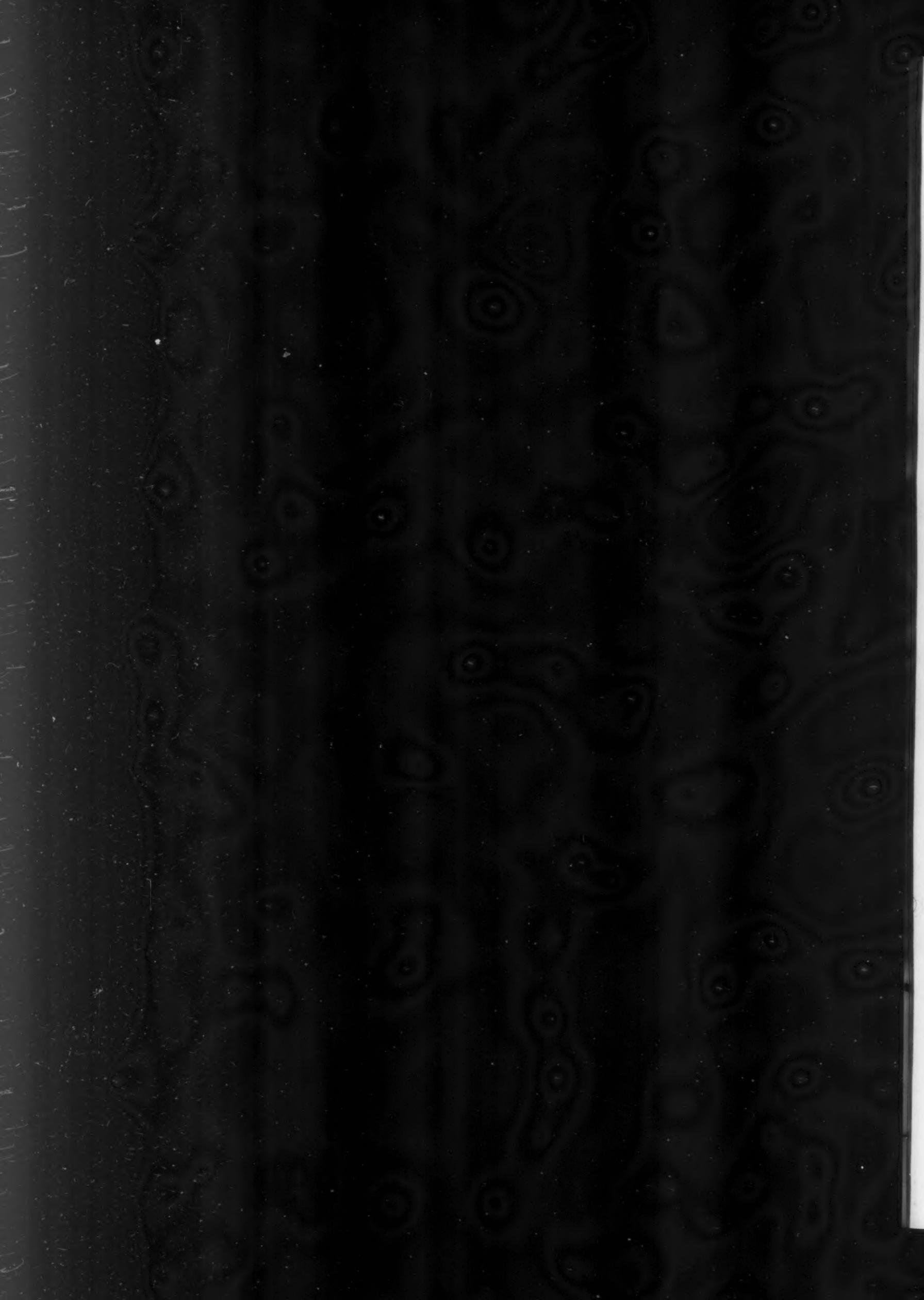
"Yes, he's here. He's got a slight head wound. We dressed it right here. He's been resting and now we're going to have supper."

"All right, you start and I'll join you," Klimovich said. Then, telling his orderly what to do in case the political instructor came back for the night, he left the hut.

Low, jagged gray clouds scudded across the sky, and pale autumn stars twinkled through them. The front was wrapped in dead silence, as though there had been no battle.







BOOKSHOP IN LVOV

By Zinaida Anisimova
Photos by Alexander Makletsov

ONE OF THE BUSIEST—and quietest—stores in Lvov, the Ukrainian city, is the old bookshop we are visiting on the square named for Poland's great poet, Adam Mickiewicz. The glass doors and the big show windows with their display of books face the poet's statue.

Inside the spacious and brightly lighted shop there are crowds of people around the stacks but curiously little noise, as though it were generally understood that here the books speak for themselves. There are hundreds and thousands of them. Large and small, thick and thin, colorfully illustrated or in severe paperbacks, they fill the shelves, counters, glass cases and tables.

The Ukrainian poet Taras Shevchenko looks at us pensively from the cover of an illustrated volume of his *Kobzar*. Hounded by the police of czarist Russia, this poet of the people wrote of that happy time to come when Ukrainians would be free and would remember him with a kindly word. Not only Ukrainians but all Soviet people honor Shevchenko's memory, and now that Lvov is commemorating the centenary of the poet's death, his books are moving especially fast.

In the Ukrainian classics section we also find Ivan Kotlyarevsky, Mikhail Kotsyubinsky, Arkhip Teslenko, Lesya Ukrainka, Marko Vovchok, Ivan Franko and others who have added to the world's store of great literature.

At the counter near us is tenth-grader Ganya Leskiv. She is so engrossed in the poetry of Ivan Franko that she is quite oblivious of her surroundings. Franko, like his predecessor Shevchenko, was a revolutionary democrat who fought for the rights of his people. His verses are widely read.

In the Russian classics section buyers are leafing through books by Pushkin, Gogol, Lermontov, Tolstoy, Dostoyevsky, Turgenev, Chekhov, Bunin and other writers.

The Soviet literature section, we are told, offers some 500 titles by contemporary Ukrainian and Russian poets and novelists, among them Sholokhov, Paustovsky, Gorky, Alexei Tolstoy, Leonov, Fadeyev, Gladkov, Panferov, Simonov, Tvardovsky, Pavel Ty-china and Maxim Rylsky. An adjoining section labeled "Literature of the Peoples of the USSR" seems equally well stocked.

We make the acquaintance of some of the shop's customers. Nikolai Slyzhnyak, a fitter at the Lvov Dye and Varnish-Making Factory, is collecting books for a home library. He

now has about 600 volumes of Ukrainian, Russian and foreign classic and modern writers. He came in, he tells us, to buy some recently published books on trade unionism. He is an active trade unionist, a member of his shop committee.

The stocky elderly man headed for the foreign literature section is Andrei Afonin, chairman of the Lenin Collective Farm in Stryisky District. He is looking for a book by the German naturalist and traveler Edward Peppig. He finds it and also picks up Arnold Zweig's *The Rainbow* and a volume of Ibsen's plays.

Afonin explains, "I spend all my spare time reading. I don't have too much of it to spend, the farm takes a lot of attention. And then I have my studying to do. Never too late to learn, they say. You wouldn't think it but I'm a second year student at an agricultural school."

The foreign literature section is one of the largest in the shop. Here we find translations of Jack London, Anatole France, Flaubert, Boleslaw Prus, Mark Twain, Dickens, Remarque, Shakespeare, Feuchtwanger, Hemingway, Victor Hugo, Balzac, Goethe, Heine, Washington Irving, Galsworthy, Sienkiewicz and Protoloni. This section is catalogued to help customers find what they want quickly, and a recommended reading list is available.

Lidiya Zavgorodnaya takes a copy of the reading list. She is 22 years old, a book-keeper and a correspondence course student at the Kiev Institute. She leaves with a book on John Brown by the American Negro scholar W. E. B. DuBois.

Sales are brisk, but that, we are told, is the usual thing in the bookshop. While we are there Kukarkin's new book on Charlie Chaplin is put on sale. In less than an hour it is sold out and there is a rush call to the publisher for more copies.

People come in for books by Lvov authors—prose writer Petro Kozlonyuk, poet Dmitro Pavlusky, and playwright Mikhail Biryukov. Gathered round the show cases displaying the works of Ukrainian, Russian and foreign dramatists are playgoers and members of the city's many amateur theater groups. Books on the history of music, art, the stage and cinema seems to be very steady sellers.

The children's section has its quota of browsers. Misha Gontar, a third-grade pupil, is taken with a collection of Ukrainian folk tales, and little Seryozha Boiko, there with

his mother, becomes the proud owner of the beautifully illustrated *Three Little Companions*.

In the non-fiction sections are books on world affairs; history; economics; philosophy; the writings of Marx, Engels, Lenin; reference books of all kinds; dictionaries by the shelfful.

Vasili Berezyuk, a student at the Lvov Franko State University, is buying *De Rerum Natura (On the Nature of Things)* by the Roman poet-philosopher Lucretius, and the two-volume memoirs of the czarist minister Count Witte is being wrapped for Grigori Sidorenko, a teacher.

The *History of Political Doctrines* and English physicist J. D. Bernal's *A World Without War* are also selling well, the sales-clerks tell us.

They are mostly young people, these clerks, very accommodating and helpful. They are book-minded people, of course, many of them evening and correspondence school students at pedagogical and technical institutes.

Salesgirl Lyudmila Samsonova is a student at the Commercial and Economic Institute. "My job helps me with my studies, and the other way round," she says. Lyudmila works in the economics section of the store.

Section chief Nadezhda Utrobina says, "Our job is to have the book here for the reader—whoever he is and whatever book he asks for."

The shop manager's desk is strewn with book advertisements, posters and copies of the retail trade bulletin *Books for the Masses* that gives sales information, shop news and announces forthcoming titles.

The Lvov bookshop, like others throughout the country, arranges periodic reader-author conferences. It sets up book exhibits and supplies readers with the answers to all kinds of book questions.

Very recently some twenty of the shop's regular book buyers set themselves up as "book propagandists." They are volunteer booksellers in the shops of the Lvov Auto-Loader Works and elsewhere. The group now has counterparts in others of the city's big factories. These "book propagandists," together with the shop workers, organize special book days at the factories when they deliver books ordered by the workers and arrange book reviews. We don't wait for the readers to come to the books, they say, we bring the books to the readers.

STUDENT PRODUCTION OF

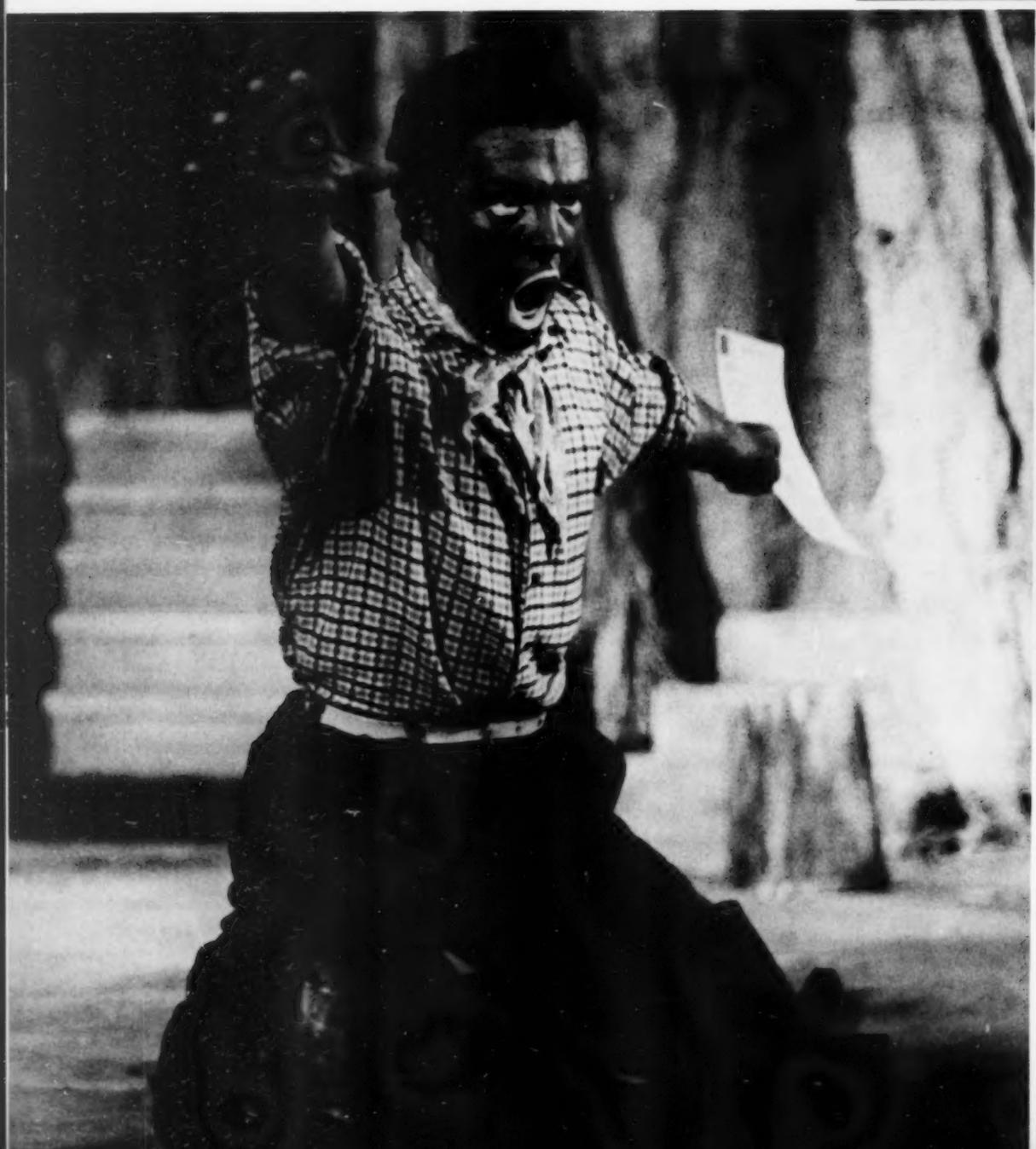
PORGY AND BESS



Bess—Maya Kokhanova

Sporting Life—Nikolai Dyomin

Porgy—Yuri Burykh



By Boris Pokrovsky

Professor, Lunacharsky Institute of the Theater Arts

GEORGE GERSHWIN'S name is often listed on the concert billboards of Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev and other cities. His music is played by symphony orchestras and jazz bands. Our listeners know the songs from his *Porgy and Bess*, and some of them were lucky enough to see the Everyman Opera production when the American company brought it to the Soviet Union.

But *Porgy and Bess* never had a Russian production, so you can imagine how pleased and excited my students were when I brought the piano score to class and told them we were going to work on *Porgy and Bess*. "To work on" for us meant to take the score and libretto apart so that we could get to know these unfamiliar characters and the lives they lived, their qualities as individuals and those they shared as a people.

Gershwin gave us plenty of material to work on. Each of his characters is an individual with diverse hopes and dreams. Gershwin believes in the inherent goodness of man and he makes the listener believe in it too.

My students loved the music—its fresh rhythms, original melodies and genuine feeling—and they worked on it for a year with great enthusiasm. They learned a great deal during that time as was evident in the staged

production. Although our student theater is a very modest one, our audiences are not inclined to excuse a poor performance on the grounds of youth and inexperience. We were all tremendously happy, therefore, at the response; our audiences forgot that the performers were still students.

Everyone in the production worked hard to do the Gershwin work justice. We wanted our audiences to love Porgy and his friends just as the composer loved them and as we did, and to hate all the Crowns and Sporting Lives just as we did. We wanted the people in the audience to feel a sense of kinship with all other men regardless of country, creed or color. We wanted them to prize man's spiritual wealth and to believe in the might and all-conquering power of kindness.

I know that Semyon Sakharov, the conductor and director; Vladimir Talalai, the set designer; Professor Nina Zbruyeva, head of the institute's department of music training; and Irina Nestor, head of the musical comedy actors department, were all generously rewarded for their efforts. As for me, I enjoyed every minute of it. All of us, including the students, are glad to have been able to contribute our small share to the American-Soviet cultural exchange program.

Act I, Scene III





The only headache of any size we had on an otherwise perfect cruise was getting all our paraphernalia in. I still don't know how we managed it.



Vladimir Tkachenko, a fitter, besides being the owner of our 3-horsepower craft, was also an angler of local note and the life of our party.



Nikolai Bigus, also a fitter, had something of a reputation for his very healthy appetite. It therefore seemed only right to appoint him chef.

Five in a Boat

Photo Story by Nikolai Kozlovsky

There is nothing in the best cookbook to beat the woody smell and taste of fish you caught yourself cooked on an open fire.





It also seemed fair for the man who caught the fish to pay for his fun by cleaning it. That didn't stop any of us from trying for the biggest catch.



The lady absorbed in Heyerdahl's Kon-Tiki in this photo and scrubbing the pot in the one to the left is Masha, Nikolai's sister. She works in a bank.



Anatoli Sadovsky managed pretty well with nature's mirror. He works as a punch-press operator.

WE could have had a wonderful time vacationing at one of the holiday resorts on the Baltic coast or down south in the Crimea or the Caucasus. But we had done that other summers and we wanted something different.

So we decided on a nautical camping trip. There were five of us in the boat, all from Kiev. The weather was glorious, our spirits high, and the Desna, we all agreed, was the most beautiful of rivers.

We even managed to find a sandspit just about the right size for the five of us and the tents, where we felt like Robinson Crusoes in modern dress version.



The title of this picture story is "Five in a Boat" and only four are accounted for. Where's the fifth? Me. Somebody had to take the pictures.

(from Ogonyok Magazine)

USA-USSR TRACK AND FIELD

By Victor Kuprianov

THE USA-USSR track-and-field meets are always headline news on which sports writers exhaust their stock of superlatives. The last one, held in Philadelphia in 1959, was called the match of the century. And it was. The next one, scheduled July 15 and 16 in Moscow, promises to be still more thrilling. What name will we be giving it?

Soviet-American matches are mileposts for measuring achievement in track and field. These meets usually eclipse everything else not merely because these are two titans competing, but because new techniques and tactics evolve from which the rest of the athletic world benefits.

When high-jumpers John Thomas and Valeri Brumel compete, it is no longer a contest between individuals but one between schools of training, between athletic points of view. To the layman it may be merely a matter of who clears the bar and who doesn't. To the coach it is more than that. An athlete can do so much and no more through personal ability, but with proper techniques he can raise that ceiling.

Our coaches believe that proper techniques are built up on all-round physical fitness. They rule out the business of runners only running or jumpers only jumping. Physical fitness comes first. That's why our athletes spend so much time out-of-doors even in winter time.

Take Valeri Brumel—there was a period when lack of muscle kept him from reaching the top. His coach put him through a muscle build-up program that worked wonders. In spite of his Olympic triumph, he still works hard to pile on muscle.

Another very important point is that an athlete has to be a fighter to win in this day of superathletes. Our coaches get their men to perform under pressure. All selections for the national team are made in a series of qualifying meets. Past performance is no longer enough.

The USSR team that competes against American athletes in Moscow will not only be made up of leading performers; each one of them will be a tough fighter who won his or her berth on the team by hard work and tough competition.

There was a time when you could count the athletes' home towns on your fingers. This time our team will be made up of people who come from places you never knew existed. Their age? Well, a few years will be whittled off our usual average age.

One of the big problems the selectors always encounter is what to do with the veterans. It's nice to give the youngsters a chance, but what if they still lack international seasoning? Sometimes a youngster is beaten even before he starts because he is awed by the name of his famous rival. On the other hand a veteran does not become younger with age—unfortunately.

This season the selectors will have it harder than ever before. All athletes are gearing their training schedules to reach peak form by the USA-USSR meet in July. That means results will be coming in so thick and fast that electronic computers will probably have to be used to make the best choice. And Valeri Brumel has let it be known that he plans to have a crack at the world record at that time.

The USSR hopeful in the decathlon, Vasili Kuznetsov, had some bad breaks last season. Leg injuries in the pole vault kept his point total down, and there was talk that he was through. When asked about it, Kuznetsov said, "I'll keep on competing until someone is ready to step into my boots." And all the boys back home began trying on those boots to see where they fit and where they pinch. Meanwhile Kuznetsov went on training, and from the looks of it he will be in fine form this season.

Another veteran we expect to zoom up into the headlines is Yan Krasovskis, the pole-vaulter. Then there is a 20-year-old from Novosibirsk, Babak, who is also a good prospect.

In the distance events we still expect Pyotr Bolotnikov to be as strong and fast as ever. Incidentally, Bolotnikov has a plan to keep the family name among the record-holders; he is training his younger brother for distance running. He told us with brotherly pride, "The kid is certainly making the grade." Last season Pyotr broke the world record for the 10,000-meter and almost did the same in the 5,000-meter event. Bad

weather ruined his chances. What will happen this season? So far everyone is optimistic.

We have a new find in the 5,000-meter—Yevgeni Momotkov, mining engineer from Tula. Last year he was rated the fastest 1,500-meter man. This season he went to Madison Square Garden for the U.S. Indoor Championship and brought back a bronze medal. The interesting thing about it is that in New York he ran two and three miles, distances that are new for him. Now coaches seem to feel he is a very likely 5,000-meter prospect, along with Alexander Artinyuk of Leningrad and Boris Yefimov of Siberia.

There seems to be no dearth of distance men. Not so in the other events. The men's sprints have been giving us some concern.

We seem to be able to develop crack relay teams, but our individual performers lag behind. Not that our sprinters lack speed. The actual running time in the 400-meter relay of the USSR team just about equals that of the American athletes. The problem is in the start. In the 100-meter class we should see the veterans Barteniev and Konovalov still going strong. They will probably make the relay team.

In the individual sprints we have our eyes on a fast 20-year-old boy in Kazakhstan—Tuyakov. Another new name that might appear in the lineup is Politiko. He did 100 meters in 10:2 in Cairo. Despite the wealth of new material, however, we do not look forward to a sprint victory as yet.

In the 400-meter event we do not feel too strong either, although everyone is talking about a boy named Shopshin from Krasnodar. He is only 20 and shows signs of developing into a runner of world-record caliber. Otherwise this division leaves much to be desired.

Middle-distance running has always been our Achilles' heel. This is not only because we have no fast runners, but because these distances are not very popular yet. For some reason our youngsters prefer the longer distances. Milers have no glamour for them. With all this, however, we hope to show up stronger than ever in the 800-meter event.

In the hurdles we are not too optimistic, although we look forward to our Leningrad engineering student Anatoli Mikhailov winning applause with some outstanding performances. He has already been breaking indoor records and even beating the sprinters at their own game.

The field events will be eclipsed by the high jump. Valeri Brumel's coach Vladimir Dyachkov (he was named best trainer in Europe in an American poll) expects him to turn up with a world record jump.

The women's events are making forecasters rub their chins. At past meets it was the fair sex that gave the USSR national team its winning team total, but now word has gotten round that the USA finally is developing women athletes of international caliber. What that means is a crack team; and if the caliber measures up to Wilma Rudolph's, the USSR will have a hard time.

The Soviet distaff line-up will include formidable performers. The Press sisters, Irina and Tamara, still hold three world records between them, and they should bring the USSR team a good number of points. One new name we expect to see in the headlines is Schelkanova, an electrotechnical communications student. A few months ago she eclipsed the world indoor record for the broad jump. She has been sprinting and hurdling for six years, and that is what developed her ability to jump. The world's best jumpers were all crack sprinters.

About the forthcoming USA-USSR meet, nearly everyone feels uncertain about forecasts. We tried to break down Olympic Coach Gavriil Korobkov. A sports writer always feels happier when he can quote some mogul. But all we got was: "Forecasting is your job. My job is to train athletes."

Trying a forecast on our own we would say: Both teams are going to be stronger than ever before. It's going to be a close fight for every point. Competition is going to be rough. But we can promise you that track-and-field history will be made in Moscow and that we shall see a further build-up of Soviet-American friendship and understanding.



Gennadi Volnov of the Soviet quintet jumps for the basket in the USA-USSR spring 1961 match.

USA-USSR SPORTS CONTACTS



"American Hercules" Jim Bradford visits the home of world's strongman Yuri Vlasov.



US doubles team Donald Dell-Francis Frank and the USSR's Ivan Moser-Sergei Potanin.

The USA-USSR hockey match at Geneva for the 1961 world title was a spectacular event.





